

Board of Education, England.

1. Special Reports on Educational
Subjects. Vol. 13. (ed. 2378)
1905. H. 345.

2., *ditto*.

ditto.

Vol. 23 — Education in Russia
(ed. 4812) H. 569. 1909.

Duplicate

BOARD OF EDUCATION.

SPECIAL REPORTS
ON
EDUCATIONAL SUBJECTS.

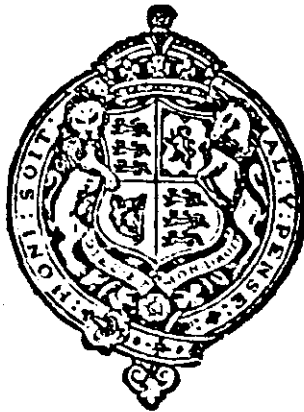
VOLUME 13.

**EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS OF THE CHIEF CROWN COLONIES
AND POSSESSIONS OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE, INCLUDING
REPORTS ON THE TRAINING OF NATIVE RACES.**

PART II.

**WEST AFRICA: BASUTOLAND: SOUTHERN RHODESIA:
EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE: UGANDA: MAURITIUS: SEYCHELLES.**

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



LONDON:

**PRINTED FOR HIS MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE
BY WYMAN & SONS, LIMITED, FETTER LANE, E.C.**

And to be purchased, either directly or through any Bookseller, from
WYMAN AND SONS, LTD., FETTER LANE, E.C.; and
22, ABINGDON STREET, WESTMINSTER, S.W.; or
OLIVER AND BOYD, EDINBURGH; or
E. PONSONBY, 116, GRAFTON STREET, DUBLIN.

1905.

PREFATORY NOTE TO VOLUMES 12, 13, 14
OF
SPECIAL REPORTS ON EDUCATIONAL SUBJECTS.

In the letters introductory to Volumes 4 and 5 of this Series of Reports on Educational Subjects, which dealt with the educational systems of the self-governing Colonies of the British Empire, the hope was expressed that at some future date it might be found possible to supplement those volumes by the publication of reports upon the educational systems of certain minor colonies and dependencies of the Empire. With the issue of the three volumes now published simultaneously this hope has been realised in a larger measure than was at first contemplated. The number of colonies reporting is greater than originally suggested, and the official reports which set forth the action taken by Government in relation to education have been supplemented by a collection of papers dealing with the efforts of missionary bodies to provide educational facilities for the native races among whom they are working.

Through the co-operation of the Colonial Office a circular letter requesting official information and suggesting certain heads of enquiry was addressed to the authorities of the following twenty-five colonies and dependencies:—Bahamas, Barbados, Leeward Islands, Windward Islands, Trinidad and Tobago, British Honduras, Bermuda, St. Helena, Cyprus, Gibraltar, Gambia, Gold Coast Colony, Lagos, Sierra Leone, Southern Nigeria, Basutoland, Orange River Colony, Transvaal Colony, Mauritius, Seychelles, Federated Malay States, Straits Settlements, Hong-Kong, Fiji, and the Falkland Islands. Replies have been received from twenty-one of these colonies.

Application was also made to the British South Africa Company and to the British North Borneo Company for information concerning Southern Rhodesia and British North Borneo and Labuan respectively. The British South Africa Company requested their former Inspector, Mr. H. E. D. Hammond, to prepare the report, which is published in Volume 13. The Chairman of the British North Borneo Company forwarded to the Board of Education a letter from the Governor stating that the only schools in the Colony were those maintained by the Mission of the Roman Catholic Church*, and of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in

* Some information about the work of the Roman Catholic Mission in Borneo will be found in the paper on Industrial Education in Catholic Missions, which appears in Volume 14.

Foreign Parts, and assisted by small Government grants. The Board desire to acknowledge with gratitude their indebtedness to the officials of these two chartered companies for the supply of the desired information.

In order to give greater completeness to this record of the experience gained through the action of the State in relation to the education of native races, a request was addressed to the Foreign Office asking that the Board might be favoured with information as to the educational conditions prevailing in the following Protectorates, which were under the administration of that office, viz. East Africa Protectorate, Central Africa Protectorate, and Uganda. Replies regarding the East Africa Protectorate and Uganda are published in Volume 13. H.M. Commissioner and Consul-General for British Central Africa replied that the time had not yet arrived for the establishment of any general system of native education in the Protectorate, and added that such education as was carried on was mostly in the hands of the various missions.

Before communicating with the Foreign Office the Board had realised the important part played by mission bodies of various denominations and nationalities in the education of the native races within the Empire, and had already approached many of the societies engaged in the prosecution of this work with a request for some statement as to the results of their experience. While the Board regret that from a variety of causes many promises of help from individuals and societies whose co-operation would have greatly added to the fulness and value of the present record have remained unfulfilled, they feel satisfaction in being able to publish the interesting series of papers which are included in the volumes, and they take this opportunity of offering their thanks to those persons who have assisted them. It will be noticed that four of the papers contain information about educational work undertaken by missions in India. It will, of course, be realised by all readers that these reports do not present an exhaustive account of the provision made in that great dependency for the education and training of natives for industrial and agricultural pursuits. Each of the provinces and chief native states of India has its own organised system of public education, which provides not only places of general education, but also many technical institutions admirably adapted to satisfy the needs of an industrial population. Further information as to these will be found in the Fourth Quinquennial Review (Progress of Education in India 1897-1898-1901-1902, 2 volumes, Cd. 2181, 2182) issued by the India Office in 1904, and in the annual reports on education issued by the various provinces.

In conclusion, the Board desire to express their cordial thanks to the officials of the colonies who have so kindly undertaken the preparation of the reports now published.

Office of Special Enquiries and Reports,
January, 1905.

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**THE
SYSTEM OF EDUCATION
IN THE
GOLD COAST COLONY.**

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THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN THE GOLD COAST COLONY.

I. HISTORICAL SKETCH.

There is one aspect in which in its earlier history European enterprise on the Western Coast of Africa differs from the colonising efforts made by the same nations in other parts of the world. In these latter instances the ultimate object was to found colonies, to take permanent possession of the land and to develop the resources of the new settlements; but in West Africa the earlier adventurers were in no way concerned with projects of this nature, they simply bargained with the natives for certain objects of commerce, and only erected such forts and trading stations as the necessities of this intercourse demanded. In some cases they even recognised the proprietary rights of the natives by the payment of rent for the ground on which these settlements stood, and their jurisdiction in nearly every case was limited by the walls of their stations.

The first of these settlements was the fort of Elmina, built by the Portuguese about the year 1480, some six years before Bartholomew Diaz rounded the Cape, and some twelve years before Columbus landed in the New World. This discovery most vitally affected the future of West Africa, and its fate for the next 300 years was most intimately connected with that of the New World. The link which bound them thus closely together was the slave trade. This commerce proved so profitable that all the sea-going nations of Europe—Portuguese, French, English, Hollanders, Danes and Prussians—sought to obtain some share in it. At some period or another all these Powers held trading stations on the Guinea Coast.

The English voyages to West Africa began about the middle of the sixteenth century; in the year of the Armada the first English West African Company was formed, but the earliest settlement on the Gold Coast, Cormantine, was not founded till 1618. At that date the chief power lay with the Portuguese, but some twenty years later they were ousted by the Dutch, who, together with the French and the Danes, continued to be our chief rivals in this unholy traffic.

With the abolition of slavery in 1807 the situation was fundamentally changed. The *raison d'être* of these trading stations was practically gone, and they might have been abandoned, if the execution of a plan for the severing of ties which had existed for 200 years had been as easy as its conception. As a matter of fact, the English Government was forced to assume more practical responsibility than heretofore, and in 1821 took over the administration of the British settlements on the Gold Coast,

placing them under the authority of the government of Sierra Leone. These changes coincided more or less closely with the development of the Ashanti power, and the expense entailed by the local wars between 1824 and 1827 rendered the Government still more disposed to withdraw from the Gold Coast. Total evacuation was, however, impossible, so the management of the settlements was left nominally in the hands of the merchants, though in reality the responsibility still rested with the Government.

It is interesting to note that it was exactly during these years, when direct Government control was removed, that there was established in fact a protectorate over the tribes which dwelt between the coast line and the Ashanti kingdom—chiefly through the energy of the Governor, Captain George Maclean, whose efficient administration and equal justice won the confidence of the natives. In 1842, in consequence of certain complaints of misconduct, the question of the administration of the Gold Coast was considered by a Select Committee of the House of Commons. As a result of the Committee's report the Government again assumed direct responsibility, and determined to regulate the informal system of jurisdiction over the neighbouring tribes, which had grown up under Maclean's administration. The Colony, though nominally dependent on Sierra Leone, was administered by its own Lieutenant-Governor, and in 1850—the year of the purchase of the Danish forts—even this slight connection was removed.

In the English Parliament attention was once more drawn to the Gold Coast by the Ashanti wars of 1853 and 1863, and by the difficulties experienced in raising a sufficient income, since direct native taxation was considered inexpedient, and the presence of the Dutch, who still held the old Portuguese settlements, rendered an efficient customs service impossible. A Select Committee reported in 1865, which, while severely condemning all attempts at further expansion, clearly recognised the impossibility of withdrawal. The chief result of their deliberations was that the Gold Coast was once more attached to Sierra Leone.

In the years that followed certain agreements were made between this country and Holland, under which the Gold Coast was first divided between them, and then the Dutch forts and stations were finally ceded to Great Britain. This transference is held to have been the direct cause of the most serious war with the Ashantis which had yet arisen; Sir Garnet Wolseley was sent out to command the British troops, and through his efforts the power of the Ashanti kingdom was broken. One result of this war was the separation of Lagos and the Gold Coast from Sierra Leone; the union of the two easterly Colonies continued till 1886, when each was placed under an independent Government.

In the old days of the slave trade it was the custom of the traders to foster the rivalries and wars of the native tribes, by which they profited. Under the present régime of international competition for more legitimate commercial intercourse, it is equally necessary to keep peace among the natives. This necessity, and the fact

that under this same stress of international rivalry the old prejudice against expansion has to some extent disappeared, have led to the absorption of the Ashanti kingdom by the Gold Coast Colony. The last king, Prempeh, was deposed in 1896, and a formal protectorate over his kingdom established in that year. After further troubles, during which the Governor was besieged in Kumassi in 1900, the kingdom was definitely annexed. In the meantime the territories lying behind the Ashanti kingdom had also been recognised as within the British sphere. They are not at present incorporated in the Gold Coast Colony, nor are the exact boundaries strictly determined.

II. PRIMARY EDUCATION.

The system at present in force dates from 1887, during the administration of the late Sir Wm. Brandford Griffith, when an Ordinance was passed for the "Promotion and Assistance of Education in the Gold Coast Colony." (See Appendix A.) There had been previous legislation with a similar view, in 1852, 1877, and 1882, but these Acts do not seem to have been very successful in encouraging the spread of education on the Coast, their chief results being the foundation of two purely Government schools and the granting of slight monetary help, on the lump system, to the various Missionary Societies which were at the time labouring in the Colony. Act of 1887.

By the Act of 1887 a Board of Education was established; this constitutes the central authority, and consists of the Governor, the members of the Legislative Council, and other members, not exceeding eight in number, nominated by the Governor. These latter members are selected from the European representatives of the different Missions and from the leading native professional gentlemen; at present (April, 1901) there are only five elective members sitting on the Board. Central Authority.

The chief executive officer of the Board is the Director of Education.

The Board makes and amends, as required, all rules necessary for the effectual carrying out of the Ordinance; awards, on the report of the Director of Education or Inspector of Schools, "grants-in-aid" to Assisted Schools; and grants certificates of competency to teachers.

The schools are divided into two classes—Government and Assisted. The former, seven in number, have been established and are maintained solely by Government. Assisted Schools, 131 in number, have been founded by the Mission Societies, and receive annual grants towards their support. There are also in connection with the Missions a large number of small schools, which, not having a daily average attendance of twenty, do not receive any aid. Classification of schools.

The schools are all native, there being no European children in the Colony.

The primary object of the Act being to encourage the spread

of English throughout the Colony, there is no provision for vernacular schools, nor are there any that can be rightly termed as such.

The leading Missions represented on the Coast are the Wesleyan Methodist, the Basel (German Protestant), and the Roman Catholic (French).

There is no system of local management as that term is usually understood; in the majority of cases the only person in the towns and villages where schools have been established, in any way capable of taking a part in the management of a school, is the master himself.

The sphere of each Mission is divided into districts, the schools in each being under the control of an ordained member of the society represented. These managers are either European or native, and have full power to appoint and dismiss teachers, fix salaries, etc., without any reference to the Board of Education. That the system is far from satisfactory is at once evident from the fact that in some cases the manager has to travel for three weeks in order to pay one short visit to each of the schools for which he is responsible. But unsatisfactory as the arrangement is, under present circumstances it is, and will be for some considerable time, the only one possible.

Attendance at school is in no way compulsory, but no attendance is recognised for any child under four years of age. In 1900 the total number of children enrolled in Government and Assisted Schools was 11,996, and the average daily attendance was 8,911. The number presented for examination was 10,329, of whom 1,446 or 14 per cent. were from the Government Schools. There were also about 1,000 children enrolled in the smaller schools, i.e., those receiving no assistance.

The total number of children returned as attending school was thus barely 1 per cent. of the estimated population of the Colony. In 1886—the year previous to the passing of the present Act—the number of children attending school was 3,513, and the average attendance was 2,629.

In the two larger Government Schools at Accra and Cape Coast a fee of sixpence per month for children in the Standards, and threepence per month for infant children, is charged. The majority of the Mission Schools are free, but in a few cases a fee varying from one shilling to ten shillings per quarter is paid. The following table shows the amount of fees collected during the years 1898–1902.

	Government Schools.			Assisted Schools.			Total.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1898	176	5	5	449	11	10	625	17	3
1899	207	14	0	627	9	6	835	3	6
1900	210	12	3	536	10	8	747	2	11
1902	261	19	6	552	1	8	814	2	2

The average annual payment of each child who attended school during 1900 was 1s. 2d.

In 1892 a qualified English master was appointed to organise and take charge of the Government Schools, and in 1895 another similar appointment was made. These offices have, unfortunately, been filled only at intermittent periods, owing principally to the inability of the men appointed to withstand the trying climate of West Africa. In nine of the Assisted Schools instruction is given by Europeans. With these exceptions teachers are all natives of the Colony, and are initially drawn from amongst the scholars who have succeeded in passing the highest Standard admitted in the Primary Schools. After serving a few years as junior teachers, many of these men sit for the examination prescribed by the Department for a teacher's certificate, and the successful candidates (and occasionally the unsuccessful) are placed in charge of small Mission Schools. Teachers.

The Basel Mission have two institutions where, after passing through the Primary Schools, students are admitted to a further course of instruction for two or four years, but as these seminaries are primarily intended for the training of evangelists, they can hardly be regarded as training institutions for teachers, although a number of the students who only stay for the two years' course do eventually enter the teaching profession.

A scheme for the establishment of a Government Training College is at present under consideration.

As a rule the youth of the Colony who has passed with credit through the school does not view teaching as his future work with much favour, and this chiefly because he finds that in the various other fields of labour he can obtain a much higher salary than would be the case if his energies were devoted to the educational advancement of his compatriots. Except in the Government Schools where the principal native teacher receives from £100 to £150 per annum, salaries of headmasters are relatively very low, ranging as they do from £1 (the pay of an ordinary Coast labourer) to £5 per month—the former rate of pay being by no means uncommon, whilst the latter is decidedly so.*

The work of inspection is undertaken by the Director of Education, who is assisted by one Inspector of Schools. All schools receiving grants-in-aid are visited annually by one of these officers for the purpose of examination, due notice of the visit being given to the managers. Assisted Schools are open at any time to the officers of the Department, and visits without notice are made as frequently as possible; these surprise visits, however, cannot be made as often as desirable, Inspection

* In future monetary grants will be paid to teachers holding certificates; to holders of third-class certificates £4 annually, provided they receive a minimum salary of £20; second-class certificates, £5 annually, provided they receive a minimum salary of £30; first-class certificates, £6 annually, provided they receive a minimum salary of £30.

owing to the want of a more rapid means of transit—all journeys having to be made by hammock. An idea of the time taken up in travelling may be gathered from the fact that some of the schools receiving assistance are from six to eight days' journey from headquarters, and it is no uncommon thing to find a journey of twelve to sixteen hours (representing a day and a half's travelling) necessary to reach the school next on the Inspector's list.

nce. In 1900 the Government expenditure on education was approximately £7,000; of this amount £3,679 11s. 1d. was voted as grants-in-aid to the Mission societies (in 1886 this vote amounted to £425), the remainder represents the cost of maintaining the purely Government Schools and the executive branch of the Department. The total cost to the various Mission societies, as returned by them, was £2,120 16s. 2d., or three-fourths of the amount contributed by the Government for the support of the Assisted Schools.

Voluntary subscriptions amounting to £370 2s. 10d. were in 1900 received by the different societies.

ious action. In the Government Schools instruction is unsectarian; the first half hour each morning is devoted to Bible reading with simple explanations of passages read, and the school is opened with hymn and prayer. In the Aided Schools religious instruction of a denominational character may be given, but of this the Government takes no cognisance, the only stipulation being that absence from such instruction shall not debar a child from attending any school receiving State aid.

stics. The following table gives the number of schools under inspection, attendance, and grants-in-aid from 1890-1902:—

	Schools under Inspection.			No. of Scholars on Roll and in Average Attendance.		Grants-in-Aid to Assisted Schools.		
	Government.	Assisted.	Total.					
1890-1	5	49	54	5,076	3,641	£	s.	d.
1891-2	5	69	74	6,866	4,847	1,873	14	0
1892-3	6	66	72	7,350	5,195	2,170	17	6
1893-4	5	70	75	7,689	5,828	2,394	14	0
1894-5	7	93	100	9,954	7,570	3,179	6	0
1895-6	6	109	115	11,205	8,558	3,400	11	0
1897	7	111	118	—	8,478	3,441	9	8
1898	7	112	119	11,181	8,369	3,432	13	11
1899	7	123	130	12,240	9,239	4,129	11	5
1900	7	131	138	11,996	8,911	3,879	11	1
1902	7	117	124	12,136	8,938	3,875	11	5

III.—SECONDARY AND HIGHER EDUCATION.

The following remarks are taken from the report of the Director of Education for 1900 :—

“ Of Higher or Secondary Education there is very little. The training seminaries of the Basel Mission may be said to be the only attempts at an education other than merely elementary. The standard of the schools from which the candidates for training are taken is not at present sufficiently high to enable the work done at these institutions to be of a very advanced order. It will be time enough to think of establishing schools for higher education when the Elementary Schools are in a satisfactory condition, and that will largely depend on the success of our endeavours to secure a better class of teachers.”

In 1894 a scheme for the establishment of Government Scholarships for the encouragement of Higher Education was instituted, but up to the present time it has not been operated, no candidate having been able to pass the required examination. A copy of the scheme will be found in Appendix C.

Provision
for High
Educatic

IV.—TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

In 1897 a school for instruction in carpentry was established in connection with the Accra Government School and a qualified European instructor appointed to take charge. Attendance at these classes is not restricted to Government School children, scholars in the higher Standards in the local Mission School being allowed to join. A second school, on similar lines, is shortly to be opened at Cape Coast, where in connection with the Wesleyan Mission there is already a school, under native superintendence, giving instruction in blacksmith's work.

Most of the schools in the interior have connected with them small plantations where coffee, cocoa, sisal hemp, or other suitable products are cultivated by the scholars. With a view to the improvement of agricultural instruction classes both theoretical and practical are shortly to be instituted at the Government Botanical Station ; instruction will be given by the curator, and the classes open to all teachers or intending teachers.

F. WRIGHT,
Inspector of Schools.

May, 1901.

APPENDIX A.

THE EDUCATION ORDINANCE, 1887.

(No. 14 OF 1887.)

AN ORDINANCE FOR THE PROMOTION AND ASSISTANCE OF EDUCATION
IN THE GOLD COAST COLONY.

1 of
ation. 1. There shall be a Board of Education in the Gold Coast Colony, which Board shall consist of the Governor, of the members of the Legislative Council, and of such other members, not exceeding eight in number, who may be nominated by the Governor.

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im. 2. The Governor, or in his absence such other member as he may think fit to appoint in writing, shall be president of the Board. The president and three members of the Board, one of whom shall be a member of the Legislative Council, shall form a quorum. The president, in addition to his vote as a member of the Board, shall have a casting vote in case the opinions of the members are equally divided.

intment
pector. 3. It shall be lawful for the Governor, subject to the approval of one of Her Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State, to appoint some fit and proper person to be Inspector of Schools. The Governor may also from time to time appoint such other officers as may be deemed necessary for carrying this Ordinance into effect.

rs of
d. 4. Subject to the provisions of this Ordinance the Board of Education may, from time to time, make, alter, amend or revoke rules with regard to the examination of schools and of persons to be employed as teachers under this Ordinance; for classifying certificates to be given to such teachers; for determining the capitation grants, which shall be paid as a contribution towards the remuneration of the teachers of schools entitled to grants-in-aid; for regulating the application for and the allowance of grants-in-aid to schools; for regulating the terms on which any minister of religion may have access to any Government school for the purpose of giving religious instruction to the children of the religious denomination to which such minister may belong; and generally, all other rules as may be found necessary for the more effectual carrying out the provisions of this Ordinance; And all such rules, alterations, amendments and revocations shall, on being approved by the Governor, and on publication in the *Gazette*, have the same effect as if the same had been made by Ordinance subject to disallowance by Her Majesty.

ary
ls. 5. Schools of primary education shall be divided into two classes: First, Government schools or schools established by the Government and entirely maintained from the funds of the Colony; and, secondly, assisted schools or schools established by private persons to which aid may be contributed from the public funds.

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ls. 6. Direct religious teaching shall not form part of the instruction to be given in any Government school.

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ls. 7. Assisted schools shall, on being allowed by the Board of Education, be enabled to receive aid from the public funds of the Colony on the following conditions:—

- (1) That the control and management of such schools be vested in one or more managers who shall have power to appoint, dismiss, and fix the salaries of the teachers of such schools. Condit under 'granted for whu purpos
- (2) That such managers be responsible for the payment of the salaries of the teachers and for all other expenses of such schools, and also for keeping the school buildings in a state of repair, and in good sanitary condition : provided that in case of the non-performance of any of the conditions in this sub-section it shall be lawful for the Board of Education during the continuance of such non-performance to reduce or altogether to withdraw the grants-in-aid of such schools.
- (3) That the present teachers of such schools do obtain within three years from the commencement of this Ordinance a certificate from the Board of Education, and that every teacher hereafter appointed shall hold a certificate from the Board, that he has satisfied the Board as to his competency. These certificates may be honorary or obtained by examination.
- (4) That the schools be open to children without distinction of religion or race.
- (5) That the subjects taught include reading and writing of the English language, arithmetic, and, in case of females, plain needlework. Grammar of the English language, English history, geography, especially of the British Empire, may also be taught or not at the option of the managers ; provided that, if taught, they shall be taught as class subjects.
- (6) That no child receive any religious instruction objected to by the parent or guardian of such child, or be present when such instruction is given.
- (7) That the schools be open at all times to inspection by the Inspector of Schools or by any person appointed by him in writing, or by any member of the Board of Education, or by any District Commissioner, or by any person approved by the Governor.

8. By managers shall be understood all members of the local governing boards of any society, body, or corporation taking part in the educational work of this Colony : provided that, in all cases, correspondence shall be maintained with, and payments made to, the representative of any such society, body, or corporation, or such other person as may be authorised in writing by such representative. Manage definitic term.

9. Managers shall have power to appoint local managers, who shall be directly responsible to the said managers, who, in turn, shall be directly responsible to the Board of Education for the maintenance and efficiency of their schools. Power o manage; appoint manage

10. No school shall receive any grant-in-aid unless the average attendance of pupils has been at least twenty for each day the school has been open during the period for which the grant is payable. Average attenda

11. The managers of every assisted school shall submit yearly accounts of revenue (from whatever source derived) and expenditure to the Inspector of Schools for the information and satisfaction of the Board of Education ; and no school shall be placed on the list of assisted schools unless a detailed tabular statement of the revenue of the school from all sources be furnished, together with the expenditure incurred under every head during the twelve months preceding the date of application. Financie responsi bility of manager

12. Schools in which a proportion of the pupils, to be fixed by the Board of Education, devote not less than ten hours a week to manual labour on a regular and approved plan, shall be considered to be industrial schools. Industrie schools.

Manual labour shall be understood to mean any kind of handicraft, manufacturing process, or agricultural work, and, in the case of females, household work.

13. Any school receiving aid from public funds shall be bound to receive pauper children, who may be assigned to it by the Government, in such numbers and upon such terms as may be decided on by the Board of Education.

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14. Nothing in this Ordinance contained shall be construed to debar the Governor from establishing schools under the entire control of the Government, or maintaining any such school already established, and, in such case, the Governor may fix the salaries of the teachers of such schools definitely or partly at a definite amount and partly by grants in proportion to the results attained or wholly in proportion to the results attained.

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tions.
15. A grant from public funds, the amount of which shall be fixed from time to time by the Board of Education, may be made to any training college, school, or institution, in which teachers are especially trained, for every teacher who shall obtain a certificate from the Board of Education that he has satisfied the Board as to his competency: provided that every such teacher shall have received at least two years' instruction in such training college, school, or institution, and shall give a bond to the Governor to teach, either in a Government school, or school receiving a grant-in-aid, for a period of five years.

title. 16. This Ordinance may be cited as "The Education Ordinance, 1887."

APPENDIX B.

RULES.

PASSED BY THE BOARD OF EDUCATION AND APPROVED BY THE GOVERNOR UNDER SECTION 4 OF THE EDUCATION ORDINANCE, 1887. [1898.]

PRELIMINARY CHAPTER.

ion
ment.
1. A sum of money is annually granted from the Funds of the Colony for "grants in aid of schools," and is administered by the Board of Education, under the title of the Education Department, hereinafter called the Department.

of
2. The object of this grant is to aid in maintaining :—
(a) Elementary Schools, and in
(b) Training Teachers.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTORY.

ntary
3. The term "Elementary School" means a school or department of a school at which elementary education is the principal part of the education there given.

able.
4. The time or times during which any religious observance is practised, or instruction in religious subjects is given at any meeting of the school, shall be either at the beginning or at the end or at the beginning and the end of such meeting, and shall be inserted in a Time Table to be approved by the Director of Education at his annual visit, and to be kept permanently and conspicuously affixed in every schoolroom.

open
pec-
5. The school shall be open at all times to the inspection of the Director of Education or his representative, so, however, that it shall be no part of

the duties of such officer to inquire into any instruction in religious subjects given at such schools, or to examine any scholar therein in religious knowledge, or in any religious subject or book.

6. The school shall be conducted in accordance with the conditions hereinafter set forth, in order to obtain an annual grant. Conditio
of annu
grant.

7. The term "Director of Education" means the person duly appointed to that office, or any officer appointed to act in such capacity. Director
Educati

8. The term "Managers" includes all persons who have the management of any Elementary School. Manage

9. The Managers are held responsible by the Department for the conduct of their schools, for their maintenance in efficiency, and for the provision of all needful furniture, books, and apparatus and in particular of— Duties c
manage

(a) Suitable registers.

(b) A portfolio to contain official letters.

(c) A diary or log-book.

(d) A cash book.

(e) The School Rules for the time being in force.

10. The log-book must be stoutly bound and must contain not less than 300 ruled pages. It must be kept by the principal teacher, who is required to enter in it from time to time such events as the introduction of new books, apparatus, or courses of instruction, any plan of lessons approved by the Director of Education, the visits of managers, absence, illness, or failure of duty on the part of any of the school staff, or any special circumstances affecting the school, that may, for the sake of future reference or for any other reason, deserve to be recorded. Log boo

No reflections or opinions of a general character are to be entered in the log-book.

11. The Managers are required to appoint a correspondent with the Department for each group of schools, who must not be any paid teacher in the school. Notice should at once be given to the Department of any change of correspondent occurring during the school year. Correspo
dent to
appointe

N.B.—All letters should be addressed—

On His Majesty's Service.

The Director of Education,
Education Department,
Accra.

12. An attendance means attendance at secular instruction :—

Attenda

(a) During one hour and a half in the case of a day scholar in a school or class for infants;

(b) During two hours in the case of a day scholar in a school or class for older children;

(c) During two consecutive hours in the case of a half-time scholar.

(d) The class register must be marked and finally closed before the minimum time constituting an attendance begins. If any scholar entered in the register as attending is withdrawn from school before the time constituting an attendance is complete, the entry of attendance should be at once cancelled.

(e) The minimum time constituting an attendance may include an interval for recreation of not more than fifteen minutes in a meeting of two hours, and not more than ten minutes in a shorter meeting.

(f) In making up the minimum time constituting an attendance, there may be reckoned time occupied by instruction in any of the following subjects, whether or not it is given in the school premises or by the ordinary teachers of the schools, provided

14 *The System of Education in the Gold Coast Colony.*

that special and appropriate provision, approved by the Director of Education, is made for such instruction, and the time for giving it is entered in the approved time table :—

- (1) Drawing.
- (2) Industrial Instruction.
- (3) Suitable Physical Exercises.
- (4) Military Drill (for Boys).
- (5) Practical Housework (for Girls).

dance
four
of age.
13. No attendance is recognised in an Elementary School for any child under four years of age, or for any scholar who has passed Standard VII.

ge
ance.
14. The "average attendance" for any period is found by dividing the total number of "attendances" made during that period by the number of times for which the school has met during such period.

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ecific
ts of
tion.
15. The subjects of instruction for which grants are made are the following :—

(a) Optional subjects, taken by classes throughout the school :—

Singing.
Drawing.
Geography.
History
Grammar.
Elementary Science.
Industrial Instruction (including household work in the case of schools for Girls).

} Hereinafter called the
"Class Subjects."

c
ts.
(b) Specific subjects :—

Bookkeeping.
Shorthand.
Mensuration.

onal
ts.
16. Any subject, other than those mentioned in Article 15 (b), may, if sanctioned by the Department, be taken as a Class Subject, provided that a graduated scheme for teaching it be submitted to, and approved by, the Department.

ts.
17. Instruction may also be given in other secular subjects and religious subjects, but no grant is made in respect of any such instruction.

CHAPTER II.

INSPECTION.

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tion.
18. The Director of Education, or his representative, is employed to visit the schools in the Colony, to examine whether the conditions of annual grants have been fulfilled, and to report the result to the Department for the information of the Governor. He will also advise the Government upon education in the Colony generally.

ation
nt.
19. No school is placed on the list of schools in receipt of annual grants, hereinafter called "The Annual Grant List," until an application has been addressed to the Director of Education, Accra, and a form of preliminary statement has been filled up and sent to him by the Managers, to be submitted to the Department, such application to be made before the 1st August.

N.B.—Any school from which the entire annual grant is withheld is at once removed from the Annual Grant List, and cannot be replaced on that list until a fresh application has been addressed to the Department through the Director of Education.

20. When a school is placed upon the Annual Grant List the Director of School Education will inform the Managers in what month to look for the annual visit. This month will, as far as possible, continue the same from year to year. Notice of the annual visit of inspection is given at least seven days beforehand to the Managers.

21. The Director of Education or his representative may visit an Elementary School in receipt of a Grant-in-Aid at any time without notice. Visits
without notice

22. The school year ends with the last day of the quarter preceding that fixed for the annual visit of inspection. School year

23. The Managers are supplied with a form of annual return and examination schedules, which they are required to have ready by the day fixed for the annual visit of inspection when they must also produce for inspection the registers, portfolio, log-book and cash book of the school. The returns furnished by the Managers shall be for the school year. Managers
returns
Schedules

24. The summary of the report of the Director of Education after the annual visit or any visit made without notice, and any remarks made upon it by the Department, must, as soon as communicated to the Managers, be copied verbatim into the log-book and signed by the Manager. Summary
report.

25. After the summary of the report of the Director of Education has been copied verbatim into the log-book, the report itself must be filed in the school portfolio for preservation and future reference. Filing of
report.

CHAPTER III.

TEACHERS.

26. The teachers recognised by the Department are :—

- (a) Pupil Teachers.
- (b) Assistant Teachers.
- (c) Certificated Teachers.

Classes of
Teachers

Pupil Teachers.

27. A pupil teacher is a boy or girl engaged by the Managers of an Elementary School by a binding contract in writing on condition of teaching during school hours under the superintendence of the principal teacher, and receiving suitable instruction. Pupil-
teachers.

28. The Managers are bound to see that the pupil teacher is properly instructed during the engagement, and the conditions of the engagement of a pupil teacher must be arranged between the Managers and the pupil teacher. Agreement

29. Pupil teachers must be not less than fourteen years of age at the beginning of their engagement. Age.

30. The length of the engagement should be not less than three years. Length of
engagement

31. At the termination of their engagement pupil teachers are free to choose their employment. If they wish to continue in the profession of elementary school teachers they may, under the conditions stated in the following articles, become assistant teachers. End of
engagement

32. Pupil teachers who have completed their engagement with credit and persons who have passed the certificate examination may be recognised as assistant teachers. Assistant
teachers.

Certificated Teachers.

33. Candidates for certificates must, subject to Rule 39, pass the examination prescribed by the Department. Certificate
teachers.

34. The examination for certificates, of which due notice will be given, will be held annually. Examina-
tion.

- abus. 35. The syllabus of subjects will be found in Schedule F.
- ses of 36. The certificates issued will be of three classes, viz., first, second and
ificates. third.
- ing of 37. A second-class certificate may be raised to that of the first-class after
ificates. the receipt of five annual satisfactory reports from the Director of Educa-
tion. Certificates of the third class may be raised by re-examination only.
- luction 38. All teachers holding certificates from the Department are required
rti- to produce them for endorsement to the Director of Education or his repre-
es. sentative at the annual inspection of the school.
- orary 39. Honorary local certificates may from time to time be granted without
ificates. examination, at the discretion of the Department.
- all or 40. A certificate may at any time be recalled or suspended, but not until
ension of the Department has informed the teacher of the charges against him, and
ificates. has given him an opportunity of exculpating himself.
- ol Staff. 41. The recognised teachers employed in any school form the school staff.
- lement 42. As soon as the report of the Director of Education has been received,
taff. a list of the school staff at that date must be entered in the log-book. An
entry must also be made of any change in the school staff occurring during
the year.
- imum 43. In estimating the minimum school staff required, the Department
f. considers the principal certificated teacher to be sufficient for an average daily
attendance of fifty, each assistant teacher for an average daily attendance of
forty, and each pupil teacher for an average daily attendance of thirty
scholars.

CHAPTER IV.

ANNUAL GRANTS.

Conditions.

- ditions 44. The conditions required to be fulfilled by a school in order to obtain
grant. an annual grant, are those set forth in these Rules.
- ol and 45. The school must be conducted as an Elementary School, except as
entary provided in Rule 73.
ol.
- e-table 46. The time table for the school should be approved by the Director of
e Education or his representative on behalf of the Department.
- oved. 47. The Managers must be responsible for the payment of teachers and all
other expenses of the school.
- possibi- 48. The principal teacher should be certificated.
of the
agers.
- her 49. The school must have met not less than 300 times during the year,
ificated. and the average daily attendance of the scholars must be not less than twenty
for that period.
- imum 50. The Department must be satisfied—
ber of
ings.
- ditions as 51. (a) That the school premises are healthy, are properly constructed,
remises, lighted, cleaned, drained, ventilated, supplied with suitable
, furni- offices, and that they contain sufficient accommodation for the
, and scholars attending the school, that the school staff is sufficient,
aratus. and that the school is properly provided with furniture, books,
maps, and other apparatus for elementary instruction.

N^oB.—The accommodation will be deemed sufficient if it provides 80 cubic feet of internal space, and 8 square feet of internal area for each unit of the average daily attendance.

- (b) That, as far as relates to grants to an infant school or class, the infants are taught suitably to their age, and so as not to interfere with the instruction of the older scholars in the same school. Instruction of Infants.
- (c) That the admission and daily attendance of the scholars are duly and carefully registered by or under the supervision of the principal teacher, and periodically verified by the Managers. Keeping of Registers.
- (d) That accounts of income and expenditure are accurately kept by the Managers, and duly audited, and that statistical returns are accurate. Keeping of accounts.
- (e) That the principal teacher is not allowed to undertake duties not connected with the school, that may occupy any part whatever of the school hours. Employment of teacher.

51. The school must be efficient.

School to be efficient.

52. All returns called for by the Department or the Director of Education must be duly made.

Managers' returns.

53. The income of an Elementary School must be applied only for the purpose of Elementary Education.

Application of income.

54. In cases where any of the foregoing conditions are not fulfilled, the Department has power, after considering all the circumstances, to withhold a portion of the grant not exceeding one-half, and to give a warning to the Managers that the grant may be withheld altogether in the following year

Power to withhold the grant.

Commencement of Grant.

55. The annual grant to a school begins to run from the date on which the school is placed upon the Annual Grant List by the Department.

Commencement of Grant.

56. The annual grant becomes due at the end of the school year, and should be paid as soon as may be, after the annual inspection, to the Managers of the school. When the Inspector's visit is delayed for more than three months, an instalment of the grant, not exceeding one-third of the amount of the last grant, or in the case of a school which has not already been inspected, of the amount of grant estimated to be earned, may, with the approval of the Governor, be paid, on the recommendation of the Director of Education.

Date of payment of grant.

57. The annual grant is made up of several grants, which, with their amounts, are enumerated in the following rules.

Total grant.

Grants to Infant Schools or Classes.

58. Subject to Rule 13 grants are made to infant schools or classes under this and the two following rules.

Grants to infant schools or classes.

N.B.—The sub-standards are to be counted as part of the infant school or class in every respect.

59. The grants made to infant schools and classes are as follows:—

- (a) A fixed grant, calculated on the average daily attendance, of the scholars are taught in a separate branch of a school under a certificated teacher, or as a class under a teacher not less than eighteen years of age approved by the Director of Education. Fixed grant.

In order that this grant may be made, the scholars must be taught in a room properly constructed and furnished for the instruction of infants. Condition of grant.

- (b) A fixed grant, calculated upon the average daily attendance, of the scholars where the above special conditions are not satisfied.

variable
grant.

(c) A grant, calculated upon the average daily attendance, of 2s. or 3s. if the Director of Education is in a position to report that provision has been made for (1) suitable instruction in elementary subjects; (2) simple lessons on objects and on the phenomena of every-day life, and simple school songs and games.

The Director of Education will recommend the 3s. grant when the above requirements are thoroughly well fulfilled, and reports that the discipline is satisfactory.

The 2s. grant will be recommended when the requirements are fairly well fulfilled, and the discipline is satisfactory.

Examination of Infant Schools or Classes.

rules of
examination.

60. The following rules are to be observed:—

(a) All scholars above four years of age whose names are on the registers must be present at the inspection unless there is a reasonable excuse for their absence.

(b) All scholars present above four years of age are liable to be examined.

(c) No schedules are required for infant scholars.

Grants to Schools for Older Scholars.

average
attendance
grant.

61. An average attendance grant of 2s. for each scholar, for the average number of scholars shown by the school registers to have been in attendance during the year.

examination
grant.

62. A grant of 6s. for each scholar present at the annual inspection, who shall pass in reading, writing, and arithmetic, according to the conditions in Schedule A. Failure in one subject will reduce this grant to 4s., and failure in two subjects will reduce this grant to 2s.

organisation
and discipline
grant.

63. A grant of 6d. or 1s. for discipline and organisation, calculated upon the average attendance.

needlework
grant.

64. A grant of 1s. or 2s. for needlework, calculated upon the average attendance, if the girls are satisfactorily taught needlework according to Schedule D.

class-subject
grant.

65. A grant on examination in class subjects, with the exception of singing and industrial instruction for which special provision is made, of 1s. or 2s. per head, for each subject taken, calculated upon the average attendance of the Standard taking such subject.

singing
grant.

66. A grant for singing, calculated upon the average attendance, of 1s. if the scholars are satisfactorily taught to sing by note, either by the old notation or the tonic sol-fa method; or 6d. if they are satisfactorily taught to sing by ear, according to Schedule E.

grant for
industrial
instruction.

67. A grant for industrial instruction, calculated upon the average attendance, of 10s. for each scholar in and above Standard III, and 5s. for each scholar in Standards I. and II. The plan of such instruction must be approved by the Department and must provide employment for at least ten hours of the week.

Separate registration must be kept of scholars receiving such instruction.

grants to
teachers.

68. A grant, according to the following scale, will be made to the Managers of the school to which [the teacher] belongs.

- (a) For a certificate of the first class - - - - - £5
- (b) For a certificate of the second class gained by the head teacher of a school - - - - - £3
- (c) For a certificate of the second class gained by an assistant teacher of a school - - - - - £2
- (d) For a certificate of the third class - - - - - £1

69. To each successful candidate who passes the examination for a Grants of certificate, a grant of books of the following value will be made :— books.

1. For a third class certificate - - - - - £1 10s.
2. For a second class certificate - - - - - £2 10s.
3. For a first class certificate - - - - - £4 0s.

Special Grant for School House and Furniture.

70. A grant equal to one-fourth of the sum shown by the Managers Grant for of a school supported by voucher to the satisfaction of the Department school-hou to have been expended in the maintenance of the buildings, furniture, furniture, and apparatus of the school during the year, may be annually awarded in respect of such school.

In the case of a school newly established or enlarged one-eighth of the cost of the building or enlargement, furniture and apparatus may, under the same conditions, be awarded.

The term "apparatus" is intended to include maps, diagrams, pictures, black-boards, easels, ball-frames, kindergarten material and books mentioned in Rule 9.

71. In the case of a new school building, it will have to be shown to New schoo the satisfaction of the Department that the school has a sufficient staff (Rule 43), and has been provided with suitable furniture and a sufficient number of books, maps and other apparatus for the scholars under instruction. The Director of Education must be in a position to say that the school premises are properly constructed, lighted and ventilated, and that adequate and proper latrine accommodation has been provided.

72. The following notes are added for the information of Managers :—

In planning a school the first thing to be considered is the seating of Notes upon the children in the best manner for being taught. The second point is planning a to group the rooms together in a compact and convenient manner. The school. accommodation is calculated by the number of children seated at desks and benches. Separate entrances should be provided for each department, i.e., for boys, girls, and infants (this does not apply to mixed schools). Class-rooms should not be passage-rooms from one part of the building to another. Each should be easily cleared without disturbance to any other room. The light should as far as possible, and especially in class-rooms, be admitted from the left side of the scholars (in cases where a left light is impossible a right light is next best). Windows should reach nearly to the wall-plate, so as to provide suitable ventilation. Separate latrines should be provided for boys and girls, and arrangements must be made for their being kept scrupulously clean.

73. A grant under these Rules may be made to any High School, Grammar School, or Secondary School, provided such school has been Grant to High Schoo admitted to the list of the Assisted Schools of the Colony by the Department. Such grant shall be paid on the following scheme, viz:—

- £1 per head calculated on the average attendance for a school classed as "Fair."
- £2 per head calculated on the average attendance for a school classed as "Good."

74. These rules shall come into force on the first day of January, 1898, and on and from that date all rules made previously by the Board of Education, under the Education Ordinance No. 14, 1887, shall be revoked, but not so as to affect any right, obligation, or liability acquired or incurred under the rules revoked.

CHAPTER V.
SCHEDULES OF EXAMINATION.
SCHEDULE A.
OBLIGATORY SUBJECTS FOR OLDER SCHOLARS.

SUBJECT.	STANDARD I.	STANDARD II.	STANDARD III.	STANDARD IV.	STANDARD V.	STANDARD VI.	STANDARD VII.
READING .	To read a short paragraph from a book not confined to words of one syllable.	To read a short paragraph from an elementary reading-book.	To read a passage from an elementary reading book.	To read intelligently a passage from an elementary reading-book.	To read intelligently a passage of prose or poetry from a more advanced book.	To read with intelligence and expression a passage from a historical, geographical or general reader.	To read with intelligence and expression a passage of English prose or poetry selected by the Inspector.
WRITING .	To copy in manuscript a few lines of print. Proper formation of capital letters.	To write from dictation twelve common words commencing with capital letters.	To write from dictation a passage of not more than six lines, slowly read once, and then dictated.	To write from dictation a passage of not more than eight lines, slowly read once, and then dictated.	To write from memory the substance of a short story, read out twice, or to write from dictation.	To write a letter upon a simple subject, or to write from dictation.	To write a letter or essay upon a simple subject, or to write from dictation.
ARITHMETIC .	Notation and numeration to 100. Simple addition and subtraction of numbers up to 100.	Notation and numeration up to 10,000. Addition and subtraction of numbers up to 10,000.	To know the four simple rules, and long division by not more than two figures.	Long division and the compound rules of money.	Reduction of the common weights and measures and bills of parcels.	Vulgar and decimal fractions, simple and compound proportion, and simple interest.	Compound interest, averages, stocks, and percentages.
COPY-BOOKS .	Copy-books of elements and letters to be shown.	Copy-books of half-text hand to be shown.	Copy-books of half-text with capital letters to be shown.	Copy-books of double small hand to be shown.	Copy-books of small hand to be shown.	Copy-books of small hand to be shown.	Copy-books of small hand to be shown.
TABLES .	To know the multiplication tables to 4 times 12.	To know the multiplication tables to 6 times 12.	To know the multiplication tables to 12 times 12.	To know the pence and shillings table.	To know the tables of compound weights and measures.	To answer questions in mental arithmetic.	To answer more difficult questions in mental arithmetic.

SCHEDULE B.

OBLIGATORY SUBJECTS FOR SUB-STANDARDS AND INFANT SCHOLARS.

SUBJECT.	SUB-STANDARD II.	SUB-STANDARD I.	CLASS I.—INFANTS.	CLASS II.—INFANTS.	CLASS III.—INFANTS.
READING . .	To read sentences of words of one syllable.	To read sentences of words of not more than four letters.	To read an infant primer containing words of two and three letters.	To know and to pick out the large and small letters of the alphabet.	To pick out the large letters of the alphabet.
WRITING . .	To copy from a book or sheet a few simple words in manuscript.	To copy from the blackboard the capital and small letters of the alphabet.	To copy from the blackboard the small letters of the alphabet.	To copy from the blackboard the letters that fall between the lines.	To copy strokes and curves only.
ARITHMETIC .	Notation and numeration to 50. Easy sums on slate or blackboard.	Notation and numeration to 30. Simple mental calculations to that number.	To write from dictation numbers up to 20.	To copy in proper form the figures 0 to 9.	Adding and subtraction of units with the ball frame.
OBJECT LESSONS	Twelve simple lessons on common objects, as animals, plants, and substances used in common life.	Ten simple lessons on common objects.	Names of animals and things of every day life.	To know the names of common animals and things.	To pick out from a picture-chart common animals and things.

SCHEDULE C.

OPTIONAL SUBJECTS FOR STANDARD SCHOLARS.

No.	SUBJECT.	STANDARD I.	STANDARD II.	STANDARD III.	STANDARD IV.	STANDARD V.	STANDARD VI.	STANDARD VII.
1	GEOGRAPHY	Twenty simple lessons on the points of the compass. Night and morning, etc. To know the days of the week and the months of the year.	Twenty simple lessons on the use and meaning of a map.	Simple lessons on the size and shape of the world, and geographical terms simply explained by diagram or map.	Simple lessons upon the geography of the Gold Coast, its people and productions, its trade, imports and exports.	The general geography of Africa (with maps).	The general geography of Europe, especially, the British Islands (with maps).	The general geography of the World.
2	ENGLISH HISTORY.	Twelve simple lessons in the form of stories, from early English History.	Twelve simple lessons in the form of stories from English History.	Twelve simple lessons in the form of stories from English History.	The History of England from 55 B.C. to 1066 A.D. Simple lessons on the History of the Gold Coast.	The History of England from 1066 A.D. to 1485 A.D.	The History of England from 1485 A.D. to 1837 A.D.	The reign of Queen Victoria and the general History of the World.
3	ENGLISH GRAMMAR.	To point out nouns.	To point out proper and common nouns.	To point out nouns and verbs.	To know the parts of speech.	To analyse a simple sentence.	To parse a simple sentence.	To analyse and parse a complex sentence.
4	DRAWING	STANDARDS I. AND II. To draw on slates with a ruler simple lines, angles, parallels and the simplest right-lined forms.		To draw on paper, freehand, and with the ruler, lines, angles, parallels, and simple right-lined forms.	Freehand drawing of simple curves and regular forms from the flat, and right-lined figures, freehand and with ruler.	Freehand drawing from the flat, and right-lined figures drawn freehand.	Simple lessons in drawing to scale.	Simple lessons in elementary geometry.

SCHEDULE C.—Cont.

OPTIONAL SUBJECTS.

	5. SHORTHAND.	6. BOOK-KEEPING.	7. HOUSEHOLD WORK (Girls.)
1st Stage. For Standard V.	To write from slow dictation (at the rate of at least 30 words a minute) a passage from a First or Second Reader, not used in the school, or from some book of equal difficulty, and also some separate words and short phrases. The shorthand notes to be subsequently transcribed or read.	Explanation of ordinary commercial terms. 1. From a given set of simple transactions to show how to keep a—Cash Book. Purchases Book. Sales Book. 2. Double Entry, its meaning and advantages. 3. Explanation of personal and other accounts.	Food: its composition and nutritive value. Clothing and washing.
2nd Stage. For Standard VI.	As above, but dictation to be at the rate of at least 40 words a minute, from a Fourth or Fifth Standard Reader, not used in the school, or from some book of equal difficulty. Some examples of phrases will be required.	1. Bill of Exchange. Bills receivable Book. Bills payable Book. 2. The Journal, its intentions and uses. 3. From a given set of transactions to show the method of keeping a record of simple commercial transactions by Double Entry, with illustrations of necessary Ledger Accounts.	Food: its functions. The dwelling: cleaning and ventilation.
3rd Stage. For Standard VII. and above.	As above, but dictation to be at the rate of at least 60 words a minute from any ordinary book or newspaper. Accuracy will be specially considered throughout the stages; and the shorthand characters and outlines must be clearly and correctly formed.	1. Bad Debts. Consignments. Discounts. 2. The Journal, its relation to other books. Journalising. 3. From a given set of transactions to— (a) Construct a Journal. (b) Post this into Ledger. (c) Arrange a trial balance. (d) Close Ledger by preparing Profit and Loss Account and Balance Sheet.	Food: its preparation and culinary treatment. Rules for health: the management of a sick-room.

SCHEDULE D.

NEEDLEWORK SCHEME.

IN THE FOLLOWING TABLE THE REQUIREMENTS IN NEEDLEWORK FOR EACH CLASS OR STANDARD ARE DIVIDED INTO GROUPS OF MODERATE LENGTH. THE CHILDREN SHOULD RECEIVE INSTRUCTION IN EACH GROUP, ANY ONE OF WHICH MAY BE GIVEN AT ANNUAL INSPECTION OF THE SCHOOL.

STANDARD I.	STANDARD II.	STANDARD III.	STANDARD IV.	STANDARD V.	STANDARDS VI. AND VII.
To hem 5 ins. in cotton of two colours (so as to show a join).	(a.) To hem in two colours, and (b.) To join two pieces of calico 5 ins. in length by a sewed seam or top sewing.	(a.) To fix and work a sew and fell seam of 5 ins. in cotton of two colours, so as to show a join in the cotton both in seam and fell. (b.) Simple darning on canvas.	(a. To make a band and fix it for stitching, and to work not less than 2½ ins. (b.) To sew on a tape string and a button to a piece of calico.	(a.) To gather and stroke 7 ins. and fix into a band of 3 ins. and set in 1½ ins. (b.) To double down as for a band, and on this cut and work a buttonhole one end round and the other braced, and to sew on a linen button. (c.) To cut out and tack together the pattern of a garment suitable for their own use.	(a.) To cut out and tack together the pattern of a girl's frock. (b.) To put in a print or a calico patch. (c.) To turn down a hem ½ in. wide, to fix two tucks 5 ins. long, and to run at least half of one.

MATERIALS REQUIRED FOR THE ABOVE EXERCISES.

THE SIZES GIVEN BELOW ARE INTENDED AS A GUIDE TO TEACHERS.

A piece of calico 5 ins. long by 2½ fixed for hemming, and cotton of two colours.	(a.) A piece of calico 5 ins. long by 2½, and cotton of two colours. (b.) Two pieces of calico 5 ins. by 2½, and coloured cotton.	(a.) Two pieces of calico 5 ins. by 2½, and cotton of two colours.	(a.) One piece of calico 5 ins. by 2½. (b.) A piece of calico 5 ins. by 2½, a piece of tape 3 ins. long, and button.	(a.) A piece of calico 7 ins. by 3, and a piece 3½ ins. square. (b.) A piece of calico 3 ins. square, and a linen button not pierced. (c.) A piece of tissue or lined paper.	(a.) A piece of tissue or lined paper. (b.) A piece of calico or print 5 ins. square, and a piece 2 ins. square. (c.) A piece of calico 3 ins. square.
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NOTE.—Materials required for working the above exercises should be carefully prepared and arranged by the Teacher before the Needlework Lesson.

SCHEDULE E.

INSTRUCTION AS TO EXAMINATION IN SINGING FOR GRANTS UNDER ARTICLE 66.

1. The music tests are not to be applied to individual children.
2. If during the examination the Director of Education should notice that one or two voices are unduly leading the bulk of the children, such voices may be silenced for a time.

3. Teachers may be allowed to start but not to join in the singing, except when adding a bass or independent part to the song tests. It will be found advisable (especially in girls' schools) to allow the teacher to sing the ear tests to the children.

4. The staff notation tests will be found equally applicable to the systems of "fixed" or "movable" do; a set of tonic sol-fa tests (Part 2) closely corresponding to those in the staff notation (Part 1) is appended. In schools where both the staff and tonic sol-fa systems are taught, different divisions may be presented in either notation.

5. As the Director of Education may find that the application of every test to each of the divisions will occupy more time than can be allotted to this one subject, it may suffice for the purpose of recommending the higher grant of one shilling if two tests are applied to each division; the tests being varied in different divisions, e.g., note and time, time and ear, ear and song, etc.

6. For either the lower or higher grant, three songs must be prepared in the first division, and five in each of the other divisions. There is no objection to a repetition of some of the same songs in different divisions.

7. A school which has applied for the higher grant, but has failed to secure it, may be recommended for the lower grant of sixpence without further examination, if the Director of Education is of opinion that the time and attention devoted to music would have secured the lower grant.

8. In cases where the different divisions show varying degrees of merit, the Director of Education will use his discretion in adjudging the grant according to his view of the whole case.

9. For purposes of examination the standards may be grouped into divisions, thus:—

1st Division -	- Standards I. and II.
2nd Division -	Standards III. and IV.
3rd Division -	Standards V. and upwards.

This, of course, only applies to large schools; in small schools the Director of Education may permit any grouping which he thinks justified by the circumstances. If desirable, small schools may be examined in two divisions only, provided that a certain number of children in each of the divisions are able to pass some of the tests applicable to Divisions II. and III. respectively.

11. In large schools where the standards are taught and examined separately a higher proficiency may be demanded in Standards II. and IV. than in the lower standards in the same division.

12. The song tests may be prepared either "by ear" or "by note," and may be sung either with or without books.

PART I.

SCHOOLS USING THE STAFF NOTATION.

Division I.

Note Test 1.—To sing slowly, as pointed out by the examiner, and using the sol-fa syllables, the ascending and descending notes of the scale of C, the notes of the key-chord of (do, mi, sol, do), in any order, and also small groups of consecutive notes of the scale of C as written by the examiner.

Time Test 2.—To sing on one sound, to the syllable laa or doh, an exercise in $2/4$ or $4/4$ time, which shall include minims and crotchets.

Ear Test 3.—To repeat (*i.e.*, imitate, not name) a simple phrase of not more than four notes using the syllable "laa," after hearing the examiner sing (or play) it twice through.

Song Test 4.—To sing in unison, in good time and tune, and sweetly, a school song (set to words). Three songs to be prepared.

Division II.

Note Test 1.—To sing slowly as pointed out by the examiner, using the sol-fa syllables, a series of notes in the key of C, containing an F sharp contradicted by an F natural, and a B flat contradicted by a B natural. The F sharp should be approached by the note G and return to G as in the example, and the B should be approached by C, and be followed by A as in the example.

Time Test 2.—To sing on one sound to the syllable laa or doh an exercise in $4/4$ or $3/4$ time, containing semibreves, minims, crotchets, quavers, with dotted minims, and rests on non-accented portions of the bar.

Ear Test 3.—To repeat and afterwards name any three consecutive notes of the scale of C which the examiner may twice sing to the syllable laa (or play), each time first giving the chord or the scale of C. The test should commence on some note of the key-chord.

Song Test 4.—To sing in unison, in good time and tune, and with due expression, a school song (set to words). Five songs to be prepared. Rounds or two-part songs may be offered in place of unison songs.

Division III.

Note Test 1.—To sing slowly, using the sol-fa syllables, from the examiner's pointing, any simple diatonic passage in the keys of G (one sharp), D (two sharps), F (one flat), or B (two flats); and also a similar simple passage containing accidentals to raise the fourth of the scale (approached by the third or fifth), and to flatten the seventh (approached by the octave), properly contradicted.

Also to sing in the same way as above described, a short passage in the key of A minor, introducing the sharpened seventh approached from and leading to the note A, but without introducing the sixth (major or minor) of the scale.

Time Test 2.—To sing on one sound, one or more series of notes and rests in $2/2$, $4/4$, $3/2$, and $3/4$ times, which may include dotted minims and (in crotchet time) dotted crotchets; also a simple phrase in $6/8$ time, counting two beats in a bar.

Ear Test 3.—To repeat, and afterwards name, the notes of a simple diatonic phrase consisting of not more than four notes of the scale of C, which the examiner may twice sing to laa (or play), each time giving the chord or the scale of C.

This test should only be applied to the more advanced children of this division. Should special aptitude be shown, they may be asked to name the time of any easy phrase sung twice to them by the examiner.

Song Test 4.—To sing in good time, tune, expression, and in a pleasing quality of tone, a school-song in two or more parts, or a round (set to words). Five songs to be prepared.

PART II.

FOR SCHOOLS USING THE TONIC SOL-FA METHOD AND NOTATION.

Division I.

Note Test 1.—To sol-fa slowly from the examiner's pointing on the modulator, in any key—the key-tone and chord being given—the tones

of the doh chord in any order, and the other tones of the scale in stepwise succession.

Time Test 2.—To sing on one tone to the syllable laa or doh an exercise including one-pulse and two-pulse tones, in two-pulse or four-pulse measure.

Ear Test 3.—To repeat and afterwards name the notes of a simple diatonic phrase consisting of not more than four notes of the scale of C, which the examiner may twice sing to laa (or play), each time giving the chord or the scale of C.

This test should only be applied to the more advanced children of this division. Should special aptitude be shown they may be asked to name the time of an easy phrase sung twice to them by the examiner.

Song Test 4.—To sing in good time, tune, expression, and in a pleasing quality of tone, a school song in two parts, or a round (set to words). Five songs to be prepared.

PART II.

FOR SCHOOLS USING THE TONIC SOL-FA METHOD AND NOTATION.

Division I.

Note Test 1.—To sol-fa slowly from the examiner's pointing on the modulator, in any key, the key-tone and chord being given, the tones of the doh chord in any order, and the other tones of the scale in stepwise succession.

Time Test 2.—To sing on one tone to the syllable laa or doh an exercise including one-pulse and two-pulse tones, in two-pulse measure.

Ear Test 3.—To imitate (*i.e.*, imitate, not name) a simple phrase of not more than four notes, using the syllable "laa" after hearing the examiner sing (or play) it twice through.

Song Test 4.—To sing in unison, in good time, tune, and sweetly, a school song (set to words). Three songs to be prepared.

Division II.

Note Test (modulator) (a).—To sol-fa from the examiner's pointing on the modulator, or from dictation, in any key, simple passages in the major diatonic scale, including fe and ta in stepwise progression, used thus : a fe s—d' ta l.

Note Test (written or printed) (b).—To sol-fa at sight a written or printed exercise, including the notes of the doh chord in any order, and any other notes of the major diatonic scale in stepwise succession.

Time Test 2.—To sing on one sound to the syllable laa or doh an exercise in three-pulse or four-pulse measure, containing one-pulse notes, half-pulse notes, and whole-pulse rests on the non-accented pulse of the measure.

Ear Test (3).—To imitate to "laa," and afterwards name any three consecutive tones of the scale, which the examiner may twice sing to laa (or play), each time first giving the doh chord, or the scale. The test should commence on some tone of the doh chord.

The test should only be applied to the more advanced children of this division.

Song Test (4).—To sing in unison, in good time and tune, and with due expression, a school song (set to words). Five songs to be prepared. Rounds or two-part songs may be offered in place of unison songs.

Division III.

Note Test. (Written or printed.) 1.—To sol-fa slowly, any simple diatonic passage in the major key ; also a similar simple passage containing a transition of one remove indicated by bridge notes.

Also, to sol-fa a short passage in the minor key or mode, introducing *se* used thus, *l se l*, but without introducing *fah* or *bay* or *soh*.

Time Test 2.—To sing on one tone, one or more series of notes in two-pulse, three-pulse, or four-pulse measure, including pulse-and-a-half notes; also a simple phrase in six-pulse measure, beating twice to the measure.

Ear Test 3.—To imitate and afterwards name the notes of a simple diatonic phrase, consisting of not more than four tones, which the examiner may sing or play twice, each time first giving the *doh* chord.

This test should only be applied to the more advanced children of this division. Should special aptitude be shown, they may be asked to name the time of an easy passage sung twice to them by the examiner.

Song Test 4.—To sing, in good time, tune, expression, and in a pleasing quality of tone, a school song in two or more parts or a round (set to words). Five songs to be prepared.

SCHEDULE F.

EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS FOR CERTIFICATES.

The examination of teachers for certificates in the Gold Coast will be held annually at towns specified in a notice previously given.

The subjects of examination will include reading, writing, arithmetic, English history, English grammar and analysis, geography, especially of the British Empire, school management, and mathematics.

Reading :—

To read with fluency, ease, and expression, with a knowledge of the meaning, a passage from an advanced school reading-book.

Writing :—

To write from dictation a passage given by the examiner, with examples of copy setting (large and small hands).

Arithmetic :—

The simple rules, the compound rules, weights and measures, practice, bills of parcels, proportion (simple and compound), vulgar and decimal fractions, interest (simple and compound).

English History :—

Outlines of English history from the conquest (1066), to the present time, with questions upon the reign of Her Imperial Majesty Queen Victoria.

English Grammar and Analysis :—

The parsing and analysis of a complex sentence. General knowledge of the rules of English grammar.

Geography :—

General knowledge of the physical geography of the world, with special questions upon the general geography of the British Empire and the Gold Coast.

School Management :—

General knowledge of the working of an elementary school.

Mathematics :—

The elements of Euclid up to and including proposition xxvi., book 1, and Algebra up to and including simple equations.

Mensuration :—The measurement of plane surfaces.

APPENDIX C.

SCHEME FOR GOVERNMENT SCHOLARSHIPS.

1. Provision is also made by the Government for the encouragement of Higher Education in the form of —

SCHOLARSHIPS.

2. These scholarships are known as the "Gold Coast Government Scholarships," and are regulated by the following conditions :—

NUMBER AND NATURE.

3. There are four scholarships of £200 a year each. Each scholarship is tenable for three years, but may be extended beyond that period under special circumstances, in order to enable the scholar to complete the course of education sanctioned in his case. One scholarship is given in each year, if a suitable candidate appears and attains the required standard. The required standard is the pass in 3rd class honours (with the mark of distinction in some special subject), of the Cambridge Senior Local Examination.

CANDIDATE ELIGIBLE.

4 The examination is open to every person, male or female, who fulfils the following conditions :—

- (a) *Age.*—Every candidate's age must be not less than eighteen nor more than twenty-four on the first day of the year in which the examination is held.
- (b) *Parentage.*—One of the parents of the candidate must be (or, if dead, have been) either a native of the Gold Coast Colony or a resident there for not less than ten years in all, before the first day of the year in which the examination is held.
- (c) *Residence.*—The candidate must have resided in the Colony for at least two out of the three years immediately preceding the first day of examination.

TIME AND PLACE OF EXAMINATION.

5. The examination will be held annually in the Government School, Accra, or at such other centre as may be found convenient, upon such days in December as may be fixed by the Syndicate, notice of which shall be given to the managers of schools.

SUBJECTS OF EXAMINATION.

6. The subjects of examination will be those set by the syndicate for the Cambridge Senior Local Examination.

Copies of the subjects of the examination may be obtained upon application to the Education Department, Accra.

APPLICATION.

7. Applications from intending candidates must reach the Education Department, Accra, not later than the 30th June in each year, and must be accompanied by such evidence of age, parentage, and residence as is required by paragraph 4 of these rules. The entrance fee of £1, and the stationery fee of 6s., must also be forwarded at the same time.

ELECTION.

8. Upon election, the successful candidate must proceed, subject to the approval of the Board of Education, within three months, to one of the Universities of Great Britain or Ireland, or may enter as a student of the Inns of Court, or of a Medical School in connection with one of the Public Hospitals, or of some Engineering, Agricultural or Forestry Institution, or some other Professional or Scientific Institution in Great Britain or Ireland.

SECURITY BOND.

9. Before departure, the elected candidate must execute a bond with two approved sureties, binding him to continue in the course of study sanctioned at the Institution decided upon, and binding him also at any time, within one year, after the completion of his course of study to accept any appointment in the service of the Gold Coast Government, which may be offered to him at a salary of not less than £200 a year, in the case of a man, and £100 a year if a woman, and in either case to continue in such appointment for a period of not less than six years.

CONDUCT AND PROGRESS IN ENGLAND.

10. On arrival in England, the successful candidate must furnish to the Crown Agents for the Colonies, proof of having entered the Institution sanctioned in his case, and further must furnish quarterly certificates of good conduct and progress. The quarterly payments of the scholarship will be conditional on such certificates being furnished to the Secretary of State.

PASSAGES.

11. The cost of passage to England will be defrayed by the Government, and upon the termination of the scholarship, the return passage will also be paid, provided the scholar satisfies the Secretary of State that his conduct has been good, and that he intends to reside in the Colony.

THE
SYSTEM OF EDUCATION
IN
LAGOS.

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THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN LAGOS.*

I. INTRODUCTION.

The Colony of Lagos is situated on the section of the West African History. sea-board formerly known as the Slave Coast, and consists of the coast line stretching from the east of Dahomey to Ode, on the Mahin Beach. It comprises Badagry, Lagos (the chief seat of British authority), Ebute Metta, Iddo Island, Ikorodu, Ejirin and Epe with Balma, Leckie, and Ode. The Protectorate roughly includes all Yoruba—the extensive country lying between Dahomey, the Bight of Benin and the Lower Niger; it covers an area of from 25,000 to 30,000 square miles, and the population has been estimated as 3,000,000.

The town of Lagos, which has an area of about four square miles and a population of about 40,000, stands not on the mainland, but on an island which is separated from Yoruba by an extensive series of lagoons. Into these lagoons the rivers of Yoruba flow, and their only outlet to the sea is at the island. Owing to its unique geographical position as the natural port of Yoruba, Lagos was a great centre of the slave trade. But in 1852 Akitoye the *Oba* (King) concluded a treaty with the British by which he bound himself to put down this nefarious traffic; and in 1861 his son and successor was induced to cede the territory to the British Crown in consideration of a pension of £1,000 a year.

There are no indigenous schools in Lagos or in Yoruba. School Early Missionary Schools. education was introduced into the country by the Christian Missionary Societies, who in connection with their evangelistic labours established village schools at different points in the mission field. The first missionaries to Yoruba, who were sent by the Wesleyan and Church Missionary Societies, landed in Badagry in 1845, and were detained there for about eighteen months owing to the disturbed condition of the interior country. They commenced their evangelistic labours in this town, and also taught the people to cultivate their farms and gardens. Extensive plantations were the result. Sir T. F. Buxton (then lately dead) had supplied money for the material improvement of the Africans, and by means of

* Recent Reports on the Schools in the Colony of Lagos can be seen at the Board of Education Library, St. Stephen's House, Cannon Row, Whitehall, London, S.W.

it 150 prizes were given away in the first year to successful cultivators. The Church of England missionaries also established a boarding school in Badagry, into which were admitted the children and domestic slaves of the native chiefs. The scholars were maintained and educated gratuitously; they were taught the rudiments of gardening, carpentry, book-learning and household duties. During the seven years of the Mission their number did not exceed 30, that is 29 boys and 1 girl. The chiefs did not encourage an education which resulted in disinclining their children to the religion and custom of their country; and to their mind there was but little utility in the instruction given in the mission school. A day school was also at this time established in Badagry for the children of the emigrants and recaptives who had accompanied the missionaries from Sierra Leone or who were sojourning in Badagry on their way to their homes in Yoruba. The highest number attending this school was 31, that is 18 boys and 13 girls. The total number of children under instruction at Badagry from 1845 to 1852 was therefore 61. In 1852 the station was practically abandoned, and the mission staff was transferred to Lagos, where the treaty for the suppression of the slave trade had just been concluded between the *Oba* (King) and the British Government. The troubles in the interior came to an end in 1846, and in August of that year Townsend and Crowther (afterwards Bishop) were enabled to proceed to Abeokuta, one of the largest and most important towns in Yoruba. They established a mission there, and from Abeokuta, as a centre, extended their evangelistic and educational labours in various directions. The Annual Report for 1856 of the Church Missionary Society stated the number of their schools in Yoruba for that year as nine with 549 scholars. These figures did not include four schools and 226 scholars at Lagos in the same year. The educational work of the Wesleyan Missionary Society would appear to have also grown at the same rate as that of the Church Missionary Society, but I have not been able to get at the exact numbers of their teachers and scholars.

The mission work in Yoruba suffered a serious check in the year 1867, owing to disputes between the chiefs of Abeokuta and the British authorities at Lagos, which led to a popular outbreak against the Missions. The Mission buildings were destroyed, the missionaries—not as Christians, but as Englishmen—were expelled, and communication between Abeokuta and Lagos was interrupted. The native Christians, however, held together, and did what they could under the native clergy and native elders. After four years the disputes were adjusted, and since then the missionaries have laboured without let or hindrance in Yoruba. With the establishment of schools in Yoruba the supply of suitable text books for instruction became pressing. At first English text books, which were the only ones available, were employed. But soon after the mission in Abeokuta was started Crowther prepared

a Yoruba primer, a grammar and vocabulary, and translations of portions of the Bible for the use of schools and converts.

Since the cession of Lagos the work of missions and education in the town has been prosecuted under favourable circumstances. A year after the cession there were 4 schools, 5 teachers and 406 scholars, consisting of 252 boys and 154 girls. Ten years later there were 17 schools, 24 teachers and 1,850 scholars; that is, 1,043 boys and 807 girls. In the year 1881 the number of schools had increased to 29, with 66 teachers and 2,257 scholars, in the proportion of 1,310 boys and 947 girls. These schools were under the entire control of the Missionary Societies, and were almost entirely supported from mission funds; school fees, where it was possible to collect them, represented but a very small item of the school income. The teachers were trained and appointed by the missionaries, and their payments were made from mission funds. Besides being engaged in teaching, the men were also employed as evangelists and mission agents. Indeed, teaching was but a stage in their career, as the successful teachers looked forward to being eventually received into the ministry of the Church with which their schools were connected.

The Beginning of the present system.

The Government, however, up to 1887, contributed to the funds of the three important missionary societies (Church of England, Wesleyan and Roman Catholic) the lump sum of £600 in equal shares of £200 each. It was generally understood that the money should be spent on the schools, but no condition whatever was attached to the payment.

First Grant for educational purposes.

The proposal to give statutory recognition to the missionary schools was first made in the year 1882, when Lagos was an integral part of the Gold Coast Colony. Three Education Ordinances were passed by the Gold Coast Legislature between the years 1882 and 1886. The first of these Ordinances, No. 4 of 1882, provided that a General Board of Education should be constituted, to consist of the Governor of the Colony, the Members of the Executive Council and three or four other persons to be nominated by the Governor. The General Board was empowered to appoint local Boards, and under certain conditions, to assist private schools and training institutions out of the annual grant for educational purposes. The first Ordinance of 1882 also provided for the appointment of an Inspector of Schools and a Sub-Inspector, who should be the administrative officers of the Board. The other two Ordinances were enacted for the purpose of amending the first Ordinance of 1882 in certain matters of detail. They did not modify any of the leading principles upon which that Ordinance was based. It does not appear that the Lagos schools were administered under any of these Ordinances. So far as examination was concerned, the conditions of the first Ordinance of 1882 were indeed applied from the years 1884 to 1887; but the results did not affect the payments, which, until the latter year, continued to be the lump sum contribution of £600.

Education Ordinance of 1882.

Education
Ordinance
1887.

In 1886 Lagos became a separate Crown Colony, and in that year the local legislature enacted the Education Ordinance of 1887, which came into force at the commencement of 1888. (*See Appendix A.*)

II.—THE PRESENT SYSTEM.

Board of
Education.

The present system of education in the Colony under this Ordinance is administered by the Board of Education, consisting of the Governor, the eight Members of the Legislative Council, the Inspector of Schools, and three or four school managers nominated by the Governor.

The foremost duty of the Board is from time to time to make the rules for regulating the allowances of grants-in-aid to schools and training institutions out of the money voted for this purpose by the Legislative Council. It is also the duty of the Board to make rules for the examination of schools to be aided and of the teachers at such schools, to make rules for the granting of teachers' certificates and for the holding of Government scholarships, and generally to do all that may be necessary for giving effect to the Education Law of the Colony.

Managers of
Schools.

Each of the mission schools is attached to a church or congregation, and either the clergyman in charge of the church or the parochial committee are as a rule the managers of the school.

[The following is taken from the General Report for the Year 1901 on the Schools in the Colony of Lagos:—"The efficiency of public instruction would be greatly promoted if some form of combination were possible among the managers of the schools connected with the different religious societies. Such a combination is not only calculated to improve the management of the schools, but also to strengthen their financial position. It would be the means of enabling individual school managers to entertain just views of the problem of public education, instead of conceiving of their relations with the Government as only one source of obtaining money for meeting the expenses of their particular schools. It might also enable them to supply a satisfactory solution to the problem of superfluous schools in small districts where schools are multiplied, not in consequence of the number of children attending them, but because each religious society feels that there is a necessity for it to have a school of its own. . . . It is impossible to overrate the importance to the social life of a people of good big schools wherein a large number of children, drawn from different sections of the community, are brought together and properly educated on the same plane. The experiment of combination between schools is well worthy of trial, and the principle will be found capable of application to many of our educational requirements."]

Local School
Boards.

Besides managers of single schools, some of the clergy and members of a denomination form themselves into a body for managing the affairs of all the schools of their own denomination.

Year.	No. of Schools.	No. on Register.	Average Attendance.	School Fees.			Voluntary Subscriptions.			Government Grants.			Total Cost.		
				£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1889	28	2,500	1,799.	786	0	9	953	13	4	711	4	0	2,450	18	1
1890	30	3,085	2,155	1,016	11	2	3,258	3	6½	1,075	19	2	5,350	13	10½
1891	30	3,216	2,291	1,052	11	1	1,391	15	7½	967	9	6	3,411	16	2½
1892	30	2,991	2,259	1,072	13	8	1,625	18	4½	1,138	3	0	3,836	15	0½
1893	33	3,315	2,408	1,208	4	7½	1,682	14	2½	1,307	7	2	4,198	5	11½
1894	33	3,308	2,458	1,228	12	7½	2,310	19	11½	1,192	10	11	4,732	3	6½
1895	29	3,276	2,427	985	16	10	1,583	18	6	1,064	14	10	3,634	10	2
1897	38	3,543	2,589	986	14	11½	2,096	12	1½	1,229	13	0	4,313	0	1
1898	41	3,943	2,910	681	11	6½	2,492	7	4½	1,511	8	9	4,885	7	8
1899	41	3,929	2,074	893	6	8	843	6	0	1,439	19	8	3,176	12	4
1900	44	4,176	3,215	974	14	10½	1,426	15	10½	1,340	16	1	3,742	6	10
1901	41	310	3,341	1,063	7	3½	1,480	7	9½	1,609	18	5	4,153	13	5½

Such a body is locally known as a "School Board." The duties of managers of single schools and those of school boards sometimes overlap, but the latter act generally as a body of final appeal in regard to deciding cases between teachers and managers. They also supplement the income of the poorer schools of their denomination. Both the school boards and the managers are, strictly speaking, local representatives of the missionary societies in whom the property of the school is vested. They have power to appoint and dismiss the teachers, and are responsible for payment of the teachers' salaries and of all other expenses of the school; they are in all respects the trustees and governing bodies of the school; they exercise general control over and encourage and assist it by their personal visits.

part of
ols. The schools are supported partly by school fees, partly by voluntary subscriptions—consisting of church collections and of grants from missionary societies—and partly by Government grants. School fees are extremely low, being from 4d. to 1s. a week, according to the standard of the scholar.

Government
s. Before Government grants are made to schools it is necessary that the Board of Education be satisfied with the management of the school and the condition of the buildings, that every teacher of the school be certificated, and that the required percentages of pupils be presented for, and be proficient at, the annual examination of the Inspector of Schools. The Board make grants at the rate of 2s. each for individual passes at the annual examinations in the subjects of reading, writing and arithmetic, and of grammar, geography, history and needlework. In addition, the Board also make grants for general excellence for each pass, for average attendance and for organisation and discipline. They also make grants for infant schools, industrial schools, for the premier school and in respect of school buildings and apparatus. It has also been recently resolved to grant a lump sum to school managers in relief of proposed augmentation of school fees.*

scholarships. Five scholarships of the annual value of £10 each, tenable for four years, are given for the purpose of enabling children whose parents are not well-to-do to attend a secondary school. The amount payable in respect of these scholarships is not in any one year to exceed £50, and it is required that the holders shall have attended a primary school in the Colony for two years at least. The scholarships may be awarded on the result of the annual examination under the Board Rules; but whenever the number of eligible candidates exceeds the number of scholarships to be granted, the claims of the candidates are to be decided by special examination.

of
tion,
o 1901 The preceding table shows the progress and cost of education

* A sum of £250 was expended by the Government in augmentation of School fees for the School year ended 30th September, 1899, and a similar grant was made for the following year. These amounts are not included in the Table given above.

from 1889 to 1901, and the amount of the cost borne by the Government and by the parents of scholars and voluntary subscribers; the amount of school fees is also given.

The total number of children on the registers of the schools presented for inspection in 1901 was 4,310, and the average attendance was returned as 3,341; that is, 78·5 per cent. of the enrolment. As will be seen from the subjoined table, this is the highest proportion on record for the past seven years.

	1901.	1900.	1899.	1898.	1897.	1895.	1894.
Scholars on Register - -	4,310	4,176	3,929	3,943	3,543	3,276	3,308
Average attendance - -	3,341	3,215	2,974	2,910	2,589	2,427	2,458
Proportion (p.c.) of average attendance to number on Register - } Enrolment and Attendance	78·5	77·3	75·7	73·8	73·1	74	74·3

Almost all the schools under inspection are in the town of Lagos; only nine of them with about 430 scholars are to be found in the outlying districts. The number of children in the thirty-two assisted schools in the town of Lagos may then be taken as 3,500; all of these are native children, and there is not a single white child in the schools of the Colony. When it is stated that there are not more than 200 children in private schools without Government assistance, it will be observed that all the children attending school at Lagos form but one-half of the school population of the town. These children are drawn from the Christian, Mahomedan, and Pagan sections in the following proportions:—

Section.	Population.	No. of children in assisted schools.	Proportion (per cent.) of population under instruction.
Christian - - -	10,000	2,400	24
Mohammedan - -	20,000	600	3
Pagan - - -	10,000	500	5
Total - - -	40,000	3,500	8·75

It is calculated that from one-sixth to one-fifth of the population are children of a class and age to require elementary educa-

tion. The proportion of the Christian population of Lagos actually in school exceeds this estimate. But only 3 per cent. of the Mohammedans and only 5 per cent. of the Pagans attend schools where the children are taught reading, writing and arithmetic. The Mohammedans have schools of their own in which their children are taught the Koran, and where there will be found a larger number of Mohammedan children than in missionary or Government schools. But after all deductions have been made, it will be seen that something needs to be done for promoting the increase of the number of Mohammedan and Pagan children attending school.

annual
exhibition
promoting
attendance.

As early as the year 1888 the attention of the Secretary of State for the Colonies, Lord Knutsford, was drawn to the poor school attendance in Lagos. His Lordship suggested that by some such means as an annual competitive exhibition of the children's work, at which prizes should be publicly awarded to the successful competitors, it might be possible to obtain the co-operation of parents to a greater extent than was then the case. The suggestion was adopted by the Board of Education, and the first exhibition was held in 1889. Similar exhibitions have since been held from year to year. The subjects of competition include plain sewing, darning, fancy needlework, crochet work, knitting, handwriting, shorthand, map-drawing, freehand drawing from design, freehand drawing from model, book-keeping, wood-carving, weaving, straw-plaiting, joinery, smiths' work, basket-making, net-making, geometrical drawing, letter-writing, writing in English a short story previously read in Yoruba, recitation, doll-dressing, hat-trimming, clay-modelling, fretwork, ornamental penmanship, musical drill, flower and fruit growing and pottery. Selections of about twelve or fifteen of these are annually made for the competition. The Board allow £100 for the purposes of the exhibition, and about 120 prizes of 20s., 15s., and 10s. are annually offered.

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attendance.

Other special efforts were also made for increasing the attendance. A committee of the Board was appointed in June, 1889, "to consider and report any practicable means of increasing the attendance at the schools, and to consider by what means the advantages of education might be extended to the towns and villages around Lagos."

The committee considered that the paucity of the number of children attending the schools of the Colony was to be attributed to poverty, religious prejudice and the tendency of education to alter the relation of parent and child to the disadvantage of the parent. While parents thought that they had a right to have their children earn money for them during the time which the children spent at school, they found that their children, finding themselves their superiors in point of education, were inclined to assert their superiority and throw off the parental yoke altogether. Somehow or other parents were also inclined to think that their children who attended school must be dressed in European style,

or, at any rate, well and expensively, and so were reluctant, on economical grounds, to send them to school.

The committee in their report suggested that if Arabic were added as a subject of instruction in the Christian schools, the number of Mohammedan children attending such schools—which was then not more than 378—might be considerably increased, inasmuch as in the Mohammedan schools the pupils were taught little else than reading Arabic, that is to say, the Koran. They also considered it desirable that a recommendation be conveyed to the Mohammedan priests, schoolmasters and community in general, to adopt a course of instruction in accordance with the Education Ordinance, that is to say, to add to their curriculum instruction in English reading and writing, in arithmetic and in Yoruba reading and writing. Both these recommendations were accordingly conveyed respectively to the managers of Christian schools and to the Mohammedan priests and schoolmasters. The Christian managers, both from lack of means and of competent teachers, have not yet been able to introduce Arabic teaching into their schools. But a variety of circumstances occurred to lend emphasis to the recommendation conveyed to the Mohammedans, and to lead, not to their introducing English into their schools, but to the Government establishing for them special schools in which instruction in English is given.

Recommendations of Committee.

With a view to increasing the number of schools in the outlying districts of the Colony, the Committee of the Board recommended that the Government be asked to vote £200 a year towards building elementary schools there, and maintaining the school buildings and defraying the salaries of teachers for the first three years of the existence of the schools. Owing to practical difficulties as to whom the property of such buildings should be vested in, the Government were unable to adopt the recommendation. But the Mohammedan schools now established in some of the districts are supplying the place of these proposed village schools.

Since 1889 the attendance at school has increased by about 1,500 scholars. How much of this result is due to the attractions of the school exhibition, and the recommendations of the Committee, how much to the increase of population and the spread of general enlightenment, must be left undecided. But it would appear that there is as much reason for dissatisfaction with the attendance now as there was twelve years ago.*

There is no compulsory attendance law in the Colony, and the community is not yet ripe for such an innovation. It is, however, necessary that a school should present for inspection at least 70 per cent. of the number on the register, before it can earn a grant

Compulsory Attendance.

* "It is hoped that much improvement in the future will be effected as a result of the recent resolution of the Board of Education, which requires that a child shall have made at least a specified number of attendances as a condition precedent to admission to the annual examination."—(General Report for the year 1901 on the Schools in the Colony of Lagos.)

under the Education Law of the Colony. This is not a high limit, for the proportion on an average in daily attendance is a little higher.

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The number of schools in Lagos outside the state-aid system is only five, that is, three girls' schools and two mixed. One of these, the Church Missionary Girls' Seminary, is a secondary school which had been under inspection in former years, but was subsequently withdrawn; the other two girls' schools are private adventure schools. The mixed schools are elementary schools in connection with the Baptist Society.

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ucation.

Mohammedan education, at whatever value it may be estimated, was with Mohammedanism introduced into Lagos about the year 1816; but about the year 1836 there was a civil war in the town which led to the expulsion of the Mohammedans. They were invited back in 1840, and since then have been allowed to follow their faith peaceably and to make converts without any disturbance. The Mohammedans now form the largest section of the community, and number no less than 20,000. They have schools of their own in which their children are instructed. These schools are generally held in the teacher's house or in the open street opposite. The instruction is exclusively confined to learning by heart portions of the Koran. The lessons are generally written on wooden tablets, and when one lesson has been mastered it is washed off and another is written in its stead on the tablets. The master and his scholars sit on the ground with their tablets in their hands, and all who are learning keep reciting and chanting their different lessons at the same time.

The number of the more important of these schools is about sixty, and the average attendance of the scholars is 2,000, that is, 1,500 boys and 500 girls. The education is free and the teacher is self-appointed. Any man may become a teacher if he can get himself accepted as such. He is supported by presents from the parents of his scholars or from the scholars themselves. Much value is attached by the Mohammedans to the instruction in Arabic and the Koran given in these schools, and many young men have received their ovations or *wolimas* for ability to recite the whole Koran from memory. Girls, too, are not always behind-hand, for some have performed the feat and received their own commendations.

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ools.

The Mohammedans have, however, not been able or willing to graft a more practical course of studies in the curriculum of their own schools. To promote this end, and at the same time to disarm the suspicion with which they view the instruction of their children in the missionary schools, the Government have assisted them to establish Moslem schools in which a course of instruction is given in accordance with the recommendations of the Committee of the Board of Education. There are now three Government Moslem schools in the Colony—one in Lagos and two in the outlying districts. About two or three years ago the attendance

in two of these schools was not less than 500, but it has now fallen considerably. One of the difficulties in maintaining in them a proper standard of attendance and instruction is the want of suitable teachers. The present teachers are Mohammedan natives; they are appointed by the Government under the same conditions as civil servants. The principal teachers receive from £60 to £72 and their assistants from £24 to £30. The school house at Lagos was built and furnished at the expense of the Government, but those in the districts were built and furnished by the Mohammedans in those localities. There is also a Government school for Pagan children established in one of the outlying districts.

Appointment
and Salaries
of Moham-
medan
Teachers.

The Inspector of Schools, like other civil servants, is appointed by the Governor, subject to the approval of the Secretary of State for the Colonies. He is the head of the Education Department of the Colony, and the chief executive officer of the Board of Education. His principal duties are to examine the schools annually for the payment of grants, to examine candidates for teachers' certificates, to report each year on the condition of education in the Colony, and to pay visits without notice for the purpose of observing and conferring with managers on the general work and organisation of the schools and the methods of instruction. He also conducts the examinations for admission into the civil service and public institutions of the Colony, and acts as manager of the Government schools.

Administra-
tion.

The school year extends from the 1st of October in any year to the 30th of September in the following year. The annual examination commences as far as practicable with the first day of the school year, not less than seven days' notice having been given to the schools to be examined from time to time. The schools are examined on the basis of the system of payments by results, and grants are made for individual passes in each subject in addition to capitation grants for organisation and discipline, average attendance, freehand drawing, etc. In order to pass in a standard it is necessary for the scholar to obtain half-marks in reading and in either writing or arithmetic; and before any grant shall be made to any school it shall be necessary (a) that the Board have been satisfied with the management of the school (b) that every teacher of the school has held a certificate from the Board, and (c) that at the examination of the school not less than 70 per cent. of the enrolment were present for examination, and not more than 40 per cent. of such presentees failed to pass.

Inspection
and Exami-
nation of
Schools.

In the case of infant schools, the Inspector may examine the children collectively, and the Board may, in lieu of a grant for individual passes, make a capitation grant on the average attendance. There is no age limit imposed for the respective standards, but the children who pass the First (Primary) Standard are of the average age of eleven years, and advance each year one standard, until they pass the Fourth (Primary) Standard, when they are fourteen years of age. This is, as a rule, the highest

standard in the primary school. No assistance is given under the Education Law in respect of the attainment or attendance of any child under the age of four years, and no marks can be obtained by any scholar for any work done in any standard in which he shall already have passed at any examination of schools held under the Board Rules.

The
Standards.

The following are the officially recognised Standards in the assisted schools :—

INFANT DEPARTMENT.

I. (Sub-Standard I.) *Reading*.—To know the alphabet ; appearance and powers of letters ; combinations of two and of three letters.
Writing.—To write, on blackboard or slate, small letters.
Arithmetic.—To know numbers up to 50 ; very simple mental calculation.

II. (Sub-Standard II.) *Reading*.—To read sentences consisting chiefly of words of one syllable.
Writing.—To write, on blackboard or slate, small and capital letters.
Arithmetic.—Knowledge of numbers up to 100 ; very easy calculations, on slate or blackboard, or mental.

PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

III. (Primary Standard I.) *Reading*.—To read a short paragraph from a book, not confined to words of one syllable.
Writing.—To copy correctly, in round hand, a few lines of print.
Arithmetic.—To name the days of the week and months of the year ; addition and subtraction of numbers of not more than two figures ; in addition not more than five lines to be given ; sums to be copied from blackboard.

IV. (Primary Standard II.) *Reading*.—To read a short paragraph from an elementary reading-book.
Writing.—To write on slate, from dictation, not more than ten common words commencing with capital letters ; copybooks, large or half-text hand, to be shown.
Arithmetic.—Notation and numeration up to 10,000 ; simple addition and subtraction ; multiplication and division tables.
Plain Needlework.*—Hemming, seaming, and felling.

V. (Primary Standard III.) *Reading*.—To read, with intelligence, a short paragraph from a more advanced reading-book.
Writing.—To write on paper, from dictation, a passage of not more than six lines from a corresponding book, read slowly once and then dictated in single words ; copy-books, large and half-text hand, to be shown.
Arithmetic.—Sums in the simple rules as far as, and including, long division ; money tables.

* For female pupils only

Plain Needlework.—Greater proficiency in the same.

VI. (Primary Standard IV.) *Reading.*—To read, with intelligence, a short paragraph from a yet more advanced reading-book.

Writing.—To write on paper, from dictation, a passage of not more than six lines from a corresponding book, read slowly once and then dictated, a few words at a time; copybooks (capitals and figures, large and small hand) to be shown.

Arithmetic.—Sums in the compound rules; reduction; tables of weights and measures.*

Grammar.—Definitions of the parts of speech; ability to distinguish the parts of speech in simple sentences.

Geography.—Size and shape of the world; geographical terms, illustrated by diagrams or references to a map.

Plain Needlework.—The work of the previous standards; stitching.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

VII. (Primary Standard V.) *Reading.*—To read, with intelligence and expression, a few lines of poetry or prose, at the choice of the Inspector.

Writing.—To write, from dictation, a short paragraph from some modern narrative, read once and dictated a few words at a time; copybooks to be shown.

Arithmetic.—Fractions (vulgar and decimal); practice (simple and compound).

Grammar.—To parse easy sentences.

History.—History of England to 1066; or elementary outlines of the history of the Yoruba country.

Geography.—Geography of West Africa; easy questions on the geography of the British Isles.

Plain Needlework.—The work of the previous standards; gathering, stroking and setting in of gathers; marking on canvas.

VIII. (Primary Standard VI.) *Reading.*—To read with increased intelligence and expression a few lines of poetry and prose, at the choice of the Inspector.

Writing.—To write from memory the substance of a short story, read out thrice; spelling, handwriting and grammatical construction to be considered; copybooks to be shown.

Arithmetic.—Proportion and interest (simple and compound).

Grammar.—To parse more difficult sentences; analysis of simple sentences.

History.—History of England from 1066 to 1509; or outlines of the history of the Yoruba country.

Geography.—Geography of Europe and Africa.

* The weights and measures taught to children should be only such as are really useful: e.g., avoirdupois weight, long measure, square measure, cubic measure, liquid measure and the time-table.

Plain Needlework.—The work of the previous Standards; marking on calico; button-holing; herring-boning.

IX. (Primary Standard VII.) *Reading.*—To read, with intelligent appreciation, from any book or periodical selected by the Inspector, passages of ordinary difficulty.

Writing.—To write a theme or letter on an easy subject; composition, spelling and handwriting to be considered; copybooks and exercise-books to be shown.

Arithmetic.—Discount and profit and loss, with a general knowledge of the principles of averages and percentages.

Grammar.—Parsing and analysis of compound and complex sentences; general questions in grammar.

History.—History of England from 1509 to the present time; or, history of the Yoruba country.

Geography.—Geography of the world.

Plain Needlework.—The work of the previous Standards; darning; patching.

language of
instruction.

The instruction in English is as a rule given through the medium of the vernacular. In almost all the standards the teaching is bi-lingual, and it has recently been proposed that bi-lingual Readers be prepared for the lower standards. The examinations held under the Board Rules are conducted bi-lingually in the sub-standards and lower primary standards. In the secondary departments the examination is as much as possible conducted in English.

proposed
revision of
the Educa-
tion Rules
1891.

In the year 1892 the attention of the Board of Education was attracted to the weakness in public instruction which has its source in the conditions required for a pass at the examination of the schools. As in order to pass a standard a child has only to obtain half marks in reading and in either writing or arithmetic, many children have been advanced from year to year to higher and higher standards with but the minimum of instruction in reading and in either writing or arithmetic. Such a condition of things is disastrous to sound education. The Board, therefore, appointed a Committee on the 4th of September, 1893, to consider whether any and, if any, what changes were necessary in the "Amended Education Rules, 1891."* The Committee carefully considered the whole question of public instruction and embodied their recommendations in the draft Education Rules which were presented to the Board of Education in 1895. The new rules have not yet become law. They were subsequently incorporated with a Scheme of Public Instruction projected by Sir Henry McCallum, Governor of the Colony in 1897-8, and for reasons to be given afterwards it has not yet been possible for this scheme to be proceeded with.

* The Amended Education Rules, 1891, can be seen at the Board of Education Library, St. Stephen's House, Cannon Row, Whitehall, London, S. W. See also Appendix B.

Until a few years ago the male teachers in the mission schools were generally selected from youths who had been instructed in the schools and training institutions of the missionary societies. The training related only to education as a branch of missionary work, and the pupils were maintained and educated gratuitously on the understanding that at the end of their course they would hold themselves in readiness to undertake any work to which their society might appoint them. The Church Missionary Society have, however, now transferred their training institution to the interior of Yoruba—the present centre of their missionary operations—and the pupils trained there are neither available nor suitable for the Lagos schools. The other missionary societies have no training institutions, but occasionally train their teachers in their secondary and elementary schools. There are therefore at present no satisfactory arrangements for the professional training or the supply of teachers. Owing to lack of means the missionary societies cannot remedy this evil. Various recommendations on the subject have been made to the Government, and it is hoped that in due course this want will be supplied.

Teachers,
their Train-
ing, A) point
ment and
Scale of
Payment.

[The following is taken from the General Report for the year 1901 on the Schools in the Colony of Lagos :—“No more important work can be undertaken or maintained than the work of training those who in virtue of their position have great influence with the majority of the parents of the children of the community, and who are the most important of all persons concerned in perfecting what ought to be treated as the most fundamental of public duties. Everything depends in the long run upon the intelligent training of the teacher. Mechanical result may be produced, and a fair degree of intelligence may be attained with an untrained but energetic teacher. But any high degree of intelligence cannot be expected unless the class is handled by a skilful teacher who has been trained in the best methods and has sufficient knowledge to illustrate any subject of instruction and skilled readiness to avail himself of unexpected openings which every lesson produces. Besides this, the highest order of discipline, self-government—founded upon interest and pride in the school work—cannot be expected from unskilled teachers, who can at the best produce sufficient quiet for the school work to go on quietly either by fear or affection.”]

The system of pupil teachers is not legally recognised, and any one who is able to pass the examination for teachers' certificate may, *ceteris paribus*, be employed as a teacher in an assisted school. The certificates are of four grades, and are obtainable by examination. It is not required that the candidates must have undergone probation by actual service in school. Candidates for first-class certificates are examined in reading, writing, arithmetic and mensuration, grammar and composition, history, geography and school management, and, if they so desire, in algebra as far as quadratic equations and the first two books of *Euclid*. Second-class candidates are required to pass an examination in Standards I.-IX. of the Code; third-class candidates in

Standards I-VIII., and fourth-class candidates in Standards I-VII. Teachers holding third and fourth-class certificates are practically monitors and pupils in training.

The Board also grant "honorary certificates" to fit and competent persons educated elsewhere than in the Colony and "special honorary certificates" to persons holding from the Board first-class teachers' certificates, whom the Inspector shall certify to have conducted or taught at an assisted or Government school in the Colony with credit and success for two years at least.

There are fifty-eight male and twenty-one female teachers now employed in the elementary schools. Head teachers receive from £36 to £60 per annum and assistant teachers from £18 to £45. Female teachers receive from £6 to £15 per annum. The teachers also receive a bonus of one-half of the annual school grant earned by their schools as augmentation of salary. With this bonus, a hard-working head teacher in a large school makes from £84 to £90 per annum, and an assistant in a like case makes about £60 per annum.

pensions. No arrangements exist for pensions to teachers in missionary schools. The male teachers are generally promoted into the ministry of their society, and then come under the regulations provided for ministers who are incapacitated for work. Female teachers as a rule leave off teaching when they are married.

religious instruction. Religious instruction is not recognised as a school subject under the Education Law of the Colony. The schools are all, however, opened and closed with religious exercises, and the first hour every day is devoted to Scripture lesson or to instruction in the catechism and doctrines of the confession of the missionary societies with which the school is connected. In the Roman Catholic schools the religious instruction is given by a priest; in the Protestant schools it is generally given by the teachers of the schools. A Diocesan Inspector annually examines the Church of England schools in religious knowledge. The Government Moslem schools are opened with the ordinary religious exercises of the Mohammedans. In all cases the arrangements for religious instruction are such as to allow one hour and a half in infant schools and two hours in other schools for secular instruction at each attendance. Every assisted school is open to children without distinction of religion or race, and, by the rules of such a school, no child may receive any religious instruction to which the parent or guardian of such child objects, or be present when such instruction is given at the school.

domestic economy. Domestic economy is taught in Roman Catholic convent schools. The course of instruction includes needlework and laundry work, and suitable and appropriate arrangements are made for the teaching of these subjects.

singing. In all schools singing of some kind is taught as a means of inculcating moral and religious principles, and as a diversion in the infant departments. The subject is, however, not included in

the officially recognised standards, and, although the African is so naturally fond of music, it is not systematically taught at school as the beginning and foundation of musical study.

Drawing, although recognised as a subject of school instruction, is only taught by the light of nature. There is not a qualified drawing master in connection with any of the schools, and the grant for teaching this subject is lower than any other in the Code. Drawing.

There is a good deal of natural play in the streets and lanes adjoining the school-house, but there are no organised physical exercises and drill. This is due to want of playgrounds. In a crowded town like Lagos much difficulty is experienced in obtaining sufficient open spaces. Physical training and hygiene are, however, now engaging the serious attention of the Board of Education. They have recommended to the Government that playgrounds be prepared for school children on available spots in the vicinity of the town, and that arrangements be made for games, drill and suitable gymnastic exercises. A tramcar line is being constructed to connect Lagos with Ebute Metta on the mainland. This will, on completion, offer great facility for the conveying of school children to playgrounds in Ebute Metta. Physical Exercises, Drill, &c.

[The following is taken from the General Report for the year 1901 on the Schools in the Colony of Lagos :—“A scheme of teaching sanitation has been recently adopted by the Board of Education, and classes are to be instructed in the subject by teachers who have obtained certificates at the examination held by the Chief Medical Officer. Grants are to be made at higher rates than with respect to the ordinary subjects of the curriculum of the Elementary School, and, as an incentive to industry, teachers holding the First Class Certificate in sanitation are to receive a bonus of one-half of the grant earned by their classes, while those who hold the Second Class Certificate are to receive a bonus of one-fourth of the grant of their own classes. The sum of £20 has also been voted for special prizes to individual scholars who have proved themselves most proficient in the subject—the prizes to be publicly awarded in connection with the Annual Competitive Exhibition of School Work.”] Scheme of Teaching Sanitation.

The Government in 1899 made temporary arrangements for technical instruction by establishing a small school for apprentices who are able and willing to undergo training for three or five years. These apprentices are selected by nomination and examination, and receive during their training time annual allowances of £12 for the first two years, £24 for the third year and £36 for the fourth and fifth years. At the end of their course they are to accept service under the Government as native surveyors or clerks of works at the salary of £60 per annum. The subjects of instruction are mathematics, theory and practice of building construction, and principles and practice of land surveying. Practical chemistry is taught to two apprentices in the Government Chemist's Department, and the practice of telegraphy to several learners in the Department of Inland Telegraphs. Technical Instruction.

Agricultural
instruction.

Agricultural instruction on a limited scale is given to apprentices at the Government Botanic Station at Ebute Metta, which was established in 1888. The youths are taught the methods of making seed-beds, sowing seeds, pruning trees, budding and grafting, and the general routine of work connected with a botanic station. It is intended that this course should be preparatory to an enlarged course of instruction in horticulture, agriculture and economic botany, and the Botanical Station is at an early date to be transferred to the hinterland in a locality in close proximity to the railway, and in which a model farm will be formed.

Industrial
and
reformatory
schools.

The Roman Catholic Mission have established a boys' and a girls' industrial and reformatory school at Topo, a settlement in the western district of the Colony, about forty miles distant from Lagos by the lagoon. The scholars, who now number forty-one boys and eleven girls, are principally slave children collected from the different stations of the Society in Yoruba. All the children are taught to read and write and to calculate. In addition, the boys engage in farm labour, and are instructed in horticulture, and the girls are taught household duties, plain sewing and cooking. The children are maintained and trained at cost of the mission, but the Government make an annual grant of 25s. for each pupil under industrial instruction, in addition to the ordinary school grants.

The Hussey
charity
school.

The Rebecca Hussey Charity School at Lagos for industrial and general education was established in the year 1880 out of the income of a sum of £1,000 which the late Rebecca Hussey, of the Parish of St. Martin's, in London, who died on the 22nd of August, 1714, bequeathed to the redemption of slaves, if it may be effected, or else to the easement of their slavery. Her executors, in carrying out the provisions of her will, paid this sum into the Public Funds in England, and it was lost sight of for 148 years. In 1863, the Court of Chancery placed the charity and funds under the management and control of trustees in London, who were empowered to apply the moiety of the income in Lagos, and the remaining moiety in St. Helena, in accordance with the spirit of the bequest. Local trustees, consisting of the Colonial Secretary and not more than four other gentlemen, were appointed for the purpose of administering the charity, in whom are vested the management of the school. Since the year 1895 the Government have made an annual grant not exceeding £500 to the school on the conditions that it be re-organised, with a view to affording the pupils of the assisted and other schools of the Colony an opportunity of obtaining gratuitous instruction in industrial and technical work, and that it be subjected to Government supervision. The Government also provided a sum of £1,500 from the public funds for capital expenditure of the school, in consequence of the introduction of the new scheme. The number of pupils now resident is thirteen. They

are boys who have escaped from slavery, and are under the protection of the Supreme Court. Ten of them receive primary instruction only, and the remaining three, together with twenty-four extra-mural students, are also instructed in mensuration, geometrical drawing, carpentry and smiths' work.*

What are locally known as secondary schools are, strictly speaking, higher grade elementary schools, which contain classes corresponding to all the standards of the Code and a somewhat enlarged curriculum, owing to the introduction of "secondary" or "specific" subjects.

The fees in these schools are 10s. 6d. or 21s. per quarter (according to the standard of the pupil), and the teachers are better qualified than those of the ordinary elementary schools. The headmaster or principal is, as a rule, a clergyman of the denomination with which the school is connected. There are three secondary schools for boys in connection with the Church Missionary, Wesleyan and Roman Catholic Societies respectively. The number of scholars in the secondary department of these schools (Primary Standards V.-VII.) is 127, and the specific subjects taken up during the past school year included English literature, essay writing, latin, algebra, geometry, and book-keeping. Grants for primary subjects are made on the same conditions as in the case of elementary schools, and for the secondary subjects special grants of 4s., 5s., or 6s. are made for a "fair," "good," or "excellent" pass. Besides the annual examination under the rules of the Board, many of the scholars of these schools are annually sent up for the Certificate Examination of the Royal College of Preceptors in London, and not a few of them have obtained certificates of the first or second class.

In January, 1898, Sir Henry McCallum, then Governor of the Colony, published a Memorandum on Secondary Education,† in which, while acknowledging the good work performed by the Missionary Secondary Schools, he observed that, owing to lack of funds on the part of the Missionary Societies, it has not been possible for them to supply in these schools the training best calculated to prepare the youth of the Colony for the life they have to live and the livelihood which they must get. His Excellency proposed to the Board of Education that it be recommended to the Government to establish one Higher Grade School to absorb the Missionary Secondary Schools, and that the curriculum of studies should comprise English, commercial arithmetic, geometry, geometrical drawing, mensuration, shorthand and book-keeping. This proposal was really part of a scheme of public instruction, in which provision was made for the establishment of "industrial schools for artisans, mechanics and craftsmen," and of "agricultural schools for farmers and planters." The recommendation was submitted to the Secretary of State for the Colonies. But effect has not yet been given to it in conse-

* The General Report for the year 1901 on the Schools in the Colony of Lagos states that the Rebecca Hussey Charity School has been temporarily combined with the Government Technical School.

† This can be seen at the Board of Education Library, St. Stephen's House, Cannon Row, Whitehall, London, S. W.

quence of certain objections raised in England by the Committee of the Church Missionary Society.

Proposed establishment of Secondary and Technical School for Lagos and Northern and Southern Nigeria.

Since 1898 Lagos has, for administrative purposes, been more closely related to the neighbouring Colonies of Northern and Southern Nigeria, and it is now under consideration to establish a Secondary and Technical School for the three provinces. There is a strong public feeling existing that up to the present a literary education has been too much fostered in the schools at the expense of a practical one. But it is difficult to remedy the evil, as means and suitable technical masters are not available to the Missionary Societies. The establishment of a good Secondary and Technical School by the Government may, in course of time, supply the suitable teachers, and there is every reason to believe that the Government would encourage any earnest effort for manual instruction in the schools.

Higher education.

Beyond the secondary schools there is no provision for higher education. Lagos is, however, approved as a centre for the examinations for matriculation and for the degrees of B.A. or LL.B. of the University of London, and there have been successful candidates for the former examination.

The Lagos Institute.

[The following is taken from the General Report for the year 1901 on the schools in the Colony of Lagos:—"Since my last Report was written, an institution designated 'The Lagos Institute for the encouragement of the study of Literature, Science and Art' has been founded under the auspices of the Governor, Sir William Macgregor. Every person—male and female, of or above the age of fourteen years—is eligible for membership, the object being to provide for the youth a meeting place for mutual improvement and rational amusements, and to bring together all classes of society with a view to promoting among them kindly understanding and intelligent sympathy. The present number of members is about 150, and the organisation comprises a reading room and a lecture hall, offers facilities for the holding of meetings at which papers are read, lectures delivered and discussions held on topics of general interest, and promises to contain a valuable collection of books and other appliances for study. It is also proposed to arrange for evening classes at which instruction shall be given in literary, scientific, or technical subjects. Through the Governor's good offices, a small Government building is placed at the disposal of the Institute. This building has now been enlarged and improved by means of subscriptions from members and ample donations from the Governor and from the heads of the principal mercantile establishments to whom the Governor, on behalf of the Institute, appealed for assistance. The Institute also received a grant of £100 from the public funds last year, and is receiving a similar grant in the current year, to assist it in the founding of a library. There is no doubt that this institution is calculated to exercise an important influence on the education and civilisation of the country. To aid in its development the schoolmaster must sow the seeds of knowledge and intelligence in the youth at school.' But, on the other hand, it must not be forgotten that the sound condition

of popular instruction is the effect of the culture of certain classes of society, and this culture it is expected that 'The Lagos Institute' will gradually foster and diffuse in the Lagos community. The management is vested in a strong and influential committee, and the Governor, in addition to the many valuable services already rendered as the author of its being, has given the Institute a name and position by acting during the past year as its first President and by now consenting to be its Patron."]

III. CONCLUSION: FUTURE OF NATIVE EDUCATION.

With an estimated population of 3,000,000 in Yoruba, the number of children fit for school education cannot be less than 300,000. According to the most recent statistics, the number actually attending the missionary schools is only 2,000, that is, only one child attends school out of one hundred and fifty children of school age. Lack of means on the part of the missionaries, and the general social condition of the country in the past, must in a large measure account for this educational destitution. But now that all the Yoruba Chiefs have accepted the British Protectorate, and the country is no longer distracted by inter-tribal wars, the few missionary schools in the interior should only serve as a means of attracting the attention of the Government to what must soon become a plain duty. The railway which is recently inaugurated will open new markets, and the roads which are being constructed in all directions will tend to increase the facilities of communication with Lagos. It is therefore a most urgent question how to prepare the people for the new condition of things which these changes imply. The masses will require elementary training, both moral and intellectual, and some measure of agricultural training in order to fully develop the agricultural wealth for which the country possesses such natural advantages. To this end the establishment of agricultural schools is not only one means, it is far the greatest means. Existing missionary and Mohammedan village schools might be made the basis of a scheme for these native agricultural schools, where the "literary" instruction should include reading and writing in the vernacular and English, and arithmetic as far as the money rules, together with practical moral and religious training and instruction in the simplest sanitary rules. It is unlikely that English will ever generally supplant the every-day speech of the people. But for a more advanced education ability to read English with ease will, of course, be necessary, and provision should be made for a course of instruction in English for the few who will rise above the average, and are destined to be the future leaders of their people. The point to be steadily kept in view is that the education should not be diverted into unnatural channels, but that it should keep in touch with the development actually proceeding in the country. At the same time, the endeavour should

not be to perpetuate a labouring class, or to make of the native merely a better machine ; it should rather be to make him a better or a nobler man.

HENRY CABE,

Inspector of Schools.

Education Office, Lagos,

April, 1901.

APPENDIX A.

THE EDUCATION ORDINANCE, 1887.

An Ordinance to Consolidate and Amend the Laws relating to the Title. Promotion of Education.

30th May, 1887. Date.

No. 3, 1887.

Whereas it is expedient to consolidate and amend the laws relating to Preamble. the promotion of education ;

Be it enacted by the Governor of the Colony of Lagos, with the advice Enactment. and consent of the Legislative Council thereof, as follows :

1. From and after the commencement of this Ordinance "The Education Ordinance, 1882," and all Rules thereunder made, "The Education Ordinance, 1882, Amendment Ordinance, 1882," and "The Education Ordinance Amendment Ordinance, 1883," shall no longer be of any force in the Colony of Lagos, and, as regards any effect to be given to them, or to any of their respective provisions, in the said Colony, the same shall be and are hereby repealed.

Repeal of Gold Coast Ordinances Nos. 4 and 9 of 1882 and No. 4 of 1883; and of Rules under No. 4 of 1882.

2. In this Ordinance, except where and in so far as something in the subject or the context requires some different connotation or meaning ;

- "The Governor" includes every person for the time being administering the Government of the Colony ;
"The Inspector of Schools," or "the Inspector," means the Inspector of Schools appointed under this Ordinance ;
"Sub-inspector of Schools," or "Sub-inspector," means Sub-inspector of Schools appointed under this Ordinance ;
"The Board" means the Board of Education established by this Ordinance ;
"Board Rules" means rules, made under this Ordinance, for the time being in force ;
"Managers" includes trustees and governing body, whether consisting of several individuals or of only one, and their respective representatives under the Board Rules ;
"School" means private school, that is to say, school which is not under the entire control of the Government, in the Colony ;
"Assisted school" means school assisted under this Ordinance and the Board Rules ;
"Infant school" means school, or department of a school, at or in which the highest standard of education is not so high as is requisite for the lowest standard of examination fixed for primary schools by the Board Rules ;
"Primary school" means school, or department of a school, at or in which the standard of education of the highest class is higher than is requisite for the highest standard of examination fixed for infant schools by the Board Rules and not higher than is requisite for the highest standard of examination fixed for primary schools by the Board Rules ;
"Secondary school" means school, or department of a school, at or in which the standard of education of the highest class is higher than is requisite for the highest standard of examination fixed for primary schools by the Board Rules ;

Interpretation of terms.

"Industrial school" means school at which, either all the pupils, or a proportion of them fixed by the Board Rules, devote not less than ten hours a week to manual labour, that is to say, to some handicraft, manufacturing process or agricultural work, or, in the case of females, to domestic economy, on a plan approved by the Board; and

"Training institution" means college, school or institution in the Colony, not being a college, school or institution under the entire control of the Government, at which teachers are specially trained.

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3. It shall be lawful for Her Majesty to appoint an Inspector of Schools for the Colony, and also a Sub-inspector of Schools for the Colony, and such other educational officers as may be requisite for the purposes of this Ordinance and the Board Rules, or for any of them respectively; and likewise to remove any such officer, and to fill, by either promotion or fresh appointment, any vacancy that may occur in the office of any such officer through death, incapacity, removal, absence or other cause.

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4. There shall be paid, out of the public funds of the Colony, to the educational officers appointed under this Ordinance, such salaries as the Legislative Council shall from time to time by resolution determine, subject to disallowance by Her Majesty.

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ducation.

5. There shall be a Board of Education for the Colony, which Board shall consist of the Governor, the Members of the Legislative Council, the Inspector of Schools and such other person or persons, not exceeding four in number, as the Governor shall nominate in that behalf. Every nomination of a member of the Board by the Governor shall be for a period of not more than three years.

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6. The Board shall meet as often as the Governor shall think fit to convene it. The Governor, or, in his absence, such other member of the Board as he shall appoint in writing, shall be president of the Board. The president and four members of the Board, two of whom shall be Members of the Legislative Council, shall form a quorum. When the opinions of the members of the Board present at a meeting are equally divided, the president, in addition to his vote as a member, shall have a casting vote. The Sub-inspector of Schools shall act as Secretary to the Board.

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7. It shall be lawful for the Board from time to time to employ fit and proper persons to perform, temporarily or occasionally, the duties of educational officers appointed under this Ordinance.

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8. There shall be paid to persons so employed by the Board such remuneration, from the public funds of the Colony, as the Legislative Council shall in each instance by resolution determine, subject to disallowance by Her Majesty.

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9. It shall be lawful for the Legislative Council to grant annually for educational purposes, from the public funds of the Colony, such sum as it shall deem expedient; and the Colonial Treasurer shall in every year, out of the public funds of the Colony, place at the disposal of the Board the amount granted by the Legislative Council for such purposes.

Payments of salaries under Section 4, and of remuneration under Section 8, of this Ordinance shall not be deemed to be educational purposes within the meaning of this section.

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10. Subject to the provisions of this Ordinance and of the Board Rules, it shall be lawful for the Board, with and out of the moneys so placed at its disposal, first, to assist schools and training institutions, and, secondly, to institute scholarships for the purposes mentioned in the 21st Section of this Ordinance.

11. The Board may, subject to the provisions of this Ordinance, from time to time make, alter and revoke rules for regulating applications for, and the allowance of, grants in aid of schools; for fixing the rates of such grants; with regard to the payment, and the application, of such grants; with regard to the examination of schools to be assisted under this Ordinance and the Board Rules, and of persons to be employed as teachers at such schools; with regard to granting certificates of competency to such persons; with regard to the books in the nature of records, including account-books, to be kept at assisted schools, and the statistics including accounts, to be furnished to it by the managers and teachers of such schools; with regard to grants in aid of training institutions; with regard to the duties of educational officers appointed under this Ordinance; and, generally, not only as is in this Ordinance expressly provided, but all such other rules as it shall deem necessary for giving effect to the provisions of this Ordinance.

Power to Board to make Rule

Such rules, on being approved by the Governor, and on publication, shall have the same effect as if they were contained in this Ordinance.

12. No assistance shall be given to any school, under this Ordinance or the Board Rules, in respect of any attainment, or attendance at school, of any child under the age of four years.

As to infant under four.

13. No grant shall be made, under this Ordinance or the Board Rules, in aid of any school, except under the following conditions:—

Conditions of assistance to Private Schools.

- (1) That the property and management of the school be vested in managers having power to appoint and dismiss the teachers and responsible for payment of the teachers' salaries and of all other expenses of the school;
- (2) That the requirements of the Board Rules with regard to teachers being certificated be satisfied in the case of the school;
- (3) That at the last preceding examination of schools held under the Board Rules the school have attained the requisite percentage of proficiency; and
- (4) That the school, by its rules, be at all times open for inspection by the Inspector, the Sub-Inspector or any member of the Board; And in the case of primary schools, except under the following further conditions:—
- (5) That the school be open to children without distinction of religion or race;
- (6) That the reading and writing of the English language, arithmetic and, in the case of females, plain needlework, be taught at the school, and that English grammar, English history, and geography, if taught at all, be taught as class subjects; and
- (7) That, by the rules of the school, no child receive any religious instruction to which the parent or guardian of such child objects, or be present when such instruction is given, at the school.

Additional conditions in the case of Primary Schools.

14. The Board may, in its discretion, refuse to make a grant, or make a less grant than, but for this section, the Board Rules would require, or withhold, either altogether, or for a time, the whole, or any part of, any grant already made to any school:

Discretion to Board to refuse &c. to assist Schools in certain cases

- (1) Where the Board considers the establishment and existence of the school superfluous by reason of the existence of another school in its vicinity; or
- (2) Where the school yields a profit to its proprietor, or is able to support itself; or
- (3) Where the Board has reason to believe that the school-fees have been reduced in consequence of the prospect of Government assistance; or

- (4) Where the managers have not properly maintained the school buildings in a good state of repair, or in good sanitary condition, to the satisfaction of the Board, or have not duly paid any of the expenses of the school ; or
- (5) Where the managers have failed to comply with any of the requirements of the Board Rules ; or
- (6) Where a manager or teacher of the school has falsified any record required by the Board Rules to be kept at the school, or any return or information required by the Board Rules to be furnished by the managers or teachers of the school ; or
- (7) Where the Board has reason to apprehend that money granted in aid of the school will be misapplied or not properly applied.

Power to Board to differentiate rates of Grants in aid of Schools.

15. It shall be lawful for the Board to fix different rates of grants for infant schools, primary schools, secondary schools and industrial schools respectively, and also in respect of different degrees of excellence in schools, and in respect of different subjects of instruction.

Liability of Managers of assisted Schools to re-fund Grant-moneys in certain cases.

16. The managers of every assisted school shall be liable to refund to the Board all moneys paid to them in respect of any grant made, under this Ordinance or the Board Rules, in aid of the school :—

- (1) Where, by reason of any of the conditions expressed in Section 13 of this Ordinance not having been fulfilled in the case of the school, such grant should not have been made ; or
- (2) Where any manager or teacher of the school shall have wilfully and knowingly made any false representation, written or oral, for the purpose of inducing the making of such grant ; or
- (3) Where such moneys, or any part thereof, shall have been misapplied ; or
- (4) Where the requirements of the Board Rules with reference to, either the books to be kept at assisted schools, or the statistics to be furnished by the managers or teachers of such schools, shall not have been satisfied in relation to such grant.

Power to Board to forfeit Teachers' Certificates.

17. If any person certificated by the Board as a teacher shall be convicted of crime, or be found guilty by the Board of disreputable or immoral conduct, or of having wilfully and knowingly falsified any school record or return, or uttered to the Board, or made, any false declaration or statement, written or oral, with reference to the fulfilment, in the case of any school, of any of the conditions expressed in Section 13 of this Ordinance, the Board may declare any certificate granted by it to such person to be forfeited ; and thereupon such certificate shall be void to all intents and purposes.

Assisted Schools to receive pauper and alien children.

18. Every assisted school shall be bound to receive pauper or alien children, assigned to it by the Governor. in such numbers and upon such terms as may be fixed by the Board.

Application of Ordinance to Government Schools.

19. It shall be lawful for the Governor in Council to declare that all or any of the provisions of this Ordinance and of the Board Rules respectively shall apply to all or any Government schools, that is to say, schools under the entire control of the Government, in the Colony ; and every Government school comprised in any such declaration shall, as from any date specified in that behalf in such declaration, be subject to the provisions comprised in such declaration, in the same manner as if such Government school were a private school.

Assistance to Training Institutions.

20. The Board may make a grant in aid of any training institution, in respect of every teacher trained at such institution who shall have received at least two years' instruction thereat, and who, having obtained from the Board a certificate of general competency as a teacher, shall have

actually taught for not less than two years at either an assisted school or a Government school in the Colony.

21. The Board may, if it shall think fit, grant scholarships to children who shall have attended primary schools in the Colony, to enable such children to attend secondary schools, whether in the Colony or elsewhere; to natives of the Colony who shall have attended either primary or secondary schools in the Colony, to enable them so receive, whether in the Colony or elsewhere, a course of technical instruction with a view to the development of the natural resources of the Colony; and, moreover, to such persons and for such purposes as it shall by a vote of not less than three-fourths of its members from time to time determine; and it may make rules and conditions with regard to the granting and the holding of such scholarships.

Establishment of Scholarship

22. The Board may sue and be sued in the name of the Queen's Advocate or of any person whom the Governor shall have nominated in that behalf in writing.

Procedure.

23. The Colonial Secretary shall once in every year lay before the Legislative Council a report of all grants made by the Board during the previous year.

Report of Grants made by Board to be laid before Legislative Council.

24. Nothing in this Ordinance contained shall be construed to debar the Governor from establishing or maintaining schools which shall be under the entire control of the Government.

Saving of rights of Governor.

25. This Ordinance may be cited for all purposes as "The Education Ordinance, 1887."

Short title.

26. This Ordinance shall not come into operation, unless and until the Governor shall notify by proclamation that it is Her Majesty's pleasure not to disallow the same; and, subject as aforesaid, it shall come into operation on the 1st day of July, 1887, or so soon after that day as such proclamation as aforesaid shall be made.

Commencement of Ordinance.

Passed in the Legislative Council this 30th day of May in the year of Our Lord one thousand, eight hundred and eighty-seven.

APPENDIX B.

THE AMENDED AND CONSOLIDATED EDUCATION RULES, 1891.

I. INTERPRETATION.

1. In these Rules, except where and in so far as something in the subject or the context requires some different connotation or denotation:

Meanings of terms.

"The Ordinance" means the Education Ordinance, 1887; The terms "the Governor," "Sub-inspector of Schools," "Sub-inspector," "the Board," "Board Rules," "managers," "school," "assisted school," "infant school," "primary school," "secondary school" and "training institution" have the same respective connotations and denotations as in the Ordinance;

The "Inspector of Schools" or "the Inspector" means the Inspector of Schools appointed under the Ordinance and includes his substitute under No. 50 of these Rules ;

"Industrial school" means school at which not less than twenty-five per cent. of the pupils devote at the least ten hours a week to manual labour, as defined in Section 2 of the Ordinance ;

"Standard" means standard comprised in Schedule A to these Rules ;*

"Stage" means stage comprised in Schedule B to these Rules ;

"School-year" means period from the first day of October in any year to the 30th day of September in the following year, both days being included ;

"Attendance" means attendance at school of a pupil, in the case of infant schools during not less than an hour and a half in either a morning or an afternoon, and in all other cases during not less than two hours in either a morning or an afternoon ;

"Average attendance" means the number found by dividing the number of openings, admitting of attendances, of a school during a school-year into the number of attendances at the school during the same school-year ;

Words importing the masculine gender apply to females as well as males ;

Words importing the singular number apply to several persons as well as one person and to several matters as well as one matter ; and

Words importing the plural number apply to one person or matter as well as to more than one.

II. EXAMINATIONS OF SCHOOLS TO BE ASSISTED UNDER THE ORDINANCE.

2. The Inspector of Schools shall annually hold an examination of schools with a view to schools being assisted under the Ordinance and the Board Rules.

3. At every such examination every pupil of any school under instruction in any Standard who shall be presented for examination in such Standard shall be examined in such Standard ; the Standards of examination for infant schools shall be Standards I. and II., which may be called Sub-standards, and for primary schools, exclusively of any infant schools forming part of them, Standards III. to IX., inclusively, which may be called Primary Standards ; every pupil of a secondary school under instruction in any Stage who shall be presented for examination in such Stage shall be examined in such Stage ; pupils of industrial schools under instruction in industrial subjects may be subjected to such tests in such subjects as the Inspector shall think fit ; and pupils of any school may be examined in elementary free-hand drawing ; provided that :

(1) No pupil shall be examined in any Standard or Stage in which such pupil shall already have passed at any examination of schools held under the Board Rules, or in any lower Standard or Stage ; and

(2) No pupil of a secondary school shall be examined in any lower Standard than No. VII.

4. Except in so far as the Board Rules may prescribe the use of particular books, the Inspector shall not be restricted, in examining any school under the Board Rules, to the use of books ordinarily used in the school, but may use any other books of approximately equal difficulty.

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| 5. Hours. | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| 6. Notice. | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |
| 7. Presentee Lists. | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . | . |

* For the Standards see above, pages 44-46.

8. The Inspector may, in the case of infant schools, and shall in all other cases, apply a scale of marks to the work of every candidate examined at any examination of schools held under the Board Rules, in each subject in which such candidate shall have been examined thereat; and one-half of the number of marks obtainable for such subject shall be sufficient, and less than one-half of such number shall be insufficient, for a pass in such subject; provided that:

Marks and passes.

- (1) No marks shall be given to, nor shall any pass be obtained by, any candidate for or in any work done by such candidate, at any such examination, in any Standard or Stage in which such candidate shall already have passed at any such examination, or in any lower Standard or Stage;
- (2) No pupil of a school examined, at any such examination, in any Standard shall be deemed for any purpose whatsoever to have obtained a pass, at such examination, either in such Standard, or in any of the subjects of reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, history, geography, and plain needle-work, unless at such examination such pupil shall have become proficient, that is to say, have obtained at the least half-marks in two of the three subjects of reading, writing and arithmetic, of which reading shall be one;
- (3) No pupil of a school, examined at any such examination, shall receive any marks for, or be deemed to have obtained a pass in, needle-work, unless at such school needle-work be a compulsory subject for all female pupils above the age of seven;
- (4) No marks shall be given to, nor any pass obtained by, any pupil of a secondary school for any work done by such pupil, at any such examination, in any lower Standard than No. VII.;
- (5) No marks shall be given to, or pass obtained by, any pupil of a school not being a secondary school for any work done by such pupil, at any such examination, in any of the Stages; and
- (6) The Inspector may leave out of account any examination-work done, at any such examination, at any opening of any school by any candidate who shall have arrived late at such opening.

9. Report.

III. EXAMINATIONS FOR TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.

10. The Inspector of Schools shall in every year hold at the least one examination of candidates for teachers' certificates.

Examinations for teachers' certificates to be held. Standards. Schedule E. Notice of candidature.

11. The standards of examination for teachers' certificates shall be those comprised in Schedule E to these Rules.

12. Candidates for teachers' certificates shall give to the Inspector not less than seven days' notice of their candidature.

IV. THE GRANTING OF TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.

13. The Board may refuse to award a teachers' certificate in any case in which it is not satisfied that the applicant is a person of good character.

Discretion to Board to refuse certificates. Certificates obtainable by examination.

14. Subject to the last preceding rule, every person who shall have passed a successful examination in the first of the standards comprised in Schedule E to these Rules shall be entitled to receive from the Board a first-class teacher's certificate, every person who shall have passed a successful examination in the second of those standards shall be entitled to receive from the Board a second-class teacher's certificate, every person who shall have passed a successful examination in the third of those standards shall be entitled to receive from the Board a third-class teacher's certificate, and every person who shall have passed a successful examination in the fourth of those standards shall be entitled to receive from the Board a fourth-class teacher's certificate.

honorary
certificates.

15. The Board may grant honorary teachers' certificates to fit and competent persons educated elsewhere than in the Colony.

special
honorary
certificates.

16. The Board may grant special honorary teachers' certificates to persons holding from the Board first-class teachers' certificates whom the Inspector shall certify to have conducted, or taught at, either an assisted school, or a Government school, in the Colony, with credit and success for two years at the least.

17. Forms of certificates.

forfeiture of
certificates.

18. In case of serious misconduct on the part of any person to whom the Board shall have granted a teacher's certificate, the Board may by resolution declare such person to have forfeited such certificate: and thereupon such certificate shall be null and void to all intents and purposes.

V. APPLICATIONS FOR GRANTS IN AID OF SCHOOLS.

19. Applications for Grants in Aid of schools: when to be made ; . . .
20. To be accompanied by declaration and accounts
21. Forms.

VI. ALLOWANCE OF GRANTS IN AID OF SCHOOLS.

allowance of
grants in aid
of schools,
subject to
the condi-
tions.

22. Before any grant shall be made under the Ordinance and Board Rules, in aid of any school, it shall be necessary:

- (1) That the Board be satisfied that the conditions required in the case of the school by Section 13 of the Ordinance are fulfilled in the case of the school;
- (2) That every teacher of the school have held from the Board at the time of the last preceding examination of schools held under the Board Rules a teacher's certificate, and have been certified by the Inspector as competent to perform the duties actually performed by him in the school; and
- (3) That at the last preceding examination of schools held under the Board Rules not less than seventy per cent. of the pupils of the school under instruction in any of the Standards were presented for examination in such respective Standards, and not more than forty per cent. of such presentees failed to satisfy the examiner in the subjects of reading and either writing or arithmetic;

Provided that, where the Board shall expressly so resolve, a teacher may be deemed to be sufficiently certificated for the purposes of this Rule, if:

- (a) He having been uncertificated at the time of the last preceding examination of schools held under the Board Rules was not due to want of diligence on his part, and
- (b) He shall have obtained from the Board a teacher's certificate not later than fourteen days after the conclusion of such examination, and
- (c) He shall have been certified by the Inspector as competent to perform the duties actually performed by him in the school.

VII. RATES OF GRANTS IN AID OF SCHOOLS.

grants to be
made
annually in
aid of schools.
Rates of such
grants.

23. Subject to the provisions of the Ordinance and Board Rules, the Board shall annually make grants in aid of schools.

24. The rates of such grants shall be those specified in Nos. 25 to 34, inclusively, of these Rules; provided that it shall not be obligatory upon the Board to make any grant under any but Nos. 25, 28 and 29 of these Rules.

25. The Board shall :

(a) For every pass in any of the subjects of reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, history, geography and plain needle work, obtained, at an examination of schools held under the Board Rules, in any of the Standards, by a proficient, not being a pupil of a secondary school ; and

Grants for passes in the Standards.

(b) In respect of each proficient, being a pupil of a secondary school, at any such examination, in any of the three highest Standards—grant the sum of two shillings in aid of the school of such proficient.

26. The Board may, for every pass in any of the Stages, obtained by a pupil of a secondary school at any such examination as aforesaid, grant, in aid of the school of the successful candidate, any sum not exceeding :

Grants for passes in the Stages.

(a) Four shillings, where the pass shall have been marked by the Inspector as fair ;

(b) Five shillings, where the pass shall have been marked by the Inspector as good ; or

(c) Six shillings, where the pass shall have been marked by the Inspector as excellent ;

Provided that no grant shall be made in respect of :

(1) Any work done in any of the Stages by any pupil who shall not have become proficient in the seventh or a higher Standard ;

(2) Any pass in trigonometry obtained by any pupil who shall not already have passed in the fourth Stage of geometry ;

(3) More than four passes in the Stages obtained at one and the same examination by any pupil who shall not have become proficient in, at the lowest, the eighth Standard ;

(4) More than six passes in the Stages obtained at one and the same examination by any pupil who shall not have become proficient in the ninth Standard ; or

(5) More than eight passes in the Stages obtained by any pupil at one and the same examination.

27. The Board may, for every pass, at any such examination as aforesaid, in elementary free-hand drawing, grant the sum of one shilling in aid of the school of the successful candidate.

Grants for passes in elementary free-hand drawing.

28. The Board shall annually make, in aid of every school of which the Inspector shall have reported the organization and discipline as good, a grant of one shilling a head on the average attendance at the school.

Grants for organization and discipline.

29. Where the organization and discipline of any school shall have been reported by the Inspector to be good, the Board shall make in aid of such school :

Grants for general excellence.

(a) If, at such an examination as aforesaid, sixty per cent. of the pupils of the school presented for examination in the Standards shall have passed, that is to say, have become proficient, in their respective Standards, a grant at the rate of sixpence for each such pass ;

(b) If seventy per cent. shall have passed, a grant at the rate of one shilling for each such pass ;

(c) If eighty per cent. shall have passed, a grant at the rate of one shilling and sixpence for each such pass ; and

(d) If ninety per cent. shall have passed, a grant at the rate of two shillings for each such pass.

30. The Board may annually make, in aid of any school a grant, not exceeding two shillings a head, upon the average attendance.

Grants for average attendance.

31. In the case of infant schools, the Board may annually, in lieu of making any grant under any of the preceding Rules, grant four shillings a head upon the average attendance in aid of every school reported as fair by

Substitutional grants in the case of infant schools.

the Inspector, five shillings a head upon the average attendance in aid of every school reported as good by the Inspector, and six shillings a head upon the average attendance in aid of every school reported as excellent by the Inspector ; provided that this Rule, when applied, shall be applied to all infant schools.

Additional grants in the aid of industrial schools. 32. The Board may annually make, in aid of any industrial school, in addition to other grants, a grant of any sum not exceeding twenty-five shillings in respect of each pupil receiving industrial instruction (that is to say, devoting at the least ten hours a week to manual labour as defined in Section 2 of the Ordinance) at the school.

Grants for idle work. 33. The Board may annually award, under such conditions as it shall determine by resolution, sums not exceeding in the whole £10 as special rewards to individual pupils for proficiency in needlework.

Special grant to premier school. 34. The Board may annually make a special grant of any sum not exceeding £20 to the school at which it shall consider that the most thorough and practical work is done.

Extraordinary grants in respect of school buildings and furniture. 35. In the case of newly-established schools, the Board may grant in aid of any school a sum not exceeding one-eighth of the cost of the buildings, furniture, books and apparatus of the school, upon the amount of such cost being proved by the managers of the school, by means of vouchers or otherwise, to the satisfaction of the Board, or, if the school be established in a town, village or place where a school was wanted, but none existed, then, either such sum as aforesaid, or any sum not exceeding £25 and not exceeding such amount as aforesaid proved in manner aforesaid ; provided that more than one-eighth of the amount of such cost as aforesaid shall not be granted in aid of any school at which the attendance shall have averaged less than thirty during the previous quarter, nor in aid of more than two schools in any one year. In the case of other schools, the Board may grant in aid of any school a sum not exceeding one-fourth of the amount shown by the managers, by means of vouchers or otherwise, to the satisfaction of the Board, to have been expended during the preceding school-year upon the increase, improvement and maintenance of the buildings, furniture, books, and apparatus of the school, or upon any of those objects.

VIII. RECORDS TO BE KEPT AT ASSISTED SCHOOLS.

36, 37, 38.

IX. STATISTICS TO BE FURNISHED BY MANAGERS OF ASSISTED SCHOOLS.

39.

X. GRANTS IN AID OF TRAINING INSTITUTIONS.

Grants in aid of training institutions. 40. The Board may grant a sum not exceeding £30 to every training institution in respect of each teacher trained at such institution who shall have received at the least two years' instruction thereat and shall hold from the Board a special honorary teacher's certificate.

XI. REDUCTION OF GRANTS-IN-AID MADE BY THE BOARD.

41.

XII. PAYMENT OF GRANTS-IN-AID MADE BY THE BOARD.

42.

XIII. APPLICATION OF GRANTS-IN-AID MADE BY THE BOARD.

43. All moneys paid to the managers of any school or training institution in respect of any grant-in-aid made by the Board shall be applied in such manner as the Board may direct ; and, in the absence of any direction by the Board, and so far as shall be consistent with any direction of the Board, one-half, at the least, of such moneys shall be applied to increasing the remuneration of the teachers of the school or training institution.

Application of grant-moneys.

XIV. SCHOLARSHIPS.

44. The Board of Education may grant to any child of good character and conduct who shall have attended a primary school in the Colony for two years at the least, and who shall have passed a satisfactory examination in Standards V., VI. and VII., a scholarship of £10 a year to enable such child to attend a secondary school or secondary schools ; provided that no such scholarship shall be granted for any longer period than four years, and that the amount to be payable in respect of such scholarships shall not, in any one year, exceed £50 ; provided also that the Board shall not award scholarships to children of well-to-do persons.

Scholarships may be granted to enable children to attend secondary schools.

45. Whenever the number of eligible candidates for such scholarships shall exceed the number of scholarships to be granted, the claims of such candidates shall be decided by examination.

Competition for such scholarships.

46. Every such scholarship shall be tenable only so long as the holder thereof shall attend a secondary school and remain of good behaviour ; and the Board may at any time withdraw, or suspend, any such scholarship, without assigning any reason for so doing.

Determination of such scholarships.

47. The granting of any scholarship for any purpose other than that of enabling children to attend secondary schools, and all particulars and conditions thereof, shall in every instance depend upon the special circumstances of the case.

Scholarships for other purposes.

XV. DUTIES OF EDUCATION OFFICERS APPOINTED UNDER THE ORDINANCE.

48. The Inspector of Schools shall report to the Board in writing all matters which it shall be expedient for the Board to know in order that it may give full effect to the Ordinance and Board Rules.

The Inspector of Schools to furnish reports to the Board.

49. Subject to the Ordinance and the Board Rules, the Inspector shall at all times act in accordance with any special directions that he may have received from the Board.

General duties of the Inspector.

50. The Board may appoint any fit and competent person to do, perform and exercise respectively any of the duties, functions and powers of the Inspector under the Board Rules ; provided that no special honorary teacher's certificate shall be granted, except upon the certificate of the Inspector himself.

Representation of the Inspector.

51. All other educational officers and their substitutes shall act under the directions of the Board, and, subject to any such directions, or in the absence of such directions, under the directions of the Inspector of Schools.

Duties of other education officers.

XVI. MISCELLANEOUS.

52. Every examination held under the Board Rules shall be conducted in the English language ; provided that pupils of a school presented for examination in either of the Sub-standards shall be examined through the medium of Yoruba, instead of English, if the managers of the school shall so elect ;

Language of examinations.

provided also that candidates for examination in any of the four lowest Primary Standards may, with the consent of the Board, and within the limits of such consent, be likewise examined through the medium of Yoruba, instead of English.

- 53. Duty of managers to furnish information generally,
- 54. And evidence,
- 55. And to submit their accounts to audit, if required.
- 56. Representation of managers.
- 57. Incorporation of the schedules.
- 58. Repeal.

Short title.

59. These Rules may be cited for all purposes as "The Amended and Consolidated Education Rules, 1891."

Passed by the Board of Education at Government House,
Lagos, on the 2nd day of April, 1891.

SCHEDULE A. THE STANDARDS. *See above, pages 44-46.*

SCHEDULE B.

THE STAGES.

BRITISH HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.

First Stage.

Elementary outlines of the history and geography of the British Empire.

Second Stage.

Outlines of the history and geography of the British Empire.

Third Stage.

History and geography of the British Empire.

ENGLISH LITERATURE AND PHILOLOGY.

First Stage.

To recite 100 lines from some standard poet and explain the words and allusions. To know the method of forming English adjectives and verbs from each other.

Second Stage.

To recite* 150 lines from Shakespeare, Milton or some other standard author and explain the words and allusions. To know the meaning and use of Latin prefixes in the formation of English words.

Third Stage.

To recite* 200 lines from Shakespeare, Milton or some other standard author and explain the words and allusions. To know prefixes and terminations generally.

ESSAY-WRITING.

First Stage.

To write intelligently an original anecdote or narrative occupying from ten to fifteen lines of foolscap paper.

* The recitation may not include any matter presented by the candidate in a previous Stage.

Second Stage.

To write grammatically, and, if required, in the form of a letter, a few simple observations on some subject of common experience.

Third Stage.

To write a theme with perspicuity and so as to show a fair notion of composition.

LATIN.

First Stage.

Grammar to the end of the regular verbs. Simple exercises in translation.

Second Stage.

The irregular verbs and first rules of syntax. Knowledge of *Delectus* or other first reading-book. Translation of simple sentences, of three or four words, from English into Latin.

Third Stage.

Grammar. *Cæsar de Bello Gallico*, Book I.; Virgil's *Æneid*, Book I.; or any portion, approximately equivalent to one of those books, of any author approved by the Inspector. Somewhat longer sentences to be translated from English into Latin.

GREEK.

First Stage.

Grammar to the end of pure uncontracted verbs. Simple exercises in translation.

Second Stage.

The irregular verbs and first rules of syntax. Knowledge of *Delectus* or other first reading-book.

Third Stage.

Grammar. Xenophon's *Anabasis*, Book I.; Homer's *Iliad*, Book I.; or any portion, approximately equivalent to one of those books, of any other author approved by the Inspector.

FRENCH.

First Stage.

Grammar to the end of the regular verbs. Simple exercises in translation from the French.

Second Stage.

Grammar. Translation of easy narrative sentences into English.

Third Stage.

Grammar. Knowledge of some easy French book approved by the Inspector. Translation of conversational sentences into French.

GERMAN.

First Stage.

Grammar to the end of the regular verbs. Simple exercises in translation from the German.

Second Stage.

Grammar. Translation of easy narrative sentences into English.

Third Stage.

Grammar. Knowledge of some easy German book approved by the Inspector. Translation of conversational sentences into German.

ARABIC.

First Stage.

Reading from a first reader, with knowledge of the meaning of the words. Transcription of single words and short sentences. Elementary knowledge of grammar, exclusive of verbs.

Second Stage.

Grammar, exclusive of irregular verbs and syntax. Reading from a second reader. Translation of sentences of three or four words, Arabic into English and English into Arabic. Transcription of longer pieces, and writing of short sentences from dictation.

Third Stage.

Grammar, inclusive of irregular verbs and syntax. Reading from a third reader. Translation of longer sentences, Arabic into English and English into Arabic. Reading short and simple unvocalized passages. Copying out short stories. Writing longer sentences from dictation.

Fourth Stage.

Reading from any author. Translation of a few of Forbes' Miscellaneous Sentences and portions of his Fables of Tukman and Historical Sketches. Reading local Arabic writing. Writing a short original letter in Arabic.

ARITHMETIC.

First Stage.

Square root, cube root, involution and evolution.

Second Stage.

Stocks and shares. Logarithms and their application to compound interest. Annuities.

ALGEBRA.

First Stage.

Notation, addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, G. C. M., L. C. M. and fractions.

Second Stage.

Simple equations involving one unknown quantity. Simple equations involving two unknown quantities. Easy quadratic equations.

Third Stage.

Equations solved like quadratics. Quadratic involving simultaneous equations. Involution. Evolution. Indices and surda.

Fourth Stage.

Ratio, proportion, variation and the progressions.

GEOMETRY.

First Stage.

Euclid, Book I. to Proposition 26.

Second Stage.

Euclid, Books I. and II. Elements of Mensuration.

Third Stage.

Euclid, Books I, II and III. More advanced Mensuration.

Fourth Stage.

Euclid, Books IV. and VI. and the definitions in Book V.

TRIGONOMETRY.

First Stage.

The different measurements of angles, and the ordinary relations of their trigonometrical ratios.

Second Stage.

The elementary formulæ connecting the trigonometrical ratios of two or more angles. The theory and application of logarithms.

Third Stage.

Solution of triangles, including the determination of their areas. The determination of heights and distances of inaccessible objects.

MECHANICS.

First Stage.

Bodies at rest (Statics). Definitions. Parallelogram of forces. Centre of gravity. Mechanical powers.

Second Stage.

Matter in motion (Dynamics). Definitions. Laws of motion. Parallelogram of velocities. Direct impact of two spheres.

Third Stage.

Fluids (Hydrostatics and Pneumatics). Definitions. Law of equilibrium of floating bodies. Hydrostatic press. Boyle's law. Air pump. Common pump. Barometer.

SOUND, LIGHT AND HEAT.

First Stage.

Propagation of sound. Elementary motions of vibrations and waves. Reflection of sound, echoes. Musical notes, simple instruments. Simple explanations of beats and modes.

Second Stage.

Sources and propagation of light. Intensity, shadows, and shadow photometer. Reflection, mirrors, refraction, lenses, elementary explanations of the microscope, *camera obscura* and magic lantern. Dispersion, prisms. The rainbow, reflecting and refracting telescopes.

Third Stage.

The three modes in which heat may be conveyed from place to place. Effects of heat on solids, liquids and gases. Expansion by heat. Elementary notions of specific heat. Heat produced by mechanical, chemical and vital action.

MAGNETISM AND ELECTRICITY.

First Stage.

Attraction, repulsion and polarity, as illustrated by the magnet. Terrestrial magnetism and the mariner's compass.

Second Stage.

Attraction of light bodies by rubbed sealing-wax and glass. Experimental proof that there are two forms of electricity. Attraction and repulsion. Gold-leaf electroscope. Construction of electrophorus, electrical machine and Leyden jar. Explanation of atmospherical electricity.

Third Stage.

Voltaic or chemical electricity. The voltaic battery and motions of a current.

ANIMAL PHYSIOLOGY.

First Stage.

The build of the human body. Names and positions of the internal organs. The properties of muscle.

Second Stage.

The mechanism of the principal movements of the limbs and of the body as a whole. The organs and functions of alimentation, circulation and respiration.

Third Stage.

The general arrangement of the nervous system. The properties of nerve. Reflex action. Sensation. The organs and functions of touch taste, smell, hearing and sight.

BOTANY.

First Stage.

Characters of the root, stem, leaves and parts of the flower, illustrated by specimens of common flowering plants.

Second Stage.

Structure of wood, bark and pith. Cells and vessels. Food of plants, and manner in which a plant grows. Functions of the root, leaves and different parts of the flower.

Third Stage.

The comparison of a fern and a moss with a flowering plant. The formation of different kinds of fruits. The structure of a bean and of a grain of rice or corn. The phenomena of germination.

CHEMISTRY.

First Stage.

Elementary and compound matter. Illustrations of combination and decomposition in such bodies as hydrochloric acid, water, oxide of mercury and rust of iron.

Second Stage.

Preparation and properties of the common gases, such as oxygen, hydrogen, nitrogen, and chlorine. The chemical character and constituents of pure air and pure water, and the nature of the impurities sometimes found in both.

Third Stage.

The properties of carbon and its chief inorganic compounds. Differences between metallic and non-metallic bodies. Combination by weight and volume. The use of symbols and chemical formulæ.

TECHNICAL AGRICULTURE.

First Stage.

The principles influencing the supply of plant food in the soil, the necessity for cultivation, and the circumstances making tillage more or less effective.

Second Stage.

The principles regulating the more or less perfect supply of plant food. Manures as supplemental sources of plant food.

Third Stage.

The principles regulating the growth of crops, and the variations in their yield and quantity.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

First Stage.

The nature of a river or stream, whence it is supplied, and what becomes of it. Evaporation and condensation. Rain, snow, hail, dew and mist. The atmosphere and its composition. Winds. An explanation of the terms "river-basin" and "water-shed."

Second Stage.

The ocean: its extent, divisions, depth, saltness and currents. Action of waves, sea beaches. The phenomena of the tides.

Third Stage.

Form and size of the earth and its motions. Day and night. The seasons of the year; how they depend upon the relative positions of the earth and sun. Moon's dimensions and distance. Explanation of her phases. General arrangement of planetary system.

AFRICAN MATTERS.

First Stage.

An acquaintance with the history and geography of the West Coast of Africa.

Second Stage.

An acquaintance with the history and geography of the interior lands of West Africa, and with the institutions, religions, traditions and customs of the various tribes.

Third Stage.

An acquaintance with the history and geography of Africa, particularly of Eastern and Equatorial Africa, and with the institutions, religions, traditions, and customs of the various tribes.

LOGIC.

First Stage.

Terms and their various kinds. The two-fold meaning of Terms—in Extension and Intention. Classification. Propositions and Conversions of Propositions. Rules of the Syllogism. Hypothetical Syllogisms. Fallacies in Deductive Reasoning.

Second Stage.

Inductive Reasoning. Observation and Experiment. Antecedents and Causes of Events. Methods of Agreement, Difference and Variation. Reasoning by Analogy. Fallacies in Inductive Reasoning.

SHORTHAND.

First Stage.

To show an acquaintance with the first fifty exercises of Pitman's Phonographic Teacher and to be able to read and write any piece with ease in the learner's style.

Second Stage.

To show an acquaintance with Pitman's Phonographic Teacher and to be able to read and write with tolerable ease any piece in the corresponding style.

Third Stage.

To be able to read any portion of "Self-Culture," to know "The Manual" and to be able to write from dictation in the reporting style.

BOOK-KEEPING.

First Stage.

Single entry.

Second Stage.

Double entry.

FANCY NEEDLE-WORK.*

First Stage.

Simple crotchet. Cross-stitch samplers. Outlining in crewels.

Second Stage.

Advanced crotchet. Crewel work. Wool work. Braiding. Knitting simple.

Third Stage.

Advanced kinds of all the matters included in Stage II. Embroidery of all kinds. Lace work. Knitting socks or stockings.

[SCHEDULES C-H not printed].

* For female pupils only.

**THE
SYSTEM OF EDUCATION
IN
SIERRA LEONE.**

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THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN SIERRA LEONE.

I. INTRODUCTION.

Education in the Colony of Sierra Leone has been ever since the foundation of the Colony, not wholly, but to a very considerable extent, dependent upon the efforts of the religious bodies, notably the Church Missionary Society, that have laboured in the Colony and in places adjacent to it.

II. EARLY HISTORY.

The Colony was founded in the year 1787 by a company called the Sierra Leone Company. Before that date the Portuguese had an establishment here among the aborigines for their trade in slaves, and the English a small one on Bance Island for a similar purpose.

The first colonists consisted of those black men who became outcasts in the streets of London after the indomitable and finally successful efforts of Mr. Granville Sharp with regard to the position of slaves brought by their masters from the West Indies to England. Granville Sharp's efforts were rewarded by the celebrated judgment of Lord Chief Justice Mansfield in 1772 that "the claim of slavery can never be supported. The power claimed never was in use here or acknowledged by the law." From which was established a legal principle that "as soon as any slave sets his foot on English ground he becomes free." It followed from this that the slaves who were then in England with their masters suddenly found themselves free; and as they were cast adrift their sufferings were great. About four hundred and seventy blacks of this class were eventually removed to Sierra Leone, and constituted the first settlers in the new Colony. Nationality
of first Colon-
ists.

To this number there were subsequently added upwards of 1,100 Nova Scotians—Africans born in North America, who, during the War of Independence, had run away from their masters and taken side with the English, and were, after the war, taken over to Nova Scotia and there settled on lands granted to them. They were, however, not satisfied with the new conditions of things, and asked to be removed to Sierra Leone. They were landed here in 1792.

Another batch of five hundred and fifty persons was landed here in 1800, and settled at Granville Town.

On the abolition of the slave trade, slaves captured from time to time by British cruisers were put ashore and found a home at Sierra Leone. This was the main source from which the population of the Colony was supplied.

It is probable that the first efforts at education were made by the Nova Scotian Africans who were landed here in 1792. While First efforts.

they were in Nova Scotia these people spared no efforts for their mental improvement, parting with a portion of their earnings to put themselves to school. And when they were brought into the new Colony they found opportunity of putting to good use the education thus acquired by establishing classes for the instruction of their children and others in useful knowledge.

Efforts were made as early as 1795 by the Baptist Missionary Society. From 1797 to 1800 the Scottish and London Missionary Societies sent eight missionaries to the Colony and the neighbourhood, but from various causes the missions failed and were discontinued.

There was one Central School under the control of the Sierra Leone Company, which seems to have done fairly good work. Respecting this school and the nature of the work done by it, the Directors of the Company on the transfer of the Colony to the British Government in 1807 observed: "The Company have communicated the blessings flowing from a knowledge of letters and from Christian instruction to hundreds of negroes on the coast of Africa, and by a careful education in this country they have elevated the character of several of the African chiefs and directed their minds to objects of the very first importance to their country."

iring a
lan-
e.

The great majority of the population consisted, as has been remarked above, of slaves emancipated by British cruisers. The avarice of the slave raiders fanned by the dealers in the trade had torn from their homes people of various tribes and languages whom British generosity now provided with a new home. They were a very mixed multitude, and had to acquire a common language as the medium of communication with one another and the rest of their fellow colonists. That language was the English. The children among those thus liberated had to be sent to school till they reached the age of twelve or fourteen years. The period of their stay in school thus depended on the age at which the child was accidentally brought into the Colony. But there was a regulation that the period of tuition was in no case to be less than one year.

It was unwisely arranged that these liberated children should be educated separately from the Colony-born children, and this did not fail to produce the inevitable result that it kept them from making that progress in the English language and in the habits of civilised life which they would have acquired by association with the others.

of Mis-
ry
bias.

The arrival of missionaries in connection with the two great Missionary Societies, the Church Missionary and the Wesleyan Missionary Society, in 1815 and 1816, gave a fillip to the work of education and christianisation that had been set on foot.

The Church Missionary Society commenced its labours on the Coast in 1804, but its early efforts were directed to the Rio Pongas till 1816, when they were withdrawn and centred in the Colony of Sierra Leone, "where such an obvious and promising field of usefulness presented itself."

So well did these societies do their work that in 1840, out of a population of 40,000, 6,000 children were attending the schools ; or, if the number of those receiving weekly instruction only at the Sunday Schools be added, 8,000 children—one-fifth of the population—were being educated.

Condition of education in 1840.

At this period there were forty-two schools in the Colony, of which fourteen were Government Schools, six being attended exclusively by liberated African children and eight exclusively by colony-born ones ; the remaining twenty-eight belonged to the Church and Wesleyan Missionary Societies.

The school hours then were from 9 a.m. till 2 p.m., the younger children being dismissed at 12 o'clock.

The schools were mostly mixed, the boys and girls being taught together in the morning in the rudiments of reading, writing and ciphering, and in " repeating catechisms, hymns and prayers, and singing psalms." In the afternoon the bigger boys and girls that continued at school were taught separately : the girls exclusively in needlework, while the boys were taught the higher rules of arithmetic chiefly, and in a few cases a little grammar and geography.

The school fees were in most cases a halfpenny a week ; the few who continued in the afternoon paid one penny per week, and three halfpence for two or more when they were members of the same family.

The highest salaries paid to native teachers then were £25 and £12, the majority receiving the less amount.

The evils of the school system as pointed out by Mr. J. Miller, Inspector of Schools, in a Report submitted in 1841, were :

Defects of the school system pointed out by Mr. Miller, Inspector of Schools, in 1841.

1. The separation of the liberated African children from the Colony-born ones.

This was condemned as placing the liberated African children under a great disadvantage for acquiring a knowledge of the English language, and as promoting and inculcating ideas of caste ; thus introducing those ideas which it was the aim of the founders of the Colony to remove.

2. The exclusively religious nature of the instruction imparted, the reading and writing done in the school being done wholly out of the Bible.

The Inspector of Schools thought that no opportunities should be omitted " to cultivate the reason, the observation, the imagination and the taste of our young pupils, by easy and interesting lessons from history, from the elements of science, and from English literature."

3. The third disadvantage pointed out was the difficulty of obtaining competent teachers, " a difficulty to be ascribed partly to the condition of the Colony, but very much to the small pecuniary remuneration to the teachers."

To remedy this evil "something positively requires to be done to form and raise a better class of instructors than are generally to be found in the Colony." For this purpose "only one plan can be suggested, that of a normal school; and it is now some time since a proposition was made in Council by Colonel Doherty, which has been referred by him to Her Majesty's Government, for establishing such a seminary in Freetown, under an European: a school, namely, for the training of colonial teachers."⁴ This was in 1841, sixty years ago!

Government
schools.

The six schools for liberated African children wholly cared for by the Government were two for boys, one at Gloucester containing 233 boys, one at Kent containing 212; the three girls' schools were one at Wellington of 78 girls, one at Hastings of 31, and one at York of 34; the sixth at Charlotte was a double school, containing 50 boys and 62 girls. The other eight Government schools for colony-born children, the teachers of which were paid by the Government, were located at Rokelle, Aberdeen, Lumley, Goderich, Hamilton, Dublin and Ricketts; there was also one near Freetown.

The Church Missionary Society was doing good work in the education of the liberated African children, but owing to the interference of the authorities on that account with some of their regulations they abandoned their work in that direction and confined their attention to the education of children born in the colony.

Expenditure
of the Mis-
sionary
Societies in
1840.

The annual expenditure of the Church Missionary Society, in 1840, on churches and schools was £6,852 18s. 11d., and of the Wesleyan Society £1,483 0s. 5d.

the "Chris-
tian Institu-
tion" at
Fourah Bay.

About this time the Church Missionary Society established a school, the "Christian Institution," at Fourah Bay, "for training native schoolmasters," and it was under the care of Rev. E. Jones. But as the work in the schools was almost exclusively of a religious character, so the training of the masters "was almost exclusively confined to the study of religious subjects.

The following statements of Dr. Madden, Her Majesty's Commissioner of Enquiry on the West Coast of Africa, with reference to some of the schools visited by him would give an idea of the standard of attainments reached by, at least, some of the schools. He visited a Church Missionary Society's school at Kissy Road, under the direction of Mr. and Mrs. Peyton (European missionaries), consisting of 254 boys and 149 girls. He stated that this school was certainly the most admirably conducted of any he had seen on the coast of Africa. He also visited a Wesleyan school in Zion Chapel, consisting of 230 girls, who were taught reading and needlework only. In the school in Bathurst Street, under the direction of a native teacher educated in England, "a man of superior attainments," he found a greater progress made in the education of the children than in any other school he had visited, "with the exception of Mr. Peyton's." "In reading, writing and geography the first class boys could hardly have been surpassed by those of any European school." The number of pupils here was 192.

In 1845 an important step in matters educational was made by the Church Missionary Society. This was the establishment of a grammar school, and an institution for the training of females exclusively. Establishment of a Grammar School, 1845

It was the desire of the Society, no doubt, to free the character of the education generally imparted in the schools from the charge of being of a too exclusively religious character. For it was proposed to give in the grammar school a sound religious and general education to boys and youths who had received some previous training in the lower schools; and, as regarded native agency in connection with their work, it was to be a middle school between the lower or primary schools and the Christian Institution, subsequently called the Fourah Bay College. At this school most of the young men who eventually became schoolmasters in the colony received their education.

The educational condition of the Colony continued like this for a considerable time, the two Societies, the Church Missionary and the Wesleyan, doing the best they could in its aid. But it does not appear that much was done in the way of broadening the basis of the education imparted in the schools. For, in 1868, Mr. J. S. Laurie, Educational Commissioner sent out by the Duke of Buckingham and Chandos, then Secretary of State for the Colonies, to report on the state of education in Sierra Leone, remarked, after making exception of the upper sections of the schools, that "fair writing on slates, moderate reading in the Testament and passable spelling were the not remarkably rare achievements of the lower classes"; and from the returns made him of supply of books and apparatus, Bibles, Testaments and Catechisms constituted the principal items of such supplies. And even in 1870 Mr. T. H. Popplestone, Director of Public Instruction, reported that "the whole stock of class reading books in the great number of schools, especially those not connected with the Church of England, generally consisted of a few Bibles and Primers with two or three partially-defaced Reading sheets." Condition of Education in 1868.

Direct support of education by the Government had by this time been considerably diminished. The majority of the schools for liberated African children had been closed because the class of persons for whom they were intended were no longer forthcoming. Government schools for colony-born children were in 1868 to be found only in such hamlets as Macdonald, Kakanda, Campbell Town, Sussex, Russell, Ricketts, and John Obi, at each of which the Government expenses amounted to £12 per annum. Government Schools in 1868.

There was a Government school in Freetown which was reported by Mr. Laurie, in 1868, to be "above the average in regard to numbers and efficiency; but the premises are thoroughly bad."

A little before this the Government began to give an allowance to the Church Missionary Society for the education of the children of native chiefs. The amount spent in 1867 under this head was £138 6s. 8d. The total expenditure by the Government on account of education in that year was £726 19s. Education of children of Native Chiefs.

Report of
Mr. J. S.
Laurie, Edu-
cation Com-
missioner,
1868.

Mr. Laurie was commissioned in 1868 to report on the condition of education in the Colony. He found ninety-five schools in existence! To arrive at this number, Mr. Laurie must have counted every possible collection of children, few or many, as a school. He remarked in his Report that the ordinary attendance at one was as high as 200, whilst in two cases he "found no more than eleven and five children respectively." Of course, these last are merely nominal schools, and a considerable portion of the ninety-five cannot be regarded in any other light. Further, he remarked that "the redundancy of schools is, in fact, most remarkable, and, when contrasted with the prevailing poverty of resources, can only be explained by the facility and cheapness with which they can be established and supported, and by the determination of every religious body, however small numerically, to have a school of its own for the training of the rising generation in its own form of faith. In a village containing but 500 souls I found three schools, when one ought to suffice. . . . It would doubtless be conceded that one well-found and efficiently-taught school is preferable to two, three, or any number of bad ones. It is, let us hope, safe to assert that, when education becomes a mockery, it proves a delusion and a snare."

Of the school teachers Mr. Laurie remarked, "the teacher up to the present moment has had comparatively little instruction and no training."

The gross average attendance in the schools was returned, on the requisition of Mr. Laurie, at 5,519. He thought this was larger than what from personal investigation he had been led to expect; and, indeed, for a total roll number of about 6,000 this is exceptionally high. The population of the colony at this time was given at 42,000.

recommen-
dations of
education
commission-
in 1868.

The following is a summary of recommendations made by Mr. Laurie, "with especial regard to simplicity, efficiency and economy combined."

1. The establishing by Government of a model practising school to include an infant class-room and a scheme of technical instruction.
2. The appointment of a superintendent of the model school and Director of Public Instruction.

The details of this recommendation had in view the provision of a means of affording "training" to the school teachers, a provision felt to be—as had been felt thirty years before—essentially requisite. But, however much the suggestions of Mr. Laurie might serve the purpose of "economy," they could not serve those of "simplicity" and "efficiency."

3. The payment of grants-in-aid for attendance and examination to approved schools, and that a teacher's salary be fixed at a minimum of £15 per annum exclusive of Government grants.

As a result of this commission and the foregoing recommendations:—

1. A Government model school was established, but it was not a practising school

2. A Director of Public Instruction was appointed.

3. A system of classification in "Standards" was introduced in the schools.

Mr. T. H. Popplestone, the Director of Public Instruction, in his first visits of inspection and examination, extending from December, 1869, to January 28, 1870, explained to the managers and teachers the manner in which future examinations would be conducted and made suggestions for re-classifying their schools.

Report and suggestions of Director of Public Instruction, 1870.

He adopted the conditions previously suggested by Mr. J. S. Laurie under which schools would be assisted by the Colonial Government. They were :

1. That the premises be sufficiently commodious, substantial, well-ventilated, clean and otherwise healthy.

2. That, whether chapels or not, they be fitted up as a school is required to be, *i.e.*, in accordance with a simple specified plan to be had on application.

3. That a stock of books, slates and other school materials in daily consumption be kept in store, and in quantities proportioned to the actual requirements of all the scholars in average attendance.

4. That the average attendance amount to thirty, except in cases where no public elementary school existed within one mile.

5. That the teacher be guaranteed a salary of not less than £15 per annum, which might include the school fees and emoluments for Sunday service, but which must exclude all public grants whatever.

6. That the principal teacher pass an elementary examination in reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar, English history and geography.

7. That the responsible authorities formally agree to these proposals.

"The money thus granted is intended to assist voluntary efforts and will only be given when a proper proportion of the expense is borne by the inhabitants of the locality in which the school is situated, or by the religious body with which it is connected."

The rates of grants recommended by Mr. Laurie and adopted were a capitation grant at 6d. and a result grant at 6d. for each pass in each of the subjects of reading, writing and arithmetic for every child who had attended on fifty days during the six months preceding the examination.

It was shown by Mr. Popplestone after his first inspection that the rate of grant was small, and he proposed in either case a shilling instead of sixpence for each half-year ; but this does not seem to have been approved.

One important remark among others in connection with his first visits of inspection was made by Mr. Popplestone. This is here quoted :—"A great difference was everywhere painfully manifest between the attainments of the boys and the girls. Indeed the little knowledge the latter possessed of numbers and the most elementary principles of Arithmetic was very marked, and, I confess, unaccountable. There seems to be a feeling amongst the

greater number of teachers that the girls *cannot* learn Arithmetic, and therefore efforts in that direction would be mis-spent. In very few instances did the girls attempt to write from dictation, and only a small number could copy from a printed book. . . . By the method of individual examination I believe we shall see a steady improvement in this particular defect as well as in the others I shall afterwards mention. In addition to this difference between the attainments of the sexes, a very undue attention is given to the upper section of the schools at the expense of the lower and far more numerous portion. This, of course, is a great evil, and produces its legitimate results. When the pupils reach the highest classes, the master has to expend efforts in inverse proportion to their previous training. Even worse than this is the fact that large numbers leave school without getting to the higher classes, and therefore carry away the barest rudimentary knowledge, and that of a kind more calculated to make them disgusted than to prove an incentive to future cultivation."

Government
inspection,
70-77.

Hence originated a system of inspection, but based upon no education law, nor upon any set of regulations having the semblance of law.

For some reason or other the Wesleyan denomination did not accept the offer of inspection, and so stood outside of the arrangements. The Church of England, United Methodist Free Churches and the Countess of Huntingdon's Connexion accepted the offer and placed their schools under inspection.

Inspection of
Government
schools, 1877.

This was the condition of things from 1870 to 1877. In the latter year the Government suddenly stopped making grants to the schools, and consequently no inspections were held. But the new system introduced by the change had opened the eyes of the school managers to a more desirable state of things, and efforts were made to keep on in the new paths.

Education
Ordinance,
31.

The schools were left without Government inspection and Government aid until the year 1881, when the first Ordinance for the promotion and assistance of education in the Colony of Sierra Leone was passed.

At this time the Government Model School was the only educational establishment supported by the Government, with a staff of teachers, but no Director of Education acting as its superintendent. The name was later on changed to Government Practising School, though it never served the purposes of a practising school, and was finally abolished in the year 1899, the last of its race.

The Education Ordinance that was passed in 1881 was not set in motion, but was repealed by another passed in 1882.

III. THE PRESENT SYSTEM (1882-1900).

A.—PRIMARY EDUCATION.

The present system of education was established by an Ordinance passed in 1882 by Sir A. E. Havelock. A similar ordinance was

passed at the Gambia, Gold Coast and Lagos. In fact, all the schools in British West Africa, from the Gambia to Lagos, were, as far as Government assistance was concerned, included in one Inspectorate, officered by one Inspector and a Sub-Inspector of Schools. It will be seen that such grouping could not last longer than was deemed absolutely necessary, from whatever standpoint it was viewed. Accordingly, as occasion arose, as regards either the Sub-Inspector or the Inspector, Lagos and the Gold Coast severed themselves from this connection, so that by 1893 each became independent. Only Sierra Leone and the Gambia remained connected. They have continued so down to the present time; but it seems likely that even this will not last much longer. In each Colony the system is directed by its own Board of Education, but with one Inspector of Schools for both.

The Education Ordinance, 1882, provided for:—

Education
Ordinance,
1882.

1. The establishment of a Board of Education, to consist of the Governor or Officer administering the Government, of the members of the Executive Council and four other persons, to be nominated by the Governor, the Board to have the power of making rules.

2. Government schools to be established and maintained entirely by the Government.

3. The giving aid from the Public Funds of the Colony under expressed conditions to schools established by private persons, or by some acknowledged society, body or corporation.

4. The establishment of Industrial Schools in these terms:

“Schools in which all the pupils devote not less than two hours of every school day to manual labour on a regular and approved system shall be considered to be Industrial Schools, and in any such school the payment of fees shall not be required as a condition of receiving a grant-in-aid. Manual labour shall be understood to mean any kind of handicraft, manufacturing process or agricultural work.”

“To every Industrial School as aforesaid an addition may be made to the capitation and proficiency grants to which they may be entitled under the Ordinance, equivalent to one-half of the amount of such grants.”

5. The training of teachers on an economical basis, as suggested by Mr. J. S. Laurie:—

“A grant from Public Funds, the amount of which shall be fixed from time to time by the Board of Education, may be made to any Training College, School or Institution in which teachers are trained, for every teacher who shall have proved his competency to teach by obtaining a certificate from the Board of Education: Provided that every such teacher shall have received at least two years' instruction in such Training College, School or Institution, and shall give a Bond to the Governor . . . to teach either in a Government school or a school receiving a grant-in-aid for a period of five years.”

The Board Rules framed under this Ordinance provided for—

1. The examination of teachers and classification of certificates.
2. Grants for school-houses, furniture and apparatus.
3. Rates of grants-in-aid to schools for results and industrial training.

4. Three special grants to schools showing "the highest standard of excellence by obtaining the highest percentage of passes."

On these bases the present system of education was founded. As time went on and experience was gained they were now and again modified.

The Ordinance of 1882 was repealed by that of 1895, and the Rules have been twice revised, in 1895 and 1899.

Education Ordinance, 1895. The Ordinance of 1895 introduced no particularly new feature, but chiefly rearranged the provisions with a view to greater clearness. It enlarged the constitution of the Board of Education so as to include the Inspector of Schools, and made the appointment of the "other" persons as members of the Board rest in the Governor-in-Council.

Education Ordinance, 1899. The Rules became more comprehensive and introduced some important items. They were again revised in 1899, and now contain the following provisions among others:—

Classification of Teachers. The teachers recognised by the Board are (a) probationers (b) pupil-teachers; (c) assistant teachers; (d) provisionally certificated teachers; (e) certificated teachers.

Probationers. The engagement of probationers may commence at any time. They must not be less than fourteen years of age at the time of their engagement, must be approved by the Inspector, produce the usual certificates, and have passed the Fourth Standard at least. They are not permitted to teach more than half the time the school is open. Neglect of these provisions forfeits the recognition of the Board of such probationer as a member of the staff of the school.

Pupil-teachers.* The engagement of a pupil-teacher can only begin on January 1st. He need not have served as probationer, but must not be less than fifteen years of age at the time of his engagement. He must have been approved by the Inspector, produced the necessary certificates, and have passed a qualifying examination in Standard VI. at least.

The length of the engagement of a pupil-teacher is ordinarily three years, during which time the Managers are expected to see that he is properly instructed. At the end of each year he is required to pass the examination specified for that year; two consecutive failures to pass the examination required, or failure of his health, or Managers' neglect of their duty to him will cause the Board to cease to recognise such pupil-teacher.

At the termination of his appointment a pupil-teacher may become a student in a recognised training college, an assistant teacher or a provisionally certificated teacher.

Students in a training college. Before pupil-teachers can be admitted as students in a recognised training college they must have passed the third year's examination for pupil-teachers.

* See also Extract from Colonial Reports. Annual. No. 389. Sierra Leone. Report for 1902 on page 90, below.

These rules thus aim at introducing and establishing the pupil-teacher system, and the success of the present scheme for the training of masters largely, if not wholly, depends on it. This is the second year of its trial and the outlook is not very promising, though there is hope of its ultimate success. Pupils are so impatient of continuing at school after they have passed the Fourth Standard that it is difficult to get them to qualify for pupil-teacherships.

Persons who have passed the third year's pupil-teachers' examination or teachers who hold a third-class certificate under the previous Board Rules may be recognised as assistant teachers. Assistant Teachers.

Provisional certificates may be issued by the Board of Education for such periods as the Board may decide, and are forfeited if the holders of them are twice reported to be inefficient by the Inspector. Such certificates are issued to persons specially recommended by the Inspector when there are not sufficient certificated teachers. Provisionally Certificated Teachers.

Teachers' certificates are issued to students who have passed the first and second years' examinations at a training college. Teachers' certificates may be issued also to the following persons: teachers who, subject to the necessary conditions, have passed the first year's examination for students, and for a year subsequently have held situations under certificated teachers; and teachers who hold a second-class certificate under the previous Board Rules, and, being in charge of a school, have had two favourable reports from the Inspector, provided they successfully pass the second year's examination for students. Certificated Teachers.

Parchment certificates are awarded to certificated teachers who have obtained two favourable reports from the Inspector after two years' consecutive work in one and the same school. Parchment Certificated Teachers.

The minimum school staff requires a certificated teacher for all schools having an average attendance of sixty; an additional certificated teacher for an additional average attendance of eighty; an assistant teacher or a provisionally certificated teacher for every additional average attendance of sixty; a pupil-teacher for an additional average attendance of forty, and a probationer for an additional average attendance of twenty. Minimum School Staff.

Grants are made on account of pupil-teachers at the rates of £2, £3 and £4 respectively for a "good pass" at the first, second and third year's examination, and £1, £2 and £3 for a "fair pass." Grants-in Aid of Pupil-Teachers.

To encourage the formation of central or other classes for the instruction of existing teachers desiring to qualify for certificates, under certain prescribed conditions a grant of £10 is made to be applied to the funds of any such school or classes on account of each teacher belonging to any such school or classes who shall succeed in passing the second year's examination for a certificate. Of Existing Teachers qualifying for Certificates.

Grants at the rate of £15, £10 and £6 per annum respectively are made in aid of the salaries of teachers according to their status as parchment-certificated, certificated or assistant teachers; provided that they receive each a minimum salary of £60, £40 or £28 from the Managers of their schools. Of Teachers' Salaries.

Annual
grants-in-
aid of
schools.

The following are some of the conditions to be fulfilled before a grant can be made in aid of a school :—

- (a) The accommodation must be sufficient, and the premises healthy and properly constructed.
- (b) The Managers must render an accurate statement of the school's income and expenditure.
- (c) The school must have met at least 380 times in the year.
- (d) A minimum of 40 per cent. of the scholars presented for examination must pass the annual examination.

The grants are based on the average attendance and the results of individual examination, except in the case of infant schools or classes.

In addition, an award is made where the organisation and discipline are satisfactory ; and to schools in which the results of examination are good, and 60 per cent., 70 per cent., 80 per cent., or 90 per cent. of those presented for examination pass in all the three elementary subjects of reading, writing and arithmetic, special grants are made in addition to the foregoing.

The optional subjects are geography, history, grammar and drawing. Sewing is obligatory for girls. For each of these separate awards are made according to the results of examination in them.

grants for
infant
schools.

Grants are made for infant classes at the rate of one shilling or sixpence, according to proficiency shown at a collective examination, in addition to those for average attendance, organisation and discipline. Infants for whom proficiency grant may be made are those between the ages of four and seven. Where arrangements are made for the instruction of the infants in such a way as not to disturb the older scholars in their work, whether by being taught in a separate building, or if in the same building not on the same floor, or if on the same floor in a separate room, the partition walls of which are constructed with a view to exclude noise from other parts of the school, the grants may be two shillings and sixpence, or two shillings per head according to the efficiency of the work done, instead of one shilling or sixpence as otherwise provided.

Application
and Limita-
tion of
grants-in-
aid.

The grants made to a school are to be applied (a) to the improvement or maintenance of the building, furniture or apparatus, and (b) to increasing the remuneration of the teachers of such school. But the amount to be paid as grant-in-aid to any one school is limited to one half of its annual income from all sources.

Building
grants.

Grants are not now made in aid of repairs of a school-house, but only for the erection of new buildings or the enlargement of existing ones ; provided that before the work is taken in hand the consent of the Board of Education is obtained and estimates are submitted for its approval. This grant is fixed at one-tenth of the estimated or actual cost of the work.

Training
colleges.

The desirability of having a training college for the professional training of teachers for the schools of the Colony was felt so far back

as 1840, but only by the Rules of 1899 has a real attempt been made towards realising that long-felt want. For the purposes of these Rules a training college is defined to be an institution either for boarding, lodging and instructing, or for merely instructing students who are preparing to become certificated teachers in elementary schools. It must include, either on the premises or within a convenient distance, a practising school in which the students may learn the practical exercise of their profession.

The candidates for admission into a training college are pupil-teachers who have completed their third year and passed the examination of that year, otherwise called the Government Scholarship Examination. The number to be admitted in any one year is limited to six, viz., four resident and two non-resident; provided that the Board of Education may, with the consent of the Governor, increase the number according to the demand for teachers in the elementary schools of the Colony.

The grant to an approved training college shall be £50, payable quarterly, for each student in residence, and £20 for each day student. An additional £20 may be spent for each student of the latter class towards his support during his period of training.

Before a student is admitted into a training college he, together with one approved surety, shall give a bond to the Governor binding him to be of good behaviour during his course of training, and to teach for a period of five years at least either in a training college, Government school, or an assisted school, after the conclusion of his course of training. In each case of a student failing to pass the year's examination, the amount due for the last quarter on account of such student shall be forfeited to the Government, unless he or she has been excused such examination on account of illness or other cause accepted as satisfactory by the Board.

The Mohammedan section of the community are, like any other, admissible to the provisions of the Education Ordinance and Board Rules, and may erect schools of their own and claim the same assistance given to the others, or may send their children to existing schools. This they can do, inasmuch as by the terms of the Education Ordinance an assisted school must be open to all children. "irrespective of race or religion," and "no pupil may receive any religious instruction to which the parent or guardian of such pupil objects."

But, from either disinclination or inability, no schools were established by them; and only a small proportion of their children sought the advantages of education in the Christian schools.

In 1891, to encourage the Mohammedans to establish their own schools for teaching English, a grant of £48 per annum was offered them on easy terms, namely, to obtain a certificate from the Inspector of Schools that the school for which a grant is claimed had been open during the quarter, and that school work (in English) had been done.

Only one school received this grant for several years. For the last two years the number has been three.

The total number on the roll of these schools is about 500, and the average attendance about 300.

There is now a Director of Mohammedan Education, who has instituted special classes for the training of teachers.

Elementary
school
scholarships.

Three scholarships, of the aggregate value of £30 a year, are open for competition to the pupils of assisted schools. A successful candidate "must consent to attend a Secondary School approved by the Board of Education during the currency of the scholarship, but may elect the school he desires to attend."

Each scholarship is tenable in the first instance for one year only, but may, upon its being shown to the satisfaction of the Board that the scholar continues to be of good character and conduct, and is persevering in and benefiting from the instruction received, be extended from year to year for a further term of two years.

To be eligible a candidate must present a certificate signed by the principal teacher of the school he has last attended, that he is of good character and conduct, and that his parents and guardians are themselves unable to provide him with further education. He must also have been in regular attendance at some primary school in the Colony, and have passed in Standard V. or VI.

Result of the
present
system of
education.

As a result of the present system, education is certainly more general among the masses, though the standard of attainments is not so high as may be desired. This is owing to causes which have been referred to, and which, though difficult of removal, are not insuperable.

The great difference, "painfully manifest" to Mr. Popplestone in 1870, between the attainments of the boys and girls has been very considerably reduced; both receive the same kind of instruction, and generally the same amount of attention, and the girls often compete with the boys with conspicuous success.

The teacher's attention is more evenly distributed over the school, instead of being confined to the upper section at the expense of the lower and far more numerous portion. Thus have been fulfilled Mr. Popplestone's anticipations, that by the method of individual examination we should see improvement in those particular defects.

There has also been a great improvement in the position of the masters.

B. SECONDARY AND HIGHER EDUCATION.

Secondary
education.

Secondary education receives no support from the Government. All the secondary schools are supported by denominational societies, viz., Fourah Bay College, Grammar School, and Annie Walsh Memorial School for girls, by the Church Missionary Society; two High Schools for boys and girls by the Wesleyan Methodist Society; and the Convent School by the Catholic Mission.

They are semi-public schools, none of them being strictly denominational, that is, attended only by children whose parents are connected with the religious body that maintains them.

Fourah
Bay College.

The Fourah Bay College is affiliated to the University of Durham, which has enabled some of its *alumni* to attain to the B.A. degree

without having been in England. The course of studies in the College is now essentially theological, the students chiefly pursuing the course for a licence in theology. There is also a department for the training of school teachers, which is at present the recognised "Training College" for teachers in the Colony. It has an English normal master, and there is a practising school in the grounds of the College.

C. TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

There is no scheme of technical education in connection with the educational system of the Colony.

The Government has made unsuccessful attempts to introduce some such scheme by offering grants-in-aid to the religious bodies, separately or collectively, for any plan that could be suggested, but nothing practicable was arrived at.

The only assistance that is given in this direction is a subsidy of £120 per annum paid in aid of the Diocesan Technical School.

This school was established in 1895. Its curriculum embraces the various branches of drawing, carpentry, joinery and the principles of building construction generally. It is doing a good work, but the classes are not largely attended. Classes for the instruction of teachers in drawing are held here. A series of forty lectures are given, extending over a period of five months. At the conclusion of the course examinations may be held, at which the successful teachers receive certificates qualifying them to be teachers of drawing.

Diocesan
Technical
School.

D. STATISTICS.

The population of the Colony is 76,655 ; the number of children of school age is given at 13,853.

Statistics.

The following is a table for the last ten years of the roll number and average attendance at the inspected schools:—

Roll Number
and Average
Attendance.

	ROLL NUMBER.	AVERAGE ATTENDANCE.
1891	8,526	5,984
1892	8,102	5,943
1893	8,369	5,956
1894	8,337	6,033
1895	8,280	5,928
1896	8,416	5,883
1897	8,855	6,096
1898	8,358	5,707
1899	8,103	5,660
1900.	7,870	5,661

The number of schools inspected in 1900 was seventy-seven.

come and
penditure] The total income of the schools from all sources, for the year 1900, was £4,887 15s. 6d., to which the Government contributed in grants-in-aid £1,533 10s., and the total expenditure for the same time was £4,565 3s. 11d.

The total estimated cost to the Government for education for the current year, including administration and sundry other charges, is £3,665, of which £1,620 is for grants-in-aid of elementary schools, and about £600 in aid of the Training College for teachers.

M. J. MARKE,

Inspector of Schools.

Education Office.

Freetown, Sierra Leone.

December, 1901.

EXTRACT FROM COLONIAL REPORTS. ANNUAL. No. 389. SIERRA
LEONE. REPORT FOR 1902. (Cd. 1388.13.)

“The openings in the Government Departments both here and along the coast for entrance to the Government Service have affected the teaching profession by offering inducements to some masters to discontinue their services as teachers, and more especially by drawing away a considerable number of lads who were expected to remain at school and qualify as pupil-teachers to enter a training college with a view eventually to recruit the ranks of masters.

“The Board of Education has had to reconsider the provisions contained in the Education Rules in regard to pupil-teachers, and in the hope of offering better inducements to candidates by a more liberal scale of remuneration, and by providing a surer and more appreciable means of preparatory training, a set of proposals drawn up by a sub-committee of the Board was discussed in detail and approved by the Board and strongly recommended for adoption by the Government. It is self-evident that the educational work done in the schools cannot be effective until a constant supply of reliable and competent men as teachers is secured.”

APPENDIX A.

THE EDUCATION ORDINANCE, 1895.

AN ORDINANCE TO CONSOLIDATE AND AMEND THE LAW RELATING TO THE PROMOTION AND ASSISTANCE OF EDUCATION IN THE COLONY.

(ORDINANCE NO. 3 OF 1895.)

Whereas it is expedient to consolidate and amend the law relating to Preamble. the promotion and assistance of Education in the Colony :

Be it therefore enacted by the Governor of the Colony of Sierra Leone Enacting with the advice and consent of the Legislative Council thereof as follows : Clause.

I. In this Ordinance unless the context otherwise requires :

Interpretation of terms.

"Managers" means such person or persons resident in the Colony as are the governing body of the school who if not the owners of or having the legal interest in the school building vested in them are the representatives of or appointed by the person or persons owning the school building or having the legal interest therein vested in him or them.

"Local Managers" means the person or persons appointed by the Managers or by the person or persons who are the owners of or have the legal interest in the school building vested in them to have the immediate management of any assisted school.

"Primary School" or "Elementary School" means school or department of a school in which elementary instruction is given in accordance with rules framed by the Board of Education.

"Secondary School" means a school of higher education approved as such by the Board of Education.

"Industrial School" means school at which either all the pupils, or a proportion of them fixed by the Board of Education devote not less than ten hours a week to manual labour, that is to say, to some handicraft, manufacturing process, or agricultural work, or in the case of females, domestic economy on a plan approved by the Board.

"Training Institution" means any college school or institution in the Colony in which teachers are trained.

II. It shall be lawful for the Governor to appoint an Inspector of Schools, and such other educational officers as may be requisite for the purposes of this Ordinance. Appointment of educational officers

III. There shall be a Board of Education which shall consist of the Governor, of the members of the Executive Council except the Officer Commanding the Troops and of the Inspector of Schools and of other persons not exceeding four in number appointed by the Governor-in-Council. Constitution of Board of Education.

IV. It shall be lawful for the Governor, in the case of the illness, incapacity, or temporary absence from the Colony, of any appointed member of the Board, to appoint some other person to act temporarily in his stead. Power to appoint substitutes during absence of approved members.

V. Primary Schools, Industrial Schools, and Training Institutions shall be entitled to receive from the public funds of the Colony grants-in-aid under this Ordinance. Grants-in-aid to Schools, &c., and Institution.

power to
make Rules.

VI. The Board may, subject to the approval of the Legislative Council from time to time, make, alter and revoke, rules for—

- (a) the conduct of their business ;
- (b) regulating applications for and allowance of grants-in-aid of Primary Schools, Industrial Schools and Training Institutions ;
- (c) fixing the different rates of grants and the payment and application thereof ;
- (d) determining the proportion of grants payable by the Managers towards the remuneration of Teachers ;
- (e) the examination of assisted schools and the Teachers thereof and the granting of certificates of competency to such Teachers ;
- (f) the keeping of record books [including account books] by Managers, Local Managers and Teachers ;
- (g) the furnishing of statistics [including accounts] by Managers, Local Managers and Teachers ;
- (h) the awarding of grants-in-aid to Primary Schools, Industrial Schools and Training Institutions ;
- (i) the granting and holding of scholarships ;
- (k) the establishment and management of School savings banks ;
and
- (l) Generally for carrying out the provisions of this Ordinance.

Such rules shall on being approved by the Legislative Council and published in the *Sierra Leone Royal Gazette* form part of this Ordinance.

to Infants

VII. No assistance shall be given to any school in respect of any infant under the age of four years.

conditions of
assistance to
schools.

VIII. Until otherwise provided by rules made under this Ordinance as aforesaid no assistance shall be given to any Primary or Industrial School, unless under the following conditions :—

- (1) That the management of the school be vested in Managers or Local Managers as may be decided by the Board who shall be responsible for the payment of the teachers' salaries and all other expenses of the School ;
- (2) That the head teacher hold a certificate from the Board ;
- (3) That the school obtain the percentage of proficiency determined by the Board ;
- (4) That the school be at all times open for inspection by any member of the Board ;
- (5) That the school be open to all children irrespective of race or religion ;
- (6) That Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, and, in the case of females, plain Needlework be taught at the school ;
- (7) That the average number of pupils attending the school during the last preceding school year be not less than thirty daily, unless the Board otherwise determine ;
- (8) That the teacher receive school fees from each pupil at the rate of not less than one penny per week : provided that where more than one child of the same family attend the same school the fees may at the discretion of the Managers or Local Managers be reduced by one-half for each additional child of that family ;
- (9) That the proportion of school fees required by the Board be obtained ;
- (10) That no pupil receive any religious instruction to which the parent or guardian of such pupil objects, or be compelled to be present when such instruction is being imparted ;

- (11) That children approved by the Board on the ground that their parents or guardians are unable to pay the ordinary school fees be received and taught gratuitously or upon such terms as the Board may think fit :—

Provided that the Board may dispense with the conditions contained in Sub-sections 8 and 9 in the case of :— Proviso.

- (a) Industrial Schools ;
- (b) Schools maintained by voluntary contributions mainly for the instruction or training of orphan or destitute children ; and
- (c) Schools in respect of which it can be shown to the satisfaction of the Board that the required proportion of fees has not been paid by reason of the poverty of the parents or guardians of the pupils of such school :

IX. The Board may refuse to make a grant or may make a less grant than what but for this section a school would be entitled to, or it may withhold altogether or for a time the whole or any portion of a grant made to any school :— Refusal or withholding of grants.

- (1) Where the Board considers the establishment of the school superfluous by reason of the existence of an assisted school in its vicinity ; or
- (2) Where the school yields a profit to its proprietor or is able to support itself ; or
- (3) Where the Managers or Local Managers have not
 - (a) Properly maintained the school ; or
 - (b) Kept the premises in a good and sanitary condition ; or
 - (c) Duly paid the expenses of the school ; or
- (4) Where the books required to be kept by Managers, Local Managers or Teachers or the statistics to be furnished by the Managers, Local Managers or Teachers have not been kept or furnished or where any statement in such books or returns has been falsified by the Managers, Local Managers or Teachers ;
- (5) Where the Managers, Local Managers or Teachers have failed to comply with any of the requirements of the rules made under this Ordinance.

X. The appointment of the Local Managers of an Assisted School shall be communicated in writing as soon as possible to the Board by the Managers making such appointment, and any change in the appointment shall likewise be so communicated.

XI. The Managers and Local Managers of every school shall be liable to refund to the Board all moneys or any part thereof paid to them in respect of any grant or portion thereof :— Liable to refund moneys granted.

- (1) Where the conditions precedent contained in Section VIII. of this Ordinance have not been fulfilled ; or
- (2) Where any Manager, Local Manager or Teacher of the school shall have made any false written representation whereby the grant was obtained ; or
- (3) Where such moneys or any part thereof shall have been misapplied.

XII. If any teacher shall be convicted of any criminal offence or be proved to the satisfaction of the Board to be leading a disreputable or immoral life, or shall falsify any school record or return, or make any false written declaration or statement with reference to the conditions in Section VIII. of this Ordinance, the Board shall cancel the certificate of such teacher. Cancellation of Teachers' certificates.

establish-
ment of
scholarships

XIII. The Board may, out of Funds specially voted by the Legislative Council for that purpose, grant scholarships to pupils who shall have attended :—

- (a) Primary Schools in the Colony to enable them to attend Secondary or Industrial Schools within the Colony ; and
- (b) Primary, Secondary or Industrial Schools in the Colony to enable them to receive technical instruction within or without the Colony.

power to sue,
:

XIV. The Board may sue and be sued in the name of the Board of Education.

wants to be
d before
Legislative
Council.

XV. The Colonial Treasurer shall on or before the 31st of March in every year lay before the Legislative Council a statement of grants made by the Board during the previous year.

appeal of
ordinances
and Rules.

XVI. "The Education Ordinance, 1882," "The Education Amendment Ordinance, 1887," "The Education Amendment Ordinance, 1890," "The Education Amendment Ordinance, 1891," and all Rules made thereunder are hereby repealed.

commence-
ment of
ordinance.
short Title.

XVII. This Ordinance shall come into operation on such day as the Governor shall notify by Proclamation, and may be cited for all purposes as "The Education Ordinance, 1895."

Passed in the Legislative Council of Sierra Leone this eighth day of January, 1895.

APPENDIX B.

EDUCATION RULES, 1899.*

RULES PASSED BY THE BOARD OF EDUCATION UNDER THE AUTHORITY OF THE EDUCATION ORDINANCE, 1895 (NO. 3 OF 1895).

I. DEFINITIONS.

meaning of
words

1. In these Rules, except where the context requires some different meaning :—

"The Board " means the Board of Education ;

"The Ordinance " means the Education Ordinance, 1895 ;

"A Schedule " means any schedule annexed to these Rules ;

"An Assisted School " means a primary or elementary school which is in receipt of a grant-in-aid ;

"The Standards " means the standards comprised in Schedule A to these Rules ;

"A Pupil Teacher," is a boy or girl engaged by a manager or local manager of a school on condition of teaching during school hours, under the superintendence of the principal teacher and receiving instruction out of school hours ;

* A Copy of the Education Rules, 1899, may be seen at the Board of Education Library, St. Stephen's House, Cannon Row, Whitehall, London. S.W.

- "School year" means the period from the 1st day of January to the 31st day of December in any year, both days inclusive ;
- "Attendance" means attendance at a school of a pupil of not less than two hours at either a morning or afternoon meeting ;
- "Average Attendance" means the number found by dividing the total number of attendances made during any period by the number of times for which the school has met during such period ;
- "Elementary Subjects" shall mean and include reading, writing and arithmetic ;
- "Inspector" means the Inspector of Schools.

II. MEETINGS OF THE BOARD.

2. The Board shall meet as often as the President shall think fit to convene it, and four of the members thereof, including the President, shall form a quorum. In the absence of the President, the member deputed by him shall preside. President to convene and preside at meetings.

III. EXAMINATION OF SCHOOLS.

3. The Inspector shall annually hold an examination of all assisted schools, at the end of every school year. Schools to be examined annually.

At such examination every pupil of a school shall be examined who shall have attended that school for at least the last three months in the preceding school year ; provided that no pupil shall be examined in any standard in which he shall already have passed. Provido.

4. The standards of examination for Infant schools or classes shall be those denoted sub-Standards *a*, and *b*, and for other schools or classes the Standards I. to VII. (Schedule A). The pupils of any school shall be examined in the obligatory subjects, namely :—The Elementary subjects and, as regards the girls, plain Needlework. They may also be examined in the following optional subjects, viz. :—English Grammar, Geography, History of the British Empire or of Sierra Leone, and in elementary Free-hand Drawing. Plain Needlework shall be compulsory as a class subject for all girls above the age of seven, and shall be taught according to the plan set forth in Schedule D. Subjects and Standards for examination.

5. The Inspector shall not be restricted, in examining any school, to the use of books ordinarily used therein, but may use any other books of approximately equal difficulty. Text-Books.

6. The Inspector shall, before the examination of a school, give to the local managers thereof not less than seven days' notice in writing of the day fixed by him for such examination. Notice of examination to be given.

7. A pupil is held to have passed a standard when he or she has passed in the elementary subjects in that standard, and he or she shall then be called a proficient. Proficient Pupil.

8-11.

12. After every such examination as aforesaid the Inspector shall furnish to the Board such a report in writing as shall enable it to determine the amount, if any, to be awarded under the Ordinance to each school that has been examined. Report.

IV. TEACHERS.

Classification.

13. The teachers recognised by the Board are—(a) Probationers ; (b) Classes of Pupil-teachers ; (c) Assistant Teachers ; (d) Provisionally Certificated Teachers ; (e) Certificated Teachers.

Probationers.

14. (a) Candidates for the office of pupil-teachers may be recognised as probationers until they are eligible to be pupil-teachers ; provided they have been presented to the Inspector for approval, have produced a certificate of good conduct from the local managers and one of punctuality, diligence, obedience and attention to their duties, from the master or mistress and have passed an examination in Standard IV. or V. As to character.

3. (b) Probationers must not be less than fourteen years of age at the commencement of their engagement.
- engagement. (c) The engagement of probationers may commence at any date after they have passed their examination.
- it as to ching. (d) Probationers whose engagement commences on or after the passing of these rules will not be permitted to be employed in teaching during more than half the time that the school is open.
- responsibility of Managers. (e) The managers are bound to see that the rules respecting the employment of probationers are properly observed, and the Board, if satisfied that this duty is neglected in the case of any probationer, may decline to recognize such probationer as a member of the staff of the school in which he is employed.

Pupil Teachers.

15. Pupil-teachers must not be less than fifteen years of age at the beginning of their engagement.
16. The engagement of a pupil-teacher can only begin on the 1st January.
17. Candidates, in order to be engaged as pupil-teachers, whether at the end of a period of probation or without probation, shall be presented to the Inspector for approval, have produced the certificates specified in Rule 14 a, and have passed an examination in Standard VI. or VII., at which they must have obtained at least 50 per cent. of the aggregate marks allotted to the subjects taken up by them and not less than 33½ per cent. of the marks allotted to any one of these subjects.
18. The length of the engagement of a pupil-teacher shall ordinarily be three years, but may be two or one, provided the candidate passes for admission the examination fixed for the first or second year, and the end of the reduced term of service falls beyond the completion of the candidate's eighteenth year.
- Candidates may be admitted for a one year engagement, provided that (a) they are holders of proficiency certificates approved by the Board from the College of Preceptors or from the University of Durham for not more than two years previously, and (b) the end of this engagement falls beyond the completion of the candidates' eighteenth year.
19. Central or other classes for the instruction of pupil-teachers shall be open at all times to the inspection of the Inspector, and the Board must be satisfied with the premises and general arrangements.
- The local managers are bound to see that the pupil-teacher is properly instructed during the engagement, and the Board, if satisfied that this duty is neglected in any school, may decline to recognize any pupil-teacher as a member of the staff of such school.
20. (a) Pupil-teachers are required at the end of the first and the second year of their engagement to produce the certificates specified in Rule 14 (a) and to pass an examination in the subjects specified in Schedule C. Pupil-teachers of the third year are required to pass the Government Scholarship Examination as specified in Schedule C., and to produce similar certificates of character to those required in the second year.
- (b) After two consecutive failures to pass the examination required, unless from illness or other sufficient cause, or to produce the required certificate, a pupil-teacher will no longer be recognized by the Board.
- (c) Pupil-teachers may in any case continue to be recognized until the end of the month in which the decision of the Board of Education as to their certificates and the result of their examination is announced to the manager.
- (d) The collective examinations of pupil-teachers shall be held in December.
- (e) The Inspector will inform the managers of the time and place at which the collective examination of their pupil-teachers will be held.

(f) The final examination of pupil-teachers will be the Government Scholarship Examination. A pupil-teacher of the third year may postpone his final examination for another year but not unless his engagement as pupil-teacher is extended for that year. Government Scholarship Examination.

(g) Notice shall be given to the Board by the local managers of the names of the pupil-teachers who desire to attend either of the annual examinations referred to in paragraphs (a) and (f) of this rule one month previous to the date fixed for such examination.

21. The Board is not a party to the engagement of pupil-teachers, and only ascertains whether the prescribed certificates are produced and the prescribed examination passed. Board no party to engagement.

22. Whatever other questions arise upon the engagement may be referred to the Board provided that all the parties agree in writing to be bound by the decision of the Board of Education as final; otherwise they must be settled as in any other hiring or contract. Reference to the Board.

23. At the termination of their engagements pupil-teachers who elect to continue in the profession of elementary school teachers may, under the conditions stated in the following rules, become— Ex-pupil teacher.

- (a) Students in a recognised Training College.
- (b) Assistant Teachers.
- (c) Provisionally Certificated Teachers.

V. EXAMINATION FOR ADMISSION TO TRAINING COLLEGES.

24. The examination of candidates for admission into a training college, called "The Government Scholarship Examination," will be held in October at a Training College. The names of all candidates must be notified to the Board on or before the 15th of September. Government Scholarship Examination.

25. The examination shall extend to all subjects in which pupil-teachers during their engagement are required to be instructed as specified in Schedule C. Subjects.

26. (a) Candidates attending the examination must be either pupil-teachers entering for their final examination under Rule 20, or, not being pupil-teachers, persons not less than eighteen years of age on the 1st January next following the date of examination.

(b) Candidates who have failed twice to pass the Government Scholarship Examination shall not be again examined.

27. Candidates who pass the examination shall be arranged in three classes in order of merit. To be in the first class they will have to obtain at least 75 per cent., in the second 60 per cent., and in the third class 40 per cent., of the aggregate marks allotted to the subjects taken up by them and not less than 33½ per cent. of the marks allotted to any one of these subjects.

Assistant Teachers.

28. Persons who have passed the Government Scholarship Examination and holders of third class certificates as teachers under the Education Rules of 17th January, 1895, may be recognized as Assistant Teachers.

Provisionally Certificated Teachers.

29. The following persons may be recognized as "provisionally certificated teachers," provided they are specially recommended by the Inspector on the ground of their practical skill as teachers, and that there are not sufficient certificated teachers:— Conditions of recognition.

- (a) Pupil-teachers who, after the satisfactory completion of their engagement, have obtained a place in the first class of the Government Scholarship Examination.
- (b) Persons who have passed the first year's examination for certificates (Rule 34 (1) a).

- (c) Persons who hold a second class certificate under the Education Rules of 17th January, 1895.

30. [Temporary Certificates issued to provisionally certificated teachers.]

Lapse of
recognition.

31. Provisionally certificated teachers may cease to be recognized as such if the schools or classes of which they are in charge are twice reported to be inefficient by the Inspector.

Certificated Teachers.

32. Candidates for certificates shall, except where it is otherwise provided in these Rules, have passed the first and second year's examination at the Training College.

Examina-
tion.

33. The examination will be held in January at a Training College. A syllabus of the examination may be had on application to the Board.

34. (1) The first year's examination is open to—

- (a) Students who have been enrolled and who have for at least one year received continuous training in a Training College ;
- (b) Teachers who being upwards of nineteen years of age have been employed for at least one year as assistant teachers under Rule 28 in assisted schools under certificated teachers and have obtained a favourable report from the Inspector on their skill in teaching, reading and recitation.
- (c) To gain a pass in the above examination a student will have to obtain at least 60 per cent. of the aggregate marks allotted to the subjects taken up by him, and not less than 33½ per cent. of the marks allotted to any one of these subjects.

(2) The second year's examination is open to—

- (a) Students who have passed the first year's examination, or have been excused such examination on account of illness or other cause accepted as satisfactory by the Board and have subsequently completed a second year of training as specified in Rule 34 (1) a.
- (b) Teachers who have passed the first year's examination not less than a year previously and, subsequently to such examination, have held situations for at least one year as provisionally certificated teachers or assistant teachers under Rule 28 in assisted schools under certificated teachers or in central classes as specified in Rule 19, and teachers who hold second class certificates under the Board of Education Rules of 17th January, 1895, and, being headmasters or mistresses of assisted schools, have obtained a second favourable report from the Inspector on their skill in teaching, reading and recitation.
- (c) To gain a pass in the above examination a student will have to obtain at least 75 per cent. of the aggregate marks allotted to the subjects taken up by him, and not less than 40 per cent. of the marks allotted to any one of these subjects.

35. Candidates who at the time of the examination are not teachers in schools under inspection shall be recommended by the authorities of the college or by the managers of the school in which they last served.

Notification
of names.

36. The names of all candidates for examination must be notified to the Board before the 1st of December and accompanied by a certificate of good character for each candidate either from the authorities of the Training College or the managers of schools as the case may be.

37. The examination under Rules 20, 24, and 34 will be conducted by Boards of Examiners, the members of which shall be appointed by the Governor and paid for their services a fee of one guinea each for each examination, or at such other rate as the Board may, under special circumstances, fix.

38. (a) Teachers who have passed the second year's examination shall be recognized by the Board as certificated teachers from the first day of the month succeeding the close of the examination and shall obtain a certificate in the [prescribed] form. Recognition as certificated teachers.

(b) Teachers who, on or before the passing of these rules, held first-class certificates shall be recognized as certificated teachers in the position they held at the time of the passing of these rules.

39. Lists will be published in *The Sierra Leone Royal Gazette* showing the successful candidates in each year's examination, whether students or not.

40. A teacher who has been employed as a certificated teacher for not less than two years in one and the same school or in a Training College, and has obtained a favourable report from the Inspector at the end of each year, shall be awarded a certificate to be called "Parchment Certificate" in the [prescribed] form. Parchment certificate.

41. The certificates held under previous rules will continue to be recognized; but any further advancement as regards status and certificates can only be obtained under these rules.

Report of Inspection.

42. The Inspector shall report each year on the efficiency of all teachers engaged in a school, and particularly on the efficient discharge of their duty towards the pupil-teachers under them. Inspector's Reports.

Recall or Suspension of Certificates.

43. A certificate may at any time be recalled or suspended, but not until the Board have informed the teacher of the charges against him and given him an opportunity of explanation.

44. There shall be kept in the Inspector of Schools' Office a complete record of certificates granted by the Board. Any person applying shall be allowed to see such record within office hours and on payment of a fee of one shilling, and an official copy of a certificate from such record shall be evidence that a certificate was so granted as therein stated and that such official copy is a true extract from the record and for such official copy a fee of one shilling shall be payable. Records of certificates to be kept.

The fees referred to in the preceding paragraph shall be paid into the Treasury.

VI. SCHOOL STAFF.

45. The recognized teachers employed in any school form the school staff.

46. Before the commencement of the school year a list of the school staff shall be submitted to the Board which, if approved by them, shall be entered in the log-book and signed by the local manager. The entry will show the school staff at the beginning of the school year. An entry must be made of any change in the staff occurring during the school year. Board to decide.

47. In estimating what is the minimum school staff required, the Board consider the Principal Certificated Teacher to be sufficient for an average attendance of sixty; each additional certificated teacher for an additional average attendance of eighty; each assistant teacher or provisionally certificated teacher for an additional average attendance of sixty; each pupil teacher for an additional average attendance of forty; each probationer for an additional average attendance of twenty. Minimum School staff.

Schools with an average attendance of below sixty and infant schools as defined in Rule 71 are not included in the above arrangement, but the Board expect that managers will make suitable arrangements for the scholars in such schools.

48. On and after the 1st of January of the third year following the passing of these rules, no school shall be recognized by the Board as an assisted school in which the staff is less than the minimum recognized by the Board under Rule 47.

49. Where vacancies in the office of any teacher, other than the principal teacher, occur in the course of a school year, and are duly reported to the Board, probationers employed in the place of the teachers causing the vacancies may be recognized as part of the school staff, each probationer being accepted as equivalent to a pupil-teacher, provided always that the vacancies are supplied not later than the first day of the next school year by the appointment of duly qualified teachers.

50. Notice shall at once be given to the Board of any change in the school staff occurring during the school year; and the date of birth of the new teacher and the name of the school in which he or she was last employed, and of that (if any) in which he or she served as pupil-teacher shall be specified.

VII. APPLICATIONS FOR ENROLMENT OF SCHOOLS.

51-52.

VIII. ANNUAL GRANT.

53. The conditions required to be fulfilled by a school in order to obtain an annual Government Grant are those set forth in "The Education Ordinance, 1895," and in these Rules. The Board's decision whether these conditions are fulfilled in any case shall be final and conclusive.

54. Before any grant shall be made in aid of a school, the Board shall be satisfied—

- (a) That the school fulfils the conditions contained in Section 8 of the Ordinance;
- (b) That the school premises are healthy, properly constructed, and supplied with suitable offices, and contain sufficient accommodation for the scholars attending the school;
- (c) That the local managers of the school have furnished a proper and accurate statement of its income and expenditure;
- (d) That at the last preceding examination of the school not less than 40 per cent. of the presentees were proficient;
- (e) That the school has a sufficient staff and is adequately provided with furniture, books, maps and other apparatus for elementary instruction.

55. The Board shall annually make grants-in-aid of schools at the respective rates specified in these Rules. Provided that under Rules 56, 58 and 59, no grant shall be made on account of any pupil who is not a proficient at the examination.

The Board shall, for every pass obtained by the proficient in any of the subjects mentioned in Rule 4 (except plain needlework), make a grant of two shillings, and for every pass in plain needlework, one shilling; and in any of the standards above the second in which no less than one-half of the pupils examined under such standards shall individually obtain a good pass, an additional award of sixpence for every subject pass obtained by each proficient in that standard.

57. The Board shall, for every pass in drawing, make a grant of two shillings and sixpence in aid of the school of the successful candidates.

Grants for passes in elementary subjects.

for a pass in every subject.

58. The Board shall award to every school of which the Inspector shall have reported the organization and discipline as *good* a grant of ninepence for each unit, or as *fairly good* a grant of sixpence for each unit of average attendance at such school.

Grant for organization and discipline.

For the purpose of this grant the Inspector will have special regard to the moral training and conduct of the children, to the neatness and order of the school premises, furniture and apparatus and to the proper classification of the scholars both for teaching and examination. The local managers and teachers will be expected to satisfy the Inspector that all reasonable care is taken, in the ordinary management of the school, to bring up the children in habits of punctuality, of good manners and language, of cleanliness and neatness, and also to impress upon the children the importance of cheerful obedience to duty, of consideration and respect for others and of honour and truthfulness in word and act.

Conditions to be fulfilled.

59. Where the organization and discipline of a school shall have been reported as *good*, and not less than 80 per cent. of the pupils under instruction in the standards have been presented for examination, the Board shall award to such school for every proficient pass in a standard subject :—

Grants for a high standard of excellence called Merit-grants.

- (a) If no less than 60 per cent. of such presentees shall have passed, an extra grant at the rate of sixpence for each such pass.
- (b) If no less than 70 per cent. shall have passed, an extra grant at the rate of one shilling for each such pass.
- (c) If no less than 80 per cent. shall have passed, an extra grant at the rate of one shilling and ninepence for each such pass ; and
- (d) If no less than 90 per cent. shall have passed, an extra grant at the rate of two shillings for such pass.

Provided that these extra grants shall not be made unless the majority of the proficientes making up the percentage of proficientes shall consist of pupils who were then examined for the first time in their respective standards.

60. The Board shall award to every school a grant of two shillings for each unit of average attendance.

Average attendance.

61. Whenever it is proposed to erect an elementary school building or to add to or enlarge an existing elementary school building, a grant may be made in aid of the cost of the erection or extension thereof of not more than one-tenth of the estimated or actual cost of building whichever may be least, or of such less sum as the Board may have previously determined in every particular case, where before the commencement of the building—

Grants in respect of school buildings, furniture and apparatus.

- (a) The approval of the Board has been obtained for the erection of or addition to or enlargement of the school building, for the plans and estimated cost for the same, and the position of the proposed site ; and
- (b) Security has been given to the satisfaction of the Board to the amount of the grant-in-aid that the building shall continue to be used as an elementary school until the said grant has been repaid or an order has been obtained from the Board authorising the discontinuance of such school building for the purpose of an elementary school.

Provided that the Board shall not signify its approval as provided in *Proviso* (a) unless it is satisfied that the accommodation to be provided is actually requisite, having regard to that already existing in the district, and that no grant shall be paid unless the Board has been satisfied that the buildings have been erected in accordance with the approved plans (except so far as any variation therefrom may be approved by the Board) and vouchers have been produced to its satisfaction in support of the expenditure incurred.

The Board will require—

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1st.—A Block Plan of the site drawn to scale, which must indicate :

- i. The position of the school buildings ;
- ii. Out buildings ;
- iii. Entrances ;
- iv. Boundry walls or fences.

2nd.—A plan of each floor of the schoolroom also drawn to scale.

3rd.—A detailed specification.

All school buildings must be fitted with sufficient number of hat-pegs and a separate latrine for boys and girls which must be at a suitable distance from and not attached to the school.

Pupil Teachers' Grants.

62. A grant according to the following scale is made in respect of each pupil-teacher who has passed a good or fair examination at one of the examinations of pupil-teachers or has obtained a place in the first or second class in the Government Scholarship Examination.

	First Year.	Second Year.	Government Scholarship.
For a good pass	- £2	£3	£4 (1st Class)
For a fair pass	- £1	£2	£3 (2nd Class)

To pass a good or fair examination in the first or second year a pupil-teacher must obtain at least 75 per cent. or 50 per cent. respectively of the aggregate marks allotted to the subjects taken up by him and not less than 33½ per cent. of the marks allotted to any one of these subjects, and with respect to the Government Scholarship he must obtain for a good or fair pass the proportion of marks laid down respectively for passes in the first or second class in Rule 27.

The grant under this Rule may be applied towards the expenses of central or other classes for the instruction of pupil-teachers or divided between the principal teacher and the pupil-teacher, should the latter have been instructed by the former, in such proportion as the managers think fit.

Grant on passing Examination for Certificate.

63. A grant of ten pounds will be made in respect of each teacher who has passed the second year's examination for a certificate under Rule 34, 2 (b) and (c). The grant under this Rule shall be applied to the funds of any school or central or other class in which the teacher may have been prepared for the examination.

Teachers' Grants.

65. The grants in respect of the teachers of assisted schools will be made as follows :—

Parchment Certificated Teachers	- - - - -	£15
Certificated Teachers	- - - - -	£10
Assistant Teachers	- - - - -	£ 6

Provisionally certificated teachers will receive the same grant as certificated teachers whilst acting on a recognized school staff as certificated teachers.

66. For the purpose of these grants certificated teachers under the Board of Education Rule 7 of the 17th January, 1895, will be classed as follows :

A teacher holding a first-class certificate as a parchment certificated teacher, a teacher holding a second-class certificate as a certificated teacher, and a teacher holding a third-class certificate as an assistant teacher.

67. No grant will be given in any case in respect of teachers, classified as in Rule 13, or certificated teachers under the Board of Education Rules of 17th January, 1895, unless they are holding situations in a school staff recognised under Rule 48.

68. Teachers' grants shall be paid in each case quarterly at the end of every quarter for which payment is claimed.

Teachers' Salaries.

69. From and after the 1st of January, 1900, the salaries of teachers in assisted schools shall be paid as under ; and no school shall after that date be recognized as an assisted school in which such salaries are not paid.

A parchment certificated teacher shall be paid by the managers a salary of not less than £60 a year, which with the teacher's grant [Rule 65] makes a total salary of not less than £75 a year.

A certificated teacher or a provisionally certificated teacher shall be paid by the managers a salary of not less than £40 a year, which, with the teacher's grant [Rule 65], makes a total salary of not less than £50 a year.

An assistant teacher shall be paid by the managers a salary of not less than £28 a year, which, with the teacher's grant [Rule 65], makes a total salary of £34 a year.

The above payments shall be exclusive of the remuneration a teacher may earn under Rule 76.

Grants-in-Aid for Infant Schools.

70. A separate register shall be kept for such infants between the ages of four and seven who are not sufficiently advanced for the Standards. Register.

71. The conditions of the average attendance grant [Rule 60] shall be equally applicable to them. Average attendance grant.

72. Where the Inspector is satisfied that proper arrangements have been made for their instruction, and that they have been suitably taught, the Board shall award a grant of one shilling on account of every such infant who shall have attended that school for at least the last three months in the preceding school year and was present at the examination : but where the Inspector is not so satisfied the Board may award a grant of sixpence. Grant for teaching, &c.

73. Where instruction in an infant school shall have been imparted continuously during the preceding school year— Grant for teaching in suitable building, &c.

- (a) In a separate building, or
- (b) In the same building but not on the same floor, or
- (c) On the same floor but in a separate room, the partition walls whereof are sufficiently thick to exclude the sound of teaching from other parts of the school, and
- (d) By a competent adult teacher by means of object lessons, lessons in form or colour or a variety of useful and instructive employments, in addition to the subjects specified in Schedule A, the Inspector may, if satisfied, recommend a grant of 2s. 6d. on account of every such infant who shall have attended that school for at least the last three months of the preceding school year, and was present at the examination ; or, if only partially satisfied, he may recommend a grant of 2s. per head.

IX. PAYMENT OF GRANTS-IN-AID MADE BY THE BOARD.

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74. There shall be paid to the managers or local managers of assisted schools, as the Board directs, as soon as may be after the receipt by the Board of the Annual Report of the Inspector of Schools, as an advance towards the grants-in-aid, a sum not exceeding one-half of the amount of the grant reported by the Inspector as having been apparently earned by them, and the balance of the grants-in-aid, if any, shall be paid to such managers or local managers as the Board directs as soon as may be after the actual amount of grants to which such schools are entitled shall have been finally ascertained. Provided always that if it shall appear that any school, on behalf of which an advance has been made, is entitled to no grants-in-aid under these Rules, or to a less grant than the amount advanced, the managers or local managers of such school shall be called upon to repay the amount of the advance made to them, or such portion thereof, as, in the opinion of the Board, they may not have been entitled to as aforesaid. And in the event of their not repaying the same within one month of the date of such application as aforesaid, the amount demanded by the Board shall be recoverable from the managers or local managers of the school concerned in a summary manner as liquidated damages, upon proof of such demand having been sent to such managers or local managers by the Clerk of the Board in a registered letter addressed to any one of such managers or local managers.

X. APPLICATION OF GRANTS-IN-AID MADE BY THE BOARD.

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75. All moneys paid to the managers or local managers of any school in respect of any grant-in-aid made by the Board shall be applied to the improvement or maintenance of the building, furniture or apparatus, and to increasing the remuneration of the teachers, including pupil-teachers of such schools, and to such other purposes as the Board may sanction either generally or in any particular instance.

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76. Unless otherwise provided by the Board under the powers reserved to it under Section VI. of the Ordinance, not less than one-half of the grant-in-aid earned by any school under the following grants shall be devoted to increasing the emoluments of the teachers as classified in Rule 13; namely—

- (a) Average attendance, Proficiency, Good pass, Organisation and Discipline, and Merit; and
- (b) Sewing.
- (c) Drawing.

tribution.

In the case of grants in class (a) at least a quarter of the total grants earned shall be assigned to the principal teacher of the school, and in class (b) at least a half, and in class (c) at least three-fifths, of the grant earned in each subject shall be assigned to the principal teacher in the subject for which the grant is given; but before a teacher can be considered qualified to instruct in Drawing he must either be an Assistant or Certificated teacher who has passed the course of instruction laid down in these Rules or, if a teacher under the Rules of the 17th January, 1895, have passed an examination in Drawing to the satisfaction of the Board.

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Provided always that it shall not be incumbent on the managers or local managers of any school to pay any portion of the grant-in-aid to any teacher who shall have been connected with the school for any term less than six months in the school year for which the grant is made, or who has been dismissed from, or has resigned his connection with such school by reason of serious misconduct. Any teacher, who would have been entitled to receive a portion of the grant under this Rule had he not resigned or been dismissed, may, if dissatisfied with the decision of the managers or local managers, appeal in writing to the Board, within any period not exceeding one month from such decision, and thereupon the Board shall inquire into the case and decide whether any and if so what

portion of the grant shall be paid to such teacher ; and the decision of the Board shall be final and binding upon all parties concerned.

77. As a provisional measure and until the Board determines, classes will be held at the Technical School for the instruction of teachers desirous of qualifying themselves as instructors in drawing.

The course will consist of forty lectures extending over a period of five months, and each teacher attending it will be required to pay in advance a fee of three shillings and sixpence, and the Board shall grant at the conclusion of such course to the Technical School fifteen shillings for each student who may have obtained a pass. Provided that the number of students who enter for the course shall not be less than five. If the sum of the grants so earned added to that of the students' fees for any one course is less than £9, which amount is calculated to be the expenses which have to be defrayed in connection with the course of lectures by the Technical School, then the Board shall award a sufficient sum to make up the amount to £9.

In the event of the sum of the grants and the students' fees exceeding £9 the surplus shall go to the funds of the Technical School.

XI. LIMITATION TO GRANTS-IN-AID.

78. The proportion of fees to be recovered and obtained under Section VIII. of the Ordinance shall be not less than two-thirds of the total fees payable by the children in attendance at the school.

No annual grant-in-aid to any school shall in any case exceed half of its annual income derived from all sources : Provided however that this shall not affect the share of the grants to which teachers are entitled on the Inspector's Annual Report, but the same shall be paid to them as otherwise provided in these Rules.

Grant-in-aid not to exceed half of school's annual income.

XII. MINIMUM NUMBER OF MEETINGS.

79. No school shall receive a grant unless it shall have met no less than 380 times during the preceding school year and instruction has been given in the subjects mentioned in Schedule A for at least two consecutive hours at each such meeting.

Minimum number of meetings.

XIII. RECORDS TO BE KEPT AT ASSISTED SCHOOLS, AND STATISTICS TO BE FURNISHED BY MANAGERS OF ASSISTED SCHOOLS.

80-87.

XIV. SCHOLARSHIPS.

88. The following regulations will be observed in granting scholarships under the provisions of Section 13 of the Ordinance, provided that sufficient funds have been voted by the Legislature for the purpose.

Granting of Scholarships under section XIII. of Ordinance.

- (1) When there are sufficient eligible candidates there shall in every year be granted under sub-section (a) of Section XIII. of the Ordinance, three scholarships of the annual value of £10 which shall be tenable in the first instance for one year only, but may, upon its being shown to the satisfaction of the Board that the scholar continues to be of good character and conduct and is persevering in and benefiting from the instruction received, be extended from year to year for a further term of two years : Provided that the Board may at any time suspend or withdraw any scholarship without assigning any reason for so doing.

Three Scholarships of annual value of £10.

- (2) Every candidate for one of the above scholarships must fulfil the following conditions—

The candidate must present a certificate signed by the principal teacher of the school he has last attended, to the following effect :—

- (a) That he is of good character and conduct, that his parents or guardians are unable of themselves to provide him with further education ;

- (b) That he has been in regular attendance at that or some other primary school in the Colony for the two school years immediately preceding his candidature, and has within that period passed a satisfactory examination in Standard V. or VI. under these Rules.
- (3) The candidate must consent to attend a Secondary school approved by the Board during the currency of the scholarship, but may elect the school he desires to attend.
- (4) The candidate must pass an examination in Standard VII. at which, in order to qualify, he must obtain at least 50 per cent. of the aggregate marks allotted to the subjects taken up by him and not less than 33½ per cent. of the marks allotted to any one of these subjects, and whenever the number of eligible candidates exceeds the number of scholarships to be granted, the above examination shall be deemed to have been competitive, and the scholarship shall be awarded to the candidates who having qualified obtained the highest aggregate marks.
- (5) Every such scholarship shall be tenable only so long as the holder thereof shall attend a Secondary school within the Colony and remain of good behaviour.
- (6) The granting of any scholarship under sub-section (b) of Section XIII. of the Ordinance, and all particulars and conditions thereof, shall in every instance depend upon the special circumstances of the case.

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XV. TRAINING COLLEGES.

89. A Training College is an institution either for boarding, lodging and instructing, or for merely instructing students who are preparing to become certificated teachers in elementary schools. Training Colleges are required to include, either on their premises or within a convenient distance, a practising school in which the students may learn the practical exercise of their profession. Only those institutions will be recognised by the Board as Training Colleges which have been approved of by the Government and which continue to fulfil the conditions required by the Government.

Admission into Training Colleges.

90. The recognized students in a Training College are called Government Scholars.
91. The authorities of a Training College or a manager may propose to the Board for admission as a Government Scholar on or before the 15th of December any candidate who has obtained a place in the first or second class at the last preceding Government Scholarship Examination (Rules 25, 26 and 27).
92. The Board shall in each year on or before the 30th September fix the number of Government scholars whom it will accept to be trained during the ensuing year in a Training College. The number to be trained will be selected from those candidates proposed for admission under the preceding rule.
93. Before a candidate is admitted into a Training College he, together with one approved surety, shall give a bond to the Governor binding him (a) to be of good behaviour during his course of training, and (b) to teach for a period of five years at least either in a Training College, Government School or an Assisted School after the conclusion of his course of training whether at the end of the first or the second year. Provided that if the candidate should be dismissed for misbehaviour before the conclusion of his course of training he and his surety, separately or together, shall forfeit to the Government the sum of £13 in the case of a resident student, or £5 in the case of a day student : and similarly they shall forfeit the sum of £50 if the candidate shall fail to teach for five years as hereinbefore mentioned : such payment to be recoverable from them in a summary manner as liquidated damages.

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94. The authorities of a Training College may settle their own terms of admission for a student as far as the discipline and regulations of the college are concerned, and upon proof by such authorities that students have not fulfilled the conditions signed by them on admission into the college the Board may refuse to recognize them as certificated teachers. Conditions of admission.

95. The period of training shall be two years, which period shall commence in January of each year. Period of training.

96. Students who are Government scholars and are qualified to attend the examinations for certificates (Rule 34 (1) a and 34 (2) a) are required to attend such examinations, unless prevented by illness or other cause approved by the Board.

97. The number of Government scholars for whom grants will be allowed in each year will be four resident students and two day students, provided however that the Board may with the sanction of the Governor at any time increase the number according to the requirements for teachers in Elementary schools.

The Government Scholarship in any year will be open to competition by the pupil-teachers attending the Government Scholarship Examination (Rule 20 f) in the preceding year.

Grant to a Training College.

98. The annual grant to a Training College shall be £50 for each student in residence as a Government scholar, and £20 for each day student enrolled for continuous training as a Government scholar throughout the year for which it is being paid. In the case of a day student the Board may grant a sum not exceeding £20 per annum towards the support of such student during the period of his training. Grant to Training College.

In case such day student does not desire to attend the Scripture classes at the Training College he is to enter, the manager by whom he may be recommended must guarantee to provide the necessary instruction in the Scriptures for such student.

99. The annual grant to a Training College will be paid to the authorities of such College as follows :— Instalments of grant.

- (a) An instalment of £13 on 31st March, 30th June, and 30th September, in respect of every Government scholar in residence for continuous training throughout the year.
- (b) An instalment of £5 on 31st March, 30th June, and 30th September, in respect of each day student enrolled for continuous training throughout the year.
- (c) The payment of the balance for each student will be contingent on his or her passing successfully the year's examination.
- (d) In each case of a student failing to pass the year's examination the balance will be forfeited to the Government unless he or she has been excused such examination on account of illness or other cause accepted as satisfactory by the Board.

100. Notwithstanding anything contained in these Rules it shall be lawful for the Board of Education to make such arrangements as may be necessary to allow of the admission of Candidates into a Training College during the year 1900, and such arrangements when published in *The Sierra Leone Royal Gazette* shall have the same force and effect as if they were embodied in these Rules.

101. These Rules may be cited for all purposes as "The Education Rules 1899."

102. "The Education Rules, 1895." are hereby cancelled.

Made and passed by the Board of Education this Fourth day of December, 1899.

(The Education Rules 1899.)

SCHEDULE A.

Sub-Standards.		I.	II.	III.
a.	b.			
READING.	To know the alpha bet ; appearance and powers of letters ; combinations of two and of three letters.	To read a short paragraph from a book, not confined to words of one syllable.	To read a short paragraph from an elementary reading book.	To read a short paragraph from a more advanced reading book than under Standard II.
	To write on black-board or slate, small letters.	To write on blackboard or slate, small and capital letters.	To copy correctly, in round hand, a few lines of print.	To write on paper from dictation, a passage of not more than six lines from a corresponding book, read slowly once and then dictated in single words. Copy - books, large and half text-hand, to be shown.
WRITING.	To know numbers up to 50. Very simple mental calculations.	To name the days of the week and months of the year. Addition and Subtraction of numbers of not more than two figures. In Addition, not more than five lines to be given. Sums to be copied from black-board.	Notation and numeration up to 10,000. Simple Addition and Subtraction. Multiplication and Division tables.	Sums in simple rules, as far as and including Long Division and money tables.
	Knowledge of numbers up to 100. Very easy calculations on slate or black-board or mental.			Nouns and Verbs: the limits as in Mason's First Notions of Grammar, pp. 5-34, will be sufficient.
ARITHMETIC.				
GRAMMAR.				
HISTORY.				
GEOGRAPHY.				Size and shape of the world. Geographical definitions, explained on a map. Uses of the lines on a map of the world. Collins' New Code Standard Geography, pp. 1-4.

* The weights and measures taught to children should be only such as are really useful.

8 STANDARDS.

IV.	V.	VI.	VII.
<p>read with intelligence a short paragraph from a more advanced reading book than under Standard III.</p>	<p>To read with intelligence and expression a few lines of poetry or prose at the choice of the Inspector.</p>	<p>To read with intelligence and increased expression a few lines of poetry or prose at the choice of the Inspector.</p>	<p>To read with intelligent appreciation, from any book or periodical selected by the Inspector, passages of ordinary difficulty.</p>
<p>write on paper, from dictation, a passage of not more than six lines from corresponding work, read slowly once and then dictated a few words at a time. Copy-books, capitals and figures large and small hand to be shown.</p>	<p>To write from dictation a short paragraph from some modern narrative read once and dictated a few words at a time. Copy-books to be shown.</p>	<p>To write from memory the substance of a short story read out thrice. Spelling, handwriting and grammatical construction to be considered. Copy-books to be shown.</p>	<p>To write a theme of letter on an easy subject. Composition, spelling and handwriting to be considered. Copy-books and all exercise books to be shown.</p>
<p>rules in the common rules, reduction, tables of eights and measures.*</p>	<p>Vulgar Fractions, Practice (simple and compound).</p>	<p>Decimal Fractions, Proportion (simple and compound). [Sums may be set, at the Inspector's option, testing fractional combinations. A knowledge of fractions may be found useful in problems of simple and compound proportion.]</p>	<p>Simple and Compound Interest, Discount, Profit and Loss, with a general knowledge of the principles of Averages and Percentages.</p>
<p>previous requirements and the remaining parts of each with elementary parsing as stated in Mason's First Notions of Grammar, pp. 35-66.</p>	<p>Previous requirements with conjugation of Verbs and Parsing. Mason's First Notions, pp. 67-120.</p>	<p>The same as for Standard V. with analysis of simple sentences. First Notions of Grammar, pp. 121-146.</p>	<p>The same as for Standards V. and VI. with more difficult analysis. First Notions of Grammar, pp. 147-166. Mason's Word Framing.</p>
<p>English History up to Norman line (1066), Meiklejohn's Short History, pp. 1-19.</p>	<p>History of territories adjacent to the Colony. English History up to 1422, Meiklejohn's Short History, pp. 19-62.</p>	<p>English History to 1660, Meiklejohn's Short History, pp. 62-109.</p>	<p>English History to present time. Meiklejohn's Short History, pp. 109-172.</p>
<p>preceding requirements and Collins' New Code Standard Geography, pp. 5-18. Map pointing.</p>	<p>Preceding requirements and pp. 19-35 British Possessions in Africa, more fully. Map pointing.</p>	<p>Preceding requirements and pp. 36-51. Map pointing.</p>	<p>Preceding requirements and pp. 52-80. British possessions more fully. Blank maps. Map pointing.</p>

*avoirdupois weight, long measure, time-table and square and cubical measures.

SUBJECTS FOR PUPILS

	READING AND RECITATION.	ENGLISH GRAMMAR.	ENGLISH COMPOSITION.	ARITHMETIC
FIRST YEAR.	To read with fluency, ease and expression a book previously announced, and to recite 50 lines of Standard poetry from a selected book.	A general acquaintance with Mason's "First Notions of Grammar" with parsing and analysis to the extent to which they are therein taught.	Writing from memory the substance of a fairly long story read twice, correct spelling and expression are required.	Reduction of Weights and Measures, Practice, Bills of Exchange, Vulgar Fractions general
SECOND YEAR.	To read as above and to recite 70 lines of poetry.	Mason's "Outlines of English Grammar," the <i>Introduction</i> and <i>Etymology</i> with exercises relating thereto. Parsing and Analysis as above.	(a) As above. (b) To write in prose form a short piece of narrative poetry. Correct spelling and expression are required.	Vulgar and Decimal Fractions, and their application to Problems and Proportions Simple and Compound; Simple Interest.
THIRD YEAR.	To read as above and to recite 80 lines of poetry or 50 lines of standard prose.	Mason's "Outlines of English Grammar" generally; specially <i>Syntax</i> with the exercises. Parsing and analysis. Word-building.	(a) To write a letter or a short composition on a common subject, or on some familiar object. (b) To paraphrase a short piece of poetry. Correct spelling and expression required.	Compound Interest, Per Cent, Profit and Loss and Averages.

SUBJECTS FOR PUPIL-

	READING AND RECITATION.	ENGLISH GRAMMAR.	ENGLISH COMPOSITION.	ARITHMETIC.
FIRST YEAR.	To read with fluency, ease and expression a book previously announced, and to recite 50 lines of Standard poetry from a selected book.	A general acquaintance with Mason's "First Notions of Grammar" with parsing and analysis to the extent to which they are therein taught.	Writing from memory the substance of a fairly long story read twice, correct spelling and expression are required.	Reduction of Weights and Measures, Practice, Bills of Parcels and Vulgar Fractions generally.
SECOND YEAR.	To read as above and to recite 70 lines of poetry.	Mason's "Outlines of English Grammar" the <i>Introduction</i> and <i>Etymology</i> with exercises relating thereto. Parsing and Analysis as above.	(a) As above. (b) To write in prose form a short piece of narrative poetry. Correct spelling and expression are required.	Vulgar and Decimal Fractions, and their application to Problems and Proportion, Simple and Compound Proportion; Simple Interest.
THIRD YEAR.	To read as above and to recite 80 lines of poetry or 50 lines of standard prose.	Mason's "Outlines of English Grammar" generally; specially <i>Syntax</i> with the exercises. Parsing and analysis. Word-building.	(a) To write a letter or a short composition on a common subject, or on some familiar object. (b) To paraphrase a short piece of poetry. Correct spelling and expression required.	Compound Interest, Discount, Profit and Loss and Averages.

In Drawing either Freehand or Practica Plane Geometry

DULE C.

TEACHERS' EXAMINATIONS.

MATHEMATICS.	GEOGRAPHY.	ENGLISH HISTORY.	TEACHING.	DRAWING.*
Mensuration of Triangles. Euclid: Definitions.	Europe (British Isles specially).	Outlines of British History to the death of Edward I. (Meiklejohn's "Short History of England.")	The various methods of teaching reading. (Gladman's School method).	Freehand:— Taylor's exercises on (a) Squared paper. (b) Straight lines. (c) Use of set squares and rules. (d) Drawing from definitions. Practical Plane Geometry. Carrol's Geometry to chapter xv. (inclusive).
Mensuration of Triangles and Parallelograms. Euclid: Definitions and Props. I-XV. Algebra to Division inclusive.	Asia (India specially).	From Edward II. to Revolution of 1688. (Meiklejohn's "Short History of England.")	(a) To answer questions on the mode of teaching the elementary subjects. (b) To conduct class before the Inspector in one of those subjects.	Freehand:— (1) Proportion. (2) Geometric Forms. (3) Taylor's Freehand up to Standard IV. Questions on the method of teaching up to that standard. Practical Plane Geometry: Carrol's Lessons Chapters XIV. to XVIII. (inclusive).
Mensuration of Triangles and Parallelograms. Euclid I.-XXVI. Algebra: (a). As above. (b). Simple Equations and Fractions.	Africa, America and Australasia. (British possessions specially).	From accession of William and Mary to the present time.	(a) Greater proficiency in the above, also in the management of an infant school and in giving lesson to infants in form, colour or number, or on some familiar objects. (b) Notes of lessons.	Freehand:— (a) Taylor's copies for Standards V. & VI. (b) Model drawing of single simple solids. (c) Practical Plane Geometry:— Carrol's Chapters XXIX. to XXXV. (inclusive), and Chapter on Solids (omitting Orthographic Projection. and Graphic Arithmetic.)

may be taken up at the option of the pupil-teacher.

FILE C.

TEACHERS' EXAMINATIONS.

MATHEMATICS.	GEOGRAPHY.	ENGLISH HISTORY.	TEACHING.	DRAWING.*
Mensuration of Triangles. Euclid: Definitions.	Europe (British Isles specially).	Outlines of British History to the death of Edward I. (Meiklejohn's "Short History of England.")	The various methods of teaching reading. (Gladmen's School method).	Freehand:— Taylor's exercises on (a) Squared paper. (b) Straight lines. (c) Use of set squares and rules. (d) Drawing from definitions. Practical Plane Geometry. Carroll's Geometry to chapter xv. (inclusive).
Mensuration of Triangles and Parallelograms. Euclid: Definitions and Props. I-XV. Algebra to Division inclusive.	Asia (India specially).	From Edward II. to Revolution of 1688. (Meiklejohn's "Short History of England.")	(a) To answer questions on the mode of teaching the elementary subjects. (b) To conduct class before the Inspector in one of those subjects.	Freehand:— (1) Proportion. (2) Geometric Forms. (3) Taylor's Freehand up to Standard IV. Questions on the method of teaching up to that standard. Practical Plane Geometry: Carroll's Lessons Chapters XIV. to XVIII. (inclusive).
Mensuration of Triangles and Parallelograms. Euclid I.-XXVI. Algebra: (a). As above. (b). Simple Equations and Fractions.	Africa, America and Australasia. (British possessions specially).	From accession of William and Mary to the present time.	(a) Greater proficiency in the above, also in the management of an infant school and in giving lesson to infants in form, colour or number, or on some familiar objects. (b) Notes of lessons.	Freehand;— (a) Taylor's copies for Standards V. & VI. (b) Model drawing of single simple solids. (c) Practical Plane Geometry:— Carroll's Chapters XXIX. to XXXV. (inclusive), and Chapter on Solids (omitting Orthographic Projection and Graphic Arithmetic.)

* may be taken up at the option of the pupil-teacher.

SCHEDULE D. NEEDLEWORK.

Division i.	Division ii.	Division iii.	Division iv.	Division v.	Division vi.
Hemming, Seaming and Felling.	Greater proficiency in the work of the previous division.	The work of the previous divisions and stitching.	The work of the previous divisions, gathering, stroking, and setting in of gathers, and marking on canvas.	The work of the previous divisions, knitting, marking on calico and herring-boning.	The work of the previous divisions, patching, general mending, button-holing and cutting out.

SCHEDULES E. F. G.

(FORMS FOR TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.)

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**THE
SYSTEM OF EDUCATION
IN
SOUTHERN NIGERIA.**

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

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APPENDIX.

Extract from Colonial Reports—Annual. No. 405. Souther
Nigeria. Report for 1902.

THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN SOUTHERN NIGERIA

I. HISTORICAL AND INTRODUCTORY.

The educational system of Southern Nigeria is still in the embryonic stage, though educational work of some kind has been going on for more than half a century within the region now administered by the Protectorate Government. In 1846 a Mission in connection with the United Presbyterian Church of Scotland established itself on the Old Calabar River and gradually set up a number of schools for the instruction of the natives in the surrounding districts. At the beginning of 1902 there were sixteen of these schools, giving instruction to 730 pupils (girls and boys). Also about the middle of the century the Church Missionary Society established stations at Bonny on the Coast, and later at Onitsha on the Niger, and from these centres in like manner a number of schools were planted over the surrounding districts. In 1886 Roman Catholic Missionaries began to work at Onitsha, and later at Asaba, and about the same time an Irish Protestant Mission sent an Agent to Ibeno on the Kwa-Ibo River. Both these Missions also now maintain a number of schools.

From the beginning the Missions made it part of their work to teach the natives to read the Bible in their own language, and usually also to write and count a little. Many of their schools are still confined to this simple curriculum; but in others all the usual subjects of elementary education are taught.*

In the beginning of 1902 there were fifty schools maintained by these various agencies and by the Native Pastorate Church which has grown out of the labours of the Church Missionary Society.

For the history of these Mission schools only the scantiest materials exist. The majority were and are 'hedge schools' of the most primitive type, and no regular record has been kept of numbers attending or work done. Until quite recently there was little organisation even among the schools maintained by one Mission. In most cases the management of each appears to have been left entirely in the hands of the local representative of the Mission. These institutions have doubtless done invaluable service in breaking soil for future educational workers; but until quite recent years the effect of the secular part of their teaching was not very visible. Within the last ten years, however, more serious efforts have been made by the Missions to organise a sound system of secular education. Thus the Church Missionary Society has adopted in its schools a modified form of the Education Code of Barbados, W.I., and has an Inspector to examine and report on these schools. Similarly the Presbyterian Mission some years ago drew up a Code for their elementary schools, and in 1895 established at Old Calabar, under the name of The Hope Waddell Training

* In July, 1903, there were 61 Mission schools. (See Colonial Reports - Annual. No. 405. Southern Nigeria. Report for 1902.)

Institution, a school for more advanced instruction, for industrial training, and for the training of teachers and Mission Agents. But until 1902 no attempt was made to co-ordinate these several educational activities.

A British Protectorate of the regions now comprised under the name Southern Nigeria was proclaimed in 1885, but no regular administration can be said to have existed until the Niger Coast Protectorate was established in 1891.

The new administration began the practice of giving grants to the Missions to assist them in their educational work, but no system of inspection or Governmental control was instituted. It was not till 1900, when the territories under British administration were re-organised into the new Protectorate of Southern Nigeria, that the Government began to take any direct part in the education of the people under its protection. In that year, on the initiative and through the efforts of the High Commissioner, Sir Ralph Moor, K.C.M.G., a school for native children was established near Bonny, to be managed by a Board of which the High Commissioner is Chairman and the majority of the members are Government officers. The revenue from fees was to be supplemented, for the first few years at least, by contributions from the native Chiefs of the surrounding districts: an annual Government grant was also promised, and subscriptions from two British firms trading at Bonny—Messrs. Alex. Miller Bros. and Company, and the African Association, Limited. In the following year the High Commissioner established at Benin City an elementary school of a somewhat different type, the management in this case being entirely in the hands of the Government, though the revenue is partly contributed by the local Chiefs. In December, 1901, an Inspector of Schools was appointed and the first steps taken towards organising a public system of education in the Protectorate.

II. PRESENT SYSTEM.

Central
Authority.

As at present constituted the central administration of education is vested in the Inspector of Schools, an officer appointed from England through the Colonial Office. There is no legislative enactment defining his office and functions, but he acts under direct instruction from the High Commissioner.

Local
Authority.

No local authorities in the usual sense exist. The School Board at Bonny is merely an advisory body, entrusted with a vague control over the expenditure of the school, but with no legal status or definite power or responsibility. This Board consists of the High Commissioner, three resident Government officers, one representative of each of the subscribing European firms, and representatives of the native Chiefs. As a matter of fact, the native members have never taken any part in the deliberations of the Board. This is the only attempt that has been made to set up any sort of local authority. The Mission schools are managed, not by any body appointed *ad hoc*, but by the general executive body of the Mission.

No tolerably accurate statement of the total amount spent on education in the Protectorate is obtainable. Until the year 1902 no return had ever been asked for, even from the aided schools: according to returns then furnished, the total amount expended on all schools in the Protectorate during 1901 was £7,362. In some, at least, of the minor schools, however, the accounts do not show strictly educational expenditure, but include items belonging to the general cost of maintenance of the Mission. On the other hand, the cost of some of the school material is defrayed, and the salaries of some of the teachers paid out of general Mission funds; and as these items do not appear in the school accounts, the sum above quoted must be regarded as merely a rough approximation. Towards this total cost, the Government contributed during the corresponding financial year a sum of £1,028 13s. 1d. The revenue from fees was returned as £1,416, of which £236 16s. 3d. was paid by the Protectorate Government for pupils maintained at the Presbyterian Mission School at Old Calabar. The only schools in which fees were regularly charged were those established by the Government at Bonny and Benin City. In the other schools practically free education is given to such as care to have it. Indeed, in at least one Mission school, it seems to be the practice to pay the parents a fee for allowing their children to attend! All but some £400 of the sum above mentioned is paid at the Presbyterian School at Old Calabar and the Bonny School, and at both a considerable portion of the fees charged is for board rather than for education.

Finance:
Total Cost
Education.

Government
Contribu-
tion.
Fees.

Voluntary contributions given locally (including some £400 paid by native chiefs towards maintenance of schools at Benin City and Bonny) were returned as amounting to £563, but the sum actually obtained from this source was probably somewhat larger. The cost of the Mission schools was defrayed chiefly from Mission funds subscribed in Great Britain and elsewhere.

Voluntary
Contribu-
tions.

The extreme laxity in the matter of records that obtains in most of the schools makes it difficult to estimate the number of children actually receiving instruction. The number of names on the rolls in 1901 was returned at 2,217; but it is not probable that more than 1,600 of these were in anything like regular attendance. The returns show 734 girls as being on the rolls, but in many schools no separate return of girls was made, and the number was probably considerably greater. In the majority of schools attendance is exceedingly variable. Education being for the most part free, the native sets but little value on it, and has little conception of the necessity of regularity. If a child can at any time be profitably employed on an odd job, such as fishing, carrying, etc., most parents make no scruple about withdrawing the child from school for a few days. Then in the 'farming' season the whole family removes from the 'town' to the 'farm' and the education of the children is temporarily suspended. In the present condition of the country it seems impossible to devise any method of securing

Educational
Statistics.
Number of
Scholars.

Regularity
of Attend-
ance.

Advantages of Boarding schools.

Their Disadvantages.

general regularity of attendance. Boarding schools must remain for some time the only approximate solution of the difficulty, and it is to this class of school that the administration is giving most support and attention. Unfortunately, taking their children away from their homes and normal surroundings tends often to induce a declassment of a serious kind. They are apt to lose some of the most valuable instincts and characteristics of their race and to fall out of touch with their people. They are thus disqualified for taking a useful place in their native community and become merely parasitic on European civilisation. As the number of inhabitants of Southern Nigeria is practically unknown and no trustworthy data exist for calculating it, it is impossible to give any useful guess at the fraction representing the proportion of school children to population. It certainly cannot be greater than 1 in 1,000 and is probably much less.

Private schools: elementary.

Higher grade.

From what has been said in the historical introduction it will be seen that the great majority of existing schools are private elementary schools under the various religious denominations. The only higher grade private schools are the Hope Waddell Training Institution already mentioned, the "Training College" at Onitsha, maintained by the Church Missionary Society, and the recently-opened High School in connection with the Roman Catholic Mission at the same place. Even in these schools the instruction given is rather that of the higher standards in an English elementary school than that of secondary schools properly so called.

Teachers:

One of the most serious obstacles in the way of education in Southern Nigeria is the difficulty of obtaining competent teachers. The schools in the Protectorate have not yet succeeded in producing any considerable number of *alumni* capable of being entrusted with the work of instruction. Attempts have been made to obtain teachers from the older British settlements along the coast; but so many more profitable or more congenial occupations are open to the educated natives as traders, clerks in Government offices, &c., that the supply of competent persons willing to be teachers in these settlements is hardly adequate to meet their own needs. In consequence very few of the teachers in schools in the Protectorate hold any certificate or have received any training as teachers. They are for the most part mission agents, of whose duties teaching in the Mission school forms only a part, and no definite educational qualifications or attainments are required of them. In the few schools managed or controlled by the Government, the principal teacher must be certificated, and receives from £100 to £120 per annum; assistants from £60 to £70. There seems to be no uniform scale of pay in the Mission schools. In some the (native) teacher only receives maintenance and no salary, and is in fact a volunteer missionary worker. Where salaries are paid it is impossible to say how much is paid to the teacher as a teacher, and how much as a missionary. The remuneration in Mission schools appears, however, to range from £5 to £30 per annum in the

Mission schools.

Government schools. Scale of pay.

case of native teachers, and from £120 to £200 in the case of the few Europeans engaged in teaching. It is scarcely necessary to say that no regular course of training for teachers as yet exists, nor has any system of pupil teachers been organised, though there is a certain number of pupil teachers receiving training instruction at the Hope Waddell Institution at Old Calabar, and in the Government-managed schools at Bonny and Benin City. Training.

Singing is taught in most of the schools in the Protectorate and the children seem to have some aptitude and considerable natural liking for it. Drawing has only just begun to be taught in one or two of the schools. Cookery is not likely to be included in the general curriculum for some time to come, as it would be difficult even if advisable to wean the natives from their present primitive, but apparently adequate, culinary methods. For similar reasons domestic economy has not yet been made a subject of instruction. It should, however, be mentioned that in the Roman Catholic Mission at Onitsha "girls are taught cooking and many branches of household work" and certain boys "receive training to qualify them to enter the service of Europeans as cooks and house-boys." Singing.
Drawing.
Cookery.
Domestic Economy.

Instruction in handicraft is given in connection with several elementary schools, but it is of a more directly practical kind than that usually associated with such schools elsewhere. After a boy has passed the third or fourth standard, he may, if it be so desired, enter the Industrial Department of the school as an apprentice to some trade while continuing to receive the standard teaching during certain hours of the day. The instruction given is thus rather technical than elementary in character. This system was for a time followed in the school at Bonny. There the trades taught were carpentry and coopering, which are the two most required in the district. But the native Chiefs would send only their less promising boys to be instructed in these trades, partly because the great local industry of buying and selling palm-oil and other native produce is more profitable, partly because they have the idea that manual labour is degrading and suitable only for slaves. Also it was found that there was not sufficient variety of work available in the neighbourhood of the school to give the carpentry apprentices suitable practice in their trade. The industrial training has therefore been abandoned. In future instead of a few apprentices receiving such training in a separate department, all the pupils above a certain standard will be instructed in wood-work and the use of tools on lines similar to those followed in elementary schools in Great Britain. Manual and Industrial Training.

The Industrial Department in connection with the Training Institution of the Presbyterian Mission at Old Calabar has been somewhat more successful. There, carpentry, tailoring, printing, and elementary engineering and agriculture are taught: and a Government grant of £200 per annum is made to assist in maintaining the Department. The following table gives the details for 1901:—

Trade.	Number of Apprentices.
Carpentry - - - - -	12
Tailoring - - - - -	6
Printing - - - - -	3
Engineering - - - - -	1

The method of instruction is entirely practical, *i.e.*, the boys are employed on certain pieces of work under the guidance and supervision of European artisans and the course is determined more by the actual work in hand at the time than by any definite scheme of instruction. The apprentices work at their trade during sixty hours a week, and receive one hour's instruction in school each day. The Department has produced a certain number of fairly competent workmen in the various branches; but the results cannot be said to have been commensurate with the money or the labour expended.

The Missions on the Niger also devote considerable attention to handicraft. The Church Missionary Society has an excellently equipped industrial department in connection with their school at Onitsha. There carpentry, cabinet-making, brick-making and building are taught by European artisans with considerable success. An annual subsidy of £120 is received from the Government. The Roman Catholic Mission gives instruction of a simpler kind, but in a greater variety of occupations. In addition to the industries mentioned above, they train their pupils in gardening, poultry-keeping, tile-making and various kinds of household work. For eight years past the Irish Mission at Ibeno has maintained, almost entirely out of funds supplied by the Government, a number of apprentices in carpentry. This part of the work, however, is in danger of being abandoned, as experience has shown that few of the apprentices after completing their training are willing to enter regular employment. They prefer to return to the ordinary local occupations of fishing and trading, and use their knowledge of carpentry merely for occasional small local jobs. The Government has therefore decided to discontinue their subsidy. On the whole it cannot be said that these attempts at Industrial Training have produced the desired results. The Nigerian native has as yet no great taste for regular work at a craft and is inclined to despise the occupation of an artisan. For a youth of intelligence sufficient to make a tolerable artisan, trading offers a more profitable, and a clerkship a more respectable, employment. The administration of the Protectorate has, however, recognised that manual training and instruction in the crafts of civilised life form a very important element in the education of the natives, and every encouragement will be given to schools of whose programme such training and instruction forms a part.

No Continuation schools or classes as yet exist, nor has any provision yet been made for Secondary Education.

It is the intention of the Government to establish a Technical School as soon as may be practicable. But the scheme has not taken any definite form, and is scarcely likely to be realised for four or five years to come. It is also to be hoped that some system of training in Agriculture and Forestry will be introduced to enable full advantage to be taken of the great resources of the country in the way of forest products and exuberant vegetation. So far, however, practically nothing has been done to give instruction of this sort in schools. The methods of cultivation practised by the native population are of the most simple and primitive nature, but apparently yield an adequate food-supply, and with an almost inexhaustible supply of vegetable wealth from the various oil- and rubber-producing plants of the forest ready to hand there is not likely to be much cultivation for export purposes within the next few years.

Advanced
Technical
Education.

Agriculture
and Forestry.

Probably no one has yet had sufficiently long or varied experience to speak with confidence as to the curriculum best adapted for the native population of Southern Nigeria. It is clear, however, that at the present stage to impart information is a less important aim of education than to stimulate mental and physical activity and develop practical interests. As a race, the natives are strongly characterised by a disinclination to take an initiative, to think or act for themselves. In school this trait shows itself in an addiction to subjects success in which depends largely on memory and the imitative faculties. To counteract this failing should as far as possible be the object of education. From this point of view "book" subjects are of comparatively minor importance; while object-lessons which require the scholar to observe and draw conclusions for himself, and instruction in handicraft, which may give a practical bent to his interests and engender a pride in manual dexterity, will probably be found to be of more fundamentally educative value.

Curriculum
best adapted
for Native
Education.

C. J. M. GORDON,
Inspector of Schools.

March, 1903.

APPENDIX.

EXTRACT FROM COLONIAL REPORTS, ANNUAL No. 405.
SOUTHERN NIGERIA. REPORT FOR 1902. (CD, 1768-10).

"The short description above given of the educational establishments existing in the Protectorate in 1902 shows that although a considerable amount of educational work was being done, yet that further progress demanded the creation of a system under which the primary schools could be relied upon for giving systematic education in the lower standards to a sufficient number of scholars to render it possible to establish and maintain schools for the higher standards large enough to justify the engagement of a thoroughly competent teaching staff. The system decided upon provides for primary schools, a class which would include the Mission Schools above referred to and also schools similar to that established at Benin. The annual expenditure

on these schools would be under £100 (one teacher, one pupil-teacher, books and upkeep), and at them a commencement would be made in teaching the three 'R's,' especial care being taken to prevent the children learning by rote—a fault to which African children are, by reason of their remarkable memory, specially prone. The system next provides for intermediate schools, within which class would be included the non-Mission School at Ogugumanga. The pupils at these schools would, previous to their arrival, have passed three years at a primary school, and the intention is that at an intermediate school a boy should receive a sound education up to the level of Standard V. under the Scotch Code, and that then he should, if showing sufficient aptitude, pass on to the High School, or that, if more fitted for life as an artisan, be apprenticed at one of the Government workshops. With a view to finding in which direction a boy's bent lies, manual training in woodwork and the use of tools is given as soon as he has passed the two lower classes, but no attempt is made in the direction of industrial training. The staff at an intermediate school would include a manager, headmaster, two assistants, three pupil-teachers, and a carpenter, and the estimated annual expenditure would be about £1,500, a sum which necessitates a minimum of 150 pupils, the majority of whom would be boarders. The system is completed by provision being made for a High School at which the boys would be given higher education of a general character as well as special instruction in certain branches of industrial work. It was arranged that this High School should be established in connection with the Hope Waddell Institution above referred to, and that the scheme of work should be settled by a Board of Education, of which the resident principal of the Institute would be a member. The High Schools will receive boarders and day scholars, all of whom will have to attend daily prayers, but none of whom will receive any special religious instruction if the latter is objected to by the parents or guardians. The cost of the necessary buildings was estimated at £15,000, of which £5,000 has already been expended under the authority of the United Free Church Mission, it being arranged that the balance should be granted by the Government. The annual expenditure is estimated at £3,566, and although it was thought that the High School would become self-supporting at an early date after its establishment, it was arranged that the Mission should bear any loss up to £2,000 per annum, the Government undertaking, on its part, to provide funds for any expenditure over and above that amount, whether required for general maintenance or upkeep, or for building purposes. Having determined the educational system above-mentioned, the High Commissioner also caused steps to be taken for its introduction, and at the date of this report (July, 1903) the new buildings for the High School are nearing completion; through the liberality of merchants and others in England, £4,500 has been subscribed towards the cost of the new buildings for the Ogugumanga Intermediate School; and, finally, a comprehensive Education Code has been passed, under which attendance and result grants will be earnable by all the schools comprised in the system, and, with this monetary aid, there is reason to hope that the primary schools, whether managed by the Missions or by Committees of the Chiefs, will be able to prepare a certain and sufficient supply of pupils for the higher schools."

**THE
SYSTEM OF EDUCATION
IN
BASUTOLAND.**

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THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN BASUTOLAND.

I. BRIEF ACCOUNT OF THE COUNTRY, ITS INHABITANTS AND HISTORY.

Basutoland is a native territory in South Africa, situated approximately between the 29th and 30th degrees of South latitude and between the 27th and 29th degrees of East longitude.

The country is a portion of the continuous elevated plateau which includes the Orange River Colony and the highlands of the Transvaal. Lying as it does at a minimum altitude of 5,000 feet above the level of the sea, and embracing the highest portion of the great Drakensberg mountain range, of which the most lofty peaks reach an elevation of from 10,000 to 12,000 feet, the scenery is wild and rugged and the cold in winter severe. On the whole the climate is healthy, although the great range of temperature and the altitude are said to be somewhat trying to European constitutions.

The country enjoys the advantage of a fairly regular and abundant rainfall, and the soil is fertile and, even under the primitive native system of cultivation, produces large quantities of wheat and other grain crops.

The inhabitants of Basutoland are a branch of the great African Inhabitants. Bantu race which peoples the Southern portion of the African Continent. They are physically a strong and hardy race, speaking a language closely resembling the Sechwana, and they are ethnologically related to the Bechuana tribes of South Africa. They are conspicuous for industry, shrewdness and political sagacity, and in general intelligence do not suffer by comparison with any of the South African tribes. They retain unbroken their organisation under their Chiefs.

Little is known of the history of the numerous clans or tribes now Hist ry. included in the term "Basuto" before the commencement of the nineteenth century, but since then Basuto history may be roughly divided into three periods:—

(1) The early struggles of some scattered tribes against native enemies and their consolidation into the nation known as Basuto, under the wise rule of the great Chief Moshesh.

(2) The appearance in the country of Boer emigrants from the Cape Colony and the resistance of the Basuto to the new comers.

(3) The period since the recognition of the Basuto as British subjects.

II. THE MISSIONS.

It was towards the close of the first of the above periods that certain missionaries of the Paris Evangelical Mission Society, who were journeying towards Kuruman with the intention of establishing

a Mission among the Bechuana, who were then being harried by Moselekatse (the father of the late chief Lo Bengula), were invited by Moshesh, through Dr. Phillip, of the London Missionary Society, to turn aside and come to Basutoland to instruct his people. The story goes that Moshesh sent a present of cattle to induce the strangers to listen to his request. The cattle never reached their destination, being captured by some of the lawless bands that infested the country at that unsettled time, but the missionaries received the message of Moshesh and, being at the time prevented from continuing their journey by one of the then incessant native wars, they accepted the invitation of Moshesh. This was in, or about, the year 1833, and with this incident the account of the history of Education in Basutoland may be said to begin.

The three missionaries above referred to were MM. Casalis, Arbousset, and Gosselin; they were well received by Moshesh, and established their first Mission station at Morija, which has ever since been the headquarters of the Society in Basutoland. The progress of the educational work of the Mission is alluded to in the Report on the Paris Evangelical Mission Schools. (See also below, Section VIII.)

Other Mission Societies have since established their stations in Basutoland, and have sent into the country devoted and energetic missionaries who have done much for the cause of Education; but without overlooking such efforts, it is hardly too much to say that the history of Education in Basutoland has been practically the history of the work of the Paris Evangelical Mission Society, which, during sixty-eight years, has developed a complete and efficient system of Native Education.

In the year 1864 a Mission of the Roman Catholic Church was established at a spot since known as Roma, and this Church has since added to the number of its Mission stations and extended and developed the scope of its work. (See also below, Section IX.)

In 1876 the first permanent station of the English Church Mission was opened at Thlotse Heights in the Leribe District; other stations of this Mission have since been added and much attention paid to educational work. (See also below, Section X.)

Since the year 1897 a Native Church known as the African Methodist Episcopal Church has been working in Basutoland. It is a branch of, or connected with, the American Negro Churches, and its Ministers and Deacons in South Africa are, as a rule, men who have resigned (or sometimes, it is to be feared, have forfeited) their membership of other recognised Churches working under European Missionaries. Its object seems to be the founding of an independent Native Church free of European control, and it is noticed in this report on account of its having established schools in connection with its chapels and congregations. (See also below, Section XII.)

From the first the directors of the Mission Societies appear to have recognised the necessity for providing for the secular instruc-

tion of the natives, and have carried on the work of Education with almost as much zeal as they have devoted to their efforts in the direction of religious instruction.

III. GOVERNMENT AID AND CONTRIBUTIONS TOWARDS EDUCATION.

After several years of warfare with the Boers, at the close of which the Basuto were reduced to such straits as to be in danger of losing their country and their existence as a people, the Basuto were declared British subjects by proclamation dated 12th March, 1868; but the country remained in a very unsettled condition until it was annexed to the Cape Colony by an Act of the Cape Legislature dated 1871. A Chief Magistrate, entitled the Governor's Agent, and a staff of District Magistrates were appointed.

Annexation of Basutoland to the Cape Colony, 1871.

The Governor's Agent inaugurated the system of supporting the then existing educational work of the Missions by Annual Grants to the Mission Societies. The returns published in the year 1879 show that these grants were distributed in the following proportions:—

Annual Grants to Mission Societies.

Paris Evangelical Mission Society	87	per cent.
Roman Catholic Mission	11	„
English Church	2	„
			100	

These grants were administered at that time by the Educational Department of the Cape Colony.

During the year 1878 a model undenominational school, maintained and controlled by the Government, was established under the charge of Mr. Sidwell, who on the 10th January, 1879, reported as follows:—

Model Government Undenominational School.

“On commencing my duties I found the school in a very unsatisfactory state. The organisation was bad; there was want of method in the teaching; the discipline was lax; the furniture badly arranged; these faults, due chiefly, I believe, to the want of practical experience on the part of the native teacher before entering on his work here, have been remedied. The whole school has been re-organised, the children re-classified, and a regular routine introduced; the teaching power is better applied, and the establishment brought into better working order. There are two departments, an upper and a lower. In the former, English grammar, geography, reading (English and Sesuto), writing and arithmetic form the subjects of instruction. In the lower department, reading (English only), writing, arithmetic, and elementary geography are taught. In a school so lately founded the teaching must necessarily be of an elementary character, though good progress has already been made in all the branches taught.

“The registers for the last half of the year show an increase of sixteen in the number of scholars. In April there were forty-seven children on the books, with an average attendance of thirty-six; in December the number on the books was sixty-three, the average attendance forty-nine. The greatest number on the books at any time during the year was seventy-two. It is to be regretted that a boarding-house was not attached to the

school. From all sides we hear of natives, anxious to learn, prevented from attending school here on account of the want of a lodging place. Twelve of the present scholars are inhabitants of villages distant twenty, thirty, or even fifty miles from Maseru, and have come here to work in order that they may at the same time receive some education. Eight children have left the school lately, their parents, residing in far-away districts, being unable to afford the expense of keeping them here longer.

"Many cases have come under my notice during the short time I have spent in Basutoland showing the desire for education which exists among a great part of the population."

M. Emilo Rolland had been appointed Inspector of Education in 1877.

Basuto
Rebellion
("Gun War"),
1880.

At the close of 1880 commenced the rebellion by the Basutos against the authority of the Cape Government, known as the "Gun War," the cause of the war being the refusal of the Basuto to give up their arms in obedience to the provisions of the Disarmament Act. The rebellion resulted practically in the overthrow of the authority of the Cape Government, and the recovery of their independence by the Basuto Chiefs. Needless to say the war and the time of unsettlement and disorganisation following it were serious checks to the progress of Education. The Model School at Maseru was burnt in an attack on the town, being the headquarters of Government, and a period of retrogression is recorded by those who had been labouring for the improvement and instruction of the Basuto.

Imperial
Control of
Basutoland
resumed,
1884.

In March, 1884, direct Imperial control of Basutoland was resumed, and with the appointment of Sir Marshal Clarke as Resident Commissioner a system of administration was inaugurated which has had very successful results, and under which the extension of the work of Education has been very marked.

Government
Grants to
Mission
Institutions.

The Imperial Administration has adopted the same method of aiding and supporting educational work. Sir Marshal Clarke, having the administration of but a small revenue raised in Basutoland from Hut-Tax and a few other sources, wisely abstained from the creation of an expensive Education Department, and perpetuated the system of grants to Mission Institutions. With an increase of population and a return of peace and order it has been possible to increase the amounts of these grants, in some measure in proportion to the increase in the number of schools and scholars in the country. The grants are grants in "aid" only, and do not by any means suffice to support the Mission Schools. As will be seen in the reports of the Directors of Missions, the Government grant is approximately one-third of the annual expenditure in Education.

Statistics,
1891-1903.

The subjoined table shows the amount of annual grants given in support of Education, with certain statistics for the period 1891-1903. The normal amount of grants made to Missions has not, as a rule, varied from year to year, but an annual adjustment of the amount of grants to the special needs of each Mission has been accomplished by a system of giving special grants for particular purposes, such as building, etc., etc.

The year ended 30th June.	No of Schools in Basutoland.	No. of Scholars on Rolls.	Average Attendance.	Amount of Government Expenditure on Education.
				£
1891	113	6,932	4,560	3,491
1893	133	7,192	4,652	3,708
1894	137	6,939	4,405	3,680
1895	144	7,543	5,131	3,799
1896	144	7,930	5,427	3,869
1897	153	8,458	5,827	3,810
1898	163	9,714	6,910	3,746
1899	169	10,348	7,228	4,449
1900	177	11,134	7,804	4,358
1901	188	11,356	7,844	4,748
*1902	197	13,021	9,057	5,212
*1903	206	14,171	10,024	6,660

The population of Basutoland is estimated at 262,000, therefore $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the population are at present under instruction.

In addition to grants to Mission Schools the Government makes an annual grant to one native undenominational school established as a private enterprise by a native Chief with the co-operation of a native teacher trained by the Paris Society. This school has in itself been useful, but it is the only one of its kind. The teaching is of course elementary, but the school has occasionally prepared successful candidates for the Teachers' Examinations, held in connection with the Educational Department of the Cape Colony. (See also below, Section XI.)

The Native Undenominational School.

There are also five night-schools at Magistracies for the instruction of the native policemen and shepherds, whose occupation prevents their attending day-schools. The night-schools are subsidised by the Government in the form of grants to the native teachers and certain expenditure for lighting, repairs of buildings, etc. (See also below, Section XI.)

Night Schools.

For many years it has been the custom for the Basutoland Government to maintain, for secondary education and industrial and technical training, a certain number of more advanced native scholars at Training Institutions in the Cape Colony. The Zonnebloem College, at Cape Town, which was originally intended by Sir George Grey and Bishop Gray of Cape Town to be a place for the higher education of the sons of native Chiefs, has been usually selected for young Basutos connected by birth with the Chiefs of the tribe. Many of the most important Chiefs in the country have received some education at Zonnebloem, and have no doubt been intellectually benefited by their stay there, even if the moral advantage derived by them is not very apparent.

Scholarships for advanced native scholars.

At present there are but two youths, sons of Jonathan Molappo, supported as Government scholars at Zonnebloem.

A number of Basuto youths have at different times been sent to

* From Colonial Reports—Annual No. 380. Basutoland. Report for 1901-1902. Cd. 1388-4 and No. 408. Basutoland. Report for 1902-1903. Cd. 1768-13.

the Kaffir College at Grahamstown, and to the Trappists' Institution in Natal. At present about twenty pupils are maintained by the Government at the Lovedale Institute, where they are prepared for the examinations of the Cape Education Department and the Cape University, and where a certain number of them receive industrial training.

The parents of boys sent to either of the above institutions contribute the sum of £7 10s. each, annually, towards the support of their sons; the total cost of sending, maintaining and clothing a boy is from £20 to £25 per annum.

IV. INSPECTION

Inspection by District Commissioner.

All schools sharing in the distribution of Government grants are inspected at least once annually by the District Commissioner or his Assistant. The reports of such inspections are forwarded to the Resident Commissioner for consideration.

General inspection by the Rev. H. R. Woodrooffe, 1892 and 1898.

In 1892 and 1898 it was, by courtesy of the Superintendent-General of Education in the Cape Colony, arranged that a general inspection of schools in Basutoland should be made by the Rev. Canon H. R. Woodrooffe, an inspector of schools in the Cape Education Department.

It is contemplated to arrange for an annual inspection either by the appointment of an inspector or by obtaining the services of a trained inspector from one of the neighbouring territories.

The standards.

The standards of the Cape Education Department are in use throughout the schools (see Appendix A), and the Teachers' Certificates for which the more advanced pupils are prepared are those issued by the Superintendent-General of Education in the Cape Colony.* It is right to place on record that Dr. Muir, the Superintendent-General at Cape Town, and his predecessor, Sir Langham Dale, have ever taken the most kindly interest in the work of Education in Basutoland, and have furnished the most generous assistance when appealed to.

Attendance.

Attendance is voluntary, and is not as regular as might be desired. The scholars being the children of native peasants, who constantly require their service in agricultural work, it is difficult to maintain a high average of daily attendance in the Elementary Schools. There are no school fees except in the higher schools at Morija and Masite, etc., etc.

V. SECONDARY EDUCATION AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

Work of the Paris Evangelical Mission Society. Normal College at Morija.

The Paris Evangelical Mission Society (see also below, Section VIII.) has provided for the training of more advanced native students as teachers at the Normal College at Morija, where more than 100 young men and boys are being prepared for the Teachers' Examination. The fees are £6 per annum for first year, £5 for subsequent years.

* For Regulations (1900) for Teachers' Certificates in Cape Colony see in Vol. V. of Special Reports on Educational Subjects.—Report on Education in Cape Colony, Sec. V. (Also issued as a separate reprint.)

At Morija there is also the Bible School, at which the theological studies of young natives who are being prepared for the work of Catechists of the Missions are conducted under the supervision of a French missionary. Such students pay an annual amount of £5. There is a special class for training candidates for the Native Ministry.

Bible School
at Morija.

The Morija Printing and Bookbinding Establishment employs seven trained natives. At this institution, which is also in charge of a Missionary of the Society, is issued fortnightly the "Leselinyana," a small newspaper published under the direction of the missionaries in the native language.

Morija
Printing and
Bookbinding
Establishment.

A considerable quantity of Government printing is done at Morija, as also printing and bookbinding for the traders and European settlers in the neighbourhood.

The Leloaleng Industrial School, at present under the Rev. H. Bertschy of the same Mission, is situated in the extreme south of Basutoland. It is an excellent institution, and is reported on by Canon Woodrooffe. The annual fee for apprentices is £2.

Leloaleng
Industrial
School.

The girls' training school at Thaba Bosigo, conducted by three French ladies, is designed to give some instruction in cookery, needlework and household duties generally to young native women, and to fit them to be good wives to educated natives. The idea is admirable and it is well carried out. The site of the Girls' Training School is to be removed to new and more commodious premises at Thabana Morena. There are no fees charged at this school, except for girls whose parents do not live in Basutoland. In such cases an annual fee of £3 is charged.

Girls'
Training
School at
Thaba
Bosigo.

The Roman Catholic Mission has not made provision for Secondary Education for the reasons stated by Father Cenez in his report (see Section IX. below). The girls at the Roma boarding school are taught spinning, knitting, needlework, cooking, etc., by the nuns of the Mission.

Work of the
Roman
Catholic
Mission.

Until the year 1898 there had been an attempt to conduct an industrial school in connection with the Mission at Roma, and special grants had been made to the Society in support of the enterprise; but the Director of the Mission in 1898 formally reported that the difficulties in the way of successfully conducting such an institution had proved so great that he had abandoned the school as a definite branch of the Mission work, and no longer felt justified in applying for a grant for that particular purpose.

The English Church Mission has, at its educational headquarters at Masite, provided for the training of more advanced students for the first year's Examination for Pupil Teachers; and, at St. Mary's College, Hlotse (Thlotsi), on a small scale but efficiently, students are prepared for the final examination for their Teachers' Certificates and are also given industrial instruction in carpentry, shoemaking, and gardening.

Work of the
English
Church
Mission.

At Maseru, a very devoted lady, a Deaconess of the Mission, has a school for training native women in laundry work.

VI. EUROPEAN SCHOLARS.

Schools for European children at Maseru and Mafeteng.

The English Church Mission has also control of the Government-aided schools for European children at Maseru and Mafeteng.

The permanent school at Maseru for children of European parentage is under the charge of a fully-qualified lady teacher and shares in the distribution of the Government grant made to the English Church Mission.

Refugee schools.

There are at Maseru and Mafeteng two schools for white children which have, under the English Church Mission, been opened to afford instruction to the children of those political refugees from the Orange River Colony who are, owing to the circumstances of the war, so numerous in Basutoland at the present time. The instruction is of an elementary character, but a very useful purpose is fulfilled by these refugee schools.

The normal European population of Basutoland is estimated at 600, no census having been taken since 1891. European children, away from such centres as Maseru or Mafeteng, are under considerable educational disadvantages being dependent on private instruction by governesses and tutors.

Bursary for European children.

At the time of the Diamond Jubilee of Her late Majesty Queen Victoria, a sum of money was collected for the purpose of establishing some Memorial of the occasion. This money was devoted to providing a small bursary, to be competed for triennially by children of European residents in the country. This bursary, of the value of £18 per annum, is for the second time to be offered for competition under conditions regulated by trustees—the principal condition being that the sum is to be employed for the further education of the child during the three years following the competition.

VII. GENERAL REMARKS.

There is probably no African native tribe for which more has been done in the way of Education than for the Basuto. At the present time it is possible for a native to obtain free education for his children at the smaller day schools and Mission stations until Standard IV. (of Cape Standards) has been reached.

The secondary instruction in the Normal School at Morija, or at Masite, with board and lodging, is provided by the Missions upon payment of an annual sum, which, though probably considerable from a native point of view, is by no means beyond the means of the prosperous Mosuto, and is, of course, much less than the annual cost to the Mission of the maintenance of a pupil. Having arrived at this stage it is open to the native scholar to study for the Pupil Teachers' Certificate or for the Examinations of the Cape University.

Theoretically the career of learning is as open to the native as to the son of the European colonist. But few have the ability and perseverance to get beyond a moderate pass for the Teachers' Certificate or the Schools Elementary Examination of the University. With the young native the attainment of the years of manhood

appears to be accompanied by an arrest of intellectual development, an increased dominance of the appetites, and an inability to discern advantage in studies that do not appear to afford prospect of immediate and tangible remuneration. The domestic environment of the natives also is hardly favourable to the pursuit of knowledge.

This is less to be regretted as it is very doubtful if there is any place in Africa for the educated native; for opinion, in the Colonies and at the labour centres, tends toward the belief so often expressed that the native educated is the native spoiled, and that what is known as the "raw Kaffir" is a more useful member of society than his educated brother. The native territories are looked to for a supply of unskilled labour, there is a disposition to be shy of the native clerk, telegraphist or skilled artisan, and the best friends of the native must regretfully admit that justification for such prejudices is too often to be found in the disappointing failure of some of the promising pupils of the training schools.

It would be a mistake to ignore the fact that the vast majority of South African natives are, and will remain, peasants and labourers on the soil or in the lower ranks of industry. In these spheres they are happy, contented, and useful, and for them their best friends can desire nothing better than the most elementary education, sound moral training and encouragement in the habits of steady industry.

But there is a demand arising from the natives themselves for some provision for higher education, and it would be unwise altogether to repress such ambitions; rather does it appear the plain duty of those, to whom the natives have a right to look for guidance, that all attention should be given to the efficiency of the educational system and the adaptability of the curriculum to native needs and reasonable prospects.*

A great change has taken place in the conditions of native life since the days when Moshesh sent a present of cattle to attract a band of missionaries to his country. The Basuto have lived through an eventful period of South African history, they have seen the rise and fall of the Boer Republics, many thousands of them have come in contact with the phase of European civilisation represented by the mining communities of the Diamond and Gold Fields, telegraphs, railways, newspapers and the penny post have become features of their daily lives, and they have not escaped the influence

* While I fully recognise that there does not appear to be in South Africa at present any useful career for more than a very limited number of young natives with any degree of higher education, on the literary side, it would be a mistake to overlook the probability that, if they cannot find nearer home some outlet for their aspirations in this direction, they will seek for it elsewhere. I believe a certain number of young natives from the Colony have already proceeded to America for educational purposes. Under these circumstances, it appears to be well to afford opportunities to a certain proportion of the youths for continuing their studies under wise direction and discipline, and this object is, I believe, obtained satisfactorily in the higher schools of the Basutoland Missions. (Colonial Reports—Annual, No. 408. Basutoland. Report for 1902-3. Cd. 1768-13.)

of the American Negro Methodists who have visited South Africa and have attempted the formation of an independent Native Church. There are not wanting signs that some of them are beginning to think for themselves and to feel that they are able to choose the things that are good for them. There is possible danger in such ideas and a certain inconvenience in dealing with them, but it would be vain to ignore their existence.

One of the more healthy manifestations of such a disposition in Basutoland has been an expressed desire of the Paramount Chief Lerothodi for the establishment of an industrial school in a more central part of the country than the Mission School at Leloaleng. Practical effect was given to this idea by a spontaneous collection by Lerothodi of the sum of £3,000 for the building and equipment of such a school. This sum has been lodged with the Government, and the commencement of the work awaits more settled times in South Africa.

The inauguration of such an industrial training institution will be a most hopeful development of the work of education.

VIII. THE PARIS EVANGELICAL MISSION SOCIETY.

The Rev. Henry Dyke, Secretary of the Basutoland schools of this Society, contributes the following report :—

rowth and
gnisation
educa-
mal work.

The Paris Evangelical Missionary Society commenced work in this country in 1833. A few years after schools were started for the children. About 1837 Miss Lyndall, who had made special study of the Pestalozzi system in England, and who started the Infant school work in Cape Town, became the wife of one of the missionaries. She made the school at Beersheba a great success, and it became the model school from which the other schools of the country took ideas. Day schools were established on all the Mission Stations, but it was not until about 1860 that schools were established on out-stations under native direction. Wars at various times interrupted the work ; especially was this the case from 1865 to 1868. Before peace was concluded the missionaries had already taken steps for the establishment of a Normal School for the training of native teachers. Soon after the occupation of the country by the British Government grants were issued by the Cape Colonial Government in aid of this institution and the day schools. It was also found necessary at this time to start a girls' institution for industrial education, and this school was placed at Thaba Bosigo.

In 1875 there were sixteen teachers in charge of day schools, receiving grants from the Government ranging from £10 to £12 ; for this year [1901] the total amount of the grants received for education throughout the country was £724. The work went on developing rapidly until 1880, when the Gun War stopped it for the time being. There were then forty-nine day schools and three special institutions—Moriya had about 100 boarders, Thaba Bosigo sixty, and the industrial school for teaching trades to young men, then in its infancy, had twenty. The grants to these institutions at that time amounted

to more than £1,300 per annum, and the grants to the day schools amounted to £1,600, making a total of £2,900.

In 1885, after the Imperial Government took over the direction of the political affairs of the country, the total amount of grants issued to the schools was £1,600. These grants have gradually increased until in the present year, 1901, the total sum received by the Paris Evangelical Missionary Society for education is £3,244, of which sum the three above-mentioned institutions receive £1,020, and the day schools, which now number eighty-nine, receive £2,204. Besides these eighty-nine schools in receipt of Government aid, there are, however, fifty-seven schools which are carried on at the expense of the Paris Evangelical Mission Society, but for which regular returns are sent to the Government quarterly.

When the Imperial Government took over the country the total number of scholars on the roll was under 2,000, and the average attendance less than 1,500. In September, 1901, there were on the roll 10,547 scholars with an average attendance of 7,400. Out of these, 250 are boarders attending the above-named institutions.

In 1886 the want of regular inspection by a Department of Education was keenly felt by the missionaries, and in order to test the attainment of the various schools a written examination in Standards III. and IV. was established. Since then this examination has been carried on from year to year.

Printed questions are sent to the various centres throughout the country, each sitting being supervised by a missionary. The answers are returned and valued at Morija, and a printed report is issued. For copies of questions set in 1901 in certain subjects see Appendix A. The examination has always been entered into with a great deal of zest both by the teachers and pupils, and is looked forward to as the event of the year. It being competitive, and the results being published, has been a great stimulus to educational work.

The use of the vernacular as a medium for imparting knowledge, especially in lower classes, has been found of the greatest benefit. By this means we have avoided the evil with which some other Missions have to combat—namely, the stultifying of the minds of the younger scholars by the excessive use of mechanical processes, instead of appealing to their intelligences in a language which can be understood by them.

The total cost of the educational work of the Mission and the amount of such cost borne by:—

- (a) The general funds of the Mission.
 - (b) The Government.
 - (c) Parents of scholars, *i.e.*, school fees, etc.
- (a) The total disbursements by the Mission for educational work during 1901 amounts to about £4,950.
- (b) The total amount of grants received by the Mission from the Government for 1901 amounts to £3,244.
- (c) £700 is paid by parents as school fees.

Thus the total cost of educational work carried on by the Paris Evangelical Mission Society amounts to nearly £9,000.

Teachers are appointed by the various superintending mission-aries. The training of teachers is carried on at the Normal School, Morija, and the Girls' School, Thaba Bosigo. Each institution has a staff of three European teachers, besides native assistants. The prescribed course for Pupil Teachers (P.T.)* laid down by the Cape Department of Education is strictly adhered to, and the pupils are regularly entered for the examinations every year. This year, at Morija, forty-two were entered for the Candidates' examination; thirty-one for the first year P.T.; eleven for the second year P.T.; nine for the third year P.T. examinations.

Singing is taught in all schools, and special training is given at the Normal Schools. Theory of Music is included in the syllabus of the teachers' course.

A limited training in Cookery is given at the girls' institution at Thaba Bosigo.

At the Leloaleng Industrial School there are forty apprentices receiving instruction in building; each apprentice spends two years at stone work and two years at carpentry, enabling them thus to erect and complete dwelling-houses. All boarders at the Training Institutions are obliged to do two hours' manual work per day, under the supervision of the various teachers.

All pupils are trained at the Normal School in Drill and Physical Exercises, and are annually inspected by the examining officer of the Cape Colony.

The Normal Institutions might perhaps come under the heading of provision for secondary education, as the pupils are being technically trained.

Besides this a class for Theological Training exists, the admission to which is a pass at the teachers' examination.

Comparative Returns for a few years only:—

Year.	Mission Work started by the P.E.M. Society.				
	1837. Schools started on the Mission Stations.				
	No. of Schools.		Enrolment.	Average Attendance.	Total Amount of Grants.
	Institutions.	Day Schools.			
1875.	2	16	†	†	£ 724
1880.	3	49	2,006 †	1,000 †	2,900
1885.	3	46	2,591	1,531.3	1,800
1890.	3	94	6,003	3,844	12,550
1901.	3	146	10,547	7,393	3,224

* For regulations (1900) for Pupil-teachers' examinations, see in Vol. V. of Special Reports on Educational Subjects.—Report on Education in Cape Colony, Section V. (Also issued as a separate reprint.)

† Plus an extra £450 for this year only, for building, &c.

SUMMARY OF RETURNS OF SCHOOLS
OF THE P. E. M. S.

IN

BASUTOLAND FOR QUARTER ENDED 30TH SEPTEMBER, 1901.

No. of Schools	PARISIL	Sex. Girls, Boys.	Number on Roll during Quarter.	Admitted during Quarter.	Withdrawn during Quarter.	Highest weekly aver- age during Quarter.	Lowest weekly aver- age during Quarter.	Mean average during Quarter.
6	Qalo	Mixed	192	41	31	128.5	108.3	132.5
10	Leribe	"	599	100	46	485.4	303.0	407.7
3	Kueneng	"	179	20	23	146.5	92.4	119.1
8	Cana	"	572	122	79	463.3	347.3	402.8
7	Berea	"	670	109	70	477.6	347.4	418.2
3	Maseru... ..	"	576	216	69	485.0	319.6	405.7
13	Thaba Bosigo... ..	"	876	131	80	649.3	464.0	565.3
16	Morijsa	"	1,225	220	111	975.6	718.2	853.9
5	Letsunyane	"	203	19	16	174.4	121.2	148.6
4	Kolo	"	449	95	42	372.0	303.1	335.5
8	Likhoele	"	703	75	58	546.1	427.1	493.9
8	Hermon	"	1,145	215	113	815.6	594.6	711.3
4	Siloa	"	548	128	39	497.5	390.9	449.0
11	Th. Morena	"	707	132	46	614.0	494.3	565.6
10	Maphutseng	"	517	97	35	446.6	315.8	342.4
8	Masitisi	"	517	101	63	377.9	292.5	337.7
9	Sebapala	"	241	21	11	211.5	153.4	181.7
5	Tebellong	"	153	23	4	124.0	92.6	112.9
1	Qachas Nek	"	83	27	1	74.8	67.0	72.4
4	Schonghong	"	33	3	10	26.0	11.8	17.9
3	Molamong	"	100	22	8	95.1	64.8	72.5
146	INSTITUTIONS.		10,288	1,917	955	8,188.7	6,029.3	7,147.6
	The Bosigo Girls' ...	Girls	33	0	0	33	30	32
	Morijsa Training ...	Boys	113	4	1	112	108	110
	" Bible	"	58	17	0	58	55	57.5
	" Printing Office ...	"	7	0	0	7	6	6.5
	Lelotaleng Industrial ...	"	40	8	0	40	39	39.6
			251	29	1	250	238	245.6
	GRAND TOTAL...		10,539	1,946	956	8,438.7	6,267.3	7,393.2

All day schools are inspected once a year by the Assistant Commissioner or Sub-Inspectors attached to each of the eight Magistries. From time to time one of the Colonial Inspectors has visited the country and inspected a fair proportion of the schools. This Inspector comes annually to examine the pupil teachers of the Normal Training Institution at Morijsa in the practical part of the Teachers' Examination.

Perhaps it might be of interest to add that the Basutos are very keen upon education. The earnings of the average Mosuto being small, it often needs the revenue of the father for the whole year to keep his son at the Normal School for the same period. Some

Government
Examina-
tion arrange-
ments.

pupils manage to pay their fees by devoting their holidays to earning money.

In day schools it is not infrequent to find grown-up men of over thirty years of age taking their place in class with children of nine and ten.

IX. THE ROMAN CATHOLIC MISSION.

The following notes are by the Rev. Father Cenez, Prefect Apostolic and Director of the Schools and Churches of the Missions :—

Instruction
exists
Education.

“ I should like just to put down the principle on which we have acted in our work. We think that there is a distinction to be made between instruction and education, and that we must sacrifice the former to the latter whenever they are incompatible. We hear nearly every day people complaining that a young man out of school is worse than a raw Kaffir, because he has not much more useful knowledge, but plenty of pride that makes him disagreeable. We think, therefore, that, the time boys remain at school being so limited, it is better for them and for society to leave the school with a little less knowledge and a better education.

“ That will explain (1) Why, although it is very expensive, we like to take boarders. It is impossible to educate children who come to school a few hours a day, and that not regularly; they can perhaps be taught a little reading and writing, that is all; they keep their manners. (2) Why we have few native teachers. (3) Why we do not push the scholars, especially to the higher standards.

“ I do not know much about the history of our schools, but I see that from the beginning it has always been very difficult to have good boys' schools. When only little children they are wanted by their parents for herding; when a little bigger, they want to get money and go to the gold or diamond fields, sometimes against the will of their parents, sometimes because parents do not see the use of instruction.

“ Girls come well, but it is better for them, when they know how to write and read their own language, to be taught cooking, sewing and knitting than too much arithmetic and geography, although that is all the inspector will ask of them.

No provision
higher
Education.

“ Boys being so difficult to keep a long time, and instruction higher than the Third or Fourth Standard being useless for girls, we have made no provision for higher education. Another reason of it is that we agree with some inspectors who say that natives do not know how to keep a school.

“ We have tried it and found that a native, with a few exceptions, is good only for assisting a teacher but not for superintending a school himself, so that we do not like to found schools to be put into the hands of natives only. On the other hand, there are very few places of employment in the Government offices or stores where they could make use of their learning, so that, things being as they are, they have very little chance of making up by a better pay for the time spent in school. But if there was

a change in the condition of the country, and higher education could be of more use to them, I hope we could answer to the need they would then feel.

“In order to give the children a better and more regular education, we keep as many boarders as we can; it is also the only way of giving them some industrial training. We have about 250 boarders—160 girls and 90 boys—which, at £2 per head and per year, gives £500, that being spent for food and clothing, and no allowance being made for the teachers. We count twelve teachers. If we should give each as much as to the native teacher we have at Roma (£30), it would make a total of £360, which, added to the £500 spent for boarding, makes £860, of which the Government has paid till 1900 £250, and the Mission £610. Since then the Government has added an extraordinary grant of 20 per cent.; that addition we put aside for building new schools. The parents of scholars do not give a penny for the work, not even for boarders. I have tried here at Roma to make them pay £1 a year, or two bags of grain for food; but the following year the school would have been empty if I had stuck to that rule.

“Of the 753 children on the books, 246 only are boys and 507 are girls, which shows that those who want most instruction do not get it, and that by their own fault.

“Among the scholars actually in our hands I think that about thirty or forty could pass the Fourth Standard, 150 the Third, 200 the Second, and 200 the First; the others would be under. The mean attendance is about 600.

“We have no special method of appointing teachers, all our teachers but one being European; this one is under the supervision of the missionary. He is paid £30 a year, and although it seems much, he does not find it very encouraging when he compares himself with carpenters or stone-cutters, who have learned their trade here very easily, and get at least five shillings a day.

“Singing is taught in all our schools, especially at Roma; a few boys can play the harmonium, and we hope soon to have a little band. Big girls learn cookery; they work in turn, one or two at a time, for a week with the cook in the kitchen.

“A few boys learn carpentering or blacksmithing and tailoring; all the boarders give a hand in the manual work of the Mission. All girls are taught spinning, knitting, sewing and housework as much as anything else. There is no particular physical exercise, but the boys are drilled before and after school.

“There have always been a few European girls at school here, but there are none for the present, although a few want to come as boarders. We could receive them if there were a few more, as it is as much trouble to keep two as to keep ten; for, of course, they are kept, fed and taught separately.”

The return for the Quarter ended 31st December, 1901, shows that this Society has twelve schools supervised in every case either by the Brothers of the Order, or Nuns and ladies attached to the Mission. The rolls show a total number of 753 scholars with an average attendance of 600.

as teachers to institutions outside Basutoland, *i.e.*, Grahamstown, Zonnebloem, and Umtata.

The scale of payment of teachers is not fixed, but averages from £24 to £35 per annum. A married teacher with full Teachers' Certificate would receive £40.

Singing (Sol-fa method) is taught at all schools for half an hour daily. Singing.

The only regular industrial training for boys is at St. Mary's, Hlotse, where they are taught carpentry, cobbling, and gardening. Industrial Training.

At St. James', Maseru, a small laundry has been erected, and a few girls are being instructed in laundry work.

At Masite Boarding School all the boys do regular manual work of various kinds—wall-building, digging out stone, gardening, etc. Elementary drill is taught at Masite Boarding and Day schools.

The only provisions for secondary education are afforded by St. Mary's, Hlotse, and Masite Boarding School. Secondary Education.

There are two European Schools at Maseru, one for better, the other for poorer class children. European Schools.

At Mafeteng there is one European School.

XI. THE UNDENOMINATIONAL SCHOOLS.

The aided Night Schools at the Magistracies are as follows:—

At Qacha's Nek	-	20	scholars with average attendance	13.2
At Moyeni	-	14	" " "	5.3
At Mohales Hoek	-	45	" " "	35.
At Mafeteng	-	71	" " "	35.
At Maseru	-	28	" " "	17.

The native school at Matedile supported (with Government aid) by the Native Chief Seiso Letsie and independently conducted by Native Teacher Cranmar Matsa, receives an annual grant of £44.

The latest return shows:—in boys' department, eighteen scholars, average attendance 15.9; in girls' department, thirteen scholars, average attendance 10.85.

XII. THE AFRICAN METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

This body renders returns for two schools. At Moruthanes a mixed school (boys and girls) under William Mokalapa, a native catechist. On the books are nineteen boys and thirty-two girls with an average attendance of 33.6.

A return is also sent of a school at Moquala in the Mohales Hoek District. This school was built by the local chief Lebona, and is under Native Teacher Chas. J. Methola. It has on the books thirty-one boys with an average attendance of 17.28.

The above schools of the African Methodist Church have not been inspected nor do they receive grants.

Resident Commissioner's Office,
Basutoland.

February, 1902.

APPENDIX A.

SPECIMEN PAPERS SET AT THE EXAMINATION FOR
THE SCHOOLS IN CONNECTION WITH THE PARIS
EVANGELICAL MISSION SOCIETY, BASUTOLAND,
13TH NOVEMBER, 1901.

STANDARD IV.

ENGLISH.

A.—GRAMMAR.

- I. Conjugate the verb "see," Active Voice, Indicative Mood, present, past, and future tenses, all persons and numbers.
- II. Give the plural of : tooth, story, life, toy, cow.
- III. Analyse : (a) My father is very poor.
(b) Did you see Jonathan yesterday ?
(c) I have a beautiful horse.
- IV. Correct grammatical errors in the following, and give your reasons :
(a) I am old than my brother.
(b) How many money have you ?
(c) My uncle has three knives.

B.—TRANSLATE INTO SESUTO.

One night, in the beginning of winter, an old man, living at Boqate, thought he heard the feeble cries of a child. As he was naturally kind-hearted, he rose and struck a light ; and, going out of his cottage, looked about on every side. It was not long before he saw an infant on the ground. The old man stood wondering at the sight, and knew not what to do.

C.—TRANSLATE INTO ENGLISH.

A mo nkela matsobong a hae, 'me a lemoha hobane ke moshemane e motle leha a mpa a apere likatana. Eare ha a mo isitae ka tlung, a qala ho makala hore na o tla mo fumanela liyo kae. Hona hoo, a qala ho hopola poli ea hae, e neng e lahlehetsoe ke potsanyane ; a nka nguana eo, a mo tsuarella ho eona, 'me a thaba ha a bona nguana a anya yualeka hoye eka o fumane 'm'ae.

DICTATIONS.

The eye, the ear, and the nostril stand simply open ; light, sound, and smell enter, and we are obliged to see, to hear, and to smell ; but the hand selects what it shall touch, and touches what it pleases. It puts away from it the things which it hates, and beckons toward it the things which it desires.

weapon
encourage
succeed
language
dominion

accept
human
agree
appoint
obey.

Ka baka leo, ba motse ba phahamisa mantsue ho ba omanya. Ba bang ba ba rohaka, ba bang ba re ba otloe. Ebile lerata le tota habolo, ha re mee kahohle. Mong a motse a tsebisoa, 'me eena a phakisa ho romela ho tsuara le ho botsisa ba etsetsoang lerata taba tsa bona. Eaba ha isoa khotla, 'me ba khotla ba ba botsa moo ba tsuang le moo ba eang.

ARITHMETIC.

- I. Express the following numbers in words, and find the difference between them: 19064002 and 72307.
- II. Divide 15 lb. 7 oz. 8 dra. by 8 oz. 4 dra.
- III. 731579 ÷ 294 (short division).
- IV. Multiply 3 tons 14 cwt. 2 gra. 14 lb. 12 oz. by 38.
- V. Find by practice the value of 2,240 articles at £7 16s. 9d. each.
- VI. If 7 doz. boxes of sardines cost 3 guineas, what is the value of five boxes?

GEOGRAPHY.

- I. How many and which motions has the earth? What is its shape?
- II. How would you find the Cardinal Points?
- III. Define the terms: *Tributary, strait, latitude and mountain.*
- IV. Make a map of the Cape Colony, showing the situation of Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, East London, Grahamstown, Kimberley, Paarl, King Williamstown and Queenstown.

STANDARD III.

ARITHMETIC.

- I. Add together: Thirty thousand two hundred and eight; eighteen thousand and seventy-five; twenty thousand and sixty-one; two thousand and sixteen; two hundred and nineteen; and twenty one.
- II. Find the difference between £600 9s. 0d. and £111 11s. 1½d.
- III. Reduce £5 16s. 9d. to threepences.
- IV. How often is 1s. 3d. contained in £1 10s.?
- V. Reduce 37 yards 2 feet 7 in. to inches.
- VI. How many hours are there in 5000 seconds?

ENGLISH.

A.—GRAMMAR.

- I. What "part of speech" is each word in the following? *O! my careless servant lost this spade in the garden yesterday.*
- II. Define these terms: *Noun, adjective, verb.*

III. Divide each sentence into *subject* and *predicate*.

- (a) The pleasant place is glad.
- (b) We must work.
- (c) The roof was low.
- (d) I am ready.
- (e) Have they arrived ?

B.—TRANSLATE INTO SESUTO.

We are called. The eyes of the camel are beautiful. Do not laugh. I do not understand you. How many sheep has your cousin ? Men must reap the things they sow. She hides her face. His son wrote the letter. This is my village. His sister whispers.

C.—TRANSLATE INTO ENGLISH.

Mahlo a ka a khathetse. Ke batla liyo. Molisana o il'o batla linku. Tlisa katiba eo ea ka. Lebese le felile. Ke hatlela matsoho. A nke ke bone setšuantšo seo. Se k'a 'na ua nkhatatsa tje hle !

DICTATIONS.

One fine morning, a cat and a fox, which were old friends, started off on a journey together. On the road, they paid little visits to cottages and to farm-houses that they had to pass, and picked up whatever they could find. They made off with hens and chickens, with ducks and ducklings, bits of cheese and scraps of bacon.

honey	autumn
watch	enemy
lazy	allow
careful	fierce
enough	punish.

Ho tsua ba le baeti ba baholo ba ileng ba etela mose o kuano ho leatle ka khueli tse tsua feta. Baeti bao ba tsamaile libakeng tse ngata tsa lefatše, 'me hohle moo ba fihlileng teng, ba ile ba etsetsoa mekete e meholo ea kamohelo, le ea hlomphe. Marena a lichaba tse ngata a ne a phuthetse ho ea teana le ho bonana le bona, 'me a khutla a bolela botle ba kamohelo eo baeti bao ba ileng ba e etsetsoa.

be taken only the half of the English and the half of the Dutch Reading Book

STANDARD V.	STANDARD VI.	STANDARD VII. 7
To read fluently and intelligently from a Standard V. Reading Book, or a passage from any standard historical author.	To read fluently and intelligently from a Standard VI. Reading Book, or a prose dialogue from any standard author.	To read fluently and intelligently a dialogue in blank verse from any standard author.
To recite 60 lines of poetry, with knowledge of meaning and allusions.	To recite 80 lines of poetry, with knowledge of meaning and allusions.	To recite 100 lines of verse from a standard dramatic author, with knowledge of meaning and allusions.
<p>To write on paper to dictation thirty words selected from <i>Working Diagrams for Manual Training</i>.</p> <p>(2) Drawing (full size).—(a) Projection of simple rectangular solids. (b) The plans and elevations of the exercises for the year. (c) simple isometric drawing.</p> <p>(3) Theory.—(a) To name a few common kinds of hard and of soft wood, and to tell where they are chiefly grown. (b) The construction and use of the tools required in the exercises for the year.</p>	<p>To write on paper to dictation thirty words selected from the <i>Working Diagrams for Manual Training</i>.</p> <p>(2) Drawing (full size or to a larger scale).—(a) Simple solids in plan, elevation and section. (b) Construction of plain scales. (c) the plans, elevations and sections of the exercises for the year. (d) Isometric drawing.</p> <p>(3) Theory.—(a) The felling, seasoning and uses of the common varieties of hard and soft woods, (b) The construction and use of the tools required in the exercises for the year.</p>	<p>To write on paper to dictation thirty words selected from a <i>Working Diagrams of Manual Training</i>. (b) to use the tools required for this and the previous years, and to sharpen a chisel or plane iron.</p> <p>(2) Drawing (to scale).—(a) More difficult examples in orthographic and isometric projection. (b) The plans, elevations, sections and isometric projections of the exercises for the year.</p> <p>(3) Theory.—(a) The growth, felling, seasoning and uses of the common varieties of hard and soft woods. (b) the use of nails, screws and glue. (c) The construction and use of the ordinary woodworking tools.</p>
Freehand and geometrical drawing up to Standard III. in Morris's book.	Freehand and geometrical (scale) drawing up to Standard IV. in Morris's book.	Freehand, geometrical and model drawing up to Standard V. in Morris's book.

lar book need not belong to the pupils, but to the school.
 Phillip's *Senior*, Nelson's *Royal*, Chambers' *Government Aged*, Collins' *New Graphic*, Vere

III. Divide each sentence into *subject* and *predicate*.

- (a) The pleasant place is glad.
- (b) We must work.
- (c) The roof was low.
- (d) I am ready.
- (e) Have they arrived ?

B.—TRANSLATE INTO SESUTO.

We are called. The eyes of the camel are beautiful. Do not laugh. I do not understand you. How many sheep has your cousin ? Men must reap the things they sow. She hides her face. His son wrote the letter. This is my village. His sister whispers.

C.—TRANSLATE INTO ENGLISH.

Mahloa ka a khathetse. Ke batla liyo. Molisana o il'o batla linku. Tlisa katiba eo ea ka. Lebeso le felile. Ke hatlela matsoho. A nke ke bone setšuantšo seo. Se k'a 'na ua nkhatlatsa tje hle !

DICTATIONS.

One fine morning, a cat and a fox, which were old friends, started off on a journey together. On the road, they paid little visits to cottages and to farm-houses that they had to pass, and picked up whatever they could find. They made off with hens and chickens, with ducks and ducklings, bits of cheese and scraps of bacon.

honey	autumn
watch	enemy
lazy	allow
careful	fierce
enough	punish.

Ho tsua ba le baeti ba baholo ba ileng ba etela mose o kuano ho leatlle ka khueli tse tsua feta. Baeti bao ba tsamaile libakeng tse ngata tsa lefatše, 'me hohle moo ba fihlileng teng, ba ile ba etsetsoa mekete e meholo ea kamohelo, le ea hlomphe. Marena a lichaba tse ngata a ne a phuthetsetse ho ea teana le ho bonana le bona, 'me a khutla a bolela botle ba kamohelo eo baeti bao ba ileng ba e etsetsoa.

[Note in regard to the Standards in all subjects.—Pupils may pass their Standards either in Eng

	SUB-STANDARD B.	STANDARD I.	STANDARD II.	8
READING.*	To read with ease from an Infant Reader containing sentences composed of monosyllabic words.	To read intelligently from a Standard I. Reading Book.	read intelligently from a standard II. Reading Book.	To read Standard
RECITATION.	---	To repeat 12 lines of simple verse, with knowledge of the meaning.	repeat 30 lines of poetry, with knowledge of the meaning.	To repeat with knowing.
WRITING † AND SPELLING.	To write on slate between lines simple words from the Infant Reader. To write the figures 1 to 9.	To write on slate a line, containing at least one Capital letter, dictated word by word from the reading-book. To show a finished copy-book in large hand, containing at least one page of figures.	To write on slate three lines dictated phrase by phrase from the reading-book. To show a finished copy-book, in large hand and medium hand, containing at least one page of figures.	To write dictated book, selected the size in large and small at least
ARITHMETIC.	(1) <i>Written</i> —Reading and writing of numbers of not more than two figures. (2) <i>Mental</i> —Addition of 2, 3, and 4 to numbers not greater than 28. Subtraction of 2, 3, and 4 from such numbers. Multiplication and division not involving any number greater than 12.	(1) <i>Written</i> —Reading and writing numbers of not more than four figures. Addition of five numbers of not more than three figures. Subtraction of one such number from another. (2) <i>Mental</i> —Exercises in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, not involving acquaintance with any number above 25.	(1) <i>Written</i> —Reading and writing of numbers of not more than seven figures. Addition of six numbers of not more than six figures, subtraction of one such number from another, multiplication of any two numbers whose product contains not more than seven figures, and division of such a number by any number under thirteen. (2) <i>Mental</i> —Exercises in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, not involving acquaintance with any number above 100.	(1) <i>Written</i> —Reading and writing of numbers of not more than seven figures. Addition of six numbers of not more than six figures, subtraction of one such number from another, multiplication of any two numbers whose product contains not more than seven figures, and division of such a number by any number under thirteen. (2) <i>Mental</i> —Exercises in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, not involving acquaintance with any number above 100. Tables of —Ounces, inch, sq. ft., gallon; day.
GRAMMAR.	---	---	---	To tell of a story To point to pictures
COMPOSITION.	---	---	---	

THE
SYSTEM OF EDUCATION
IN
SOUTHERN RHODESIA.*
(1890-1901.)
ITS ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT.

SOME EVENTS IN RHODESIAN POLITICS DURING THE YEARS 1890-MARCH 31ST, 1901.

PREFACE.

PART I.—FROM THE OCCUPATION OF MASHONALAND IN SEPTEMBER, 1890, TO THE PROMULGATION OF THE "EDUCATION ORDINANCE" IN DECEMBER, 1899.

PART II.—FROM THE PASSING OF THE "EDUCATION ORDINANCE OF 1899" TO MARCH 31ST, 1901 :—

The Education Ordinance of 1899.
Education Department and Inspectorate.
Classes of Rhodesian Schools.
Grants to Government-aided Schools.
Maintenance Allowances.
Extra Grants.
Loans of Money.
Native Schools.
Holidays.
Appointment of Teachers.
Attendance of Pupils.
School Fees.
Pupil Teachers.

* The word "Rhodesia" is often used in the sense of Southern Rhodesia and bears this sense wherever it occurs in this report.

Agricultural and Technical Instruction.

Secondary Education.

Religious Instruction.

Note upon the School Regulation concerning Religious Instruction.

Criticism of the Education Ordinance of 1899.

Work of the Education Department from December, 1899, to March, 1901.

Inspection of Schools in Bulawayo.

Grants to Government-aided Schools in 1899-1900.

Reports.

Tour of the Melssetter District in 1900.

Acceptance of Umtali Public School under the Education Ordinance.

Acceptance of Salisbury Schools.

Acceptance of Dutch Reformed Church Schools.

Acceptance of Native Mission Schools.

Resignation of Mr. Hammond ; Appointment of Mr. Duthie.

Report of the Acting Inspector, Mr. Mellwaine.

PART III.—THE POSITION OF EDUCATION IN RHODESIA IN MARCH, 1901 :—

Schools for European Children.

Schools for Native Children.

Internal Management of Schools.

Religious Teaching.

Cost of Education.

Proportion of school-going children to children of school age.

Education not compulsory.

Supply of Teachers.

Difficulties as to supply of Secondary Teachers.

Education of European, and especially of Taal-speaking children, in country districts. Attempts to solve the problem: Suggestions (Boarding Schools: Instruction should be in English).

Education of Natives of Southern Rhodesia.

APPENDICES :—

A. Map showing the position of the principal Schools in Southern Rhodesia in March, 1901.

B. The Education Ordinance, 1899.

C. The Education Ordinance, 1903.

**SOME EVENTS IN RHODESIAN POLITICS DURING THE YEARS
1890-MARCH 31ST, 1901.**

1890. Rhodesian Pioneers occupy Salisbury. (September 12th.)
1892. Beira Railway Company formed, and Fontesvilla-Salisbury Line started.
1893. Bechuanaland Railway Company formed.
Matabele War (October-December 25th).
Bulawayo occupied (November 4th).
Matabeleland annexed to Southern Rhodesia (December).
1894. Beira Junction Railway Company formed to construct line Beira, Fontesvilla.
Line Vryburg-Bulawayo reaches Mafeking (October).
Line Fontesvilla-Salisbury reaches Chimoio (December).
1895. Beira-Fontesvilla line completed.
1896. Rinderpest (February-September).
Matabele Rebellion (March-October).
Mashona Rebellion (May-September, 1897).
1897. Mashona Rebellion ends (September).
Municipal Councils granted to Salisbury and Bulawayo.
Line Vryburg-Bulawayo completed, and formally opened (November 4th).
1898. Line completed from Beira to Umtali (January).
1899. Line completed from Beira to Salisbury and formally opened (May).
South African War commences (October 12th).
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PERFACE

Southern Rhodesia consists of the provinces of Mashonaland and Matabeleland, or in other words of those portions of the Chartered Company's South African Territories which lie South of the River Zambesi.

The area of Southern Rhodesia is 143,830 square miles which is almost evenly divided between the two provinces, Matabeleland being the larger by only about 2,000 square miles.

The number of white inhabitants of Southern Rhodesia was, according to the "informal" Census of May 31st, 1901:—

In Mashonaland	-	-	-	-	-	4,021
In Matabeleland	-	-	-	-	-	7,011
Total - - - - -						11,032

The war had caused a large drain of the normal population, and the Census was called "informal" upon this account.

There were besides white settlers 1,093 Asiatics in the country.

The native population was estimated at :

	Colonial natives	-	-	-	-	3,728
Rhodesian	{ Mashonaland natives	-	-	-	-	327,900
	{ Matabeleland natives	-	-	-	-	159,312
Total - - - - -						490,940

The native population has been increasing rapidly since the fall of the Matabele in 1893, and the consequent cessation of their raids on the Mashona.

It is the endeavour of this report to trace the development of education in Rhodesia from the occupation of Mashonaland (1890) to the end of the Rhodesian financial year, April 1st, 1900—March 31st, 1901. The report is thus naturally concerned with two periods. Firstly, up to the promulgation of the "Education Ordinance of 1899" it chronicles the attempts of communities, townships, religious bodies, and individuals to found schools and to obtain Government aid for educational schemes.

Secondly, it deals with the "Education Ordinance of 1899" by which the Government declared their educational policy to be one of State-aid and State-control. It criticises this Ordinance, and shows its effect up to March, 1901. Lastly, it states generally the educational position in Rhodesia, touching upon some of the difficulties belonging to it, including the problems of the education of natives, and of white children in remote districts.

THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN SOUTHERN

RHODESIA, 1890-1901.*†

ITS ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT.

I.

FROM THE OCCUPATION OF MASHONALAND IN SEPTEMBER, 1890,
TO THE PROMULGATION OF THE "EDUCATION ORDINANCE"
IN DECEMBER, 1899.

Education is not the strongest instinct of the earliest settlers in a 1890-1894 wild and savage country. Much must precede it. Pioneers take few schoolmasters with them, and few women and children. And even when the land has been parcelled out, claims adjusted, and law proclaimed, there still follows a period of uncertainty during which the Government is shy of committing itself to social schemes, realisation of which may be doubtful. There is no sufficient attraction for the professional teacher, and his office, when the need first becomes crying, is usually, and often ably, filled by the missionary, the first follower of the flag, or sometimes himself the pioneer.

So it has been in Southern Rhodesia. That no school for European children was opened till early in 1895 can be matter of surprise to no one who reflects that owing to the Matabele War the population of the country in September, 1894, was scarcely larger than at the end of 1892. It is perhaps more surprising that between 1890 and 1894 the Jesuits had established a large agricultural Mission Station among the natives at Chishawasha; that the American Foreign Missions Society had founded a settlement at Mt. Selinda, and that the Wesleyans, the Church of England, and the Dutch Reformed Church were doing active mission work in Mashonaland, while the London Missionary Society had been confirmed by the Company in their tenure of two mission farms which they had before held under the protection of Lobengula.

A period of general progress, in which education had a full 1895 share, followed the incorporation of Lobengula's domains into Southern Rhodesia. Bulawayo, occupied by the Company's forces on November 4th, 1893, sprang up at once into a

* Recent Reports on Education in Southern Rhodesia can be seen at the Board of Education Library, St. Stephen's House, Cannon Row, Whitehall, London, S.W.

† Since this report was written, a new Ordinance ("Education Ordinance, 1903") has been passed, superseding the Education Ordinance of 1899. This is printed below as Appendix C.

busy and flourishing town. It was here that early in 1895 the first school for white children was opened with an attendance of thirty pupils above six years of age. By whom this school was started is not quite clear, but the instruction imparted in it was undenominational. In the same year the Jesuits and the Dominican Sisters opened a similar school, entitled the "Convent School," at Bulawayo. The Bishop of Mashonaland * obtained grants of land from the Government for church and school purposes in Salisbury, Bulawayo, and Gwelo.

Dr. Jameson, then Administrator, entered into a special agreement with the Rev. Mr. Strasheim, representing the Dutch Reformed Church, by which the Government bound themselves to pay annually one-third of the salary of the ministers of the Dutch Reformed Churches at Bulawayo, Melssetter, and Enkeldoorn provided that the ministers conducted schools for the Dutch children in their districts. This agreement was terminable, and terminated, upon March 31st, 1901.

In addition to the above-mentioned Native Mission Stations, the Wesleyan Missionaries were now to be found north-west from Salisbury at Lo Magonda, and south-east as far as Chirimba's Kraal, whence they had opened up five or six stations. They employed five or six native teachers round "Chirimba's," under the supervision of a white minister. They also proposed to set up an "industrial and training institution" for natives on a farm granted to them near Bulawayo by the Company.

1896.

The year 1895 might be called the first fat year of Rhodesian progress. But upon this too full first-taste of happiness Nemesis was waiting. Prosperity continued through the first month of 1896. The building trade in the capital had never been more flourishing. Then such a change as is possible in Africa came over the land. From February till October rinderpest searched almost every corner of the two provinces. When it had passed over, the sole means of transport was practically destroyed. There were no railways, and the few lucky transport riders whose oxen had been spared were quick to realise the advantage which the misfortunes of others had placed in their hands. The barest necessaries of life were at famine prices. Rinderpest was followed by rebellion, to some degree as cause by effect. The Matabele, irritated by the loss of their herds, rose in March and were not subdued till October. A Mashona rising followed in May and dragged on wearily till September, 1897. The amounts paid to settlers in compensation for losses sustained during the two rebellions indicate plainly their serious nature. A sum of no less than £360,000 was distributed. The marks of the rinderpest are still plainly to be seen in what was and ought again to be a magnificent cattle country. The record of educational progress during this period is short, but the interest in education by no means died out.

* The Right Rev. Thomas Gaul, D.D., who had just succeeded Dr. Knight Bruce

In September, 1896, there were two schools for European children in Salisbury—one conducted by the Sisters O.S.D., the other by the representatives of the English Church. In both schools the teaching was undenominational. In Bulawayo the Dutch Reformed Church opened a school, and a separate school for boys was formed by the Fathers S.J. from the pupils at the Convent School. There were now four European schools in Bulawayo with 149 pupils.

In the central Melssetter district there was a school at Melssetter town with a teacher provided by the Dutch Reformed Church. The neighbourhood was already becoming populous, and it seems curious that the teacher could not find time to gather more than four or five children into his school, even though he appears, in the absence of any minister, to have occasionally held services for the Dutch families round him. In South Melssetter several European children were attracted to the Mt. Selinda school by the excellent teaching of the Lady Superintendent, though the school had been founded for natives only, of whom there was a considerable attendance.

Early in 1897 a small school for European children sprang up in Umtali and was placed in the hands of a capable lady teacher. The average attendance amounted by September, 1897, to twelve pupils. The school received Government aid in the form of a school building and a small grant of money.

The people of Victoria also now entered into negotiations with the Government and the local public for setting up and maintaining an undenominational school. Though undenominational, it was the opinion of the townsfolk that the school should afford every facility for the religious instruction of all its pupils by representatives of their several denominations.

As regards the education of natives in 1896 and 1897 the doings of the Mt. Selinda school have been recorded. In addition the Jesuit Mission Schools at Chishawasha were now well equipped and flourishing, and a day school established by them at Empandeni had 350 pupils, to whom they were imparting an education rather "industrial than literary." The Wesleyans, too, had started both a day and an evening school in Bulawayo.

In 1898 the Salisbury Municipal Council erected a large school for boys and girls. It was built and subsequently conducted upon terms laid down in a special agreement with the Government, and was to all intents and purposes what is now known as an Undenominational Public School under the Education Ordinance of 1899. The Salisbury Church of England School was closed, the Bishop of Mashonaland being of opinion that one larger school would do more effectual work than two smaller ones. A large school for girls and small boys, possessing also accommodation for girl boarders, was opened by the Sisters O.S.D.

In Umtali no great progress was made, though the township received a visit from Bishop Hartzell of the American Methodist Church, during which the Bishop seems to have discerned a great field for missionary and school work among natives and whites alike

round Umtali. He received* grants of stands for educational purposes in New Umtali and abundance of land where the old township had stood for inaugurating his native mission work. He subsequently returned to America to collect money for advancing his schemes.

A Dutch Reformed Church minister had arrived at Melsetter, and began to conduct a still poorly attended school according to the Jameson-Strasheim agreement of three years back. There were twelve European children at the Mt. Selinda Native Mission School.

An excellent school for white children had been opened in Bulawayo by the Church of England under a first-class English teacher. The new Convent School for girls and St. George's Public School for boys represented the growth of the old Convent School of 1895. The new Convent School was in the hands of the Sisters O.S.D., while St. George's was controlled by the Fathers S.J. There were also the School of the Dutch Reformed Church, and two private schools containing respectively twenty-three and eight pupils. The teaching in all the Church Schools save the Dutch was undenominational, and the total number of school-going children in the township was 310. The United Hebrew congregation of Bulawayo applied for and were granted two stands for church and school purposes. The increase of European schools and scholars in Bulawayo in the year 1898 is no doubt to be largely attributed to the influx of population which followed the completion of the Vryburg-Bulawayo railway in 1897.

In native mission work also good progress was made at the stations already mentioned. The Wesleyan native day school at Bulawayo had increased its roll to fifty pupils, and the English Church had brought fifty-six pupils into a similar school. The London Missionary Society had about 100 native scholars in their day schools on their old farms "Hopefountain" and "Inyati" and smaller numbers in day schools upon two other farms, "Centenary" and "Dombadema," which had been granted to them by the Company more recently. On each of these farms all work was under the supervision of a white missionary.

The first stage of Rhodesian Education has now been described. The transition to the second stage followed almost of itself, but it will perhaps be well, and partly for the sake of explaining this easy transition, to emphasise a few points in the period already reviewed before passing to the second part of this report. There was no doubt in the earlier years a fair proportion of European children who received some instruction at home. This is the case still, and is due to the exceptionally large number of well-educated men who, as Mr. Bryce remarked in his "Impressions of South Africa," had settled in the country. It is also, no doubt, for the same reason that schools sprang up as quickly as they did during

*The grants were approved March 23rd, 1898.

† It was determined to transfer the old township of Umtali to its present site right upon the Portuguese border in March, 1896.

the "Sturm und Drang" period of 1890-1897. It will be noticed and it was only quite natural, while the Government policy was to assist rather than to initiate, that it was only in townships that any firm attempt was made to deal with educational wants. Problems such as that of education in rural districts could only be dealt with by a specially organised Department. The Administrations were averse to entering upon large educational undertakings until the country held out a real prospect of a settled future. The experience of 1893 read them the lesson of caution. The storms of 1896-7 blotting out so rudely the sunshine of 1895 vindicated their policy. But as educational enterprise grew, so did they in like measure encourage it. At first they granted only land to those who asked it for church and school purposes. In 1896 they granted both land and sums of money. In 1898 when the future of Rhodesia had been almost secured by the connection by rail of Bulawayo with Capetown, they began, as in Salisbury, to meet municipalities more than half-way in schemes for erecting and maintaining schools, and, as their agreement with the Salisbury Public School Board shows, the Education Ordinance was already practically drafted. They had already resolved to take up the burden of Rhodesian education. The completion of the Beira-Salisbury line in 1899 confirmed their resolution. The opening of the Salisbury-Bulawayo railway in 1902 will materially lighten their task.

II.

FROM THE PASSING OF THE "EDUCATION ORDINANCE OF 1899"* TO MARCH 31ST, 1901.

The Act known under the above title provided for:—(1) The creation of an Education Department and of an Inspectorate. (2) The appropriation of grants in aid of all duly qualified schools which should agree to observe the School Regulations laid down in the Act. The Education Ordinance of 1899

Thus:—

(1) The Administrator was empowered to appoint first, a "Superintending Inspector" of Schools, who was to bear the somewhat peculiar title of the "Inspector of Schools for Southern Rhodesia," and, secondly, assistant inspectors as need should arise for them. The Superintending Inspector was annually to visit, or cause to be visited, all schools in receipt of Government aid. He was to be head of the Education Department, and as such was to furnish an annual report upon the work of his Department to be laid before the Legislative Council. It was also his duty to prepare any further special reports on educational matters which Education Department and Inspectorate.

*For copy of the Ordinance see Appendix B.

the Administrator might call for, and as Chief Inspector and Head of the Education Department he was directly responsible to the Administrator.

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(2) (a) The Schools which in the School Regulations attached to the Education Ordinance (Schedule Order "A") are chiefly contemplated as grant-earning schools are "Voluntary Public Schools," or schools under the control of religious bodies, and Undenominational Public Schools, or schools under the control of duly-appointed Managers other than religious bodies. (Schedule to Education Ordinance, Order "A," Reg. 1.)

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(b) Grants are offered by the Administration to such schools in the form of half-payment of masters' salaries, the amounts of such grants to depend upon compliance with all School Regulations of the Education Ordinance, as certified by the Inspector in his Reports. (Schedule to Education Ordinance, Order "A," Reg. 2.)

A sum not exceeding £180 may be granted in aid of a Principal Master's salary; and a sum of £120 in aid of a Principal Mistress' or of an Assistant Teacher's salary. (Schedule to Education Ordinance, Order "A," Reg. 2.)

The Managers are to pay their teachers' salaries amounting to at least twice the sums granted by Government, and are to provide a suitable residence for the Principal Teachers or an equivalent in money. (Schedule to Education Ordinance, Order "A," Regs. 2 and 5.)

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Where a teacher is in receipt of no salary, but is merely maintained by his Managing Body, the grant made on his behalf to the Managing Body shall as nearly as possible amount to half the cost of his maintenance.

The following extra grants can be obtained:—

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- (1) For each pupil in an Evening School, £4 per annum. (Schedule to Education Ordinance: Order "A": Reg. 15.)
- (2) For each pupil who shall satisfy the Inspector in four of a given number of extra subjects, £2 per annum. (Schedule to Education Ordinance: Order "A": Reg. 16.)
- (3) For school requisites, one half of the cost of such requisites upon the recommendation of the Inspector. (Schedule to Education Ordinance: Order "A": Reg. 14.)

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Loans of money for building purposes may be made:—

- (a) To Undenominational Public School Managers, to the amount of £2,000, at 5 per cent. interest per annum. After regular payment of this interest for fifteen years the sum advanced is held to be redeemed, and land and

buildings become vested in the Municipality, or in the Managers if there be no Municipality. (Schedule to Education Ordinance: Order "C": Reg. 1.)

- (b) To Voluntary Public School Managers on the £ for £ principle up to £1,000, at 5 per cent. interest per annum. After regular payment of such interest for fifteen years the sum advanced is held to be redeemed, and land and buildings pass into the hands of the religious body concerned. (Schedule to Education Ordinance: Order "C": Reg. 2.)

Grants of ten shillings per pupil per annum will be made to managers of Native Schools which have a daily attendance of fifty pupils, and which are open daily for at least four hours, two of which, at least, are given to industrial training. (Schedule to Education Ordinance: Order "B.")

Every school must remain open for at least thirty-eight weeks of the year, and for at least four hours per diem. (Schedule to Education Ordinance: Order "A": Regs. 8 and 17.)

All teachers are appointed by the Administrator upon the recommendation of the Superintending Inspector.

The pith of the chief School Regulations attached to the Education Ordinance has now been given, excepting the Regulation concerning Religious Teaching to which a later reference is made. A few more facts concerning Rhodesian Schools may perhaps serve as answers to questions arising from the Regulations.

The attendance of pupils is not directly enforced.

School fees are usually paid, but as yet on no fixed scale.

Pupil teachers have been trained in St. John's School, Bulawayo, and in the Convent School, Bulawayo.

There is no scheme at present for pensioning retired teachers.

Agricultural instruction is confined to native schools, and Technical instruction to Evening Schools. No specially Commercial training is provided.

There is at present no need in Southern Rhodesia for a school for physically or mentally defective children. There is no Reformatory and no Industrial School.

Secondary Education is given by private individuals, by the Jesuits in St. George's School, Bulawayo, and by the Sisters O.S.D. in Bulawayo. Whatever higher education exists in schools is under Government control.

The first half-hour after roll-call of every school day is set apart for religious instruction. Should there be in any school children of more than one denomination, ministers of all denominations concerned may arrange with the School Principal for imparting religious instruction to the children of their respective denominations during the period thus set apart. (Schedule to Education Ordinance: Order "A": Reg. 9.)

Any child will be exempted from religious instruction at the request of his parents or guardian. Children thus exempted, together with children whose religious instructor may fail to keep his appointment, will be provided with secular work. (Schedule to Education Ordinance : Order "A" : Reg. 9.)

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This omni-denominational system of religious instruction has for years prevailed in parts of Germany, and it certainly possesses great advantages. It means that any school, no matter what the denomination of its managing body, can safely receive pupils of any other denomination. Correspondingly it means that parents of one denomination are not deterred from sending their children to schools of another denomination by the fear that the children's religious beliefs will be tampered with. They need only consider where the best secular instruction is provided.

The arrangement works entirely without friction in Rhodesia at the present time. The writer of this report never met a representative of any denomination who was opposed to it.* The Jews of Bulawayo, when they broke up their school, stated that they were quite content to send their pupils to the English and Roman Catholic Church schools, because of the freedom allowed in religious teaching. They experienced no difficulty in having their children instructed daily in the Jewish religion and in Hebrew. Replying for the Nonconformists at the festivities which celebrated the arrival of the Bechuanaland Railway at Bulawayo (November, 1897), the Rev. I. Shimmin used these words: "In the old country the barriers between the different churches were high and forbidding, but in Rhodesia the walls were very low, and they often shook hands across them, and longed for the time when even those low walls might be swept away." The Education Ordinance has certainly made the barriers no higher, and what Mr. Shimmin said is decidedly true. The Churches in Rhodesia have worked loyally together in educational matters, and if in future no educational quarrels arise between Church and Church or Church and State, Rhodesia will have inherited a blessing the greatness of which none should better or more earnestly appreciate than Englishmen.

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That the "Education Ordinance" was brought forward at a fitting time, and that the general educational policy of the Government was throughout a wise one, has been before contended. That it is a well-conceived measure may be proved by its working. Within a year after its promulgation every European school of any importance had applied to be received under it, as well as a few Native Mission Schools, which were qualified to make application. Moreover, though in mentioning this I am passing somewhat beyond the limits of my period, notable progress has already been made by the schools of Bulawayo, the largest centre of population in Southern Rhodesia, under the regulations of the Act.

* It must be remembered that there are Roman Catholic schools available for most of the children of that Church.—[Ed.]

The Regulation discussed above concerning religious instruction is of special importance among the rest, and, in my opinion, is a wise Regulation, and one helpful to general school progress.

It must, on the other hand, be admitted that the School Regulations attached to the Act are loosely worded, and that some of them are thereby rendered hard to interpret. There are also omissions to deal with certain serious points. Thus in the Schedule to Education Ordinance: Order "A": Regulation 2 (a) and (b) a yearly grant of £180 may be made in aid of a Principal Teacher's salary, and one of £120 in aid of that of an Assistant, without regard to sex. Subsequently (in Regulation 12) the yearly grant-in-aid of the salary of the Teacher in a girls' school is limited to £120, and Regulation 11 permits the formation of separate boys' and girls' schools in localities where this appears necessary. According to Regulation 2 (a) and (b) there is nothing to hinder a female teacher from imagining that she will obtain a grant of £180 (plus a house, according to Regulation 5). According to Regulation 12 she can expect no more than £120, but there is nothing either here or in Regulations 2 and 11 to prevent her from claiming a house. And even supposing that only a Principal *Master* is intended to be entitled to a grant of £180 and a house, while a grant of £120 is all that a Principal *Mistress* can obtain, what is to be understood concerning the salaries of male and female assistants? The Regulations apparently make the grants for these equal, and the grants for female assistants equal to those of Principal *Mistresses*. But, if this is intended, the emoluments of male and female teachers seem disproportionate.

Again, there is no regulation forbidding Managers to farm out schools; neither is there any making them responsible for paying the school staff and all other school expenses. As first Superintending Inspector, I pointed out these and minor defects in one of my reports to the Legislative Council.

Still, though there are deficiencies in the drafting of the School Regulations, the fact remains that they have formed a good and useful basis on which to begin to build up a fabric of organised education; and against this merit many more flaws than they contain would count for little. It is, moreover, probable that they will receive shortly whatever of revision and suppletion they still require, as they have been put into the hands of the present Superintending Inspector (Mr. George Duthie) for this purpose.

Before dealing shortly with the present state of Education in Southern Rhodesia it may be instructive to give some details of the work of the newly formed Southern Rhodesian Education Department between December 1899 and March 1901. I, the first Superintending Inspector, arrived in Salisbury in December, 1899. Had it been possible, I should have travelled *via* Bulawayo, which is the largest school centre in Southern Rhodesia, but unfortunately the route was blocked on account of the war. As it was, I reached Bulawayo in February, 1900, and was allowed to inspect all the leading

Work of the
Education
Department
from Dec.
1899 to
March 1901.

Inspection of
Schools in
Bulawayo.

schools in the town. I found that good work was being done in all European schools under the management of the Church of England and of the Roman Catholics. The school of the Dutch Reformed Church lay far behind in almost every respect. As the result of interviews with the managing bodies of these schools, all, with the exception of the Dutch Reformed School, were accepted as Voluntary Public Schools under the Education Ordinance of 1899. The Minister of the Dutch Reformed Church, who was authorised to speak also for the Dutch Schools at Emkeldoorn and Melsetter, said that the three schools could not come under the new School Regulations until he had obtained permission for such action from his Committee in Capetown. Permission was apparently granted to him towards the end of 1900. The one private school remaining in Bulawayo with thirty-four pupils, and the Hebrew School with sixteen pupils, preferred not to come under the Government regulations.

grants to
Government-
aided Schools
1899-1900.

At the end of the financial year April 1st, 1899, to March 31st, 1900, there was a certain sum of money available for distribution among the schools which had up to that date placed themselves under the Regulations of the Education Ordinance. Taking into consideration both the numbers and the efficiency of each school, I was able to recommend the following apportionment of grants:—

LOCALITY.	NAME OF SCHOOL.	NO. OF PUPILS.	GRANT.
			£
Salisbury - -	Convent School - -	35	200
Bulawayo - -	Convent School - -	81	300
Bulawayo - -	St. George's (Fathers S. J.).	35+12*	352
Bulawayo - -	St. John's (Church of England).	93	450
†Salisbury - -	U n d e r n a m i n a t i o n a l Public School.	30	300
		291	1,602

* These twelve were evening school pupils.

† Under special agreement between Municipality and Administration.

reports.

Up to this time I had presented two short reports to the Administration, one shortly after my arrival, in which I did little more than put together such statistics as were placed in my hands; the other upon March 31st, 1900, after my visit to Bulawayo. The second report was based on the fullest educational statistics that could be collected from all parts of the country. Nevertheless I regarded both it and its predecessor as merely preliminary to my first yearly report, which I hoped to present on March 31st, 1901, and I have accordingly not annexed them in full to the present report, although I have incorporated their substance in it.

In August, 1900, I made a fairly exhaustive tour of the Melsetter District with a view to ascertaining the educational needs and desires of its scattered population. This bore some fruit in the northern part of the district, which is inhabited mainly by a clan of Steyns from the Orange Free State. Here there was a genuine desire shown for better educational facilities, and a school was erected upon land given by Mr. J. Steyn, of Johannesburg. Further South, also, in Mid-Melsetter and in South Melsetter, generous offers of land for school purposes were made by individual farmers, but it appears that further negotiations with the people of these sub-districts have been disappointing. To this subject a later reference is made.

Tour of the Melsetter District in 1900.

Upon my way to Melsetter I had inspected the Public School of the American Methodist Mission in Umtali. This school had sprung up in 1898, and had taken the place of the small school which was started in 1897. It was now accepted as a Voluntary Public School under the Education Ordinance. By October, 1900, both the schools in Salisbury were similarly accepted, and before the end of the year the three schools of the Dutch Reformed Church at Bulawayo, Melsetter, and Enkeldoorn, placed themselves under Government control. Thus every European Public School of any importance had voluntarily brought itself under the Regulations of the Education Ordinance within a year from its promulgation. Of applications from duly-qualified Native Mission Schools for assistance under Order B of the Ordinance, those of the Jesuit Mission at Chishawasha, of the English Church Mission at Bulawayo, and of the American Foreign Mission at Mount Selinda had been accepted.

Acceptance of Umtali Public School under the Education Ordinance.

Acceptance of Salisbury Schools.

Acceptance of Dutch Reformed Church Schools.

Acceptance of Native Mission Schools.

At this point I was compelled to return to England upon sick leave, and shortly after my arrival there resigned my post upon medical advice. My successor, Mr. George Duthie, arrived in August, 1901, and until this date the work of the Education Department was carried on by Mr. McIlwaine in the capacity of Acting Inspector. It thus fell to the Acting Inspector to write the yearly Report upon Education in Southern Rhodesia for the financial year, April 1, 1900, to March 31st, 1901.

Resignation of Mr. Hammond. Appointment of Mr. Duthie.

In his Report, Mr. McIlwaine expresses himself satisfied in general with the working of the Education Ordinance, and with the prospects of Rhodesian Education. In referring to a special visit to the districts of Charter and Enkeldoorn, he emphasises what I had already pointed out, that there are practically no facilities for European education in country districts. He adds that in these districts, where twelve out of thirteen European inhabitants are Dutch, a most regrettable apathy towards education of any kind is noticeable among the parents.

Report of the Acting Inspector Mr. McIlwaine.

The school started by the Hebrew community of Bulawayo was closed after a very short period of existence. The Hebrew community gave as the reason for their action in this matter, that their community was decreasing, and that taking into consideration the complete freedom observed in religious teaching

they had no scruples about entrusting their twenty-five pupils to the schools of the English and Roman Catholic Churches.

Mission work among the Natives appears to have been strenuously carried on in 1900-1901 by all the various missions upon their many existing stations. No new stations were opened.

III.

THE POSITION OF EDUCATION IN RHODESIA IN MARCH, 1901.

The purpose of the Education Ordinance of 1899 was to provide the basis of a system of State-aided and State-controlled education, primary and secondary, especially for the children of European settlers and secondarily for native children.

Schools for
European
children.

As far as the European children are concerned, this system may fairly be said to be established. Practically all the schools for white children are receiving Government aid, and are working in accordance with the School Regulations of the Ordinance. Moreover the Government has pledged itself by the Ordinance to see to the provision of an adequate number of schools wheresoever they may be required in future. This is a twofold advantage since the Missionaries will now be relieved of a heavy and most generously self-imposed burden, and will have their hands freer to deal with the problem of native education, which primarily and beyond all other influences drew them to the country.

Schools for
Native
children.

Among Native Mission Schools not many were duly qualified to apply for acceptance under the regulations of the Ordinance; but of those which were qualified several are already Government schools.

Internal
Management
of Schools.

The internal management of State-aided schools is practically altogether in the hands of the managing body whether religious or municipal.

Religious
teaching.

As before stated no vexatious questions have as yet arisen in connection with religious instruction.

It is contended in this report that the Rhodesian System of Education is in its main features good, that it has already accomplished much, and that it has worked smoothly as far as it has run. But it is, of course, not pretended that the education of the country is in more than a very early stage of development. The chicken has scarcely emerged from the egg-shell. How much is left to do, and in the face of what great difficulties will appear from the following enumeration of some of the chief problems awaiting solution.

Cost of
Education.

The cost of education to the Government is already relatively speaking large. In 1899-1900 the total grant in aid of salaries was £1,302. This sum was divided amongst four schools with a total of 261 pupils and 17 teachers. That is to say, that the Government paid £5 per pupil, and £76 10s. per teacher. In 1900-1901 a total grant of £1,994 was made to eight schools with 434 pupils and

23 teachers ; that is to say, a grant of about £4 17s. per pupil and £86 per teacher. It is true that some schools could accommodate more than their present number of pupils without any increase of staff. On the other hand, the grants will necessarily become larger as the Government plants more schools of the Udenominational Public School class, since in these it pays half the salaries of teachers, whereas in Voluntary Public Schools, where clerics are teachers, it pays only half the estimated cost of the maintainance of these teachers.

The proportion of school-going children to children of school age is as yet very small. There were according to the informal Census of May, 1901, the figures of which may be taken as sufficiently exact for the period under review, 2,286 children under sixteen years of age in Southern Rhodesia. Of these 1,482 were resident in townships, and 804 in country districts. Of this total of children, considering how large a proportion of Rhodesian children are less than five years old, 25 per cent. may probably be deducted as being too young for any work except that of the Kindergarten. Of the 1,111 children of school age now remaining in the townships, 364 are in State-aided Schools, and 29 of the 603 remaining in the country districts.

Proportion of School-going Children to Children of School Age.

No direct pressure is put upon parents to send their children to school ; the possible curtailing of grants is an indirect pressure upon school managers to attract and retain scholars. Compulsory education, though most desirable, would entail a large expenditure of State funds, and it is doubtful whether Rhodesia will be the first of the South African States to try so bold a measure.

Education not compulsory.

The emoluments offered to Principal Teachers of State-aided Rhodesian Schools are quite sufficient to attract good enough unmarried men to these schools, while they do not profess anything more than an elementary curriculum. But for anything higher than a school of this kind, it is doubtful whether suitable teachers could at present be procured from England. There is a considerable number of Rhodesian parents who wish to see schools started on the lines of a first-class English Preparatory School, merging, no doubt, into a first-class Public School on English lines. Such a school with accommodation for fifty pupils, of whom a proportion would be boarders, would probably cost £4,000 to build and £3,000 per annum at least to staff, and it is clear that when all the other expenses were reckoned up, the fees both for boarders and day scholars would be enormous, unless the Administration were generous almost beyond hope. Heavy endowments are always the unexpected, and are not likely to arrive in Rhodesia. The call of the missionary is first to the black ; it is hardly fair to ask him to serve two masters ; moreover, while it is true that he has already provided admirable elementary teachers, it is more than doubtful whether he can find suitable men for good higher schools. The help and collaboration of friends at home may do more in the future than hitherto. Still, the problem of the supply

Supply of Teachers.

Difficulties as to supply of Secondary Teachers.

of secondary teachers for Rhodesia is, as far as one can now see, insoluble, save by means which seem practically outside the range of practical educational politics.

Education of European and especially of "taal-speaking" children in country districts.

A very great majority of the children in country districts are Dutch, *i.e.*, "taal-speaking." Some farmers are bilingual, some know a smattering of English, a few are English-speaking. Up to the present the children of the country districts have been left very much to look to their parents for their instruction. A few have been sent to boarding schools in Salisbury and Bulawayo. But very many have been and are being brought up with scarcely any education at all, Boer parents as a rule contenting themselves with reading the Bible with their families. Even this little is made far less by the ignorance of the ruder Boers, who are often quite unable to understand or interpret what they read.

Attempts to solve the problem: suggestions.

Attempts have been made to ameliorate this deplorable state of affairs. The Strasheim-Jameson agreement of 1895 was the first of these, but in its practical working it proved a failure. At Melsetter nothing was achieved by it, and at Bulawayo the work of the Dutch Church School which I inspected in 1900 was most unsatisfactory. Again, as already noted, I made a tour of the Melsetter district in August, 1900, with a view to persuading the farmers to co-operate with the Administration in starting schools at various central points. I obtained substantial offers of help from individuals farmers in North, Central, and South Melsetter alike, and in North Melsetter a school was opened. I had some hope that similar schools might be planted in the central and southern divisions. I myself, however, did not remain in the country long enough to see this hope realised, and after my departure it seemed that I had been too sanguine. But, then, why should a school have been started in North Melsetter? The truth of the matter appears to be this. The farmers, the Boers at all events, wish to be led by some outstanding man of their own community, in whom they trust, and who can represent them in the presence of Government officials. In North Melsetter there was just such a man, and he happened to be an enlightened man as to the needs of his district. What happens when no such leader comes forward was experienced in Central Melsetter. The people were willing but helpless. The importance of this or that scheme might be impressed upon individuals to-day, but the impression would be blurred by an ignorant neighbour's objections to-morrow. In South Melsetter there appeared to be two parties, one genuinely desirous of a better state of things, but yet apathetic; the other blindly ignorant, and containing several families dependent upon a rich but more than ever ignorant leader, whose face was set against all improving influences. To start suitable schools in such a district as this, or in such a one as is Central Melsetter, would, no doubt, be a matter of time; but it might, nevertheless, be accomplished by anyone who could contrive to win the confidence of the communities in question. Ignorance, apathy, poverty, these are the three great

obstacles in the way of educating the rural, and therefore the Boer, children of Rhodesia. Poverty can be overcome. Parents who are admittedly too poor to pay in money might pay in kind, that is by their own work. They could grow mealies and the Government could take them off their hands; the demand is large enough. In rare cases exemption from fees might be granted. This is a system which would improve many parents not a little, as well as benefit their children. Apathy would rapidly disappear if parents could only see what a difference even a simple course of education would make in their children; that is to say, if schools were once fairly started. But what kind of school is required? One must not believe too implicitly in the merits of farm schools despite the accounts of their progress which reach us from the Cape Colony. They are at best but a makeshift, and though better than no bread, they are by far the smaller half of the loaf.

Boarding schools, or schools with accommodation for boarders, are the alternative. These alone could surmount the difficulties of long distances and the rainy season. There is, moreover, the question of home influence, which in rural Rhodesia would weigh heavily upon the side of the boarding as opposed to the day school. But if boarding schools were started there is no doubt that the Government would have to bear nearly the whole cost. The future would in all probability repay them even if they bore the whole, but at present there is no certainty that the parents would trouble to come half-way to meet the most generous offers. Then there would be only one course possible: free education, and compulsory attendance. And these are, perhaps, the only means by which the "children of the seventeenth century," as Olive Schreiner called the Boers of the nineteenth, will safely develop into the men of the future.

Boarding
Schools.

The instruction in country schools should include first and foremost English, the official language of the country, and should be given entirely in that language. People at home are apt to be sentimental about the decay and death of languages. And in regard to our more lately acquired territories in South Africa they will plead for the preservation of the "Taal." They will cite Canada as proof positive that all countries that are bilingual will thrive, and that, therefore, the "Taal" should be fostered. There is no parallel between Rhodesia and Canada. In Canada there are two *languages* of equal standing; in Rhodesia there is one noble language, and one varied collection of some hundreds of old Dutch, old French, Malay, and other words clipped and mangled to the verge of inarticulateness, incapable of producing a literature, and indeed, as Olive Schreiner says, "incapable of expressing any higher thought." This is no language which should or can be preserved from decay. It has decayed already; those who use it are compelled to borrow from English most words beyond the talk of the farm or of hunting. Nothing could be more striking in Rhodesia than the difference that a knowledge of English and intercourse with English people have made in some few of the inhabitants. In

Instruction
should be in
English.

Melsetter culture and knowledge of English speech and manners are in almost exact proportion one to the other. The so-called Africander Dutch in which school books have been printed can do nothing for the Boers. It, too, has no literature whatsoever and is in no way like the Boer mother tongue. As far as language and all that goes with it is concerned, the "taal-speaking" population of Rhodesia can only "rise on stepping-stones of its dead self to higher things."

Closer parallels can be found with Rhodesia than that of Canada. That of German Switzerland, for instance, is surely preferable. There the official language is High German, and this alone is the medium of instruction in the schools. At home, however, the German Swiss still speak a far older and ruder form of German which it might be hard for a North German to understand, and which it would certainly be hard for him to speak. So it should be in Rhodesia. The Boer should speak his "Taal" at home as long as he pleases, but he should be thoroughly able to read, write, and speak the official language of the country in which he has been allowed to settle, and upon all public and official occasions he should restrict himself to that language.

Education of
natives of S.
Rhodesia.

The natives of Southern Rhodesia numbered in 1899-1900 450,000. They form the great majority of the inhabitants of the country, and are rapidly increasing, especially in Mashonaland. It is fully recognised that their educational needs cannot be neglected, and that to abandon them in their present state of moral and intellectual darkness would be contrary to all the best traditions of English colonisation. Missionaries have almost ever since the occupation been planting and maintaining Sunday schools and day schools in native centres, and the Administration has from the first seconded their efforts. Grants of land have been given with a most generous hand for missionary purposes, and grants of money are now offered by the Education Ordinance to duly qualified native schools. Certain conditions are, however, attached to such grants. Most important is that which insists that of four hours at least per diem to be given to instruction two hours at least are to be devoted to industrial training. This condition, we may hope, is to be regarded as a sign that the Administration in legislating for native "education" has taken the word, not in its narrowest, but in its broadest sense, not limiting its meaning to the laborious inculcation of learning, but including in it the whole moral and mental uplifting of the negro races. This is the great work to be accomplished, and literary instruction is only one little part of it. For years the Rhodesian natives have lain in the slough of degeneracy. It would be useless to try to entice them from it by throwing them small sops of knowledge or of doctrine. These by themselves would be useless. Still less would it avail to follow the methods of the old missionaries of the Cape Colony. These were the misguided enthusiasts who believed that black men and white were equal, and that the black man could assert and maintain his equality at the word of command

which they were called to give. Therefore they hailed him as a brother, and married his women. Blinded by excess of zeal they led the blind, and fell into the ditch. Their action ought surely to have pointed the moral of *festina lente* for all time. And yet it is not certain that the leaven they employed has yet worked out all its force. It is more than possible that there are many at home who would still be willing to see it used, and to watch the progress of the experiment from the safe distance of 6,000 miles. It is, at all events, true that there is a continual pressure put by the home supporters of native missions upon those who work for them in various climes. For those who give to these missions, filled with a righteous zeal for progress, desire to see it in their own generation, and are thereby tempted not to leave the missionary to judge of the pace at which his work can safely advance. He must not hurry it in Rhodesia. It is an open question whether the more civilised natives of the Cape Colony have received too full and too early a measure of rights and privileges in general, as it is an open question whether their literary instruction in particular has been "forced" by men who had forgotten how small a portion it forms of education in its wider and nobler aspect. That colonial natives have in individual cases proved their power to acquire learning and to avail themselves ably of the facilities for higher instruction which have been offered to them is not to be denied. Mere book learning, however, counts for little. Feats of memory secure high prizes in China, but are not all-important in British colonies. How much has the negro of Cape Colony imbibed of the traditions which form the basis of English citizenship? Does he comprehend the fundamental nature and strength of the community into which he is being received? Does he in receiving rights of citizenship realise the duties that must be accepted with them? English citizens enjoy their rights and privileges only because they have shown themselves worthy to be entrusted with them by preserving and strengthening through ages the great traditions of their race. For it is perseverance in the way of sound traditions which secures a right use of privileges. Ill-timed and misdirected instruction is as disastrous now as when it caused the fall of man. The negroes of the Southern States of America, as yet new from slavery, saw the hope of obtaining literary instruction held out before them. Some, not realising that education in any true sense of the word implies moral and physical culture and self-discipline, followed the false ideal of a shallow book-learning, thinking that it would lead them to an earthly Paradise; it proved a will-o'-the-wisp, and left many in the mire.* If a man wishes to rear tender plants in places where weeds have long run riot he must first clear the ground; and though his ultimate success may be secure, it may be long deferred. And this is the point of view from which one is com-

* These dangers have been largely avoided in more recently-founded institutions for the education of native races in America, notably that at Hampton, Va.—[Ed.]

pelled to regard the question of the education of the natives of Rhodesia. The Administration has legislated in this spirit. The missionaries are in accord with the Administration. Let us hope that they will plead successfully for time and patience with those who generously support them at home.

The raw natives of Southern Rhodesia are, as a whole, debased and little worth. The Mashona, from the time when the Matabele settled to their west until 1893, were subjected to a series of raids and massacres which crushed out whatever manhood they may have possessed. The Matabele, used to a career of conquest, are unable to profit by the peace which has been forced upon them. Neither they nor the Mashona have any definite religion, though they frighten themselves with superstitions concerning ghosts and spirits. Their intellect is that of children. Their virtues are few; their vices and their customs neither better nor worse than those of other ignorant and sunken tribes. Their men have never learned the value of hard work; indeed, they hardly know what it means. The Mashona require little beyond mealies, tobacco, and beer, and the labour of their women has in a fertile country sufficed to supply these in sufficient quantities. The Matabele have lived as warriors, and have raided the Mashona according to their needs. In order to pay "hut tax" a certain number both of Matabele and Mashona do occasional work in the towns, and even in the mines; they are, however, unsatisfactory workers, far inferior to Shanghan or Zambesi boys. They would prefer to be left in their kraals in indolence and apathy. Their attitude towards the white man's progress seems to be one of prayer that he will not lift them up and add them to his burden, but rather pass by on the other side.

It has fallen to Rhodesia in her turn among our African colonies to face the problem of reclaiming and uplifting her negro subjects. The difficulties in her way seem at first sight almost insurmountable, while her responsibility is the greater because she is working with the past experience of other countries to aid her. There are many who will watch closely to see how far she will profit by its guiding and warning light. The first steps that she has taken have been broadly stated. In following them more closely, one important fact can be established. It is that the representatives of all missions include industrial instruction in their school curricula. So far, then, they are working upon the lines of the policy adopted by the Administration and indicated in the Education Ordinance.

It is not yet possible to state the extent to which industrial work is carried on at all mission schools. Owing to the vastness of the country comparatively few stations could be visited during the period under consideration. But of these the following facts may be recorded. The Jesuits at Chishawasha employ their scholars in gardening and in agricultural work, besides giving them technical instruction in the school workshops. The American Foreign Mission makes its pupils work upon the Mission grounds for a fixed

period per diem to cover the cost of their instruction. At Chikore the bigger lads are taught to make bricks and tiles, and to saw timber with considerable success. The American Methodist Mission at Old Umtali is working upon a similar plan, though the fuller development of Bishop Hartzell's great schemes depends no doubt upon his return to the large estates which have been given him for their realisation. Beyond this it may be stated that if one may judge from the words and writings of other Rhodesian missionaries there is hardly one who does not firmly believe in a strict discipline of the body as the best preparation for the training of weak and degenerate intellects, or at least as its best accompaniment.

The work of educating the native does not, however, stop at the establishment of schools. It does not regard the child only, but the home also, and the home influence which in Rhodesia works so powerfully for evil. What is the greatest obstacle in the way of the native schools that have already been started? Without doubt, the parents and the home-life in general. The children see in their huts all that tends to lead them into sloth, dirt, and vice. The parents have little wish and less power to send their children to the schools. The girls are kept under strict supervision, since the custom of "lobola," or marriage by barter, makes them a family asset of no small value. The boys do as they please, and thus it becomes most difficult to secure anything like a regular attendance in any school.*

There is no exaggeration in these statements. Their truth is established by the action of the Jesuits at Chishawasha, who prefer to find board and lodging for their pupils rather than let them go back to the unwholesome atmosphere of their homes. For even these most ardent reformers avow that the older negro parents are almost beyond redemption. But to extend a system of native boarding schools throughout the country would for many reasons be impracticable. There remains one alternative. This is to send picked men among the natives to show them their baseness and how they may raise themselves from it; to reveal to them the folly of filthy and insanitary habits; to teach them to observe the simplest rules of health; to convince them of the utility of ventilating, cleaning, and generally improving their huts; to make clear to the men the many ways in which they might profit by doing even a little honest work; to impress them with what some of their children have already been taught; in short, to spare no effort of personal example or persuasion to raise them gradually from their sodden apathy to a state in which they may begin to wish for better surroundings and higher comforts, and may realise that these are after all worth the little energy they would cost. If once they could themselves grasp the fact that work would repay them, then as a next step they could be made to understand that their children would benefit by the special instruction provided for them. They would begin to see that it was worth

while to make some effort to send their boys and girls to school. And their interest in the schools once aroused, the school influence would in some measure react upon the family. It may be said that these are mere dreams. If so, it becomes all the more obvious that the problem of native education admits of no solution by mere surface reforms, but requires such as will dig patiently down to the deepest roots of negro degeneracy. They are not, however, dreams but possibilities, for men have already worked in their direction not wholly without success. That they are possibilities which it will take long to convert into accomplished facts is evident; how long it is impossible to say, for we know that the way is beset with difficulties. But, however slow the progress may be, we may be sure that undue zeal and haste will only retard it further. At present it is not only that schools must be built, the needs of the hut and of the kraal must also be considered. The first attack must be made from two points, against the parents as well as against the children. And as to the latter, is it not clear that the great bulk of their instruction should be agricultural and industrial, for boys and girls alike? This will accustom them to a routine of hard work, will form in them steady and regular habits, and will enable them to aid their parents. If beyond this they are subjected to a firm and sound discipline, it will not be necessary to add more than the first elements of literary instruction to complete the programme of their secular education. The programme will be gradually extended, according to the power of assimilating and of applying knowledge which the pupils may display. But, however great and genuine the desire may be to advance him, it will never be safe to base schemes for native education upon speculations as to what the native will or ought to be; it will be far safer to lead him upwards from what observation shows that he is. In doing this every honest endeavour should be made to help him, but the greatest caution should be observed. To rush in with rash experiments will only be to court disaster. The better strategy will be to avoid defeat, and by pursuing a Fabian policy, too little known in negro education, *cunctando restituere rem*.

H. E. D. HAMMOND.

APPENDIX B.

THE EDUCATION ORDINANCE, 1899.

Be it enacted by the Administrator of Southern Rhodesia with the advice and consent of the Legislative Council thereof as follows:—

1. All sums of money granted by the Legislative Council for the purpose of Education, and all loans authorised by the said Council to be made for the erection of buildings for public schools or for extensions thereof, shall be administered or made as the case may be, by the Administrator, in accordance with such Rules and Regulations as shall from time to time be approved by him with the advice and consent of the Executive Council, and published by Notice in the *Gazette*: *Provided*

- (1) That no such rule or regulation, nor any alteration or rescission thereof which may from time to time become expedient, shall be published as aforesaid, or shall take effect, until such rule or regulation shall have been assented to by the Legislative Council by resolution thereof:
- (2) That the Regulations contained in the Schedule to this Ordinance shall be and are hereby declared to be the Regulations touching Education for the time being, subject to alteration or rescission in the manner hereinbefore set forth:
- (3) That a report of the allocation of such grants and of such loans shall each year be laid before the Legislative Council.

2. The Administrator may appoint an Inspector of Schools for Southern Rhodesia, who shall receive such salary as may be appointed and provided for that purpose, and who shall be the Superintending Inspector of all schools aided in any way by grants or loans made under the provisions of this Ordinance: and the Administrator shall further have power, if need be, to appoint any other person or persons to be Assistant or Assistants to such Superintending Inspector, who shall receive such salary or salaries as shall from time to time be appointed and provided for the purpose.

3. The Inspector or his Assistants shall enforce the Rules or Regulations in the Schedule hereto, or such Rules or Regulations as may hereafter be made under the provisions of this Ordinance, and shall visit and inspect every school aided as aforesaid at such times and in such manner as shall be directed by the Administrator, and the Inspector shall furnish an annual Report showing the number and conditions of such schools and the state of education throughout Southern Rhodesia, which Report shall be laid before the Legislative Council at the next Session following the date of such Report.

SCHEDULE.—SCHOOL REGULATIONS.

Order "A."—UNDERDOMINATIONAL PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND VOLUNTARY PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Conditions on which aid will be granted from the Public Revenue towards the maintenance of Underdominational Public Schools and Voluntary Public Schools.

1. For the purpose of these regulations—

- (1) A "Voluntary Public School" shall mean a public school under the management and superintendence of some recognised Religious Body.

(2) A "Public Undenominational School" shall mean a purely non-sectarian school open to children of such age as the Administrator may prescribe, and under the control of Managers appointed in accordance with the provisions of these Regulations.

2. In respect of every school

(a) which shall be in existence at the date of the commencement of these Regulations, and in which the daily average of pupils during the preceding six months shall have been not less than twenty-five, and in which the subjects of instruction shall be such as are set forth in Section 10 of these Regulations, there shall, upon the recommendation of the Inspector and upon his report that in every respect the conditions of these regulations have been complied with, be allowed for the first year from the public funds a sum not exceeding one-half the salary of the principal Teacher and of such assistant Teachers as may be certified by the Inspector to be necessary, provided that in no case shall such allowances exceed £180 and £120 respectively: Such allowance shall be made annually if the daily average of pupils shall, in the preceding year, not have been less than as is specified herein—*provided* that in case in any year such average shall have been less than above set forth, the Administrator may, upon the recommendation of the Inspector, make such allowance in respect of the salary of the principal Teacher and every assistant Teacher for that year, not exceeding the respective sums herein mentioned, as he shall deem fit.

(b) to be established in any town or village, if the Administrator upon the report of the Inspector be satisfied that such town or village is one which ought to be provided with such a school, there shall be allowed for the first year in aid of the salary of the principal Teacher a sum not exceeding one-half of his salary, and in aid of the salary of every assistant Teacher appointed with the approval of the Administrator a sum not exceeding one-half his salary, such allowances not to exceed £180 and £120 respectively.

Such allowances shall be made annually after the expiration of the first year, upon the Administrator being satisfied that the daily average of pupils in the preceding year shall not have been less than twenty-five, and upon the report of the Inspector that the school has in every respect complied with the provisions of these regulations—*provided* that in case in any year such daily average shall have been less than twenty-five, the Administrator may upon the recommendation of the Inspector make such allowances in respect of such salaries, not respectively to exceed £180 and £120, as to him shall seem fit.

3. If any principal Teacher or assistant Teacher in any voluntary public school subject to the conditions of these Regulations shall not be in receipt of any salary, but shall be maintained at the cost of the Managing Body, there shall be annually paid to such body in lieu of the above allowances in respect of every such Teacher such respective sums as the Administrator may after due inquiry deem sufficient to amount to one-half of the cost of such maintenance, not exceeding the respective amounts mentioned in Section 2 (a).

4. The names of the Managers shall in every case be submitted to the Administrator for approval before any grant is made, and in the case of all schools receiving aid under these regulations, the Administrator shall satisfy himself with the arrangements for the management and maintenance thereof. The names and credentials of the Teachers nominated,

the rate of school fees and all further regulations shall be subject to the approval of the Administrator.

5. The Managers or Religious Governing Body shall provide and keep in repair the necessary accommodation for the school and teachers, namely: a school-room with suitable offices attached and proper school furniture, together with a suitable residence for the principal Teacher, or an annual allowance in lieu thereof, being one-fifth at least of the salary.

6. (a) No new grant, nor renewal or augmentation of an existing grant, shall take place until the Inspector is satisfied that suitable out-offices, and in addition a suitable recreation ground have been provided, and that the school can efficiently provide for the wants of the locality.

(b) The Administrator may, upon being satisfied that any school aided under these Regulations is being conducted in an unsatisfactory manner, withhold the whole or any portion of the annual grant.

7. The school shall be under the control and management of the Local Managers, but shall be subject to inspection by the Inspector or his deputy appointed by the Administrator, who shall have the right of entering the school at any time during school hours, of examining into the state of the buildings and the school furniture, of ascertaining the progress of the children under instruction, and of enquiring generally into the efficiency of the school in regard to the locality in which it is placed, and of calling for such returns as he may require, in order to obtain satisfactory information on these subjects.

8. The ordinary school hours are to be computed at not less than two hours in the forenoon and two hours in the afternoon.

9. The first half-hour of every morning after roll-call shall be at the disposal of the ministers of recognised denominations for religious instruction of the children of such several denominations. Such ministers shall arrange with the Managers or principal Teachers as to the days they will attend, and it shall be the duty of the Principal to see that such arrangements are properly carried out. Children may at the request of their parents or guardians be exempted from religious teaching, and in such cases they shall during the above period receive such secular instruction as may be determined by the Managers or Principal. In case any minister shall on any day not attend at the appointed hour for religious instruction the children usually attending such instruction shall during that period receive secular instruction in such subject as may be determined by the Principal.

10. The subjects of instruction shall include Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, English Grammar and descriptive Geography in the primary or elementary course, and physical drill.

11. In schools attended by both sexes provision shall be made, if possible, for the separation of the sexes, by having separate apartments for the female section under a female teacher, but should the inhabitants of the locality having children of school age prefer the establishment of separate boys' and girls' schools, the aid will be extended to both, provided that the Administrator be satisfied that the maintenance of separate schools is justified.

12. The grant-in-aid of the salary of the Teacher in a girls' school shall not exceed £120 per annum, and provision must be made in such a school for superior instruction in the English language and composition, outlines of history and geography, arithmetic, plain needlework, and domestic economy as far as may be practicable.

13. The instruction during the ordinary school hours shall be given through the medium of the English language.

14. There shall be granted towards the cost of school requisites for every school, subject to these Regulations, upon the recommendation of the Inspector, a sum amounting to one-half the cost of the same as certified by the Inspector.

15. Where an Evening Class is held in connection with any school receiving aid under these Regulations, a quarterly allowance of £1 will be made upon the recommendation of the Inspector in respect of every pupil who shall have attended such school for at least two-thirds of the total number of holdings of such school during the preceding quarter.

16. An additional annual grant of £2 shall be made in respect of every pupil who shall satisfy the Inspector that he has reached a certain standard of proficiency, to be fixed by such Inspector, in any four of the following additional subjects, *namely*, Latin, English literature, history, elementary mathematics, elementary science, shorthand, book-keeping, vocal or instrumental music.

17. The numbers and lengths of holidays shall be such as shall be prescribed by the Administrator, but in no case shall the total period during which the school shall be open be less than thirty-eight weeks in each year.

18. The Managers of any Undenominational Public School receiving aid under these Regulations shall be of such number and shall be nominated and appointed in such manner as the Administrator may prescribe.

Order "B."—NATIVE SCHOOLS.

Conditions on which Aid will be granted from the Public Funds to Native Mission Schools.

Where a Native Mission School is kept for not less than four hours daily, of which not less than two hours shall be devoted to *industrial training*, by any teacher or teachers approved of by the Administrator, and the average daily attendance is not less than fifty, there will be allowed annually for and in respect of each pupil, who shall during the preceding year have attended the school on at least two hundred occasions, the sum of ten shillings, provided that in no case shall such annual allowance exceed fifty pounds.

Order "C."—BUILDING LOANS.

Conditions on which Moneys will be advanced to Certain Schools for Building Purposes.

1. UNDENOMINATIONAL PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

(i.) The Administrator, if satisfied upon the recommendation of the Inspector that a school is needed for the educational requirements of any locality, may, upon application made to advance on loan from the public funds on the conditions in the next succeeding clause mentioned, advance such amount of money, not exceeding £2,000, as shall cover the cost of erecting on land to be provided by the British South Africa Company for the purpose, an Undenominational Public School and offices; a guarantee being furnished by the Managers of the school, to the satisfaction of the Administrator, that the regular payment of interest on the money so advanced will be made.

(ii.) The sum of money so provided and advanced shall bear interest at the rate of £10 per £100 per annum, of which interest one-half shall be paid out of the public funds provided for educational purposes.

- (iii.) After the regular payment of such interest for a period of *fifteen years* the principal amount shall be held to have been redeemed, and the land and buildings thereon shall be vested in the Municipality, if any, or Managers of the school, if there be no such Municipality, to be held by them in perpetuity in trust for the inhabitants of such locality for educational purposes.
- (iv.) Until the whole of the principal sum and interest shall have been paid in the manner aforesaid, the land and buildings thereon shall be and shall remain vested in the British South Africa Company.

2. PUBLIC VOLUNTARY SCHOOLS.

- (i.) The Administrator, if satisfied upon the recommendation of the Inspector that a school is needed for the educational requirements of such locality, and where it may appear to his satisfaction that such requirements may be more advantageously met by the establishment of a Public Voluntary School, under the superintendence of some recognised Religious Body, may, upon application made, advance on loan from the public funds, on the conditions in the next succeeding clause mentioned, a sum of money not exceeding £1,000 towards the erection of such Public Voluntary School and offices, *provided* that the sum of money so advanced shall not be in excess of a similar amount to be advanced by the Religious Body aforesaid: a guarantee being furnished to the satisfaction of the Administrator that the regular payment of interest on the amount advanced will be made.
- (ii.) The sum of money so provided and advanced shall bear interest at the rate of £10 per £100 per annum, of which interest one-half shall be paid out of the public funds provided for educational purposes. After the regular payment of such interest for a period of *fifteen years* the principal amount shall be held to have been redeemed.

3. Such Public Voluntary School may be built on land either

- (i.) the property of the British South Africa Company, in which case the land and buildings thereon shall remain vested in the British South Africa Company until the whole of the principal and interest shall have been rendered in the manner aforesaid, whereupon the land and buildings thereon shall become the absolute property of the Religious Body aforesaid ;
- (ii.) the property of the Religious Body aforesaid, who shall in such case furnish to the British South Africa Company a first mortgage bond upon the whole of the land and buildings thereon, which mortgage bond shall be redeemed when the whole of principal and interest shall have been paid in the manner aforesaid.

Order " D. "—GENERAL.

As often as any Undenominational Public School or Voluntary Public School, receiving aid by way of maintenance in accordance with these Regulations, shall lease any building for school purposes, the Administrator may, if satisfied from the report of the Inspector that the lease is necessary and that the rent is fair and reasonable, contribute from the public funds towards defraying such rent, such sum as he may deem fit.

APPENDIX C.

THE EDUCATION ORDINANCE, 1903.

ORDINANCE No. 1. 1903.

AN ORDINANCE to provide for the appointment of a Director of Education and Assistants, and for regulating the appropriation of grants, and the granting of loans from the Public Revenue, in aid of General Education.

Preamble. *Be it enacted by the Administrator of Southern Rhodesia with the advice and consent of the Legislative Council thereof as follows :—*

Previous Ordinance Repealed.

1. "The Education Ordinance, 1899," is hereby repealed.

Grants and loans Regulated.

2. All sums of money granted by the Legislative Council for the purpose of Education, and all Loans authorised by the said Council to be made for the erection of any buildings requisite for or in connection with school purposes, shall be administered or made, as the case may be, by the Administrator, in accordance with such rules and regulations as shall from time to time be approved by him with the advice and consent of the Executive Council, and published by Notice in the *Gazette*.

Provided :

- (1) That no such rule or regulation, nor any alteration or rescission thereof which may from time to time become expedient, shall be published as aforesaid, or shall take effect until such rule or regulation shall have been assented to by the Legislative Council by resolution thereof ;
- (2) That the regulations contained in the Schedule to this Ordinance shall be and are hereby declared to be the regulations touching Education, for the time being, subject to alteration or rescission in the manner hereinbefore set forth ;
- (3) That a report of the allocation of such grants, and of such loans, shall each year be laid before the Legislative Council.

Appointment of Director.

3. (1) The Administrator may appoint a Director of Education hereinafter styled the Director, who shall be the Supervisor of all schools aided in any way by grants or loans made under the provisions of this Ordinance.

Appointment of Assistants.

(2) The Administrator may appoint any other person to assist the Director in such capacity as he shall deem proper.

Duties of Director and Assistants.

4. (1) The Director or his Assistants shall enforce the rules or regulations in the Schedule hereto, or such rules or regulations as may hereafter be made under the provisions of this Ordinance, and shall visit and inspect every school aided, as aforesaid, at such times and in such manner as shall be directed by the Administrator.

(2) The Director shall furnish an Annual Report, showing the number and condition of such Schools, and the state of Education throughout Southern Rhodesia, which Report shall be laid before the Legislative Council at the next Session following the date of such Report.

Short Title.

5. This Ordinance may for all purposes be cited as the "Education Ordinance, 1903."

SCHEDULE.—SCHOOL REGULATIONS.

Order "A."—PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Conditions on which Aid will be granted from the Public Revenue towards the Maintenance of Public Schools.

1. (1) For the purpose of these Regulations, a Public School shall mean a School in receipt of Government Grants, and open to all white children, such and of such an age as the Administrator may approve. Interpretations.

(2) Such Public Schools shall be under the control of Managers appointed in accordance with the provisions of the School Regulations.

(3) Managers of Public Schools may be the representatives of the Guarantors of the School Funds requisite under these Regulations in addition to the Government Grants.

2. In respect of every school

(a) which shall be in existence at the date of the commencement of these regulations, and which, in the opinion of the Administrator, it is expedient to continue, there shall, upon the recommendation of the Director, and upon his report that in every respect the conditions of these regulations have been complied with, be allowed for the first year reckoned from a date to be appointed by the Administrator, from the public funds, a sum not exceeding one-half the salary of the principal teacher, and of such assistant teachers as may be certified by the Director to be necessary and efficient, provided that in no case shall such allowance exceed £200 for the principal teacher and £150 for each assistant respectively: such allowance, duly approved by the Administrator, shall be made annually on the report of the Director that the school is being properly and efficiently carried on in compliance with these regulations, and that the attendance is such as to warrant the continuance of the grant.

Allowances in respect of Teachers' Salaries.

(b) to be established in any town, village or district, if the Administrator, upon the report of the Director, be satisfied that such town, village or district, is one which ought to be provided with such a school, there shall be allowed for the first year, reckoned from a date to be appointed by the Administrator, from the public funds in aid of salaries a sum not exceeding one-half of the salary of the principal teacher, and of such assistant teachers as may be certified by the Director to be necessary and efficient, such allowance not to exceed £200 for the principal teacher and £150 for each assistant respectively: such allowances, duly approved by the Administrator, shall be made annually after the expiration of the first year, on the report of the Director that the school is being properly and efficiently carried on, in compliance with these Regulations, and that the attendance is such as to warrant the continuance of the grant.

3. If any principal teacher or assistant teacher in any public school subject to the conditions of these regulations shall not be in receipt of any salary, but shall be maintained at the cost of the managing body, there shall be annually paid to such body in lieu of the above allowances in respect of every such teacher such respective sums as the Teachers' Maintenance Allowance in lieu of Salary.

Administrator may after due inquiry deem sufficient to amount to one-half of the cost of such maintenance, not exceeding the respective amounts mentioned in the last preceding section.

Approval of
Managers
and Teachers,
School
Accommoda-
tion and
Teachers'
Residences.

4. (1) The managers of any Public School shall be of such number and shall be nominated and appointed in such manner as the Administrator may determine.

(2) The names of managers appointed or to be appointed shall in every case be submitted to the Administrator for approval.

(3) The managers shall make such arrangements for the management and maintenance of the school or schools under their control as shall satisfy the Administrator.

(4) The names and credentials of the teachers and of boarding school superintendents nominated or to be nominated by the managers, the rate of school fees, and all further regulations made by the managers for schools under their control shall be subject to the approval of the Administrator.

(5) The managers shall provide and keep in repair such buildings as shall be deemed by the Director to be requisite for the accommodation of scholars and teachers. Such accommodation shall include in addition to school rooms, suitable offices and out-offices and recreation ground, together with a suitable residence for the principal teacher. An annual allowance, being in amount equal to one-fifth at least of the salary, may with the approval of the Administrator be paid to the principal teacher in lieu of provision of such residence.

(6) The managers shall also provide such school furniture as shall be deemed requisite by the Director.

(7) The managers shall from time to time furnish such returns and reports as shall be required by the Director, which shall be in such form, and supply such particulars as he shall require. In particular, they shall submit to him annually, a statement of the revenue and expenditure of any institution under their control, aided under these Regulations, and shall furnish a quarterly return duly certified, showing the actual receipt by teachers of their salaries, and of the Government grant included in such salaries.

Control and
Inspection.

5. Every such school shall be under the control and management of the local managers, but shall be subject to inspection by the Director, or a deputy appointed by the Administrator, who shall have the right of entering the school at any time during school hours, of examining into the state of the buildings and the school furniture, of ascertaining the progress of the children under instruction, and of enquiring generally into the efficiency of the school in regard to the locality in which it is placed, and of calling for such returns as he may require in order to obtain satisfactory information on these subjects.

School hours.

6. The ordinary school hours are to be computed at not less than four hours a day for five days a week. An attendance of more than two hours a day shall count as two attendances, and of less than two hours a day as one attendance.

Religious
Instruction.

7. (1) The first half hour of every morning after the hour of assembly shall be at the disposal of the ministers of recognised denominations for religious instruction of the children of such several denominations.

(2) Such ministers shall arrange with the managers or principal teachers as to the days upon which they will attend, and it shall be the duty of the principal to see that such arrangements are properly carried out.

(3) Children may at the request of their parents or guardians be exempted from religious teaching, and in such cases they shall during the above period receive such secular instruction as may be determined by the managers or principal.

(4) In case any minister shall on any day not attend at the appointed hour for religious instruction, the children usually attending such instruction shall during that period receive secular instruction in such subjects as may be determined by the principal.

8. The subjects of instruction shall be such as shall be determined from time to time by the Director, with the approval of the Administrator. Subjects of instruction.

9. The instruction during the ordinary school hours shall be given through the medium of the English language. Instruction in English language.

10. There shall be granted towards the cost of school requisites for every school subject to these regulations, such sum as shall be from time to time determined by the Director with the approval of the Administrator. Aid towards school requisites.

11. Where an evening class is held in connection with any school receiving aid under these regulations, a quarterly allowance of £1 shall be made in respect of every pupil receiving such instruction and making such number of attendances as shall be determined by the Director, with the approval of the Administrator. The Director may, with the approval of the Administrator, make such arrangements for the encouragement of evening schools with approved complete *curricula* as shall be deemed necessary in any locality. Aids to evening classes.

12. An additional annual grant not exceeding £4 may be made, by authority of the Administrator, in respect of every pupil who shall satisfy the Director that he or she has reached a certain standard of proficiency in the higher branches of education. The standard of proficiency and the requisite number of subjects shall be such as the Director may from time to time determine. Capitation grants may be made with the like authority with a view to encouraging special branches of study. Grants for extra subjects.

13. The numbers and lengths of holidays shall be such as shall be prescribed by the Administrator, but in no case shall the total period during which the school shall be open be less than thirty-eight weeks in each year. Holidays and terms.

14. The Administrator may appoint in each school one free scholar in respect of every £40 of the annual amount allowed from the public revenue in aid of such school, such appointments to be restricted to scholars who are unable from circumstances to pay the necessary school fees. Free scholars.

Order "B."—BOARDING SCHOOLS OR BOARDING DEPARTMENTS IN CONNECTION WITH PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Grants to Public Boarding Establishments.

1. There shall be granted to public boarding schools, or boarding departments in connection with public schools, annual grants restricted to a sum not exceeding £75 towards the salary of the superintendent (an equivalent amount being provided by the managers), and to a capitation allowance of not more than £20 towards the maintenance of each boy or girl boarded, and whose circumstances require such assistance towards his or her education.

Exceptions.

2. Except in special cases no grant shall be given in consideration of a boarder whose parents or guardians do not reside in Southern Rhodesia, or who lives less than three miles from any public school, or who is not a *bona fide* boarder attending school.

Conditions of grants to Boarding Establishments.

3. No grant to a boarding school or department can be given unless the Director is satisfied that :—

- (1) such boarding school or department is necessary in the district.
- (2) the sanitary conditions are satisfactory, the accommodation is sufficient, and that the arrangements for carrying on the institution are satisfactory in every respect.
- (3) that the number of boarders warrants the existence of the establishment.

Amount of grant.

4. The amount of grant which will depend on the state of efficiency of the boarding house, shall be such as may be recommended by the Director and approved by the Administrator.

Appointment and duties of Managers of Boarding Establishments.

5. The rules relating to the appointment and duties of managers of public schools shall apply to managers of boarding houses.

Clause 3 of Order "A" may be applied to Superintendents of Boarding Schools.

6. The provisions of Clause 3 of Order "A" may with the approval of the Administrator be applied to Superintendents of Boarding Schools.

Order "C."—SCHOOLS FOR COLOURED CHILDREN.

Grants to Coloured Schools.

1. An annual grant to schools for coloured children restricted to a sum not exceeding £90 per teacher per annum (an equivalent amount being provided by the managers) may be made on condition that the Director is satisfied that :—

- (1) such a school is necessary in the locality ;
- (2) the attendance is satisfactory and the accommodation sufficient ;
- (3) the arrangements for carrying on the school are satisfactory in every respect ;
- (4) encouragement is given as much as possible to handiwork.

Amount of grant.

2. The amount of grant, which will depend on the state of efficiency of the school, shall be such in amount as shall be recommended by the Director and approved by the Administrator,

3. A further grant for school requisites in accordance with section 10 in Order "A" of these Regulations may be made. Grants in aid of school requisites.
4. The rules applying to managers of public schools shall apply to managers of Coloured Schools. Appointment and duties of Managers.
5. The provisions of clause 3 of Order "A" may with the approval of the Administrator be applied to teachers in schools for coloured children. Clause 3 of Order "A" may be applied to teachers of schools for coloured children.

Order "D."—SCHOOLS FOR NATIVES,

1. An annual grant may be made in aid of schools for natives on condition that the Director shall be satisfied that :— Grants to Native Schools.
- (1) There are at least forty pupils who have attended 150 days of four hours during the year ;
 - (2) industrial work is systematically taught ;
 - (3) the pupils are taught to speak and understand the English language ;
 - (4) the pupils are taught habits of discipline and cleanliness ;
 - (5) the institution is carried on in every respect in a satisfactory manner.
2. The amount of grant shall depend on the efficiency of the school, but shall in no case exceed £125 per annum, and shall be subject to the approval of the Administrator. Amount of grant.

Regulations applying to all Grants.

1. With regard to any or all of the grants mentioned in Orders "A," "B," "C," and "D," the Administrator may, upon being satisfied that any school or boarding house is being conducted in an unsatisfactory manner, in any particular whatsoever, withhold the whole or any portion of any grant. General condition of grants.

Order "B."

1. If it is found that it is impossible to establish a school under these regulations in any locality where a school seems a necessity, or it is desirable to establish schools of a kind not already existing in any locality, and which would not exist but for the initiative of the Government, it shall be in the power of the Administrator to sanction the establishment of any such schools and to provide for the maintenance thereof wholly from Public Funds. Erection of schools by Government.
2. Should it seem advisable to enter into any other arrangement with any community or board of managers in order to secure the establishment or maintenance of a school, it shall be lawful for the Administrator to make such agreement with such community or board of managers as may appear to him equitable and in keeping with the spirit of these Regulations. Special Arrangements for the establishment of schools.

Order "F."—BUILDING LOANS.

Condition on which Moneys will be advanced to certain Schools for Building Purposes.

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| Advance-
ment of
loans. | 1. The Administrator, if satisfied upon the recommendation of the Director, that a school is needed for the educational requirements of any locality may, on application made to him through the Education Department, advance on loan from the Public Funds on the conditions in the next succeeding clause mentioned, such amount of money as shall be requisite to cover the cost of erecting on land to be provided by the British South Africa Company, buildings for the purposes of a Public School, or Boarding School, or Boarding Department, with the necessary offices or any one or more of these; provided that the Administrator may require that a sufficient guarantee shall be furnished by the managers of the school for the regular payment of interest on the amount so advanced. |
| Rate of
interest. | 2. The sum of money so provided and advanced shall bear interest at the rate of £10 per £100 per annum, of which interest one-half shall be paid out of the Public Funds provided for educational purposes. |
| Redemption
of loan. | 3. After the regular payment of interest for a period of fifteen years, the principal amount shall be held to have been redeemed, and the land and buildings thereon shall be vested in the managers of the school, to be held by them in perpetuity for educational purposes, and to be subject to the requirements or provisions of any law relating to education. |
| Earlier re-
payment. | 4. Should it be the wish of the managers to pay off the principal sum and interest before the expiry of fifteen years, the amount to be refunded at any particular date shall be such as shall be then arranged. |
| Mortgage of
buildings. | 5. Should the school buildings be on the property of the body whom the managers represent, the owners thereof shall execute in favour of the British South Africa Company a first mortgage bond upon such property, which bond shall be discharged when the whole of principal and interest shall have been paid in the manner aforesaid. |
| Sale of school
buildings or
lands. | 6. Should it at any time be deemed expedient or for the benefit of the community that any school buildings and lands should be sold or otherwise disposed of, such sale or disposal may be authorised by the Administrator on such terms and conditions as he may deem desirable. |

Order "G."—GENERAL.

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| Contribu-
tion towards
rent school
buildings. | 1. As often as the managers of any school receiving aid by way of maintenance in accordance with these Regulations shall take any building on lease for school purposes, the Administrator may, if satisfied from the report of the Director that such lease is necessary, and that the rental is fair and reasonable, contribute from the Public Funds towards defraying such rental such sum as he may determine. |
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NOTE ON EDUCATION IN THE EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE.

The development of the East Africa Protectorate, rapid though it has been during the last few years, has as yet scarcely reached a stage sufficiently advanced to admit of the Administration taking an active part in educating the native population. This most useful and important work is at present in the hands of the various missionary societies, which practically place an elementary education within the reach of all natives who desire it,—a very small proportion, it need scarcely be said. A scheme for a more advanced training is now being initiated by the Church Missionary Society, and when this is in working order an opportunity will arise for fostering and encouraging its development by the grant of scholarships or by such other means as the Government may find it possible to employ.

An indirect stimulus is, no doubt, given by the possibility of obtaining the various posts, such as clerkships and interpreterships, which fall vacant from time to time in the Government Service, and it is hoped that as time goes on it will become more and more possible to fill these situations with Africans rather than with natives of India. Two Arab boys, one from East Africa and the other from Zanzibar, are at present being educated in Cairo, at the Government expense, with a view to their becoming interpreters, and it would be unnecessary to send students so far away in the event of increased facilities being provided within the Protectorate itself by any of the various missionary societies.

Of these bodies, the Church Missionary Society is devoting most attention to educational work, and has already established Elementary, Final, and Higher Grade Schools. Their present idea is to give a simple education in reading, writing, arithmetic, and scripture to the poorer children, who have to begin to do field work at about ten or twelve years old. Those who are cleverer, and do not have to leave school so early, pass on to the Higher, and in some cases to the Final Grades, while the Society's scheme embraces Normal and Divinity Schools for still more advanced students.

Children begin to attend school at about five years old and continue up to fifteen if able to do so, but those destined for scholastic work and for the pastorate remain some years longer.

To some extent apart from this system, but connected with it, is a scheme for industrial training, to which the Society is now giving a special prominence, an agent of the Industrial Mission, Mr. Harrison, having been brought out for the purpose. Under his supervision instruction is being given in brick and tile-making, and it is hoped that this may be extended to the cotton and fibre industries.

School boys have also in the past been trained at Freretown as carpenters, cooks, blacksmiths, masons, interpreters, dispensers, etc., and many of them hold responsible positions in Government or private employment, while girls are taught laundry and housework.

The other missionary societies, Roman Catholic, Wesleyan, and Lutheran, do a certain amount of educational work, but not on the same scale, and it has not been possible to obtain much information about them.

Replying *seriatim* to the special questions asked in the Board of Education's despatch of May 7th, 1902, it may be stated:—

- (1) That the Government does not at present extend any financial aid to schools educating natives, nor have any regulations been framed in this connection.
- (2) The work of education is at present carried on by the missionary societies, the teachers being both European and native. Industrial subjects have so far been taught by Europeans only.
- (3) Technical education has, so far as can be judged, a good effect on the moral character and economic efficiency of the native.
- (4) The whole educational system is in an embryonic stage, and it is impossible to say how far industrial and literary education can be combined for African natives.
- (5) Very little skilled white labour is employed in East Africa, so there would be no objection on the part of Europeans to the training of natives as mechanics. The class with whom such trained natives would come into competition would be natives of India; but Africans have not yet proved capable of reaching the standard of skill attained by the latter.

In conclusion, I would venture to anticipate that in a few years' time, when experience will have shown how far the various experiments which are now being tried are suitable or otherwise to local requirements, it will be possible to report much more fully and comprehensively on the educational system of East Africa than is the case at present.

MOMBASA,

November 24th, 1903.

[This information was obtained through the Foreign Office in response to a request from the Board of Education.]

EDUCATION

IN

UGANDA.

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EDUCATION IN UGANDA.

The three following reports were obtained in August, 1902, in answer to an official inquiry addressed by the Foreign Office to His Majesty's Commissioner at Entebbe, at the request of the Board of Education. The following are the questions which were submitted by the Board:—

- (1) What regulations, if any, have been laid down by Government in respect of native education? Does Government give any financial aid to schools educating natives? If so, on what terms?
- (2) Has anything been done to provide industrial or agricultural education for natives? If so, what are the courses of instruction? Are the teachers of such subjects Europeans? Have they been specially trained in the work of teaching? If so, how and where? Have native teachers of industrial and agricultural subjects been tried? If so, have they succeeded?
- (3) Does it appear that such industrial or agricultural education is having good effects (1) on the character of the natives receiving it; (2) on their economic efficiency? At what age does such technical education in industry or agriculture begin? In the earlier stages of general education (i.e., before the commencement of specifically technical education) is manual training made a feature of the curriculum? If so, with what results?
- (4) Can such industrial and agricultural education be successfully combined with instruction of a more literary and general character? If so, to what degree has such a combination proved desirable?
- (5) Is there any opposition on the part of any sections of the white population to the provision for natives of a kind of education which might enable the natives to compete effectively with skilled white labour in various industrial occupations?

I. SOCIÉTÉ DES MISSIONNAIRES D'AFRIQUE.*

PÈRES BLANCS.

VICARIAT APOSTOLIQUE DU NYANZA SEPTENTRIONAL.

RUBAGA,

June 28th, 1902.

I.

To your first question with regard to "Industrial Education given to natives," I think that the most trustworthy, and hence the most satisfactory, answer will be afforded by submitting to you a very brief description of the works which the Baganda have been enabled to execute, thanks to the teaching they have received from us; they are of a kind of which they had no idea whatever before our arrival.

We have sixteen mission stations established in the area of the Protectorate. The houses, churches, schools and annexes are all built of stone or brick. The carpentry is European in character; the doors are either made of plain boards or are panelled; the furniture is made of finished wood work. Of our churches three are distinguished by their size (they are 72 metres in length and 24 metres in breadth), by the boldness of their construction, and by their slender colonnades, 10 metres in height, and supporting a massive wooden superstructure.

The whole of the masonry, carpentry and joinery is the work of natives brought up by the White Fathers. The work of the missionaries has been limited to directing the operations.

A certain number of the great chiefs of Uganda, Koki, Toru and Unyoro now possess spacious and comfortable houses of brick, of which several have more than a single storey. The architects and builders for every one of these houses have been native Catholics taught their trade by the White Fathers.

The services of our apprentices are appreciated not only by the native chiefs, but also by the officials of the Protectorate Government, and we shall always be happy when, as in Buddu and in Toru, we are asked by the representatives of His Britannic Majesty to build them living houses of a kind more comfortable than huts of reeds.

II.

While the Baganda have a great liking for adventure and travel, they have very little for a secluded life in the country; their aptitude for commerce and industry is as great as their aptitude for agriculture is small. Hitherto tillage has been the work of women, and the men will only overcome their disgust for manual labour of this kind when they find an easy and lucrative market for their agricultural products.

* This paper was originally submitted in French. This translation has been prepared for the Special Enquiries Office of the Board of Education,

To a people accustomed from time immemorial to require from their fertile soil nothing more than their daily food, the first, the most eloquent and the most persuasive lesson in agriculture should be the lesson of example; the proverb says, "Verba volant, exempla trahunt." Our agricultural education for the natives has consisted in the example afforded by assiduous work carried on with method and continuity.

Each mission station has its kitchen garden, its orchard, its plantations of corn, rice, etc. Vegetables and fruit, varied according to the season, are never wanting to the table of the mission, and form an excellent supplement to European preserves which we [ourselves] never use.* The orchards, gardens and plantations of different kinds are kept up by the natives, who know the proper seed and harvest times, and understand perfectly the precautions that are necessary to ensure the success of the crops. It is sixteen years since we first imported from Zanzibar and Algeria mango-trees, papayas, orange trees and lemon trees, and the White Fathers were the first to rear fruit from these trees in Uganda. Since Sir Harry Johnston gave us proprietary rights we have used every effort to make the lands given to us yield a good return.

During the past six months—*i.e.*, from January 1st to the present date—5,000 coffee plants have been planted at our stations on the Sese Islands and in Buddu; the teachers have received orders to plant cotton fields in the lands belonging to their respective stations, containing as a minimum number [for the whole of the stations] 60,000 cotton trees, of which the produce is intended to cover the three rupee Hut Tax. In addition to the fruit trees and ornamental trees left to the private enterprise of the Superior of each station, 5,000 eucalyptus and nsambya trees have been planted by order of the Chief of the Mission, which in four years will yield excellent wood for building purposes.

This amount of work in the way of opening up the land and of plantation executed within the space of six months by means of native labour alone will be sufficient to show you, Mr. Commissioner, what may be expected from us in the colonisation of the country, and you will be pleased to see in these first attempts a proof of the zeal which we shall continue to display in our efforts to instil into the Baganda a liking for agriculture.

You desire information, Mr. Commissioner, regarding the character and competency of our European instructors. In the Society of the White Fathers, of which one section is now evangelising Uganda, the ecclesiastical Fathers depute to auxiliary Lay Brothers all mechanical labour. Fathers and Brothers, however, constitute one single Society, towards which they undertake the same obligations. The auxiliary Brothers consist entirely of persons who before becoming members of the Society have learned some trade,

* The text reads, "suppléent très avantageusement aux conserves européennes dont nous n'usons jamais," but probably this is a slip for "remplacent très avantageusement les conserves," etc.

many of them—although they may have possessed no diploma—being already masters of their craft. After taking their vows in the congregation, they have perfected their technical education in the flourishing and justly renowned *Ecole des Arts et Métiers*, founded by the White Fathers at Thibar in Tunis.

We have no Trade School (*école professionnelle*), properly so called, in Uganda. But each assistant Brother teaches the youths who wish to learn, at the school of the station assigned to him, so that we have as many schools for the purpose as there are assistant Brothers—that is, eight. Apprentices come to us entirely of their own accord—they enter into no engagement and receive no payment except food and clothes, and are quite free to leave the school when they choose and then to set up on their own account.

III.

This system of industrial and agricultural education, which teaches the Baganda to work with their hands and to make use of the natural gifts with which God has endowed them, will be undoubtedly of great benefit not only to individuals and their families, but, if certain precautions are taken, to the cause of social order generally in Uganda. For work ennobles a man by raising him in his own esteem and in the esteem of his fellow countrymen; and just as idleness begets poverty and vice and ruins a country, so persevering work brings with it comfort and contentment into the homes, and tends to repeople a country of which, as in Uganda, the population is diminishing.

I used above the phrase “if certain precautions are taken”; for if after learning a trade the Baganda are left to themselves by the European or Indian masters in whose service they work, if their moral welfare is neglected and they are not definitely encouraged to fulfil their religious duties, what has happened only too often before will happen again; the negroes, dazzled by all that they see of a civilisation with which they are still unfamiliar, will allow themselves to be ruined morally by their fellow workmen, largely composed of Swahili Mussulman converts from the coast. They will spend the fruit of their labour on the purchase of trifles, or, worse, on debauchery, instead of devoting their weekly or monthly pay to the betterment of their own condition, to comforts for their families, to the purchase of a small flock of cattle or goats, etc., as they ought to and might have done. Thus unless we care for their morals, what should have been a source of social well-being and comfort will become a source of degradation.

IV.

The Baganda are regarded as the most intelligent of the negro races of Africa. In my opinion, this reputation is deserved; and I have no doubt that they are susceptible of receiving a careful literary training. I have been led to this belief by the results

obtained in our school for special studies at Kisubi, where our young negro pupils, initiated into the mysteries of Uganda grammar, discuss the grammatical difficulties of the language with a great sense of accuracy, and show themselves capable of grasping metaphysical proofs of fairly abstruse theological positions.

To what point it may be possible to push their education I cannot precisely say, but it seems to me that if we begin teaching the children at an early age and make a judicious choice of the most intelligent, that these could be trained to any of the careers open to persons who have received a complete course of elementary education (in our own country).

V.

When Mr. Tomkins, Sub-Commissioner at Kampala, communicated to me his plan of making youths of sixteen spend a year's apprenticeship at a Technical School (*École des Arts et Métiers*), three months ago, I replied as follows:—

“As soon as the Government of the Protectorate opens a Technical School (*École des Arts et Métiers*), under the direction of European or Indian teachers, paid by Government, and unconnected with missionary work, our Catholic youths will be happy to be admitted to it, and will attend its courses assiduously. But so long as there is in Uganda only a [technical] school of the kind founded at Namirembe by the C.M.S., a school under the immediate and exclusive control of the Protestant Mission, I shall feel bound as a Catholic Bishop to continue to forbid my converts (*mes chrétiens*) to attend it.”

My present convictions are identical with those I expressed three months ago, and are as unalterable as the conscientious scruples on which they are based.

VI.

The reports from my sixteen mission stations giving exact details with regard to the work of the year will not reach me till the first part of August. In these annual reports much space is always given to the educational work. I greatly regret that your announcement that it would be useless to send this communication later than July 1st does not allow me to wait for these reports before writing. I regret still more that the nearness of this date does not even allow of my writing to the Superiors of these stations in time to receive an answer from them.

In these circumstances, and in the absence of the detailed information necessary to give an account of the results obtained at the present date by our system of education, I beg to submit a copy of a report on the same subject, addressed two years since to Sir Harry Johnston; these pages will inform you of the progress and condition of our schools two years ago. The number of schools and of scholars quoted are those of last year; hence

these figures are very probably less than those that will be yielded by the statistics for the present year, which are to appear in the report I shall send to the General Superior of the Society of the White Fathers.

† HENRI STREICHER,
ev. tab. Vic. Ap. Nyanza.

ENCLOSURE,

Instruction in the Catholic Schools of Uganda.

As soon as they arrived in Uganda the Catholic missionaries began their work of teaching, and their first hut was devoted to found a school in which poor children rescued from slavery, in the first instance, and later, free children, received lessons in good behaviour, in manual training on a carefully thought out system, and in reading and writing.

* * * * *

From the year 1893, under the influence of peace, which was then re-established, and the tranquillity assured to the country under English government, the schools have multiplied. The foundation of new mission stations has implied the foundation of new schools for manual training and schools for primary teaching. These latter schools have succeeded so well that it has been necessary to establish two at each station. The schools under the personal direction of our missionaries a short time ago amounted to twenty-three in number.* The schools all teach reading, writing and singing, and we are gradually introducing English, geography and arithmetic.

The education of the girls suffered for a long time from the want of women teachers, but the arrival of nuns in Uganda finally put an end to the difficulty. The nuns have a very large establishment at Rubaga, including both an asylum school for the youngest children and a girls' school, where the girls receive an education suitable to their age and condition. It is to be hoped that later, with the help of native women teachers, the number of their schools will be increased. Meanwhile their example alone has been fruitful, for at Villa Mariya [Maria], a Uganda woman, formerly the head of a household, has begun to teach with much success, by copying the example of the nuns as best she could, and each day gathers round her some 250 women and girls.†

I have spoken, so far, only of the schools established at the mission stations. There are, besides these, more than 700 schools established in the villages and working regularly. Hitherto only

* The number of pupils in these schools amounted last year to 2,836. In the present year, 1902, the number received so far has been 3,617, and we hope that the census about to be taken in July will show a figure even higher than this.

† A school has just been established at the Villa Mariya Mission during the present year, 1902, with four nuns as teachers who have come from Europe. They found about 400 pupils waiting for them.

reading has been taught in these schools, but we hope to raise the level of their teaching rapidly, by assembling the teachers at regular intervals to receive instruction.*

But the educational institution from which we expect the greatest results is the little seminary at Kisubi. The results, indeed, have already passed the limits of simple anticipation, although the progress of the institution has been very slow owing to the illness of the missionaries in charge when it was first established, and to the famine of recent years.

Until recently the number of students who devoted their whole time to study varied from sixty to seventy. Last year we were obliged to limit the numbers for the time being to thirty-five, precisely on account of the famine, which inflicted on us serious injury.† The students at Kisubi come from all parts of Uganda, Unyoro and Toru. These youths have considerable powers which we do our best to cultivate. Their memory is excellent. We develop this faculty by giving them lessons which we require them to learn accurately by heart, and, as a matter of fact, the way in which they recite them would serve as an example to the majority of European youths. Their intelligence is as a rule particularly capable in certain studies which lie more especially within their scope; for instance, in grammar and arithmetic.

Of course, the first ideas of grammar given to them were those of their own language, and they were given in their own language; our purpose was in the first instance to give their minds that intellectual gymnastics of which the want makes itself irreparably felt in persons who have grown up without having gone through exercises of this kind. It is a great delight to us to see that by means of this study a capacity for analysis and synthesis is developed in the Baganda children, and that they acquire the habit of methodical reflection. It is not overbold to say that really philosophic minds are already to be divined among them. In fact our first results seem to show that there is no limit to what we may expect from the people of Uganda.

The study of the grammar of their own language (which is by no means a savage language) has the further advantage of preparing the pupils for the methodical and intelligent study of other languages, and especially of Latin and English.

Although the language of the Baganda is an extremely rich one, and one capable of expressing abstract ideas, it has hitherto possessed no grammatical terms. We might have introduced into the language terms simply borrowed from our European languages, and this would indeed have been the easiest course to follow. But our affection for a language which we have spoken for so many years has led us to make use, for this purpose, of native roots and of

* During the present year thirty-four of these village schools have been improved in character.

† At the opening of the last session the number of these pupils rose to forty-five.

the methods of word-formation of this fine language [*en suivant les analogies de cette belle langue*] so as to obtain terms corresponding as nearly as possible in etymological meaning with their [logical] definitions.

To compose a grammar of a language so different from Western languages in the language itself was no easy thing; and we have devoted to the task many long hours [weekly] for many years. But we have not yet ventured to print our grammar, because our growing knowledge of the language has forced us to modify our work continually. Hence the pupils have been obliged so far to study our grammar in their own manuscript copies. We hope, however, soon to go to press.

Our pupils further receive regular lessons in Latin, English and Kiswahili [Swahili]. In a little seminary we could not omit the language of the Church. In a country under the British flag, English was bound to take an important place in our work. And finally the already frequent relations with the coast of the Indian Ocean are about to be multiplied so greatly by the opening of the railway, which will bring the Swahili country to within three or four days' journey, that a knowledge of its language has become necessary. It is the most widely-spoken language in Eastern Africa.

The language is mere child's play for Baganda of a studious disposition. Latin and English are, of course, much more difficult for them, but they display considerable taste for them; some pupils even become troublesome in their demand to be taught new words and expressions.

Of the sciences properly so-called we only teach them arithmetic, and give them a little treatise to copy out, which we hope to print, perhaps even before the grammar.

The composition of good text-books in the language of our pupils involves much difficulty and the want of such books forms the greatest obstacle to the progress of our teaching.

From our little printing press we have only issued a Syllabary* and a modest Geography of eighty-nine pages. And we are sorry to have printed our book too soon to be able to make use in it of the notion of a mile as a measure of distance, which has been introduced into the country by Sir Harry Johnston and acquired recently by the Baganda.

On the walls of our classroom, for use with our Geography Text-book, we have hung large maps, bought in England, and, in order to avoid confusion in the minds of the Baganda children, we have kept in the textbook, as far as possible, to the English spelling of geographical names, a spelling which, as a matter of fact, is identical as a rule with that used in the language of each country.

Hitherto we have given but little room in our school to the accomplishments, which must wait till the general level of studies

* This provisional syllabary has been replaced by a new edition and by diagrams for reading, printed in Europe.

has been raised. The only exception has been made for music. All the children learn singing, and receive frequent lessons in solfeggio. But we must confess that so far the Baganda have shown themselves less gifted for vocal music than the majority of their neighbours. In instrumental music they do better. They themselves possess instruments of remarkable precision, with which they provide accompaniments not wanting in beauty to their monotonous songs; and they learn the horn, the flute and the harmonium with great ease. Several of them play the harmonium in our churches to accompany the singing.

A word or two on our sports. They form not only an agreeable but a useful supplement to our work. We have set up a gymnastic apparatus in a place specially allotted to it with rings, trapeze, knotted rope, parallel bars, etc. The children there develop the muscles of their vigorous bodies, to keep pace with the development of their mental faculties. In the large playgrounds, and sometimes on the turf near, they play at football and at prisoners' base, which suit the warlike spirit of the Baganda excellently. Such games compensate their limbs for the confinement of the classroom, and give a happy satisfaction to natures spiced with gunpowder.* On the lake, of which a deep bay, continued by a canal a kilometer in length, brings the waters to within ten minutes of our school, they delight in practising with the *pagua*, under the care of some old Basese, true sea-dogs, who know all the rocks in the lake, and all the hippopotamus, which form so terrible a danger for small boats.

Within an enclosure which keeps off the crocodiles they learn swimming, an exercise which most of those who live near the Nyanza are deprived of owing to the ferocity of these amphibians.

May I terminate this already over long account of our work by expressing a wish affecting within the narrow limits of our own sphere of action, both the happiness of the people of Baganda, to which we have given up our life, and the glory of the great nation which to our intense joy has brought its inexhaustible activity to bear on a field that was exhausting our feeble resources.

I say that our feeble resources were being exhausted; our pupils not only received from us the teaching, of which details have been given above, but we have to bear the expense of their food, lodging, clothing, books and stationery. Thus they look to us for everything; moral training, intellectual training, the means of material existence.

Among the unexpected hindrances to our work I have mentioned the illness of our missionaries, and famine. A permanent hindrance is the difficulty of completing our buildings on a scale proportionate to the work. With all our efforts we have scarcely succeeded in erecting a third of the buildings necessary for our schools, and even those erected are hardly designed to satisfy our

* The French reads "*pétrie de salpêtre*"; the translator has ventured to modify the metaphor slightly.

permanent requirements. The private charity which provides not our salaries, for we have none, but our bare livelihood, our buildings, and the food for our pupils, for which none are able themselves to pay, is disseminated over too many objects throughout the whole world.

Our wish is this, not that we should work less strenuously than in the past, but only that the great and intelligent nation which has undertaken the work of civilising Uganda with such vigour, may do us the honour to help us, and add to its other benefits that of assisting the educative and civilising work now being carried on at Kisubi.

N.B.—The above report was drawn up by the Rev. Father Marcou, Superior of our school at Kisubi, and I desire to express my entire approval of the report.

(Signed) HENRI STREICHER.

II. THE CHURCH MISSIONARY SOCIETY.

(i) *Industrial Training of Natives in Uganda at the C.M.S. Industrial Mission at Mengo.*

In the year 1899 the Church Missionary Society established an Industrial Mission at Mengo, for the purpose of affording boys and young men of Uganda an opportunity to be trained in handicrafts of civilised nations.

The handicrafts in which the natives of this Protectorate have received instruction under the superintendence of the Industrial Mission comprise house carpentry, joinery, wood-turning, printing, bookbinding, brickmaking, bricklaying and house building. It has not been possible for the Industrial Mission to give instruction in agriculture, chiefly because in its present position it possesses no land.

Boys wishing to be taught printing and joinery are apprenticed to these trades for three years. The printers receive an all-round training, so that after three years spent in our printing office a boy should be a practical compositor, pressman and bookbinder, but the results of our teaching vary according to the intelligence and the effort various boys bring to bear upon their work. The same holds true about woodworkers. Those apprenticed for three years live upon the premises of the Industrial Mission, and they receive daily instruction in writing and arithmetic besides in their trades. We accept no one as an indentured apprentice who is unable to read, and therefore do not teach elementary reading. Nor, on the other hand, has it proved possible hitherto to introduce more advanced subjects than writing and arithmetic to be taught, together with the handicrafts mentioned, within the three years.

Brickmakers, bricklayers and house builders do not come for training for any certain period. Bricklayers and builders we train on the houses which we erect, and at the present time six buildings are being erected under the superintendence of the Industrial Mission. They comprise dwelling houses, workshops, a public hall and a cathedral. The number of men and boys at present working under the superintendence of the Industrial Mission is more than 300.

The teachers of the above-named industries are Europeans. It has not hitherto been possible to train natives as teachers of industries, though it is being aimed at. The present staff of the Industrial Mission consists of the superintendent and his assistant, both being practical business men. They have not been especially trained for their present work, but the business experience of the superintendent both in Europe and America has been such that he has special qualifications for conducting such work.

Boys are not accepted for technical instruction at an earlier age than between fourteen and fifteen years. The effect of such training upon their characters is varied. In some cases it seems to have made them so self-satisfied and unreasonable that it has been impossible to have further dealings with them after their period of training, but the great majority of cases have proved satisfactory, and in many cases their training has created in them a real liking for their work.

There has been no opposition on the part of the white population of this Protectorate to the industrial education of the natives, but it has rather received encouragement from that quarter, as the present white population of this Protectorate is not a competitor in industrial occupations.

The present Industrial Mission of the C.M.S. in this Protectorate is in a state of transition. The site which it now occupies having been found too small and unsuited to its work, it has rented a large piece of land from one of the native chiefs, on which land, on the lake shore not far from Mengo, it is at the present time rebuilding its workshops and dwelling houses. It is contemplated that agriculture shall be taught as well as industrial pursuits when the work shall have been reorganised at the new site.

K. BORUP, Superintendent.

The Industrial Mission, Mengo, Uganda,

June 18th, 1902.

R. H. WALKER,

C.M.S., Namirembe.

(ii.) General Instruction.

It has been the custom of the Church Missionary Society in Uganda to insist on all natives coming to them for instruction learning to read.*

The result of this has been the creation of a great desire on the part of the many for further instruction, and especially of late years much zeal has been shown in learning writing, arithmetic, geography and English.

The aptitude of the Waganda is shown by the fact that several youths attending school have in three years' time become adepts at figures, and are able to do anything in exchange, and difficult problems introducing vulgar fractions in rupee coinage or £. s. d. They write a good hand, and are able to converse fairly well in English, and have passed examinations in Bible subjects with as good results as those obtained by boys of their own age in England.

They make excellent teachers, and whilst not good at introducing new methods, are very good imitators.

Their education has a marked effect in making them more careful as to their personal appearance and cleanliness in habits.

They are very ambitious, and are capable of being taught anything.

Given the same educational opportunities and the chance of position, there is no reason whatever why the Waganda should not in time compete with Europeans, but there is no likelihood of this for a considerable number of years. They are too poor to pay for an education in England.

Under our present system we have elementary schools throughout the country. In these reading, writing, geography, Scripture and other subjects are taught. All candidates for baptism are required to know how to read intelligently at least two Gospels. For confirmation a further and higher standard must be attained. Most of the schools are under the charge of natives, though again in most instances supervised by Europeans. Boys of more than ordinary capacity and of good character are sent up from the various local schools to the principal school in Mengo. In this there are some 500 pupils, of all ages and ranks; many of the leading chiefs employing their spare time here bettering their education. Here a boarding house has been established for boys of known capacity and character, desirous of becoming teachers. Special attention is paid to these, and as pupil teachers in the main school they are trained to teach under the eye of the European headmaster. When considered to be fully qualified, they receive the necessary certificate, and are sent into the country districts to superintend the local schools. Besides these elementary schools, classes for the training of evangelists are held in the various

* "An excellent Grammar of the Luganda Language, with an English-Luganda and Luganda-English vocabulary in the Appendix, has lately been brought out by the Church Missionary Society."—(General Report on the Uganda Protectorate for the year ending March 31, 1903. Cd. 1839.)

centres. The standard of subjects and of examination varies in different places, but men, who, after passing the local examinations, have proved themselves capable and conscientious workers amongst the people, are sent up to Mengo. Here they are trained for a year in the Gospels, three of four Epistles, and some selected books of the Old Testament, also in the Prayer Book, Thirty-nine Articles, and in necessary secular subjects.

At the close of this year they have to pass an examination in these subjects, and are then sent into the country districts to teach them. They return after two years for further training, to refresh their memories, and thus spend two years in teaching and every third in being taught.

Lastly, there is the training of the ordination candidates. This is much fuller and more thorough, but of course the number of men so trained is comparatively small. The girls' and women's education is carried on on much the same lines as that of the men, but is not quite so fully developed, but nearly so. It ought, perhaps, to be added that English is taught with good results in several centres. The Waganda are quick to pick up the rules of the language, and to master a large vocabulary, but pronunciation to them is a very great difficulty, coming into contact as they do with few Europeans.

R. H. WALKER,
C.M.S., Namirembe, Uganda.

III. THE NSAMBYA MISSION.

CONDUCTED BY THE MILL HILL (LONDON) FATHERS, UNDER THE
RIGHT REV. BISHOP HANLON.

REPLIES TO QUESTIONS.

1. *What has been done in regard to industrial training of the natives?*

Each of our mission stations (twelve in number) is an industrial institution in itself, where the native Baganda and Basoga are taught the different trades, viz., brick-making (sun-dried and burnt), bricklaying, carpentry, working in iron, road-making, tailoring.

2. *What has been done in regard to agricultural training?*

We help and teach the native to plant wheat, rice and European vegetables. We, personally, however, find that the native succeeds better with the wheat. Rice has not been so successful, at least with us. Among European vegetables we find that the natives succeed most with peas, beans and potatoes. They are also very successful in cultivating the onion. Cabbage, cauliflower, carrots, turnips, celery, water-melon, radish, lettuce, we confine to our own

private kitchen-gardens, cultivated by natives under the direction of the Fathers.

(With regard to our kitchen-gardens, so far we have not succeeded in getting seed, and so find it necessary to get a new supply each year from Europe. Our experience is, that the seed, obtained from the European article, deteriorates and is altogether inferior to the original)

We are also extensively engaged in teaching the native and personally directing him in the cultivation and extraction of rubber. Native coffee and cotton also are attended to, with great success.

3. *Does it appear that such industrial or agricultural education is having good effects on the character of the natives receiving it?*

Certainly, it is teaching them habits of diligence to which, formerly, they were altogether strangers. We found the native, with whom we have had to deal, only taken up with the care of his bark-cloth tree, and the building of his bee-hive hut. We had great difficulty in the beginning to get him to keep to his work, morning and afternoon. His idea was to work a few hours in the morning and spend the rest of the day in idleness.

At what age does such technical education begin?

About fourteen years of age.

4. *Can such instruction of an industrial and agricultural nature be successfully combined with instruction of a more literary and general character?*

Yes, at least with the young generation. They are anxious to learn the ordinary elements and, when occasion offers, to work. We find the native most anxious to receive elementary education in reading, writing and arithmetic. Some are sufficiently educated to be given charge of the elementary classes. Those amongst our pupils, who are well versed in reading and writing their native language, are selected and formed into a special class and taught English every day.

5. *Is there any opposition on the part of any sections of the white population to the provision for natives of a kind of education which might enable the natives to compete effectively with skilled white labour in various industrial occupations?*

We have no skilled white labour at our command, hence we do not consider this question to be applicable to Baganda or Basoga, as far as we are concerned.

**THE
SYSTEM OF EDUCATION
IN
MAURITIUS.**

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The first draft of this report was prepared for the Board of Education by the authorities of the Mauritius Department of Public Instruction. Later information supplied by the Colonial Office or contained in the Reports of the Governor to the Secretary of State for the Colonies has been incorporated in the report at the Office of Special Enquiries and Reports of the Board of Education.

THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN MAURITIUS.*

I. SECONDARY EDUCATION.

Previous to the year 1800, the French Government of Mauritius Historical Sketch. allowed education to be conducted by private individuals, without any control; but a Resolution of the 14th May in that year determined that "public instruction should be put under the superintendence of a Commission, composed of five members," who were also to take the direction of a school then commenced, and which was named "Ecole Centrale." This was the origin of the Royal College.

Some unimportant changes were made in the management of this school during the first two or three years of its existence; and Captain-General Decaen, when he assumed the government, confirmed the establishment of the school by a decree of the 28th of October, 1803, and entrusted its superintendence, and also that of Public Instruction, to a "bureau d'administration générale," composed of three "titulaires" and one "suppléant." He also changed the name from "Ecole Centrale" to that of "Lycée des Isles de France et Bourbon."

On the 12th September, 1806, General Decaen determined, owing to a considerable increase in the number of pupils, on constructing a new edifice, the first stone of which was laid on the 7th of December, 1806, the anniversary of the Coronation of Napoleon and of the battle of Austerlitz.

For some months after the capture of the Island by the English in 1810 the Lycée was used as a military hospital, but soon afterwards was restored to its original destination.

On the 23rd April, 1811, General Warde, the Governor, issued a Proclamation changing the name of the Lycée to that of "Colonial College," and appointing a Committee for its internal management, as well as a Director of Public Instruction.

On the 27th of January, 1813, Sir Robert Farquhar, who returned from Bourbon and relieved General Warde, announced by a Proclamation that the Home Government had confirmed the establishment of the Colonial College as a public seminary; that the Prince Regent had been graciously pleased to take it under his especial protection and to authorise its being styled "The Royal College."

The number of Government pupils was, by this Proclamation, fixed at twenty; two-thirds of whom should be chosen from among

* Reports on Education in Mauritius and the Codes of Regulations and Conditions for State-aided schools for 1890 and 1902 can be seen at the Board of Education Library, St. Stephen's House, Cannon Row, Whitehall, London, S.W.

the families of the old Colonists. But a most important and useful regulation was also made, namely, that the two most distinguished scholars should be sent annually to England, at the expense of Government, to finish their education at one of the Universities. By this law public instruction was also placed under the direction of a "bureau d'administration générale"; and it was according to its regulations that education was conducted until the receipt of the Order in Council of 10th August, 1836. This Order in Council swept away the restrictions as to the opening of schools laid down in the decree of the 28th of October, 1803, and rendered it possible for any natural born or duly naturalised British subject to open and maintain any school for the education of youth in Mauritius, without the previous licence of the Governor and without the control of any Committee of Public Instruction.

An Ordinance passed the Council on the 10th of June, 1839, by which the Royal College and all Government schools were placed under an Education Committee composed of five members, and in 1840, for the first time, a graduate of a British University was appointed Rector of the Royal College.

The last-mentioned Ordinance was abrogated by that of No. 25 of 1857, by which the management of the Royal College was entrusted to a Committee, styled the "Education Committee," made up of seven members, and of which the Rector of the Royal College and the Superintendent of Schools were *ex-officio* members, it not being competent to the Committee to transact business unless one of the said *ex-officio* members was present. By this law the Education Committee were visitors of the Royal College, and were to co-operate generally with the Rector for promoting the welfare of the institution; but the internal discipline was entirely vested in the Rector. The Committee had the direction of all public examinations of the pupils, and the power of appointing public examiners for the purpose of conducting the same. The law further provided for the maintenance at the public charge of a certain number of boarders, half-boarders, and free scholars to be selected by the Governor. It also empowered the Governor to select the two most deserving scholars at the close of each yearly examination to be sent, at the expense of the Colony, to pursue their studies for four years at a British University, and to receive during such time an annual allowance of £200.

Owing to certain difficulties which had arisen between the Rector and the Education Committee, it became necessary, in 1860, to amend Ordinance 25 of 1857, and accordingly Ordinance 38 of 1860 was enacted by which the Education Committee was replaced by a Council of Education of twenty-two members, with two Standing Committees, called respectively the College Committee, with jurisdiction to attend to matters relating to the Royal College, and the Schools Committee, having powers to deal with matters concerning the Primary Schools, whether supported or aided by Government. The powers vested in the College Committee in regard to the Royal College had reference to the

framing of all rules and regulations for the institution ; the determining the curriculum, the text books to be used, the prizes to be awarded, and the conditions of competition for such prizes ; the superintending of all competitive examinations ; and the determining finally of all questions affecting the dismissal or rustication of pupils of the College. With the exception of the power of dismissal or rustication of pupils, the Rector was entrusted with preserving the discipline of the College.

By Ordinance No. 33 of 1899 the Council of Education has been abolished, and replaced by a Director of Public Instruction, with two Committees—one for superior instruction, made up of twelve members, two of whom are *ex-officio* members, one elected by the Managers of Associated Schools, one elected by the Managers of Girls' Schools, and the remaining eight chosen by the Governor ; the other Committee is for Primary Schools, and also composed of twelve members, one of whom is an *ex-officio* member, two are nominated by the Managers of the Roman Catholic Aided Schools, one by the Managers of the Protestant Aided Schools, and the remaining eight nominated by the Governor. Save in the case of the Director of Public Instruction, who is the chairman of both Committees, and of the Rector of the Royal College, who are the only *ex-officio* members, all the other nominations are renewable every year.

The Committee of Superior Instruction have power to make regulations dealing with (a) the administration and management of the Royal College ; (b) the association of schools with the Royal College, and the payment of result grants-in-aid thereto ; (c) a system of instruction in technical, agricultural and commercial education, and the programme and schedule of studies therein ; (d) the higher education of girls, and the programme and schedule of studies thereof, and the payment of result grants-in-aid ; (e) the award and tenure of scholarships and exhibitions ; (f) the fixing every year of the curriculum of studies for the Royal College and other Government educational institutions ; (g) the determining of the expulsion and rustication of Royal College pupils.

The Committee of Primary Instruction has power to make regulations dealing with (a) the government, discipline and routine work of all Primary Government and Grant-in-aid Schools ; (b) the attendance required to entitle a school to a grant-in-aid ; (c) the standards of attainment in the subjects of instruction taught in any school necessary to qualify the school to earn a grant-in-aid ; (d) the month of the annual examination of each school for a result grant ; (e) the conditions under which the annual examinations of schools for result grants shall be held ; (f) the qualifications to be required for the issue and classification of certificates to teachers, the cancellation, suspension or reduction of such certificates ; (g) the conditions under which schools shall be entitled to a grant-in-aid in respect to sufficient school-house accommodation, furniture and apparatus, and to the admission and attendance of scholars ; (h) the scale of salaries to be allowed to teachers according to the

class of certificate held by them ; (i) the scale of result grants to be paid to the teachers of schools for each child passing a satisfactory examination in the prescribed standards ; (j) the manner in which and the conditions under which all salaries and result grants are to be paid ; (k) a system of instruction in manual training for Primary Schools and for Reformatory and Industrial Schools.

Ordinance No. 33 of 1899 was put into force in August, 1900, when the Director of Public Instruction entered upon his new duties (*see* Appendix A.) Certain details of the reorganisation of the present educational system are still under consideration.

revision of
secondary
and Higher
education.

Secondary Education is provided (1) by the Royal College and its two schools ; (2) by a system of private schools in association with the Royal College ; (3) by a special scheme for the Higher Education of Girls.

the Royal
College Scope
of instruc-
tion.

The Royal College provides for the youth of the Colony a superior course of classical and general education, and prepares them for Matriculation and Degree Examinations in the Universities of the Mother Country as well as for the Senior and Junior Cambridge Local Examinations. It also provides instruction for students in special subjects. It comprehends schools of Classics, Mathematics, Natural Sciences and Modern Languages. The study of English and of French, and of English and French History is obligatory from the highest to the lowest classes throughout the institution.

divisions of
Royal
College.

The Institution includes two divisions : First, the upper or College proper division, containing a classical and a modern side, in each of which there are four classes ; second, the school division, which includes five classes. The College course, therefore, spreads over nine years. The study of Latin begins when a boy has entered upon his third year's course, and that of Greek and of Science when he has begun his fifth year's course. Each boy at the Royal College receives twenty-five hours' tuition a week. The teaching staff consists of the Rector and of forty-five teachers.

On the modern side, the subjects taught in the highest forms are, besides English and French Literature, Algebra to Simple and Quadratic Equations and Progressions, Euclid, Plane Trigonometry, Conic Sections, Chemistry, Physics, Statics and Dynamics.

On the classical side, the subjects read in the highest forms are, besides English and French Literature, Latin and Greek Authors and Classical History and Literature, Algebra to Simple and Quadratic Equations, Co-ordinate Geometry, Conic Sections, Plane Trigonometry.

Scholarships
and Exhibi-
tions.

There are fifteen scholarships and thirteen exhibitions which are competed for annually. Two of the scholarships (the English scholarships) are each of the annual value of £200, and they are tenable for four years, so as to enable the successful candidates to complete their education in the United Kingdom or in any other country in which the Secretary of State for the Colonies may, for special reasons, allow candidates to reside.

Two of the conditions of candidature for the English scholarships are, that every candidate on the Classical side shall have passed

the London Matriculation Examination, and every candidate on the Modern side the Senior Cambridge Local Examination in certain specified subjects, and that they must not be above twenty years of age on the 30th of June preceding the examinations which take place in the month of December.

The other scholarships are of the annual value of R.100 to R.250,* and are tenable for two or four years at the Royal College. The scholarships and exhibitions entitle their holders to free tuition. There are also twenty presentation scholarships and six presentation exhibitions, besides a number of other cases of gratuitous instruction.

All the scholarships are paid out of the Public Treasury. There are in Mauritius no scholarships or bursaries founded by private individuals.

By a regulation made in 1902, a free railway ticket may be granted to any student entitled to free tuition at the Royal College, when the Governor is satisfied that the circumstances of his parents or guardians are such that they are unable to pay for his travelling to and from the College.

Promotion of pupils from one class to another depends upon examinations conducted partly in England and partly in the Colony. The examiners in England send out examination papers which are handed over to sub-examiners in Mauritius, and at the close of the examinations the papers of the candidates are sent to the examiners. It is only the work of the four lowest forms of the College School that is examined in the Colony; the work of all the others is examined in England.

In December 1901 there were on the books of the Royal College and of its two schools 386 pupils, 210 at the College proper, 77 at the Royal College School, 99 at Curepipe School. In 1900 the total amount of expenditure on the institution was R.136,606.25c.

In 1869 the Council of Education adopted a scheme whereby boys' private adventure schools were admitted into association with the Royal College on condition that they should submit their pupils to an annual examination, to be held at the Royal College in the month of December, on the programme of studies of the corresponding classes of the Royal College School. The object in view when this scheme was originally adopted was to cut away the College School as soon as the private adventure schools had proved their efficiency to become reliable nurseries for the College; and to limit the imparting of secondary instruction to the Royal College. At first, four large private schools co-operated with the College authorities in carrying out the scheme, but after a few years they gradually fell off, and one only continued in association with the Royal College, until circumstances led to a modification of the original plan. Large centres of population having been formed in the higher parts of the Colony along the railway line, owing to

*The standard coin of Mauritius is the Indian Rupee (1s. 4d.) with its subdivisions.

Grants-in-aid to Managers of Associated Schools.

the unhealthiness of Port Louis, the educational authorities, in order to secure uniformity of method and a fair standard of instruction in the boys' schools which had been established in those several centres and in other parts of the Colony, caused Government to sanction that a grant-in-aid be paid to all schools in association with the Royal College. By the scheme adopted by the Council of Education, and approved by Government in the year 1886, a grant of R.100 is paid for a pupil passing in the first class of the school, R.90 in the second class, R.80 in the third class, R.70 in the fourth class, and R.60 in the fifth class. To obtain a pass a pupil must obtain at least one half of the total number of marks awardable in the class for all the subjects of examination. No grant is paid unless a boy has been a *bond fide* pupil of one or more associated schools during the six months immediately preceding the examination. The programme on which such examination is held is that adopted for the Royal College School.

Annual scholarship and exhibition open for competition to associated schools.
Number of schools in association and of pupils presented for examinations.
Amount of grant-in-aid, 1900.
Higher Education of Girls.

As a further means of encouragement, one scholarship of the annual value of R.120 with free tuition at the Royal College, tenable for two years, and one exhibition entitling the holder to free tuition at the Royal College for two years, are competed for in December of each year by pupils belonging to the associated schools.

In 1901 there were twenty-five schools in association with the Royal College. Twenty-one of these presented 525 candidates for the prescribed examinations. The passes, so far as they are known, numbered 153. In 1900 the amount of the grant-in-aid paid to Associated School Managers was Rs.7,000. (For Rules and Regulations of the Royal College, 1901, *see* Appendix C.)

About eighteen years ago Lady Barker, the wife of Governor Broome, desirous of introducing some properly-organised system of education for girls in the Colony, formed a committee of ladies, and by the efforts of that Committee the action of Government was secured and the College Committee of the Council of Education entrusted with the formulating of a scheme to carry out the object which Lady Barker's Committee had in view.

Scheme for Examination of Girls.

The scheme propounded by the College Committee was, and has since been, a system of voluntary examinations by which the privilege of a free examination on impartial standards has been offered to all girls who follow the course of studies laid down by the Committee. That course is intended to spread over seven years, and embraces English, French, Arithmetic, Geography, English and French History, and English and French Literature, as obligatory subjects; and Music, Drawing, Religious Knowledge, Latin, Algebra, Euclid, Physical Geography and Needlework, as optional subjects. No girl is qualified for a pass unless she obtains at least one-third of the marks allowed for each obligatory subject and one-half of the total marks in all the obligatory subjects of the particular Standard taken. To obtain honours in any Standard a candidate must pass in the Standard and must also obtain altogether three-quarters of the total marks

obtainable in the obligatory subjects. In computing the marks for this purpose, those obtained in each of a certain number of optional subjects (the number being different in the different standards) will be counted, provided the candidate has obtained at least one-third of the marks in that subject. Gold, silver and bronze medals, with money prizes, are awarded to the girls who stand highest on the result lists in the several standards. Book prizes are given for proficiency to the best candidate in each optional and obligatory subject provided she has obtained at least 50 per cent. of the marks in that subject.

As a result grant-in-aid paid to the managers of schools coming under the scheme, the following scale has been adopted, with the approval of Government :—

Result grants paid to Managers of Girls' Schools.

R.15	per pupil passing in Standard	I.
R.20	do.	do. II.
R.25	do.	do. III.
R.30	do.	do. IV.
R.35	do.	do. V.
R.40	do.	do. VI.
R.45	do.	do. VII.

During the last few years Mauritian girls have presented themselves for the Cambridge Local Examinations. In 1899 six girls passed the examination for juniors, and in 1900 one senior and two juniors obtained certificates.

In 1901 there were 30 girls' schools working under this scheme. The examinations are, however, open to all the girls in the Colony, except those attending the Government and Aided Primary Schools. Two hundred and ninety-nine candidates were presented for examination, 45 of whom obtained honour certificates, and 101 pass certificates.

Number of Girls' Schools working under the scheme.

To meet the several items of expenditure which the scheme necessitates, a yearly sum of R.5,000 is paid out of the Public Treasury.

Annual expenditure on the scheme.

II. PRIMARY EDUCATION.

It was only after the taking of the island by England that the first Primary School for the education of the lower classes of society in the Colony was established. This was in 1815, when the Rev. Jean Lehrun, a clergyman belonging to the London Missionary Society, started several free Primary Schools in Port Louis and in the country districts.

Historical Sketch.

When Sir Robert Farquhar was in England in 1820, he represented the necessity of educating the children belonging to the population of slaves, and of sending out a teacher well instructed in the system of education then generally approved; and the Government was pleased to appoint a Mr. Jenkins, a native of Africa, who had been well educated in Scotland. He was selected, not only owing to his qualifications, but also to the fact that the circumstance of his birth was likely to render him more acceptable

to the parents of the children, many of whom would be of his own country. He was put in charge of the first Government School established in the Colony. It was opened in the western suburb of Port Louis on the 3rd of January, 1823, and placed under the superintendence of the Civil Chaplain. It was followed by a Western Female Juvenile School in 1829, a Western Infant School in 1837, and an Eastern Male and Female Juvenile School in 1838.

In 1838, in order to help in bringing the liberated slave population under the influence of education, the Trustees of Lady Mico's Charity confided to the Rev. Jean Lebrun the task of founding popular schools. This was done, and by the year 1842 these schools numbered three in Port Louis and seven in the country districts. In 1845 these ten schools were taken over by Government, and their entire support defrayed out of the Public Treasury.

In 1839 all Government Schools were placed by an Ordinance under an Education Committee composed of five members. The number of these schools having increased, it became necessary to appoint a Government Superintendent of them in 1842.

Introduction
of the grant-
in-aid system
in 1856.

Government continued to bear the entire support of Primary Education up to the year 1856, when the grant-in-aid system was first introduced. By Ordinance No. 6 of that year, the Governor in Executive Council was empowered to authorise the payment out of the Public Treasury of a sum not exceeding £75 towards the support of any school maintained for the elementary instruction of children belonging to the poorer classes, provided that a like sum voluntarily contributed be applied to the same object; and that the amount of grants allowed by Government should not exceed £3,000.

The same Ordinance provided for the inspection of schools thus assisted by an officer appointed for that purpose by the Governor, and who was bound to submit to the Governor, before the month of April of each year, a report on each school and on the progress made by it during the preceding year.

Under the operation of this law, that is to say, from the 1st of July, 1856, up to the end of 1875, private schools received grants varying from £24 to £75, based on the value of the school buildings or on the amount of subscriptions realised. The pupils were not submitted, like those in the Government Schools, to the grade system of examination. Notwithstanding the defective system of examination, private initiative had caused grants-in-aid to be secured for forty-two schools belonging to the several Christian denominations, twenty-nine being Roman Catholic, eleven Church of England, and two Methodist Schools.

Ordinance No. 28 of 1875 raised to £4,000 the annual Vote in favour of Grant-in-aid Schools, and conferred on the Council of Education the power of framing Regulations specifying the manner in which, and the conditions under which, grants were to be made. To acquire force of law, these Regulations had to be

approved by the Executive Council, then laid on the table of the Council of Government for one full month, after which they were promulgated, if not disapproved by the Legislature. This Ordinance retained the provision of Ordinance No. 6 of 1856 respecting the inspection of aided schools and the presenting of the annual report.

The first Code of Regulations framed in virtue of Ordinance No. 28 of 1875 was promulgated on the 1st of January, 1876. First Code in 1876. Under that Code the grant-in-aid consisted :—First, of the payment of three-fourths of the head teacher's salary, which varied in accordance with the class of certificate which he held ; second, of a result grant of four shillings per pupil for each of the three elementary subjects, reading, writing, and arithmetic, on condition that he passed in two of the subjects ; third, of a capitation grant of 2s. 6d. a quarter for each pupil in average attendance ; fourth, of a maintenance grant of half the cost of maintaining the buildings and furniture according to specifications approved by Government ; fifth, of a building grant of three-fourths of the cost of buildings erected and of furniture purchased with the approval of Government.

The programme included English and French, but the marks for reading and writing were reckoned together.

These Regulations having been revised, a new Code was put into force on the 1st of July, 1877. Code of 1877. It enacted that the examinations should be conducted in one language, the choice of which was left to the manager. It stipulated also that a fourth-class teacher's certificate could be secured by passing the examination in one language (English, French, or an Indian dialect). For certificates of a higher class candidates could take up English and an Indian dialect, English and French, or French and an Indian dialect.

There was a modification of the nature of the grant-in-aid. Independently of the payment of the head teacher's salary, provision was made for the payment of an additional teacher at the rate of R.300 a year, per sixty pupils in average attendance. The manager had the power of distributing the result grant among the salaried teachers. The capitation grant was reduced to R.1 per quarter. The building grant was abolished, and the maintenance grant reduced to the fifth of the rent valuation of the buildings. The grant-in-aid was to be withdrawn if the school building and furniture were not to the satisfaction of the Schools Committee, if the number of pupils present during 200 half-days at least in the year fell below 30 per cent. of the number on roll ; if during two years in succession a school did not cause at least 30 per cent. of the pupils on roll to pass in standards at the annual examination, and if the average attendance of pupils during the preceding school year fell below twenty.

A third Code, brought into force on the 1st of June, 1882, Code of 1882. laid down that the examination should be held exclusively in English, and that the knowledge of English and of another language was necessary in order to secure a teachers' certificate. This Code

admitted of the employment in schools of nuns or of lay helpers, holders of certificates of employ ; but they could in no wise share in the capitation and result grants. From the 1st of May, 1882, no non-certificated teacher could draw a salary paid by the State.

By this Code the average attendance required to warrant the payment of an assistant teacher was reduced from sixty to fifty. The result payment was raised to R.10 per pupil passing in Standards I. and II., to R.12.50 for Standards III. and IV., and to R.15 for Standards V. and VI., under the restriction of a limit of age. The capitation grant was reduced to R.0.25 per quarter, and the maintenance grant consisted in the fourth of the rent valuation of the school buildings. No grant-in-aid could be made to a school if it were opened within a distance of less than two kilometres from another school.

- Code of 1883. The fourth Code was promulgated on the 1st of June, 1883. It extended to the 31st of May, 1884, the date from which no non-certificated teacher was to be paid a fixed salary, and suspended the limit of age.
- Code of 1885. The fifth Code in 1885 rendered the holding of a certificate of competency obligatory from the 1st of January, 1885, an exception being made in favour of such teachers as had been previously employed ; and provided for the payment of a fixed salary of R.240 a year to nuns or lay helpers holding certificates of employ.
- Code of 1890. The sixth Code was promulgated in 1890. It did away with all restrictions as to distance between schools, with the payment of school fees, and a limit of age fixed for each standard. Managers were empowered to establish schools on the half-time system, and to create Agricultural or Industrial Schools. The salaries of teachers were paid entirely by Government at the end of each month. Honorary certificates of competency of four different grades, and based on length of service, were granted to old uncertificated teachers. The privilege of holding a certificate of employ, equivalent to a fourth-class teacher's certificate, was restricted to females. The English and French languages were rendered obligatory subjects throughout all the standards, as well as in the examinations for teachers' certificates of competency. Optional subjects were introduced into the syllabus for schools, and an additional grant paid for passing in such subjects. The grant-in-aid could be entirely withdrawn from a school when the school building and furniture were not in accordance with the conditions prescribed by law. The result grant might be withdrawn if, during two successive years, less than 35 per cent. of the number of pupils in average attendance during the two quarters preceding the examinations had passed the annual examinations. The fixed salary of the teacher might be withdrawn if, during the preceding civil year, the average attendance of pupils had been less than twenty. This Code further laid down the principle that the annual sum voted by the Legislature for Grant-in-aid Schools cannot be exceeded. This was done by

paying the result grant pro rata if the balance available after payment of the total salaries and maintenance grant was insufficient.

The Code of 1890 has been replaced by the one framed in 1902 (see App. B) by the Committee of Primary Instruction, constituted under Ordinance No. 33 of 1899 (see App. A). The powers of this Committee in regard to Primary Schools have been described above.

The work of Primary Education in Mauritius is carried out by two classes of schools, styled respectively Government and Grant-in-aid Schools, in which attendance is not compulsory.

Provision of Primary Education.

In the Government Schools the teachers are appointed and paid by Government ; the school buildings and apparatus are provided and maintained by Government, and the management of the schools is in the hands of the Director of Public Instruction.

Government schools.

They were divided, before the introduction of the Code of 1902, into four categories :—

Classes of Government schools.

(1) The First Grade Schools, Division I., the teachers of which draw a fixed salary of R.2,000 a year, in the case of males, and of R.1,000 in that of females.

(2) The First Grade Schools, Division II., in which teachers draw a fixed salary plus a Result payment of R.5 per pupil passing in standards. First Grade, Division II. Schools include three different classes, according as the number of pupils in average attendance is 100 or more, fifty and under 100, and less than fifty. In First Grade Schools there are six standards or classes of pupils.

(3) The Second Grade Schools, in which the Elementary subjects are generally taught up to Standard IV., and the average attendance of pupils ranges between forty and twenty. These were originally started to meet the educational needs of remote and sparsely-populated parts.

(4) The Second Grade (Half-time) Government Schools. They are under the same conditions as to teaching and average attendance as the last-mentioned class of schools, and were established principally for the education of children belonging to the Indian population, and employed part of the day on estates. The half-time principle, as applied to these schools, has proved an utter failure. They are virtually full-time schools.

In Government Schools the holidays are as follows: Holy Week, two weeks in August, four weeks in December and January, every Saturday, all Government holidays.

Holidays.

In aided schools the Manager must give notice to the Director of all holidays other than public holidays.

During 1901 there were seventy-five Government Schools in operation ; three of these were closed during the year, leaving on the 31st of December, 1901, seventy-two—ten belonging to the First Grade, First Division ; thirty-six to the First Grade, Second Division ; twenty-one to the Second Grade (Full-time), and five to the Second Grade (Half-time).

Number of Government schools in 1901.

Attendance in Government schools in 1901.

The average number of pupils on roll in 1901 in the several classes of Government Schools was 9,352, with an average attendance of 5,584.

Grant-in-aid schools.

In Primary Aided Schools the teachers are appointed by unsalaried persons styled managers on condition that such teachers satisfy the regulations with regard to qualifications and numbers of staff, which are the same as for teachers in Government Schools. The ownership of the school is vested in such manager, who is responsible for its control and direction, and for providing the school buildings and apparatus.

Number of Grant-in-aid schools in 1901, and attendance.

These schools are all denominational. During 1901 there were ninety-nine of them in operation; five of these were closed during the year and one fresh one was added to the grant list leaving on the 31st of December, 1901, ninety-four—divided as follows: sixty-five Roman Catholic, twenty-six Church of England two Presbyterian, and one Mahomedan. The average number of pupils on roll was 9,668 and the average attendances 6,374.

Conditions of Grant-in-aid.

In order to obtain a grant-in-aid the Code of 1902 states that a school must be necessary for its locality, must have had an average daily attendance of at least fifty in Port Louis or any township, or twenty-five in the country districts, for the three months preceding the application for a grant, must satisfy certain specified conditions as to furniture and accommodation, and must admit children of any religion or race. A grant-in-aid consists of the salaries of the teachers, according to the classes of certificates held by them, as in Government Schools, result grants, on the same basis as the result grants paid to Government Schools and on the same conditions and to be divided among the teachers in the same manner, and one quarter of the rent valuation of the school premises and the head teacher's quarters.

No grant shall be paid to a school which has not been open for school work for 200 entire school days during the civil year in which the annual examination of the school takes place.

Inspection of Primary schools.

The inspection of Primary Schools, Government and Aided, is carried out by two Inspectors of Schools, one sub-Inspector, and a Government teacher specially appointed to assist the Inspectors. They are all appointed by the Governor.

Examination of Primary schools.

The pupils of each school are every year presented to the Inspector for examination. For the standards of examination under the Code of 1902 *see* Appendix B (Schedule A). At the examination, all children attending the school shall be presented to the Inspector, but the examination shall be limited to the pupils in Standards I.-VII.

Notice of the examination must be given at least one month previously.

Subjects of instruction.

The obligatory elementary subjects are English and French, (reading, writing and conversation) and arithmetic. In reading the child must satisfy the Inspector that he has mastered the meaning of the English or French text. In writing, the test in the lower standards is an English or a French dictation exercise.

and in the upper ones composition : a simple description of objects or events, a letter, or the reproduction of a narrative previously read aloud. The course of study in arithmetic embraces the four simple rules, numeration, notation, short problems on the first four rules, bazaar and shop accounts in rupees and cents, bills or invoices, vulgar and decimal fractions, problems involving the metric measures of length, weight, and capacity, greatest common measure, least common multiple, and problems on square and cubic measurements.

In order to obtain a pass, a pupil must secure two-fifths of the maximum of the marks in each division of each of the elementary subjects. To pupils earning four-fifths of the maximum in each obligatory subject, merit certificates are awarded.

Result grants, which under the old regulations were on a different scale for Government and Aided Schools, are paid under the Code of 1902 to both Government and grant-in-aid Schools as follows:—

For a pass in the obligatory subjects :

In Standard I.	-	-	-	-	R.5
In „ II	-	-	-	-	R.6
In „ III.	-	-	-	-	R.8
In „ IV.	-	-	-	-	R.10
In „ V.	-	-	-	-	R.12
In „ VI.	-	-	-	-	R.15

For a pass in each optional subject :

In Standard III.	-	-	-	R.3
In „ IV.	-	-	-	R.3
In „ V.	-	-	-	R.4
In „ VI.	-	-	-	R.4

These grants are divided among the teachers according to a fixed scale determined by the average attendance and staff of school.

Under the Code of 1902 the staff of a Government Primary School exclusive of the head teacher must be according to the average attendance as follows : below 40, one monitor ; 41-60, one assistant ; 61-80, one assistant and one monitor ; 81-100, one assistant and two monitors. If the number exceeds 100 there may be an assistant or two monitors for every fifty or part of fifty greater than twenty-five in excess of 100, in addition to the staff allowed for 100 ; for twenty-five or less, one extra monitor will be allowed. But the entire number of uncertificated monitors must not exceed the number of teachers, including the head teacher and assistants.

One of the conditions of obtaining a result grant is that the number of passes must not be less than 40 per cent. of the number of pupils in standards on the roll on the day of examination.

To be eligible for the result grant a child must have made at the school in which he is examined 170 attendances of at least two hours at secular instruction during the twelve months preceding the examination, unless he may have been transferred from another school, in which case the grant is divided between the two schools.

Result Pay-
ments.

Requisite
attendance
for result
grant.

nit of age. The attendance of a child cannot be reckoned before he has attained the age of five years, and no pupil may be retained on the register after the annual examination which follows his or her eighteenth birthday in schools for boys only, or for girls only or after his or her sixteenth birthday in mixed schools.

Examination results in 1901. In 1901 10,545 pupils were presented for examination in the Government and State-aided Schools; 7,191 of these passed.

	No. examined.	No. passed.
Government Schools - - -	5648	3683
Roman Catholic Aided - - -	3656	2630
Church of England do. - - -	1027	749
Presbyterian do. - - -	124	67
Mahomedan do. - - -	90	62

Singing is not a subject of instruction in the primary schools of the Colony.

Cookery and Domestic Economy are not taught in schools.

Drill. Pupils of every primary school must be drilled every day for at least a quarter of an hour. Corporal punishment is forbidden.

Drawing. Drawing figures as a subject of examination in the curriculum for teachers, but not in that for scholars. A class in which freehand drawing and practical geometry are taught is held every morning before school hours, in Port Louis, for such subordinate teachers as are preparing for their certificate examinations, and reside in Port Louis; but no arrangement exists by which teachers residing in the country districts can be taught drawing.

Annual training. The Code of 1902 makes provision for classes to be established at Primary Government or Aided Schools to teach the mechanical principles of a trade. Such a class may be established in connection with several schools. Attention is especially to be given to teaching the pupils the principles of the trade rather than to the making of useful articles. The pupils should attend for two periods of two hours each a week, and half an hour out of each period of two hours may be employed in drawing and in explaining the work that is to be done. Pupils must have passed at least the second standard, and preference will be given to those who have passed a higher standard.

Half-time schools. The Code of 1902 provides for the establishment of half-time schools (Government or Grant-in-aid) for Indian children. The subjects taught in such schools will be the obligatory subjects for the standards in Primary Schools as far as Standard IV., provided that an Indian dialect may be substituted for French or English. The teachers in such schools must be able to speak and write an Indian dialect. Result grants shall be paid for pupils in these schools who have made 130 complete attendances of three hours each on separate days and who satisfy the Inspector at the annual examination. Such schools must have two complete sessions during the day, in each of which three whole hours are devoted to secular instruction, the instruction given at the morning session being independent of that in the afternoon, so as to allow pupils

attending one session a day to receive a consecutive course of instruction.

Religious instruction is given by the clergy of the different denominations once a week in the schoolroom or at church. The lessons set by the religious instructors are learnt every morning for half an hour in the Government Schools. In Aided Schools the Department does not interfere with this subject beyond insisting on the observance of a conscience clause. Religious Instruction.

In the lower classes of a school, to the Third Standard inclusive, any language may be employed as the medium of instruction, that language being used which is most suitable for the pupils, as determined by the Director in the case of a Government School, and by the Manager in the case of a Grant-in-aid School. English and French are taught from the beginning as subjects of study, provided that in half-time schools an Indian dialect may be substituted for French or English. From the Fourth Standard and upwards English alone is employed, except in the case of French lessons, which are given in French. Language of Instruction.

There are no continuation schools, or schools for the deaf and dumb, in the Colony.

No arrangement exists whereby free meals are provided for needy scholars.

Under the Code of 1902, the salaries of teachers in both Government and Aided Schools depend on the class of certificate which they hold. The following is the scale of payment of the fixed portion of the teacher's emoluments, the remainder being made up of a result grant. Teachers in Government Schools also receive free residence or an allowance in lieu thereof. Teachers' Salaries.

MEN.			
1st Class certificate	-	-	R.80 per month,
2nd do. do.	-	-	R.40 „
3rd do. do.	-	-	R.30 „
WOMEN.			
1st Class certificate	-	-	R.60 per month.
2nd do. do.	-	-	R.30 „
3rd do. do.	-	-	R.25 „
Certificated Monitors	-	-	R.20 „
6th Standard Monitors	-	-	R.13 „
5th Standard Monitors	-	-	R. 8 „

As Government teachers are Civil servants, they are entitled to pensions, and their pensionable service counts as soon as they are in receipt of a salary of 250 rupees a year. Pensions.

In aided schools the teachers are appointed by the local managers, but the salaries are paid by Government according to a scale laid down in the Code and to the class of certificate.

There exists in the Colony no normal school or training college. *Training of Teachers.

* A Government Training School to train elementary teachers for boys has been established, and it is hoped that a School may soon be opened for the training of women teachers. (Colonial Reports, Annual, No. 412, Mauritius, Report for 1902. Cd. 1768-17).

The Code of 1902 makes provision for the employment of monitors, who are required to pass the monitors' examination. (See Appendix B., Schedule C.). Monitors must not be less than thirteen years of age.

In Government Schools the head teacher is bound, either before or after school hours, to devote not less than four hours a week to teaching and training the monitors. The head teacher receives a payment of R.20 for each monitor who passes the monitor's examination.

Pupils who are in the Sixth Standard, who desire to be trained as teachers, may be employed as volunteers. They are not paid anything, but they assist in the teaching for a limited time during school hours and receive one hour's instruction per day from the head-teacher, before or after school hours. The instruction may be given along with that given to the monitors. The rules for monitors and volunteers in Grant-in-aid Schools are the same as for those in Government Schools.

To facilitate the recruiting of teachers for Aided Schools, Government has approved certain regulations passed by the Council of Education in 1892, by which fifteen yearly studentships have been created, the holders of which receive from Government R.12 a month, during two years, so as to qualify themselves for the teachers' examinations at certain schools chosen for the purpose by the heads of the several Christian churches. A further sum of R.5 a month is paid, per student, to the head teachers of the schools at which the training takes place. The number of students to which each class of denominational schools is entitled is based on the average attendance of pupils during the preceding year. To secure the object in view, an examination conducted by the Inspectors of Schools takes place in the month of December of each year. The candidates must be presented by school managers, and be over sixteen years of age and under twenty-one years of age on the 1st of December of the year in which they are presented for examination.

Teachers' examinations for certificates of competency.

Under the Code of 1902, teachers' certificates of competency of the second and third classes are obtained by passing in August of each year the examinations required by law. For a second class certificate it is necessary to have taught in a Government or Aided Primary School or schools for five years and to have received satisfactory reports, and similarly for a third class certificate it is necessary to have taught for three years. The syllabus includes English and French Reading and Conversation, English and French Grammar, English and French Orthography and Composition, English and French Translation, Arithmetic, Geography, English and French History, Drawing, Practical Geometry, and School Management, with Algebra and Euclid for males and Needlework for females. (See Appendix B, Schedule D.)

The fourth class certificates formerly granted to teachers have been abolished by the Code of 1902, but the present holders of such certificates are regarded as certificated and are paid at the rate at which they were paid before the present Code came into force.

Europe and Mauritius, with maps, elementary physical geography; *History*: That of England to the close of the Norman conquest; and that of France to the death of Saint Louis; *Algebra*: To simple equations with problems involving the same; *Euclid*: to end of Book I., with easy deductions; *Drawing and Practical Geometry*.

There may be awarded yearly six scholarships of R.100 per annum, tenable for four years, together with free tuition at the Royal College until the end of the year in which the scholarship holder is twenty years of age, and six exhibitions entitling the holders to free tuition at the Royal College until the end of the year in which they are twenty years of age.

These twelve yearly rewards are open to all pupils who have attended a Primary Government or Aided School from the beginning of the second year preceding the year in which the examination takes place. The examination is held in the month of December.

Candidates must not be over fifteen years and not under twelve years of age on the first day of July in the year in which the examination takes place. Successful candidates must earn at least 30 per cent. of the maximum marks obtainable in each subject, and three-fifths of the total marks obtainable. Further particulars as to these scholarships, and as to the scholarships for girls, are given in the Code of 1902 (Appendix B.).

Primary
scholarships
for girls.

Since 1895 Government has instituted scholarships for girls attending the Primary Schools, in order to enable them to pursue a higher course of studies than that which obtains in the Primary Schools. These scholarships are four in number, being each of the value of R.244 a year, tenable for three years, with free grant of books and free railway travelling, whenever the girls' parents are too poor to pay for the same. The successful candidates must pursue their studies at a girls' school recognised as one preparing for the examinations under the scheme for the Higher Education of Girls.

Candidates must have passed the Fifth Standard, be under fourteen years of age on the 31st of August of the year in which they compete, and have attended a Primary Government or Aided School for at least three years immediately preceding the 1st of August of the year in which the examination is held. The examination is held in the month of August. The subjects of examination are the obligatory subjects of the Fifth Standard of Instruction in a Primary School, and the optional subjects, English, French and Geography. Successful candidates must earn at least one third of the maximum marks in each subject, and two-thirds of the total marks obtainable in all the subjects.

Needlework
scholarships
for girls.

With a view to encouraging needlework among girls attending the Primary Schools four needlework scholarships, each of the annual value of R.100, tenable for three years, have long been instituted by Government. The rules governing these scholarships were revised in 1892. The competition is under the

control of a ladies' committee appointed by the Governor, and comprises the usual shirt-sleeve test, to include: A seam made by running, back-stitching and felling, hemming, gathering, stitching, button-hole, the gusset, eyelet-hole and loop, and a knowledge of herring-bone stitching and of repairing old linen and stockings. Candidates must be between the ages of fourteen and seventeen. The four yearly successful candidates are duly apprenticed to some persons accepted by the committee, and their daily attendance is registered. The members of the ladies' committee from time to time call at the shops or establishments in which apprentices are trained in order to ascertain their progress and conduct.

The sum expended by Government on Primary Education in 1900* was R.298,870.94.

Cost to
Governme
of Primary
Education

III.—TECHNICAL AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

Technical and Industrial Schools, in the proper sense of the term, do not exist in the Colony. The only approach to technical instruction consists in the yearly appointment by the Education Department of eight apprentices at the Government Plaine Lauzun Railway Workshops and of two at the Botanical Gardens, Curepipe. The selection of these ten apprentices is dependent on a competitive examination held in December each year, conducted by the Inspector of Schools. The subjects of examination are English and French, Reading and Dictation, and Arithmetic. Successful candidates must obtain at least one-third of the total marks in each subject. The regulations for both classes of scholarships were revised in 1902 and the number of the engineering scholarships was increased from five to eight.

For the apprenticeships at the Railway Workshops, candidates must be not more than sixteen years of age on the first of January next following the examination, and of a sound constitution. The apprenticeship lasts six years, during which the following rates of daily wages are paid:—R.0.40 in the first year, R.0.50 in the second, R.0.60 in the third, R.0.70 in the fourth, and R.0.85 in the fifth and R.1 in the sixth. The yearly increase in the wages is consequent on the apprentice's diligence and good conduct. Inefficient apprentices may be discharged, and irregular ones punished by stoppage of pay. In case of illness certified by a medical attendant, half-pay is allowed for absences not exceeding six days in a month. Full pay is allowed if the illness is caused by some injury received whilst at work.

Apprentice
ships at
Governme
railway
workshops

An apprentice is required for the first three years of his apprenticeship to do manual work for about six hours a day and receives for about two hours a day theoretical instruction in subjects connected with his work, including Arithmetic, Mensuration, Geometry, Algebra, Geometrical Drawing and Metallurgy. For the last three years of the apprenticeship, an apprentice will be required to work for about eight hours a day, his work consisting partly of manual and partly of theoretical work.

* In 1902 it was R.291,500.00. See Colonial Reports, Annual. Mauritius. Report for 1902. No. 412. Cd. 1768-17.

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stices-

Candidates for the apprenticeships at the Botanical Gardens Curepipe, must be not more than seventeen years of age on the first of January next following the examination, and of sound constitution. The apprenticeship is for four years, and entitles the holder to the following rates of wages:—First year, R.48 per annum; second year, R.60; third year, R.75; and the fourth year R.100; plus free quarters and R.2 a week for rations during the whole tenure of the apprenticeship. Apprentices work about 8 hours a day. They are taught the handling of gardening implements, how to prepare the soil, potting, grafting, pruning, laying out grounds, etc., and the principles of Agriculture, Botany and Forestry. The more advanced apprentices are also instructed in the collection and pressing of botanical specimens, and dissecting and drawing flowers. The conditions as to increase and stoppage of pay, etc., are the same as in the case of the engineering apprentices.

IV. GOVERNMENT REFORMATORY.

A Government Reformatory has been in existence for many years. It is situated in a country district, in good and well-ventilated buildings with large grounds attached. It is under the control of the prison authorities, who are responsible for the discipline and the moral and material care of the inmates. The Education Department is entrusted with the instruction of the latter, and has to provide two certificated teachers. The lads are divided into two batches, always kept apart from each other, one made up of such as have been convicted of offences of a criminal character, the other of those who are undergoing short sentences of detention. No offender is sent to the Reformatory when above eighteen years of age.

For school purposes the lads are half-timers, one batch attending in the morning and the other in the afternoon. The instruction imparted at the two Reformatory Schools is that which obtains in the Primary Schools of the Colony. The pupils are grouped into standards, and the subjects taught are English, French and Arithmetic. Like other Primary Schools, those at the Reformatory are visited and inspected by officers of the Education Department, to whom the two teachers are responsible for the progress of the inmates.

On the last inspection day 57 pupils were present, 42 as belonging to the criminal class, and 15 to the non-criminal. Out of the batch of 42, 10 were presented for examination: 4 in Standard I., 3 in Standard II., 1 in Standard III., and 2 in Standard IV. The examination was successfully passed by six lads.

Of the batch of 15, 11 were presented for examination: 7 in Standard I., 3 in Standard II., and 1 in Standard III.; 8 passed to the Inspector's satisfaction.

When not at school, the boys are employed in gardening or in learning a trade.

APPENDIX A.

THE EDUCATION ORDINANCE, 1899.

No. 33 of 1899.

AN ORDINANCE

ENACTED BY THE GOVERNOR OF MAURITIUS AND ITS DEPENDENCIES, WITH THE ADVICE AND CONSENT OF THE COUNCIL OF GOVERNMENT THEREOF.

TO MAKE BETTER PROVISION FOR EDUCATION, AND TO REVISE AND CODIFY THE LAW WITH REGARD THERETO.

[CONSOLIDATED ORDINANCE No. 3.]

ARRANGEMENT OF SECTIONS AND ARTICLES.

SECTION.

I. The Department of Public Instruction, the Director and Officers	Articles 3-6.
II. Committees of Instruction	Articles 7-14.
III. Schools and Teachers	Articles 15-21.
IV. Royal College Fees	Articles 22-24.
V. English Scholarships	Articles 25-31.

BE IT ENACTED by the Governor, with the advice and consent of the Council of Government as follows:—

Short Title.

1. This Ordinance may be cited as "The Education Ordinance, 1899."

Definitions.

2. In this Ordinance: "Director" means the Director of Public Instruction.

"Rector" means the Rector of the Royal College.

"Royal College" includes every Department or Branch of the Institution called the Royal College.

SECTION I.

THE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, THE DIRECTOR AND OFFICERS.

Creation of Department.

3. (1) The Council of Education and the Committees thereof established by Ordinance No. 38 of 1860 are hereby abolished, and in lieu thereof there shall be created a Government Department to be styled the Department of Public Instruction.

(2) The Head of the Department shall be styled the Director of Public Instruction. He shall receive such salary as shall be fixed by the Governor with the consent of the Council of Government.

(3) The post of Superintendent of Schools is hereby abolished; provided that the holder thereof shall not be entitled to any compensation by reason of such abolition, if he is appointed to any other office in the Colonial Service to which at least an equivalent salary is attached.

(4) The Officers of the Department shall be as follows:

- i. The Rector and staff of the Royal College;
- ii. The Principal and staff of any Government Institution established for Technical, Agricultural, Commercial or General Education;
- iii. Inspectors of Schools;

and such clerks and servants as shall be appointed by the Governor at salaries to be fixed by the Governor with the advice and consent of the Council of Government.

Transfer of property of Council to Government.

4. All property moveable or immoveable, and all rights, claims or liabilities which at the time this Ordinance comes into force are vested in the Council of Education hereby abolished, shall be transferred to and shall vest in the Government.

Provided that all such property which may have been granted, bequeathed or presented to the said Council for the purpose of endowing professorial chairs, lectureships, bursaries or prizes, or for founding libraries or museums in the Royal College, or in any government school, shall henceforth be applied to the same objects as heretofore.

Duties of Director.

5. It shall be the duty of the Director to prepare Regulations for the due carrying out of provisions of this Ordinance, and to submit the same to the Committees of Public Instruction hereinafter referred to; and further, whenever he shall think fit, to submit to the said Committees amendments of the same. He shall be responsible for the carrying out of such Regulations.

He shall, before the month of April in each year, make to the Governor a Report upon the state of every educational establishment supported or aided by public funds under the provisions of this Ordinance, and such Report shall be printed and laid before the Council of Government.

He shall further whenever he shall think fit report to the Governor on any matter relative to the education of youth in the Colony.

He shall have the right to visit and inspect the Royal College, and to inspect and direct the Inspectors to inspect at all reasonable times, any school (other than one forming part of the Royal College) supported, or aided out of, or receiving a grant from public funds.

(2) The exercise of all the powers conferred on the Director under this Ordinance shall be subject to an appeal to the Governor in Executive Council.

Duties of Rector.

6. The Rector shall be entrusted with preserving the discipline of the Royal College, and shall be the executive officer for carrying out within the Royal College any provisions of the Regulations applicable thereto.

SECTION II.

COMMITTEES OF INSTRUCTION.

Committee of Superior Instruction.

7. In respect to Superior and Secondary Education in the Colony, there shall be established a Committee to be styled the Committee of Superior Instruction and composed as follows:

- i. The Director,—(Chairman).
- ii. The Rector;
- iii. The following members appointed by the Governor in the month of December in every year:
 - (a.) on the nomination of the Managers of Associated Schools—one member.
 - (b.) on the nomination of the Managers of Girl's Schools, pupils of which have obtained passes at the preceding examination held in connection with the Higher Education of Girls—one member.
 - (c.) chosen by the Governor himself—eight members.

Committee of Primary Instruction.

8. In respect to Primary Education there shall be established a Committee to be styled the Committee of Primary Instruction and composed as follows:—

- i. The Director,—(Chairman).
- ii. The following members appointed by the Governor in the month of December in every year:
 - (a.) on the nomination of the Managers of Roman Catholic Grant-in-aid Primary Schools—two members.
 - (b.) on the nomination of the Managers of the Protestant Grant-in-aid Primary Schools—one member.
 - (c.) chosen by the Governor himself—eight members.

Procedure for nominations by Managers of Schools.

9. For the purpose of proceeding to the nominations of the members of the respective Committees by the Managers of the Schools referred to in articles 7 and 8, they shall respectively be convened by the Director at such time and place as he shall think fit.

The Secretaries of the Committees shall be Inspectors of Schools appointed *ad hoc* by the Governor.

Powers of Committee.

10. (1) The Committee of Superior Instruction shall have power to make Regulations, which shall be called the "A Code," dealing with the following subjects.

- i. The administration and management of the Royal College ;
- ii. The association of Colleges or schools of secondary and superior instruction with the Royal College by affiliation or otherwise, and the payment of result grants-in-aid thereto ;
- iii. A system of instruction in technical, agricultural, and commerical education, and the programme and schedule of studies therein ;
- iv. The Higher Education of Girls, and the programme and schedule of studies thereof, and the payment of result grants-in-aid thereof ;
- v. The award and tenure of scholarships and exhibitions, subject to the provisions of this Ordinance so far as concerns the English Scholarships.

(2) The said Committee shall fix every year the curriculum of studies for the Royal College and other government educational institutions.

(3) The advice of the said Committee shall further be taken before any pupil of the Royal College is expelled or rusticated ; provided that rustication may be awarded by the Rector provisionally, subject to the final decision of the said Committee.

Powers of Committee.

11. The Committee of Primary Instruction shall have power to make Regulations, which shall be called the "B Code," dealing with the following subjects :

- i. The good government, discipline and routine work of all primary government and grant-in-aid schools ;
- ii. The attendances required to entitle any school to a grant-in-aid ;
- iii. The standards of attainment in the subjects of instruction taught in any school necessary to qualify the school to earn a result grant ;
- iv. The month of the annual examination of each school for a result grant ;
- v. Generally the conditions under which the annual examinations of schools for result grants shall be held ;
- vi. The qualifications to be required for the issue and classification of certificates to teachers, the cancellation, suspension or reduction of such certificates, and generally the punishment of teachers for misbehaviour ;
- vii. The conditions under which schools shall be entitled to a grant-in-aid in respect to sufficient school-house accommodation, furniture and apparatus, and to the admission and attendance of scholars ;
- viii. The scale of salaries to be allowed to teachers according to the class of certificate held by them ;
- ix. The scale of result grants to be paid to the teachers of schools for each child passing a satisfactory examination in the prescribed standards ;
- x. The manner in which and the conditions under which all salaries and result grants are to be paid ;
- xi. A system of instruction in manual training for primary schools and for reformatory and industrial schools.

Codes to be laid on Table of Council.

12. The Codes made under articles 10 and 11 shall be laid upon the Table of the Council of Government.

Duties of Committees.

13. It shall be the duty of the Committees to advise upon all questions connected with the education of youth in the Colony which are referred to them respectively by the Governor or the Director; and further it shall be competent for the said Committees respectively to make suggestions to the Governor or the Director in connection with such education without previous reference.

Business of Committees.

14. The Director may at any time summon a meeting of either of the Committees; and on requisition signed by any three members of either of the said Committees he shall summon the said Committee. The requisition shall state the object for which the meeting is required to be summoned.

The meetings of the Committees shall be public, except when any question relating to the expulsion or rustication of any pupil of the Royal College is under consideration, and on such other occasions when a majority of the Committees respectively shall so decide.

Five members of a Committee including the Director or chairman shall form a quorum. In the absence of the Director the members present shall elect the chairman. The Chairman shall have a casting as well as an original vote.

Any member of either of the Committees appointed by the Governor may resign his seat by letter addressed to the Governor.

The Committee shall be held to be legally constituted notwithstanding any vacancies therein by death, resignation, or incapacity of any members if the number of members be not reduced at any time by such vacancies below five. Provided always that every such vacancy may be filled up by a person appointed by the Governor, on the nomination of the person who shall have nominated the member whose death, resignation or incapacity shall have caused such vacancy.

In case of failure by the said person to nominate any person to fill the vacancy as aforesaid within fifteen days it shall be lawful for the Governor to appoint a person to fill such vacancy without such nomination.

SECTION III.

SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS.

Classes of Schools.

15. (1) Schools of Primary Instruction shall be divided into two classes:

a. Schools already or hereafter established and maintained entirely from the public funds of the Colony (herein called Government schools);

b. Schools already or hereafter established by local managers and to which aid shall be contributed from the public funds of the Colony (herein called grant-in-aid schools).

(2) The Magistrates of each district, and such persons as the Governor may appoint, shall be visitors of the Government schools in each district.

(3) Religious teaching shall not form part of the instruction to be given at any government school; but any Minister of a Christian Religion shall be authorised to give religious instruction to the children of the religious denomination to which the Minister belongs, at such times and places as may be agreed upon between him and the Director.

Pay of Teachers and other Expenses.

16. (1) The teachers in government schools shall receive as remuneration—

i. A fixed salary to be paid according to the class of certificates held by them;

ii. A result grant;

iii. Free residence or an allowance in lieu thereof.

(2) All other expenses in connection with the establishment and maintenance of government schools shall be subject to a vote of the Council of Government.

Establishment of Government and Grant-in-Aid Schools.

17. Where a government school or a grant-in-aid school has been established in any locality and is, in the opinion of the Committee of Primary Instruction and of the Governor in Executive Council, sufficiently large for the wants of the locality, and in other respects suitable to the wishes of the inhabitants whose children are of school age, no other school, whether a government school or a grant-in-aid school, shall be subsequently established in the said locality within a radius of two kilometres from the existing school, except within the limits of Port Louis or of any Township.

Provided that where two or more schools of any description are at present existing in any locality within a distance of two kilometres one from the other, one or more of the said schools may, in the case of government schools be closed ; or, in the case of grant-in-aid schools, the grant-in-aid may be withdrawn from one or more of the said schools, on the advice in either case of the Committee of Primary Instruction approved by the Governor in Executive Council.

Conditions of Payment of Grant.

18. Any school of primary instruction established by any person shall, on the recommendation of the Committee of Primary Instruction approved by the Governor in Executive Council, be entitled to be admitted as a grant-in-aid school if the following conditions are fulfilled :

i. That provision to the satisfaction of the said Committee be made for the regular visitation, management and control of the school by a manager who shall have the power to appoint and dismiss the teacher of the school ;

ii. That the teacher to be so appointed be duly licensed ;

iii. That the average daily attendance of the school, computed on a period of three months, next preceding the date of application to be admitted as a grant-in-aid school, be not less than twenty-five in the country districts and fifty in Port Louis or in any Township ;

iv. That the school be open to all children without distinction of religion or race ;

v. That no child receive any religious instruction objected to by its parent or guardian, or be present while such instruction so objected to is given to other children ;

vi. That such facilities as may be fixed by the "B Code" be given to all Ministers of a Christian Religion who may desire to afford religious instruction to children of their own persuasion, being pupils in the school, either in the school-house or elsewhere ;

vii. That the school be at all times open to inspection ;

viii. That no fee be payable for instruction ;

ix. That the rules and books of secular instruction be in accordance with the "B Code."

Condition of continuance of Government Schools.

19. No government or grant-in-aid school shall be continued in any locality unless the annual daily attendance of the school be not less than twenty-five in the country districts and fifty in Port Louis or in any Township, except when in the opinion of the Committee of Primary Instruction the annual daily attendance has fallen below the above figures on account of some temporary or fortuitous cause.

Provided, however, that in order to meet the wants of remote or sparsely populated areas, special conditions as to the average attendance may be made on the recommendation of the Committee of Primary Instruction approved by the Governor in Executive Council.

Provided further that in the case of grant-in-aid schools the grant-in-aid may be withdrawn on the recommendation of the Committee of Primary Instruction if any of the conditions mentioned in article 18 (other than condition iii.) are not complied with.

Payment of Grant : Attachment of Salaries.

20. (1) No school shall receive aid from the public funds of the Colony until the amount of the aid has been voted by the Council of Government.

(2) The provisions of Ordinance No. 32 of 1881 regulating the attachment of salaries are hereby extended to all grants-in-aid paid to all schools in the Colony, whether of primary or secondary instruction.

Provided that it shall be lawful for the teachers of all schools, on account of which such grants-in-aid are paid, to attach such grant-in-aid to secure payment of their salaries, and for all persons who may have supplied goods to such schools for educational purposes or let the premises used as schools, to attach such grants-in-aid to secure payment of their claims.

Nature of Grant.

21. (1) The aid to which grant-in-aid schools shall be entitled shall consist of—

- i. A fixed salary ;
- ii. A result grant ;
- iii. A grant for maintenance.

(2) The scale of salary and the result grant shall be the same as in the case of government schools, and shall be subject to the same conditions.

SECTION IV.

ROYAL COLLEGE FEES.

Recovery of Royal College Fees.

22. (1) The sums due for the education of the pupils of the Royal College shall be paid to the Receiver General every month.

(2) In the event of any such sum not being paid on or before the seventh day of the following month, the Receiver General shall give seven clear days written notice to the parent, guardian or surety, whose duty it was to pay the said sum, to the effect that if such fees are not paid he will issue his warrant to compel payment. Such notice shall be served by an Usher of the District Court and shall be charged fifty cents to be paid by the parent, guardian or surety in default.

(3) All College fees due and left unpaid after the notice aforesaid shall be dealt with as taxes unpaid and be recovered in manner and form as enacted by Ordinance No. 16 of 1876.

(4) All costs incurred in connection with the recovery of unpaid College fees shall be regulated and paid according to the District Court Tariff.

Duties of Rector.

23. The Rector shall send to the Receiver General, every month, the names of all pupils not entitled to gratuitous education.

Should the Receiver General report, and it shall be his duty to report, to the Governor that arrears of fees due for any pupil for the period of three months have been left unpaid, and that it has not been possible to recover the same, the pupil shall be excluded from the Royal College.

Governor may remit Fees.

24. The Governor in Executive Council may remit or extend the time of payment of any sum due for College fees.

SECTION V.

ENGLISH SCHOLARSHIPS.

English Scholarships and Laureates.

25. The Governor shall award every year, according to the results of an examination designated in the "A Code," to each of two pupils of the Royal College, who shall be called Laureates a Scholarship, which shall be termed an English Scholarship, of the value of two hundred pounds

sterling per annum, free of income tax, tenable for four years, for the purpose of enabling such Laureates to pursue their studies in the United Kingdom, or in any other country in which the Secretary of State may, for special reasons, allow them to reside.

Provided that no such Scholarship shall be awarded to a pupil whom the Governor in Executive Council shall find unworthy of such a distinction on account of gross misconduct either as a pupil of the College or otherwise.

Passage Allowance to Laureates.

26. Every Laureate shall also be entitled to an allowance of seventy-five pounds sterling or such other amount as may from time to time be fixed by the Governor with the consent of the Council of Government, to defray his passage to England or other country, and to a like sum in payment of his return passage to Mauritius at the expiration of the said four years.

The Secretary of State may authorise any Laureate who is pursuing his studies in the United Kingdom or in any other country in which he has been allowed to reside, to apply the whole or any part of the sum which he is entitled to receive for his return passage to Mauritius to the payment of fees, to enable him to proceed to a degree or obtain any qualification for his advancement in a profession; provided that the said Laureate shall receive no further allowance either for passage money or for any other purpose beyond the amount fixed.

Allowances when and how Paid.

27. Every Laureate shall be entitled to receive his Scholarship allowance from the Crown Agents for the Colonies, subject to the provisions of the "A Code."

Laureate completing Studies in less than four years, may receive Balance of Allowances Untrawnd and Return Passage.

28. When a Laureate has completed his studies in less than four years, or with the sanction of the Governor or of the Secretary of State discontinues his studies before the expiry of such period, he may with the approval of the Governor or of the Secretary of State be paid in a lump sum the whole of the scholarship allowances which would have been payable to him if he continued his studies during the whole period of four years.

(2) Such Laureate may, also in the same circumstances and subject to the same conditions, be granted the amount that would be payable to him on expiry of the period of four years for his return passage to Mauritius.

Return Passage Money Forfeited, When.

29. (1) A Laureate who does not return to Mauritius within three years after the expiry of the period of four years shall (unless authorised to delay his return as hereafter provided) forfeit all right to such passage money.

(2) The Governor or the Secretary of State may authorise a Laureate to delay his return to Mauritius, provided that all delays so granted shall not exceed four years.

Repeal.

30. The following Ordinances are repealed:

- Ordinance No. 38 of 1860.
- " No. 28 of 1875.
- " No. 35 of 1875.
- " No. 16 of 1876, article 4.
- " No. 15 of 1892.
- " No. 37 of 1897.
- " No. 43 of 1897-98.

Provided that the provisions of Ordinance No. 35 of 1875, articles 8, 9, and 10, shall remain in force until the matters therein dealt with are provided for by the Codes.

Provided further that in the application of article 10 of "the Interpretation and Common Form Ordinance, 1898," to this Ordinance, all duties and powers which under the provisions mentioned in the preceding proviso, or under any existing Rules and Regulations, are vested in the Council of Education, or in the College or schools Committee, shall, pending the promulgation of the Codes provided for by this Ordinance, be vested in the Director, who shall act on the advice of the Committee of Superior Instruction in so far as such duties and powers have hitherto been exercised by the Council of Education or the College Committee, and on the advice of the Committee of Primary Instruction in so far as such duties and powers have hitherto been exercised by Schools Committee.

Commencement of Ordinance.

31. This Ordinance shall come into force on a day to be fixed by Proclamation.

Passed in Council at Port Louis, Island of Mauritius, this thirty-first day of October, One thousand eight hundred and ninety-nine.

Published by order of His Excellency the Governor this eleventh day of November, One thousand eight hundred and ninety-nine.

APPENDIX B.

CODE B.

(PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.)

GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS.

Appointments and Promotions.

1. Appointments and promotions of Teachers in Government Schools will be made by the Director of Public Instruction subject to the approval of Government.

2. Those appointments and promotions will depend on the certificates held by teachers and on the services that they have performed.

Teachers' Certificates.

3. There will be First, Second, and Third Class Certificates.

4. A Third Class Certificate will be awarded :

(a) To any person who has taught for three years in a Government or Aided Primary School or Schools and whose work is reported as satisfactory each year by the Inspectors and who has passed the annual examination for third class certificates.

(b) To any person who has taught for a year in a Government Training School, has received a good report from the head of the school and has passed the annual examination for third class certificates.

5. A Second Class Certificate will be given :

(a) To any person who has taught for five years in a Government or Aided Primary School or Schools, and whose work is reported as satisfactory each year by the Inspectors and who has passed the annual examination for second class certificates.

(b) To any person who has taught for two years in a Government Training School, has received good reports each year from the head of the school, and has passed the annual examination for second class certificates.

6. A First Class certificate will be awarded to any person who is the holder of a second class certificate and who has acted as a head teacher for at least five years uninterruptedly, or with an intermission where good cause is shown, and whose conduct and efficiency, as a head teacher, have been approved by the Director as satisfactory for five years.

Monitors.

7. Pupils who have passed the sixth or the fifth standard may be employed as monitors to assist in the teaching.

8. Monitors must not be less than thirteen years of age.

9. As far as possible monitors must be chosen from the highest class of a school, and only those pupils taken who intend to become teachers.

10. When a monitor is to be appointed at a school the Head Teacher should submit to the Director the names and qualifications of two suitable candidates, if possible, on the necessary form.

11. In recommending candidates for appointment as monitors the Head Teacher should select pupils who are of good conduct, punctual and regular in attendance, apt, and diligent in their studies, and possessed of influence over their fellow-students.

12. Monitors who have not passed the sixth standard shall be presented for examination in that standard at the first annual inspection of their school after their appointment.

13. Monitors who have passed the sixth standard must enter for the annual examination for monitors.

14. A sixth standard monitor who has been employed for nine months at the commencement of the monitors' examination must enter for this examination, but not if he has been employed for less than nine months.

15. If a monitor fails to pass his examination he may, on the recommendation of the Inspector, be allowed to enter for the same examination in the following year. If he fails a second time he will, as a rule, cease to be employed as a monitor.

16. The Head Teacher of a School must devote not less than four hours a week, before or after school hours, to teaching the monitors of the school and preparing them for their examinations. The instruction is to be given in accordance with a time-table submitted for approval to the Director.

17. The teaching of the monitors of a school forms a very important part of the duties of a head teacher, and one on which promotion will largely depend.

18. The Head Teacher of a School will receive a payment of twenty rupees on account of each monitor of the school who passes the monitor's examination.

19. A Head Teacher may utilise the services of pupils who are in the sixth standard, and who are not paid, for a limited time during school hours to assist in the teaching, with the approval of the Director, provided that such pupils desire to be trained as teachers. In return for such services he shall give to these pupils one hour's instruction per day before or after school hours. This teaching may be given along with that given to the monitors.

Such pupils are called volunteers.

Annual Examinations.

20. An annual examination of each school shall be made by an Inspector or Inspectors of Schools who shall examine the work of all the standards, according to the details given in Schedule A.

21. At least one month's notice shall be given to the head teacher of the school of the holding of the annual examination.

22. The annual examinations shall be held in the schools of the various districts, as far as possible, in accordance with the following table:—

District.	Month.
Plaines Wilhems and Moka May.
Black River and Savanne June.
Grand Port July. •
Pamplemousses August.
Flacq and Rivière du Rempart September.
Port Louis October.

23. At the annual examination all children attending the school (except those who are unavoidably absent) shall be presented to the Inspector; but the examination shall be limited to the pupils in Standards I. to VI.

Staff of Schools.

24. The staff of a school exclusive of the Head Teacher shall be according to the average attendance as follows :—

Average Attendance	Assistants	Monitors
Below 40	0	1
41 to 60	1	0
61 " 80	1	1
81 " 100	1	2

25. If the number exceeds 100 for every 50 or part of 50 greater than 25 in excess of 100 there will be an assistant or two monitors in addition to the staff allowed for 100; for 25 or less one extra monitor will be allowed. But the entire number of uncertificated monitors must not exceed the number of teachers including the Head Teacher and the assistants.

In any school in which there are girls over 12 years of age there shall be a female teacher.

26. The staff of a school for any civil year shall be based on the average attendance for the last two quarters of the preceding civil year.

27. Should the attendance at the school for the last two quarters of any year fall below that for which its staff is required in consequence of temporary and uncontrollable circumstances the Director shall have power to maintain the staff.

Fixed Salaries.

28. The fixed salaries paid to teachers according to the certificates held by them shall be according to the following scale in rupees per month :—

	Class I.	Class II.	Class III.
Men ...	80	40	20
Women ...	60	30	25
Certificated	6th Standard	5th Standard	
Monitors.	Monitors.	Monitors.	
20	12	8	

Result Grants.

29. Result grants shall be paid to a school according to the following scale :—

For a pass in the obligatory subjects—

In Standard I.	5 rupees ;
In Standard II.	6 rupees ;
In Standard III.	8 rupees ;
In Standard IV.	10 rupees ;
In Standard V.	12 rupees ;
In Standard VI.	15 rupees ;

For a pass in each optional subject—

In Standard III.	3 rupees ;
In Standard IV.	3 rupees ;
In Standard V.	4 rupees ;
In Standard VI.	4 rupees.

30. The payment of these grants will be subject to the following conditions :—

(1) The conduct of the teachers and discipline of the school for the year must be satisfactory.

(2) The number of passes must be not less than 40 per cent. of the number of pupils in standards on the roll on the day of examination.

31. If, in consequence of temporary and uncontrollable circumstances, such as illness among the pupils, it is shown that condition (2) cannot be satisfied, then it may be dispensed with.

32. No teacher shall be entitled to a result payment who has not been at the school for a whole school year before the examination. Except that when a teacher has been transferred from one school to another, to meet the requirements of the Department, he shall receive a portion of the result grant from each school proportional to the length of his service in it ;

provided that should a teacher die or leave the school under circumstances deserving of consideration, before the end of the school year, his claims for a proportion of the school grant will be considered by the Director.

33. A grant shall not be paid in respect of a pupil for passing the same standard or a lower standard than he has already passed.

34. A grant shall not be paid in respect of a pupil who has not made 170 attendances of at least 2 hours each at secular instruction at the school during the preceding school year.

35. Except that when a pupil has not made 170 attendances in the school year at the school at which he is examined but has made 200 attendances in the school year at that school and the school from which he was last transferred, the grant shall be divided between the two schools proportionately to the numbers of attendances which he has made at them.

36. If the result grant earned by a school be less than the average of the result grants earned for the preceding three years and it can be shown that the decrease is owing to the absence of the pupils from the classes in consequence of a continued epidemic or other uncontrollable circumstances the average of the result grants for three preceding years may be paid as result grants.

Division of Result Grants.

37. The result grants shall be divided according to average attendance and staff of school as follows:—

Below—40.

Head Teacher 8 tenths, Monitor 2 tenths.

41—60.

Head Teacher 8 tenths, Assistant 2 tenths.

61—80.

Head Teacher 7 tenths, Assistant 2 tenths, Monitor 1 tenth.

81—100.

Head Teacher 7 tenths, Assistant 2 tenths, Monitors 1 tenth between them.

Above 100.

Head Teacher 6 tenths, Principal Assistant 3 tenths, other assistants and monitors 2 tenths divided between them so that an assistant's share is double that of a monitor.

Good Conduct of the School.

38. The Head Teacher of a school is responsible to the Director for the good conduct of the school and the discipline of the pupils. If these are neglected a part not exceeding five per cent. of his monthly emoluments may be withdrawn.

39. The Director shall have power to prohibit the introduction into a school of improper literature or pictures and to apply for the dismissal of the Head Teacher in case his request that such literature or picture be instantly removed from the school should not be carried out.

40. No corporal punishment shall be inflicted in a Government school.

41. The pupils of a school shall be drilled every day for at least a quarter an hour.

Returns and Requisitions.

42. The following returns and requisitions are to be sent to the Education Office by the Head Teachers of Government Schools:—

Yearly:—

- (1.) Return of Race and Religion of pupils on the last school day in December.
- (2.) General report on the school; on the last school day in December.
- (3.) Inventory of school property; on the last school day in December.
- (4.) Examination Schedules; 15 days before the date fixed for the examination of the school.
- (5.) Return showing attendances of pupils in the various quarters of the district school year;—on the last day of the district school year.

Quarterly :—

- (6.) Return of attendance of pupils at Religious Instruction ;—on the last day of the quarter.

Monthly :—

- (7.) Return of Teachers' attendance ;—on the last day of the month.
 (8.) Return of number of pupils on roll and in average attendance during the month—to be sent on the 2nd day of the ensuing month.
 (9.) Pay abstracts ; on the 15th of each month.

Weekly :—

- (10.) Return showing the work set to monitors and monitresses ; on the Saturday of every week.
 (11.) Return showing the work done by monitors and monitresses ; on the Saturday of every week.
 43. Requisitions shall be sent to the Department as follows :—
 (1.) Requisition for books and stationery for sale to pupils ; from the 1st to the 15th of each month.
 (2.) Requisition for stationery for the school ; on the last school day of the year.
 (3.) Requisition for petty stores and supplies ; on the 1st of July of each year.

Registers.

44. There shall be kept in every school two registers.
 (1.) The attendance register ; to show the attendances of the pupils.
 (2.) The admission register, to show the admission, progress and withdrawal of the pupils.

Rules for Keeping the Attendance Register.

- 45.....
 46. No pupil should be entered on the attendance register who is under five years of age ; and no pupil shall be retained on the register after the annual examination which follows his or her eighteenth birthday in schools for boys only or for girls only ; or after his or her sixteenth birthday in mixed schools.
 47. The attendance register shall be sent to the Department immediately after the annual examination of the school.

Admission Register.

48. When a pupil is admitted to the school his name must be at once entered in the admission register, and the necessary information entered in each column as soon as possible.
 49. In case of doubt with reference to any of the information required about a pupil admitted to a school the head teacher should communicate the matter to the Director.
 50. The successes of the pupils in the annual examination should be entered in the admission register as soon as possible after the examination.
 51. When a pupil has been absent from school for an entire quarter his name should be struck off the admission register and an entry made in the column " Date of Withdrawal."
 52. If a pupil whose name has been struck off is re-admitted, he shall have his original number assigned to him.

Log Book.

53. Every school shall keep a log book in which shall be recorded any event of importance connected with the school such as :—
 The commencement or ending of a school term ;
 The closing of the school for any reason ;
 The granting of a holiday ;
 Change of teachers ;
 Repairs to the school ;
 The receiving of circulars and rules,

54. The log book should also contain entries of the payments of salaries and grants earned by subordinate teachers together with the signatures of these teachers showing that they have received the salaries or grants.

55. The only persons authorised to make entries in the log book are the Director and Inspectors of Schools, the Head Teacher and persons authorised to visit the school.

Transfer of Pupils.

56. Transfer certificates shall be delivered to pupils leaving one school for another on the written or verbal application of the parents or guardians of such pupils. Such certificates shall be signed by the Head Teacher.

57. The name of a pupil admitted from any Government or Aided School to any other Government or Aided School may be entered on the admission and attendance Registers on the day of his admission, and his attendances may be reckoned from that date provided the Head Teacher of the School to which the pupil is transferred has ascertained and recorded in the log book that the parent or guardian of the said pupil has already applied for his transfer certificate.

This certificate shall be sent to the Department for verification.

58. No result grant shall be paid for any pupil thus transferred unless the required transfer certificate is produced on or before the date fixed for the annual examination.

59. In case of refusal on the part of the Head Teacher to deliver the required transfer certificate within forty-eight hours, part or whole of the Result Grant accruing to the school may be forfeited for the current year.

60. For pupils admitted without producing their act of birth, vaccination or re-vaccination certificates as the case may be, and whose parents are too poor to procure these, the Head Teacher may fill in and send to the Education Office the return in lieu of this act and certificates.

61. After verification by the Civil Status Office this return should be carefully kept with the other school records and should in no case be delivered to the pupil.

62. This return is to be annexed to the pupil's transfer certificate whenever he goes to another School.

Leave of Absence.

63. Since teachers enjoy exceptional privileges in the matter of vacations by having weekly holidays and periodical vacations, they should make arrangements to transact their private affairs during these holidays; and leave of absence will not be granted except in very exceptional circumstances.

64. When such leave is granted it will be without pay unless an approved substitute is provided; in which case the substitute will receive half the pay of the absentee who will receive the other half.

65. An application for leave on urgent private affairs must be sent to the Director as soon as possible, and if possible, at least one week before the day on which the required leave is to begin.

66. An application for leave to attend court should be accompanied by a copy of the process served on the applicant, and a short account of the circumstances.

67. If a Head Teacher is unavoidably absent from school through illness or any other cause, he must immediately report the circumstances to the Director. The charge of the school then devolves on the principal Assistant.

68. If an Assistant Teacher is unavoidably absent from the school through illness or any other cause, he must immediately report the circumstances to his Head Teacher, who will forward the report to the Director together with his own observations and the arrangements which he has made in consequence of the absence of the teacher.

69. When a teacher is absent from duty, without leave and a satisfactory explanation of the absence, such absence will lead to the forfeiture of the pay for the time during which it lasts as well as the infliction of a penalty subject to the Governor's approval.

70. Teachers who are absent from duty for more than three days on account of illness, must, whenever possible, furnish the Director with a medical certificate.

71. Teachers who are absent from duty on account of illness, must, in all cases, furnish the Director with a medical certificate if called upon by him to do so.

Vacations and Holidays.

72. The school vacations shall be as follows :

(1) Holy Week.

(2) Two weeks in August, the school reopening on the day after the last Sunday in August ;

(3) Four weeks in December and January, school reopening on the second Monday in January ;

73. Saturday shall be a whole holiday.

74. All Government holidays shall be observed as school holidays.

School Hours,

75. At every morning or afternoon session two full hours must be given to secular instruction besides the time required to mark the registers and that spent in religious instruction.

Half-Time Schools.

76. Schools may be established for the benefit of Indian children who are for a part of the day engaged in manual labour.

77. Such a school must have two complete sessions during the day in each of which three whole hours are devoted to secular instruction.

78. The curriculum of such a school should be arranged so that the instruction given at the morning sessions and that given at the afternoon sessions shall be independent of each other, and a pupil attending during one session each day will receive a complete and consecutive course of instruction.

79. The subjects taught in the school shall be the obligatory subjects for the standards in primary schools as far as Standard IV., provided that an Indian dialect may be substituted for French or English.

80. The teachers in such a school must be able to speak and write at least an Indian dialect.

81. Result grants shall be paid on pupils in half-time schools who have made 130 complete attendances of 3 hours each on separate days and who satisfy the Inspector at the annual examination.

82. In the case of a pupil transferred from a half-time to a full-time school or vice versa, for the purpose of computing the grants the attendances made at a half-time school shall be counted as half as many attendances again made at a full-time school, and the attendances made at a full-time school shall be counted as two-thirds as many attendances made at a half-time school.

Time table.

83. A time-table of the work of the school, showing the lessons of the various classes for each day of the week, the times at which they are given and the teachers by whom they are given shall be prepared in duplicate and sent to the Department for approval at least one week before the beginning of the school year.

84. Printed forms on which to write the time-table will be supplied by the Department.

85. A copy of the time-table shall be exhibited in a conspicuous place in the school.

86. The time-table may be subsequently changed with the approval of the Department.

87. The time-table must provide for the teaching of the subjects in Schedule A for at least 18 hours a week in every standard. At least 12 hours a week must be devoted to the obligatory subjects.

Correspondence.

88. All correspondence with the Department should be addressed to the Director and should be registered in the school and numbered.

89. Reference to previous correspondence on the subject of any letter, if there has been any such correspondence, should be made, the dates and numbers of the letters being given.

90. A letter from an assistant teacher must be sent through his Head Teacher, who will submit it to the Director with any observations that he may wish to make.

91. Letters on service may be sent to the Director through the post free, but the envelope should be marked with the name of the sender and the initials O. H. M. S.

92. A letter returned to the sender with a remark or answer must be marked with the word "seen" or other suitable observation signed and re-addressed to the Director.

93. Care should be taken to write and to sign all letters quite legibly.

94-7 *Printed Forms*

Languages to be Used and Taught in Schools.

98. In the lower classes of a school, to the Third Standard inclusive, any language may be employed as the medium of instruction, that language being used which is most suitable for the pupils, as determined by the Director.

99. English and French shall be taught from the beginning as subjects of study, special attention being paid to conversation in these languages provided that in the Schools mentioned in Articles 76 to 82, an Indian dialect may be substituted for French or English in accordance with Article 79.

100. In the Fourth Standard and upward English shall alone be used as the medium of instruction and conversation between the teacher and the pupils, another language being employed only when it is necessary to explain something that is not understood in English; except that lessons in French subjects shall be given in French.

Religious Instruction.

101. Ministers of the Christian Religion shall be afforded facilities for attending Government Schools for the purpose of giving religious instruction to pupils of their own denomination; but no pupil shall attend such instruction, if his parent or guardian expresses his disapproval in writing.

102. One hour on a fixed day in each week may be set apart for the purposes of Religious Instruction in Government Schools, or in any Church or Chapel situated within a reasonable distance of the schools. Such day and hour may be primarily fixed by the officiating clergyman of the district with the concurrence of the Director, after which, such day and hour shall not be subject to further mutation without special permission.

103. Except on such day as provided for in the preceding paragraph, the first half-hour of the morning can be devoted to the preparation of lessons set by the clergy of the various churches.

104. In cases where the children are required to attend any Church or Chapel for religious instruction, teachers will be authorised, after communicating with the Director to make the necessary arrangements with the clergy.

Penalties.

105. For gross mismanagement, for neglect of duty or for wilful fraud or other serious misconduct, the Director shall have power to recommend to Government to suspend or cancel the certificate of a teacher or to degrade it for a fixed period to one of a lower class.

106. For carelessness, without intention to defraud, the Director shall have power to recommend to Government to inflict on a teacher for the first offence a fine not exceeding 5 per cent. of his monthly salary and not exceeding 10 per cent. of his monthly salary for every offence subsequent to the first.

GRANT-IN-AID SCHOOLS.

Managers.

107. A school receiving grants from Government shall be managed by, and its property vested in, a local manager who shall in all respects be responsible for its government and maintenance.

108. The manager should pay frequent visits to the school ; if the school is easily reached, he should visit it at least once a month ; he should verify and sign the registers, and a note of his visit should be made in the log book.

109. The Manager shall not be closely related to any member of the school staff.

110. The Manager shall not form a part of the school staff either permanently or temporarily. He may, however, perform any duties in connection with the school that he thinks fit, acting in addition to the regular school staff.

111. Before applying for a grant-in-aid the Manager of a school shall keep an official register of attendance for three months. The register form may be obtained on application to the Department.

112. An application for a grant to a school should be addressed by the Manager to the Director.

Grants to Aided Schools.

113. The following grants shall be paid to aided schools :

(1) The salaries of the teachers according to the classes of certificates held by them, as in government schools ;

(2) Result grants, on the same basis as the result grants paid to government schools and on the same conditions, and to be divided among the teachers in the same manner ;

(3) One quarter of the rent valuation of the school premises and the head teacher's quarters.

114. No school shall receive a grant which has not been open for school work for 200 entire school days during the civil year in which the annual examination of the school takes place.

115. Provided that in any case in which the school is closed on sanitary grounds with the approval of the Department the number of school days required shall be reduced by the number of days for which the school was closed.

116. The Manager shall give notice to the Director at least 3 days beforehand of all vacations and holidays to be given at the school other than public holidays. Such vacations shall also be noted in the log book. In case it is necessary to close a school through unforeseen circumstances, notice shall be given to the Director at least 3 days beforehand, or as soon as possible.

Half-Time Schools.

117. Grants-in-aid may be paid to half-time schools conducted on the same rules as for government half-time schools.

Appointments and Promotions.

118. Appointments and promotions of teachers in aided schools will be made by the Managers of those schools.

119. The Manager of an aided school shall submit all appointments and mutations to the Director, who shall see that the teaching staff satisfies the regulations with regard to number and qualifications.

120. Certificates of competency will be awarded by the Director of Public Instruction to teachers in aided primary schools and in aided training schools according to the same rules as in government schools.

121. Monitors and volunteers may be employed in aided schools according to the same rules as in government schools. The time-table of the monitors' class must be approved by the Director.

122. A payment of 20 rupees shall be made to the Head Teacher of a school on account of each monitor of his class who passes the monitors' examination.

Annual Examinations.

123. The annual examination of the pupils of aided schools shall be made according to the same rules as for government schools. At least one month's notice of the examination shall be given to the manager of the school.

Conditions of Receiving Grants.

124. A school will be admitted to receive grants-in-aid only on the following conditions :

- (1) It must be necessary for its locality ;
- (2) Proper arrangements must be made for its management and maintenance ;
- (3) The average daily attendance for the three months next preceding the application for admission must be at least 25 in the country districts or 50 in Port Louis or any Township.
- (4) It must satisfy the following conditions with regard to school furniture and accommodation :

125. ACCOMMODATION & FURNITURE IN AIDED SCHOOLS.

- (a) The grounds adjoining a school building shall be properly drained.
- (b) The floor of every school building shall be at least 0·30 metre above the level of the ground adjacent to the school building.
- (c) Every building used as a school-house shall be in every part at least 2·74 metres in height from the floor to the ceiling, or to the point from which the roof springs.
- (d) One-fifth at least of the total external wall surface of a school building shall consist of doors and windows.
- (e) The floor shall be in any suitable material.
- (f) Every school building shall afford at least 74 square decimetres of internal area for every pupil in average attendance for the last quarter.
- (g) The roof of a school building shall be in shingles or thatch.
- (h) Every school building shall be at least 3·65 metres wide.
- (i) School furniture shall consist at least of :

Desks and benches affording respectively 0·61 metre in length by 0·35 metre in width of desk-space for Standard III and upwards, and 0·61 metre in length and 0·30 in width of bench-space per pupil in average attendance for the last quarter, the desks and the benches to be sufficiently low to allow the pupils when seated to rest their feet upon the floor or upon a foot-board ; due regard being had to the age, size and physical comfort of the pupils.

One black-board of at least 111 square decimetres for every 20 pupils in average attendance for the last quarter.

One desk and chair for the teacher's use.

One clock.

- (j) Every class-room shall admit sufficient day-light to enable the pupils to see distinctly whatever they read or write or is written out for them.

126. Should any building offered for school purposes not be entirely in accordance with the above mentioned conditions the Director shall decide, subject to appeal to the Governor by applicant, whether it shall be accepted or not.

127. Separate class-rooms or separate buildings should be provided as far as possible for boys and girls above 12 years of age attending the same school.

128. Separate privies should be provided, as far apart as possible, for boys and for girls.

129. There should be one privy for every 25 or part of 25 children.

130. Race or religion shall form no impediment to the admission of a child to a school.

131. No child shall be refused admission on other than reasonable grounds.

132. A school shall cease to receive grants from Government if :

(1) Its buildings or equipment do not satisfy the conditions of the Code.

(2) The Manager is guilty of gross mismanagement or fraud in connection with the school.

(3) The management or discipline of the school or the conduct of the pupils is grossly neglected.

133. The Director shall have power to prohibit the introduction into a school of improper literature or pictures and to apply for the withdrawal of the grant in case his request that such literature or pictures be instantly removed from the school should not be carried out.

134. No corporal punishment shall be inflicted in an aided school.

135. The Manager of an aided school shall not expel a pupil before submitting the case to the Director ; provided that the Manager may remove any child from the school pending the decision of the Director.

136. The pupils of a school shall be drilled every day for at least a quarter of an hour.

Returns.

137. The Manager of aided schools shall send to the Department all the returns required from a government school, except the return of pupils attending religious instruction.

Registers, Log Book, Ledger.

138. Admission and attendance registers and log book must be kept for an aided school as for a government school and according to the same rules.

139. The Manager may make any entries in the log book that he thinks fit.

140. The Manager of an aided school shall keep a ledger showing the receipts and expenditure of the school, which shall at all times be open to inspection and shall be sent to the Department immediately after the annual examination of the school with the attendance register.

Time-Table.

141. The time-table for an aided school must be prepared and submitted to the Director for approval and exhibited in the school according to the same rule as for a Government school.

Correspondence.

142. All correspondence with the Department respecting an aided school should be conducted by the Manager and should be addressed to the Director.

143. A teacher in an aided school should not address a letter to the Department but should address the Manager of the school.

144. Letters on service may be sent to the Director through the post free, but the envelope should be marked with the name of the sender and the initials O. H. M. S.

Printed Forms.

145. Printed forms will be supplied for the use of Managers of aided schools as for head teachers in government schools.

Languages to be Used and Taught in Schools.

146. In the lower classes of a school, to the third standard inclusive, any language may be employed as the medium of instruction, that language being used which is most suitable for the pupils as determined by the Manager of the school.

147. English and French shall be taught from the beginning as subjects of study, special attention being paid to conversation in those languages.

148. In the fourth standard and upward English shall alone be used as the medium of instruction and conversation between the teacher and the pupils, another language being employed only when it is necessary to explain something that is not understood in English ; except that lessons in French subjects shall be given in French.

EXAMINATIONS FOR CERTIFICATES AND SCHOLARSHIPS.

Examination of Teachers.

149. The examinations of teachers for certificates of competency shall be held annually in the month of August.

150. Second class and third class certificates shall be awarded on the results of these examinations.

151. The entrance fee for the examination for either of these certificates shall be two rupees. But in case a candidate has paid this fee and fails to present himself or to satisfy the examiners, the fee to be paid for the examination on a subsequent occasion shall be one rupee.

152. The subjects and standards of the examinations are given in Schedule D.

Examination of Monitors.

153. The examination of monitors for the monitor's certificate shall be held annually in August.

154. The entrance fee shall be one rupee.

155. The subjects and standard of the examination are given in Schedule C.

156. Volunteer teachers are exempted from the payment of the fee.

Primary Schools' Scholarships and Exhibitions for Boys.

157. Six scholarships and six exhibitions shall be awarded every year to pupils from Government or aided schools to be held at the Royal College.

158. The examinations for these scholarships and exhibitions will take place in the month of December.

159. All candidates must have attended Government or aided schools from the beginning of the second year preceding the year in which the examination takes place.

160. Candidates must not be over 15 years and not under 12 years of age on the first day of July in the year in which the examination takes place.

161. Before the examination, candidates must produce certificates of birth or there must be some other satisfactory proof of age.

162. The first six candidates will obtain scholarships and the next six will obtain exhibitions; except that no candidate will obtain a scholarship or an exhibition who does not secure three-fifths of the maximum marks obtainable.

If, however, all the places are not filled up, candidates who are under 14 on the first of July of the year of the examination may be appointed to them on condition that they have secured 50 per cent. of the same marks, and after that candidates who are under 13 on the same day on condition that they have obtained 40 per cent. of the same marks.

163. A scholarship shall entitle the holder of it to free tuition at the Royal College until the end of the year in which he is 20 years of age, and to money payments of 100 rupees per annum, payable monthly, for the first four years.

164. An exhibition shall entitle the holder of it to free tuition until the end of the year in which he is 20 years of age.

165. The Rector of the Royal College shall report to the Director at the end of each year, and on other occasions if necessary, on the conduct and progress of each scholar and exhibitioner; and on such report, if not satisfactory, the Director shall have the power to inflict the forfeiture, in whole or part of the scholarship or exhibition.

166. The subjects of examination will be English, French, Geography, Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry, Geometrical Drawing and English and French History.

167. Candidates will first be examined in English and French.

If they pass in each of these subjects they will then be examined in the other subjects, but not otherwise.

168. To obtain a scholarship or exhibition a candidate must pass in every subject by obtaining at least 30 per cent. of the maximum marks, obtainable in that subject.

169. If the parents or guardians of a scholar or exhibitioner are unable to pay for the books necessary for his use at the College, such books may be lent to him.

Primary Schools' Scholarships for Girls.

170. Four scholarships shall be awarded every year to girls from government or aided Schools.

171. The examinations for these scholarships will be held in the month of August.

172. Candidates must have attended Government or aided Schools for at least three years immediately preceding the first of August of the year in which the examination is held.

173. Candidates must be under 14 years of age on the 31st of August of the year in which the examination is held.

174. Candidates must have passed the fifth standard of instruction.

175. If a scholar has to travel by rail to attend school and her parents are unable to pay for her ticket she shall be given a free 3rd class ticket.

176. If the parents or guardians of a scholar are unable to pay for her books she shall be given the books necessary for her use at school.

177. Candidates must produce certificates of birth, or there must be some other satisfactory evidence of age at the time of applying for the examination.

178. The examination will be in the obligatory subjects of the fifth standard of instruction in a primary school and in the optional subjects, English, French and Geography.

179. The marks given to the various subjects of examination shall be as follows :

English	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100
French	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100
Arithmetic	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100
Geography	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50
										<hr/>
									Total	350
										<hr/>

180. No candidate will obtain a scholarship who does not secure at least one-third of the maximum marks in each subject and two-thirds of the total marks obtainable in all the subjects.

181. The scholarships will be tenable at any of the schools held in connection with the scheme for the Higher Education of Girls.

182. The scholarships will be tenable for three years.

183. Each scholarship will consist of :

(a) Payments of 144 rupees per annum payable monthly to the Manager of the school at which the scholar studies.

(b) Payments of 100 rupees per annum payable monthly, made to the parent or guardian of the scholar on her behalf.

184. A scholar must begin her course of study in the fourth or a higher standard in the scheme for the Higher Education of Girls. She must do creditably in the examination for the Higher Education of Girls and obtain a certificate from the Manager of her school at the end of each school year ; failing which she may be deprived of the whole or a part of her scholarship.

Classes in Manual Training.

185. A class may be established at a primary Government school for teaching the mechanical principles of a trade.

186. Such a class may also be established in connection with several such schools, pupils being sent to it from these schools.

187. The pupils attending such a class must have passed at least the second standard, and preference will be given to those who have passed a higher standard.

188. As a rule pupils will attend such a class for two periods of two hours each in each week ; but a class may be formed of younger pupils who attend for only one such period in each week.

189. Of the two hours devoted to instruction in such a class half an hour may be employed in drawing and explaining the work that is to be done.

190. The Director shall select the pupils who will be entitled to attend the class.

191. The teacher of the class must be a person well acquainted with the trade which he has to teach.

192. A single teacher shall not teach more than 20 pupils at a time.

193. With an assistant, being a person possessing an acquaintance with the trade, he may teach 30 pupils at a time.

194. Attention should be given in the early stages to teaching the pupils the principles of the trade and the proper manipulation of the tools rather than to the making of useful articles. Thus in carpentry they should learn to saw and plane to a line and to make simple joints, in tin-smith's work to prepare soldering tools and materials and to make solder joints ; and so on. When some progress has been made in the elementary principles the pupils should begin to make useful articles of a simple character.

195. A pupil may retain any article which he has made on paying for the materials which he has used in making it. Failing this any other pupil in the class may have the article on the same terms, otherwise the articles remain the property of Government.

196. When a manual training class is established, not in connection with any particular school, pupils may be selected for it from any schools in the neighbourhood whether Government or aided.

197. The Director shall select the pupils who will be entitled to attend the class.

198. Pupils who attend the class irregularly, without any reason acceptable to the Director, or who fail to make satisfactory progress in it, will be compelled to leave it

Reformatory.

199. Every pupil in the Reformatory or Industrial school shall be taught the mechanical principles of some trade.

200. All the pupils of the Reformatory learning one trade shall form a class ; and all the pupils of the Industrial school learning the same trade shall form a separate class.

201. Each class of pupils will receive instruction in manual work every week for 5 periods of at least three hours each.

202. The first half hour of each period may be given to drawing and explaining the work to be done.

203. The teacher of each trade must be a person well acquainted with the trade which he has to teach.

204. As in the case of manual training classes in connection with primary schools, attention must be given in the early stages to the teaching of the principles of the trade rather than to the making of useful articles.

Grant-in-Aid Schools.

205. A class in manual training may be established in connection with an aided primary school if the Department is satisfied that the equipment and arrangements proposed are suitable for the class and that it is useful for the locality.

206. A maintenance grant will be paid for such a class at the rate of five rupees per quarter on each pupil in attendance who satisfies the Department as being capable of profiting by the instruction given in the class, who makes satisfactory progress and who attends the class for not less than 8 lessons of 2 hours each during the quarter.

207. Such a class established in connection with an aided school must be carried on according to the same rules as those for classes in manual training in connection with Government schools, and the Manager may select any children for it, whether they attend his school or not, provided they have passed the Second Standard.

208. The number of students that it is intended to teach in the class at one and the same time and also the number that it is intended to teach during one and the same quarter must be approved by the Department.

Additional Rules respecting Holders of Fourth Class and Bishops' Certificates.

209. The present holders of Fourth Class Teachers' Certificates, granted on examination, who are head teachers, will, after the coming into force of these regulations, be regarded as certificated teachers, and will be paid fixed salaries at the rates at which they are paid at present, and result grants according to the scale of payments of result grants to head teachers.

210. Other holders of such certificates being assistant teachers will be regarded as certificated teachers, and will be paid at the rates at which they are paid at present.

211. A monitor's certificate will be granted to any person who produces a testimonial from the Head of any of the Christian Churches recognised by the State in Mauritius that such person has received such instruction as to render him or her competent to assist in primary school teaching.

212. The present holders of teachers' certificates from the Heads of the Christian Churches who are employed as head teachers or as assistant teachers shall continue to be regarded as certificated teachers, and shall be paid fixed salaries and result grants at the rates at which they are paid at present.

Passed by the Committee of Primary Instruction at their meetings February 24, March 11, April 29, June 2, June 9, June 19, June 30, July 24 and August 14.

Approved as amended by His Excellency the Governor at a meeting of the Executive Council held on the 26th September, 1902.

Mode of coming into operation of the Regulations in Code B.

Art. 213.—These Regulations shall come into operation and shall apply to all established Government and Grant-in-aid Schools on the day following the annual examination of each school next following the date when they shall have force of law.

Provided that they may come into operation and may apply to any established Government or Grant-in-aid school on the first day of January, 1903, if notice shall have been given before that date, that at the next Annual examination such school will be presented in the Standards of examination, and in accordance with the requirements of the Code. Such notice shall be given by the Director, in the case of Government Schools, and by the Manager in the case of Grant-in-aid Schools.

This Code shall apply to all new schools from the date that it shall have force of law.

Passed by the Committee of Primary Instruction, in virtue of art. 11 of Ordinance No. 33 of 1899, at their meeting of the 2nd October, 1902.

Approved by His Excellency the Governor at a Meeting of the Executive Council held on the 3rd October, 1902.

Laid on the table of the Council of Government at a Meeting held on the 7th October, 1902 and amended at a Meeting held on the 4th November, 1902.

SCHEDULE A.

Standards of Examination in Primary Government and State-Aided Schools.

ELEMENTARY SUBJECTS.

Below Standard.

English.

Conversation ... To give the names of thirty common objects on being shown the objects or pictures of them and to know fifteen simple adjectives.

French.

Reading ... To read from print short words of three or four letters, small letters only; (about 10 pages from an Infant Reader or similar book.)

Writing ... To copy on slate the small letters in manuscript.

Conversation ... To give the names of forty common objects on being shown the objects or pictures of them and to know twenty simple adjectives.

Arithmetic.

To know the meanings of the ten figures 0 to 9 and their names in English and French.

Standard I.

English.

Conversation ... To give and to know when heard the names of fifty common objects and twenty-five simple adjectives. To learn at least twelve very short sentences composed of the simplest words.

French.

Reading ... To read from the reading book short simple sentences of words which are not as a rule of more than one syllable; (about 30 pages from a first Standard Reader or similar book.)

Writing ... To copy on slate in manuscript characters from print, and to write words which are spelt. Capital and small letters to be known.

Conversation ... To understand and reply to very simple sentences, only those words being used which occur in the reading book.

Arithmetic.

To write on slate from dictation up to twenty in English. To add and subtract numbers up to 20 orally in English.

Standard II.

English.

Reading ... To read simple words of three or four letters; (about 15 pages from a First Standard Reader or similar book).

Conversation ... To converse in simple sentences, using the words of the reading book.

French.

Reading ... To read from the reading book simple sentences and short stories and other simple sentences containing only the words that occur in the book; (about 45 pages from a First Standard Reader or similar book.)

- Writing* To write on a slate, from dictation, passages from the reading book, and other passages containing only the words of the book.
- Conversation* To understand and reply to simple sentences, those words only being used which occur in the reading book.

Arithmetic.

Simple addition and subtraction of numbers of not more than three figures. Multiplication Tables as far as 6 times 12. (English to be used.)

Standard III.*English.*

- Reading* To read from the reading book simple sentences composed of short words and to read other sentences composed of the words of the book. (About 30 pages from a First or Second Standard Reader or similar book.)
- Writing* To write on slate, from dictation, sentences from the book and others composed of the words of the book.
- Conversation* To converse in simple sentences using only the words of the book.

French.

- Reading* To read simple sentences and stories from the reading book, and others containing the words only that occur in the book. (About 60 pages from a Second Standard Reader or similar book.)
- Writing* To write on a slate, from dictation, passages from the reading book and other simple sentences and answers to simple questions, those words only being used which occur in the reading book.
- Conversation* To converse in simple sentences, those words only being necessary which are to be learnt from the reading book.

Arithmetic.

Simple addition, subtraction, multiplication and division, numeration to 1,000,000. (English to be used.)

Standard IV.*English.*

- Reading* To read from the reading book simple sentences or stories composed of short words, and others containing words of about the same difficulty. (A Third Standard Reader or similar book.)
- Writing* To write with pen and ink, from dictation, simple sentences and stories from the reading book and others containing words of about the same difficulty.
- Conversation* To converse in simple language using the words of the reading book and others of about the same difficulty.

French.

- Reading* To read simple stories from the reading book and others of about the same difficulty. (A Third Standard Reader or similar book.)

Writing ... To write with pen and ink simple passages from dictation and answers to simple questions and very short simple descriptions of objects and of events.

Conversation ... To converse in simple language and to describe simple objects and events.

Arithmetic.

Numeration. Easy problems on the four simple rules. Sums in bazaar and shop accounts in Rupees and cents. Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication and Division in Rupees and cents, in Metric Tables and in Table of Time. Reduction in the tables.

Standard V.

English and French.

Reading ... To read passages not containing uncommon words or difficult or unusual expressions.

Writing ... To write from dictation with pen and ink passages not containing uncommon words or difficult or unusual expressions. To write simple accounts of objects and events which have been seen by or described to the pupils. To write in simple language the substance of stories which have been read aloud.

Conversation ... To converse on simple subjects in plain language.

Arithmetic.

Bills or invoices. Questions on Metric Tables. Greatest Common Measure. Least Common Multiple. Very simple Questions on Vulgar Fractions. Simple Questions on areas of Rectangular Surfaces.

Standard VI.

English and French.

Reading ... To read passages from Standard Authors not containing unusual difficulties.

Writing ... To write from dictation. To write plain descriptions and letters on given subjects. To reproduce in writing the substance of a plain narrative or other composition which is read aloud.

Conversation ... General Conversation, not involving unusual difficulties.

Arithmetic.

Vulgar and decimal fractions with questions involving their use. Questions on areas of rectangular surfaces and volumes of rectangular solids.

OPTIONAL SUBJECTS.

ENGLISH OR FRENCH.

Standard III.

To repeat twenty lines of simple verse. To point out the nouns, adjectives and verbs in the piece.

Standard IV.

To recite with intelligence and expression thirty lines of poetry, and to know their meaning. To point out the parts of speech in a simple sentence and to form simple sentences containing them.

Standard V.

To recite with intelligence and expression fifty lines of poetry, and to know their meaning. To parse easy sentences and to show by examples the use of the parts of speech.

Standard VI.

To recite with intelligence and expression fifty lines of poetry and to explain the words and allusions. To parse and analyse simple sentences.

EXTRA OPTIONAL SUBJECTS.**GEOGRAPHY.****Standard III.**

To explain a plan of the school-room and its surroundings, the four cardinal points, the meaning and use of a map.

Standard IV.

Geographical terms simply explained and illustrated by reference to the pictorial chart of Geography, and Map of Mauritius. To draw from memory an outline Map of Mauritius showing the Districts and principal places.

Standard V.

A thorough knowledge of the geography of Mauritius with complete map from memory. Some acquaintance with the Geography of Europe.

Standard VI.

Europe with complete map from memory.

ARITHMETIC.**Standard IV.**

Questions on the British money table and the connection between pounds shillings and pence and rupees and cents.

Standard V.

Questions on the British tables of length and area and the connection between British and Metric measures of length and area.

Standard VI.

Questions on the British tables of volume and weight and the connection between the British and Metric Measures of volume and weight.

ELEMENTARY SCIENCE FOR BOYS.**Standard IV.**

Animals. (Blackie's Tropical Reader No. 1.)

Standard V.

Plants. (Blackie's Tropical Reader No. 1.)

Standard VI.

Animals and Plants. (Blackie's Tropical Reader No. 2.)

NEEDLEWORK FOR GIRLS.

Standard IV.

Hemming, Seaming, Felling. Any garment or other useful article which can be completed by those stitches *e.g.* a child's pinafore, pillow-case, or pocket-handkerchief, patterns of which may be seen at the Education Office.

Standard V.

The works of Standard IV. Stitching and sewing on strings, gathering, setting in, button-hole, sewing on button. Garment: Pinafore, shift, apron, a plain night-shirt, night-gown or petticoat, herring-bone stitch; patterns of which may be seen at the Education Office. The stitch only on canvas or flannel. Darning, simple, on canvas.

Standard VI.

The work of the previous Standards and the running-tuck. Garment as in Standard V. Plain darning of a hole in stocking-web material, patching in calico and flannel. Cutting out any garment such as is required in Standard V., patterns of which may be seen at the Education Office.

REMARKS.

1. In Reading, attention should be paid to pronunciation, distinctness of speech and proper intonation. All that is read should be understood by the pupil and should be read in such a manner that it may be understood by others.

2. In Writing, not only should attention be paid to correctness of spelling, but good hand-writing should be cultivated. A proper position of the pupil and a proper manner of holding the writing materials are important.

3. In Arithmetic, besides accuracy of working, neatness in arranging the work and in forming the figures should receive attention.

4. In any Standard a pass will be obtained by securing two-fifths of the marks in each division of English and of French and in Arithmetic.

5. Pass Certificates will be awarded to the pupils who pass in any Standard.

6. Certificates of Merit will be awarded to the pupils who secure four-fifths of the total marks obtainable in each obligatory subject of the Standard.

SCHEDULE B.

Syllabus for Indian Dialects.

(Tamil, Telugoo, Hindi) in Indian Schools, Standards: Below, I, II, III, IV.

(In half-time schools established for the Indian population in which the instruction is carried to the Fourth Standard only, an Indian dialect may be taught instead of English or French.)

Below Standard.

Reading To learn the names of the letters.

Writing To copy on slate characters from print; to write words which are spelt.

Standard I.

- Reading* To read from reading book. (30 pages of Primer or other similar book.)
- Writing* To write on slate from dictation passages from reading book and other passages containing the words of the book.
- Conversation* ... Simple conversation in words similar to those of book

Standard II.

- Reading* To read from reading book, to read passages containing only words of book. (50 pages of First Standard Reader or other similar book.)
- Writing* To write on slate from dictation passages from reading book and other passages containing the words of the book.
- Conversation* ... Simple conversation in words of reading book and words of similar difficulty.

Standard III.

- Reading* To read from reading book ; to read passages containing words of similar difficulty to those of book. (70 pages of Third Standard Reader or similar book.)
- Writing* To write from dictation passages from reading book and other passages of similar difficulty. To write answers to simple questions.
- Conversation* ... Simple Conversation in words of similar difficulty to those of reading book.

Standard IV.

- Reading* To read from reading book ; to read simple passages from any book.
- Writing* To write simple passages from dictation. To write simple descriptions of objects and events. To write substance of simple stories which have been read aloud.
- Conversation* ... To converse in simple language.
-

SCHEDULE C.

Examination for Monitor's Certificate.

Mark :	English.	French.	School Management.	Penmanship.	Arithmetic.	Geography.	History.	Drawing.	Elementary Science.	Needle-work for Female Teachers.	Total.
	150	150	150	50	100	50	50	50	50	50	Maximum Marks. Males: 800 Females 850.
	<p>Grammar, Reading and Conversation, Dictation, Translation, Composition: To reproduce the substance of a narrative slowly read by the examiner.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">— — —</p> <p>Text Books recommended. West's English Grammar for beginners, Laurie's Easy Steps in English Composition.</p>	<p>Grammar, Reading and Conversation. Dictation, Translation, Composition as in English.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">— — —</p> <p>Text Book recommended. Larousse's Lexicologie I year entire.</p>	<p>Notes of Lessons. Keeping of School registers.</p>	<p>To write a specimen of the penmanship used in setting copies of text-hand and small hand.</p>	<p>Exercises involving the English & metric Systems of weights and measures, and the English and Colonial currencies. Vulgar and Decimal Fractions.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">— — —</p> <p>Text Book recommended. C. Smith's Arithmetic.</p>	<p>Europe, general outlines. The United Kingdom and Mauritius in particular, with map. Form and motions of the earth. Explanations of day and night and the seasons.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">— — —</p> <p>Text Books recommended. Hughes' Class Book of Modern Geography. Geography of Mauritius. Gill's Atlas.</p>	<p>History of England: From the reign of William I. to the close of the reign of Henry III.</p> <p>History of France: To the death of St. Louis, 1270.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">— — —</p> <p>Text Books recommended. Lingard's abridgment of the History of England (by Burke.) Brouard's Histoire de France. Cours Elementaire.</p>	<p>First Grade Freehand Drawing.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">— — —</p> <p>Text Book recommended. Kennedy's I Grade Freehand Copies.</p>	<p>Dict, ventilation, clothing, soil and climate (Blackie's Tropical Reader, No. 3.)</p> <p>The shirt sleeve test to include the following: streaking by running and tugging; hemming, gathering, button-hole, the gusset, setting in or sewing in, button-hole, the gusset, an eyelet hole, a loop of the size of an ordinary button. A patch for repairing old linen, the seams to be done by tugging and the patches put in place by the candidates themselves. A sample of herring-bone work on flannel or woollen material and used as a hem or to finish a seam.</p>		

A pass in any one subject is gained by getting half the maximum marks in that subject. To obtain a certificate candidates must pass in English, French, School Management, Penmanship and Arithmetic: Boys must also pass in Geography, and girls must pass in Needle work; and any candidate must obtain two-thirds of the total number of marks obtainable.

SCHEDULE D.

Examination for Teacher's Certificates.

Max. Marks.	English.	French.	School Management.	Penmanship.	Arithmetic.	Geography.	History.	Drawing.	Algebra.	Geometry.	Needle-work.
	200	200	200	100	200	100	100	100	100	100	200
Examination for Third Class Certificates.	<p>Grammar, Reading and Conversation, Composition, Translation.</p> <p>Text Books recommended.</p> <p>Morell's Grammar and Exercises, Parts I. & II. Laurie's Practical Text Book of English Composition.</p>	<p>Grammar, Reading and Conversation, Composition, Translation.</p> <p>Text Books recommended.</p> <p>Larousse's 2nd. year to page 66; and Grammaire complete II. year.</p>	<p>Methods of teaching. Reading, Writing and Arithmetic, Time Tables.</p> <p>Text Book recommended.</p> <p>Manual of the Science and Art of Teaching.</p>	<p>To write a specimen of the penmanship used in setting copies of text hand and small hand.</p>	<p>Miscellaneous questions involving the English and Metric Systems of Weights and Measures and the English and Colonial Currencies. Fractions and Proportions.</p> <p>Text Book recommended.</p> <p>C. Smith's Arithmetic.</p>	<p>General outlines of the World. Outline questions of Physical Geography, Map Drawing.</p> <p>Text Books recommended.</p> <p>Hughes' Class Book of Modern Geography. Hughes' Physical Geography. Johnston's Political Atlas, or Gill's Victoria Atlas.</p>	<p>History of England: From Edward I. to the close of the House of York. History of France: To the accession of Louis XIV. (1643).</p> <p>Text books recommended.</p> <p>Lingard's abridgment of the History of England (by Burke). Brouard's Histoire de France, Cours Moyen.</p>	<p>1st Grade Practical Geometry. 2nd Grade Freehand.</p> <p>Text Books recommended.</p> <p>Gill's First Grade. Practical Geometry. Kennedy's II. Grade Freehand Copies.</p>	<p>Substitutions, Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication, Division, Simple equations in one unknown quantity, and easy problems producing them.</p> <p>Text Book recommended.</p> <p>Hall and Knight's Elementary Algebra.</p>	<p>Euclid I. 1-23, with easy deductions.</p> <p>Text Book recommended Hall and Stevens.</p>	<p>The work of the Monitors' examination. Sewing on a sizing. Sewing on a button. Whip stitch. Setting on a frill. Marking.</p>

Max. Marks.	200	200	200	100	200	100	100	100	100	100	200
Examination for Second Class Certificates.	<p>Grammar, Analysis, Essay, Translation.</p> <p>Text Books recommended.</p> <p>Morell's Grammar and Exercises, Part III.</p> <p>Laurie's Practical Text Book of English Composition.</p> <p>A Book by a Standard Author, to be set each year.</p>	<p>Grammar, Analysis, Essay, Translation.</p> <p>Text Books recommended.</p> <p>Larousse's Lexicologie II. year entire, and Grammaire Supérieure III. year.</p> <p>Pellissier's Premiers Principes de style et de composition.</p> <p>A Book by a Standard Author to be set each year.</p>	<p>School Organization. Methods of Teaching.</p> <p>Practical examination in teaching English, French, Arithmetic and Geography.</p> <p>Text Book recommended.</p> <p>Manual of the Science and Art of Teaching.</p>	<p>To write a specimen of the penmanship used in settling copies of Text hand and small hand.</p>	<p>General questions and problems, Interest, Insurance Discount, Profit, and Loss, Exchanges.</p> <p>Text Book recommended.</p> <p>G. Smith's Arithmetic.</p>	<p>The World. The British Empire particularly, with maps, Questions in Physical Geography.</p> <p>General Questions on Commercial Geography.</p> <p>Text Books recommended.</p> <p>Hughes' Geography of British Empire.</p> <p>Hughes' Physical Geography.</p> <p>Johnston's Atlas of British Empire.</p>	<p>History of England: The Tudor and Stuart periods.</p> <p>History of France: To the present time.</p> <p>Text Book recommended.</p> <p>Lingard's abridgment of the History of England (by Burkel).</p> <p>Brouard's Histoire de France. Cours supérieur.</p>	<p>II. Grade Practical Geometry, Mechanical and Ornamental Drawing.</p> <p>Text Book recommended.</p> <p>Gill's II. Grade Practical Geometry.</p>	<p>The foregoing with simple equations in one and more unknown quantities and problems producing them.</p> <p>Text Books recommended.</p> <p>Hall and Knight's Elementary Algebra.</p>	<p>Euclid I. with deductions.</p> <p>Text Book recommended.</p> <p>Hall and Stevens.</p>	<p>The work of Class III. : Feather stitch or coral stitch, ornament linen garments.</p> <p>Tucking, marking on table linen, towels, &c., crochét.</p>

1. One-half of the marks allotted for English, French, School Management, Penmanship, and Arithmetic, and two-thirds of the total maximum marks are required for a pass.
2. Female Teachers may be examined in Needlework in lieu of Algebra and Euclid.
3. Candidates who have passed the Junior Cambridge Local Examination or the Examination for the French Brevet de capacité élémentaire or the 6th or 7th Standard Examination of the Higher Education of Girls or who can produce certificates from the Rector of the Royal College to the effect that they have obtained half the total number of marks at the December examination of the Middle Class or the Upper Remove Class of the Royal College or who have obtained any other certificate which the Director will consider equivalent shall be required to use only in School Management in order to obtain a 3rd Class Certificate.
4. Candidates who have passed the Senior Cambridge Local Examination or the London University Matriculation Examination shall be awarded a 2nd Class Certificate on their using in School Management.
5. Candidates who are holders of 1st Class Certificates of the Royal College of Preceptors or holders of the French Brevet de capacité supérieur or who have obtained any other certificate which the Director will consider equivalent, shall be entitled to a 2nd Class Certificate.

SCHEDULE E.

Programme of Studies for School Scholarships.

English.	French.	Arithmetic.	Geography.	History.	Algebra.	Geometry.	Drawing	Total
Max : Marks :—140	140	100	50	50	100	100	100	780
<p>A short paragraph from a book unknown to the candidates to be read intelligently and fluently and questions on the meaning of it answered. (20)</p> <p>Conversation. (20)</p> <p>To recite with expression fifty lines of poetry and to explain the words and allusions. (20)</p> <p>Grammar, including parsing and analysis of easy sentences. (20)</p> <p>Text book:—West's English Grammar for Beginners.</p> <p>To write from dictation a passage containing about 100 words from a book unknown to the candidates; handwriting and spelling to be considered. (20)</p> <p>Translation from French into English. (20)</p> <p>Letter or short narration. (20)</p>	<p>A short paragraph from a book unknown to the candidates to be read intelligently and fluently and questions on the meaning of it answered. (20)</p> <p>Conversation. (20)</p> <p>To recite with expression fifty lines of poetry and to explain the words and allusions. (20)</p> <p>Grammar, including parsing and analysis of easy sentences. (20)</p> <p>Text book: Larousse's Grammaire Elémentaire Lexicologie Ire année.</p> <p>To write from dictation a passage containing about 100 words taken from a book unknown to the candidates; handwriting and spelling to be considered. (20)</p> <p>Translation from English into French. (20)</p> <p>Letter or short narration. (20)</p>	<p>Pendlebury:—From p. 1 to p. 152; 160 to 202; 262 to 267; 273 to 294.</p>	<p>Europe, general outline. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and Mauritius in particular, with maps. Elementary Physical Geography. Text Books.</p> <p>—</p> <p>Longman's Geographical Series Book 2. Geography of Mauritius.</p>	<p>History of England:—The first part of the work down to the Norman Conquest. Text Book:—Lingard's abridgment of the History of England by Burke.</p> <p>History of France:—The first part of the work to the death of St. Louis. Text book:—Brouard's Histoire de France, Cours élémentaire.</p>	<p>Definitions and explanation of Algebraical Signs and Terms. Use of Brackets, Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication and Division. Simple cases of Resolution of Algebraical expressions into factors. Equations of the first degree in one and more unknown quantities and problems producing them. Text Book.</p> <p>—</p> <p>Hall and Knight.</p>	<p>Euclid Book I and easy deductions. Text Book.</p> <p>—</p> <p>Hall and Stevens.</p>	<p>Practical Geometry Grade I and Easy Freehand Copies. Text Books.</p> <p>—</p> <p>Gill's First Grade Practical Geometry and Kennedy's Freehand Copies Grade I.</p>	

APPENDIX C.

ROYAL COLLEGE OF MAURITIUS.

RULES AND REGULATIONS, 1901.

1. The object of the Royal College is to provide for the youth of the Colony a superior course of classical and general Education ; to prepare them for Matriculation and degrees in the Universities of the Mother Country ; and, also, to provide instruction for the students in special subjects.

2. The Royal College comprehends Schools of Classics, Mathematics, Natural Sciences, and Modern Languages. The regular course comprises instruction in all these branches ; but students will be allowed to follow particular branches subject to such regulations as may be established by the College Committee.

3. The Classes of the Royal College shall be open to the pupils of all other Educational Establishments ; on terms to be specified by the Committee, and approved by His Excellency the Governor.

Responsible Parties.

4. Admission to the regular course, as well as to the special classes, shall be obtained by, or for, any candidate on acceptance by a responsible party for him of the established regulations of the Institution, and on payment of the fees.

5. Every candidate applying for admission to the Royal College shall receive, on application, the Rules and Regulations which govern the Institution ; and an admission paper containing certain queries regarding the age, religion, health, and general antecedents of the candidate.

6. The paper shall be signed by the parent, guardian, or responsible party, who may stand *in loco parentis* to the candidate during his academic career.

7. The signature of the paper shall import :

(a) An obligation to pay the fees of the pupil.

(b) An obligation to replace any article lost or destroyed and to repair any article damaged by the pupil.

(c) An acceptance of the Rules and Regulations of the Royal College, both those made at the time, and those which may be made subsequently to the date of signing ; and an obligation to co-operate with the authorities of the College.

(d) A copy of the Rules and Regulations with its annexures shall be delivered to the parent, guardian, or responsible party,—or to any substitute provided according to Art. 8, who shall give a receipt for the same, acknowledging that the said party is acquainted with such Rules and Regulations.

8. This responsibility shall continue until the party either finds a substitute and an obligation as above provided shall have been signed by such substitute in his stead, or until he withdraws the pupil.

9. No paper shall be signed by the pupils, signatures from whom shall only be required on their daily work, books or themes.

Fees.

10. The College fees for the Regular course or for occasional and special studies, in any branch, shall be fixed from time to time by the College Committee, with the approval of the Governor.

The fees at present are fixed at Rs. 12 per month. The recovery of fees regulated by Ordinances, printed copies of which are hereunto annexed.

11. In the case of brothers and half-brothers attending any department of the Royal College simultaneously, a reduction shall be allowed of Rs. 2 per month on each brother.

In special cases in which a "Responsible Party" pays out of his own means the College fees of two or more boys not being brothers or half-brothers, it shall be in the power of the Committee to recommend the same reduction as is made in the case of brothers.

12. Exemption from fees may be accorded by the Governor, on the recommendation of the Rector, to those Students of the highest classes who shall be desirous of continuing some longer time at the Royal College after their ordinary College career is finished in order to follow some special studies, provided that their conduct be "very good," their progress "satisfactory," and that they be willing to devote a portion of their time to the special use and benefit of the institution.

13. The College Committee shall have the power to recommend to His Excellency the Governor for entire or partial exemption from fees during the remainder of their College career a certain number of pupils of the Royal College who through the death or sudden destitution of their parents are unable to continue the regular payments, provided that such pupils shall have been at least two years pupils of the Royal College, having regularly paid their fees, provided also that during that period their conduct has been generally good and their application and progress satisfactory; and provided further the number of pupils so exempted shall not exceed five per cent. of the number of paying students.*

14. Every facility will be granted to the Ministers of the Christian religion in the Colony to afford Religious Instruction to the pupils of their respective creeds. No pupil will be required to attend Religious Instruction if his parents or responsible party shall declare in writing to the Religious Instructor that he or she objects to the pupil's attendance at the class of Religious Instruction.

15. The Religious Instruction shall form a special branch of the College education, and shall be conducted in conformity with the rules which regulate the secular instruction.

16. Only these pupils who belong to one of the two prevailing Christian Churches in the Colony, shall be bound to attend Religious Instruction.

17. The instruction will comprise Sacred History, Catechism and the Greek Testament. Sacred History shall be taught by clergymen of the two Churches, appointed for that purpose.

18. The students shall be examined for special marks and prizes for religious knowledge in the classes; they shall also pass periodically oral and written examinations.

Absence.

19. Absence is to be explained on the day of return by a letter from the parent or responsible person. Unauthorised absence will be punished.

In case of repeated absence, rustication may be resorted to.

No boy, whose absences shall exceed thirty working days in the year, shall be eligible for any prize, medal, scholarship or exhibition, unless the absences, occurring after the first thirty, are accounted for by a medical certificate, or, on an application to be made by the boy's responsible party within a fortnight of each absence, are proved to the satisfaction of the College Committee to have been due to some sufficient cause. Two absences of two hours each shall count as one day's absence.

This rule shall not apply to any examination taking place before the 1st of November, 1897.

* C.S.L. A/1748 of the 4th August 1890 empowers the College Committee to recommend to the Governor for a grant of free tuition any deserving pupil of the Government or State-aided Schools whose scholarship or exhibition tenable at the Royal College has lapsed, and whose parents are certified to be unable to pay the College fees, on condition that such recommendations are made on only very exceptional circumstances.

For the purpose of this Regulation the word "year" shall mean the academical year beginning on the 1st of January, except that, with reference to Matriculation Examinations, it shall mean the interval between two January or two June Examinations.

The Rector shall cause to be kept a register of such absences, which register shall be accessible to the boys and the responsible parties during hours fixed by the Rector; and the Rector shall give warning to the responsible parties of any absence beyond the above thirty absences. Such warning shall be given through the Post Office by a registered letter.

Punishments.

20. The general punishments will be :

- 10.—Arrest and imposition of an hour to be awarded by any Professor.
- 20.—Arrest of two hours or more and deprivation of weekly holidays or part of any vacation to be awarded by the Rector—such deprivation not to exceed a week without the approval of the College Committee.
- 30.—Rustication to be awarded by the Rector provisionally subject to the final decision of the Committee.
- 40.—Expulsion by the Committee.
- 50.—The pupils of the Royal College are liable to the punishments mentioned in Article 20 of the Rules and Regulations of the Royal College for misconduct in the railway or in any other public place.

21. The classification of the students will be regulated by marks allotted during the term, for application; and at the Terminal Examinations, for progress.

22. These marks shall be registered, and preserved in the College Records, for reference and guidance in every case of application for College Certificates.

23. On the Terminal Examinations will depend the prizes offered for progress in special branches.

24. Prizes for industry and application will be granted to meritorious students.

25. The award of all Prizes shall be subject to the general good conduct of the pupils.

26. All pupils of the Royal College who shall have matriculated at the University of London and passed the final examination to the satisfaction of Examiners, shall receive the diploma of Associates of the Royal College.

Scholarships.

ENGLISH SCHOLARSHIPS.

27. By the terms of Art. I and II of Ordinance 15 of 1892.

I. (1) The Governor shall select every year two pupils of the Royal College, and shall award to each of such pupils, here after called Laureates, a Scholarship of the value of £200 per annum, free of Income Tax, tenable for four years, for the purpose of enabling such Laureate to pursue his studies in the United Kingdom or in any other country in which the Secretary of State for the Colonies may for special reasons allow him to reside.

(2) The Laureates shall be selected by the Governor according to the Rules of the last yearly examinations and in conformity with any rules and regulations made or to be made by the Council of Education and approved by the Governor, provided that no pupil shall be selected as a Laureate whom the Governor in Executive Council shall find unworthy of such a distinction on account of gross misconduct either as a pupil or otherwise.

II. Every Laureate shall also be entitled to an allowance of seventy-five pounds or such other amount as may from time to time be fixed by the Governor, with the consent of the Council of Government, to defray his passage to England and to a like sum in payment of his return passage to Mauritius at the expiration of the said four years.

The following Rules and Regulations have been framed by the Council of Education in accordance with Article 6 of Ordinance 15 of 1892.

28. It shall be lawful for the Governor, or the Secretary of State, to authorise the payment to any Laureate at such times, and in such sums, and upon such conditions, as he may think proper, of any such moneys as would be payable to him by way of annual allowance if he were to continue his studies for the period of four years provided the sum so paid do not in the aggregate exceed the amount of (£800) eight hundred pounds sterling.

29. The conditions under which pupils of the Royal College shall be allowed to compete for these rewards are, subject to the proviso contained in paragraph 2 of Article 1 of Ordinance 15 of 1892, those enacted in the following articles :—

30. Every candidate shall be a British subject, and shall have resided in the Colony for the ten years immediately before the competition, and his parents (both or either of them) shall also have resided therein for the like period prior to the date of competition.

No temporary absence, or absences, from the Colony of the parents not exceeding altogether *three* years, and no temporary absence or absences from the Colony of the candidate not exceeding altogether two years, shall be considered as interrupting the ten years' residence required by this Regulation, provided the candidate has not been absent from the Colony for more than six months during the four years immediately preceding the competition.

Orphans who after the death of their parents shall continue to reside in the Colony, shall be entitled to reckon the term of such residence in order to make up the required ten years' residence.

31. Every candidate must have been a pupil of the Royal College during the eight terms immediately preceding that in which the competition is held. This rule not to disqualify a candidate who has been temporarily absent from the Colony as specified in Article 30.

32. The examination shall take place in the month of December; and no candidate shall be admitted to compete if above 20 years before the first day of July previous. In case of need the College Committee is empowered to postpone the examination.

33. Every candidate shall be bound to send to the Rector of the Royal College before the 1st of September previous to the competition, an application for admission to the examination accompanied by evidence of age and a declaration by his responsible party that the candidate satisfies the conditions laid down in Article 30.

No application made after that date shall be entertained.

34. The list of candidates shall be posted up by the Rector in a conspicuous place at the Royal College before the 15th of September; any objection as to the qualifications of any candidate must be raised before the 15th of October following by letter addressed to the Rector, who shall communicate the list with the objections, if any, to the College Committee before the 1st of November. The College Committee shall decide what candidates satisfy the condition laid down by the preceding rules; the decision of the Committee shall be subject to the approval of the Governor in Executive Council, and such decision, when so approved, shall be final and conclusive as to the qualifications of the candidates required by the preceding articles.

35. Every candidate on the Classical side must satisfy the College Committee, before the 1st of December immediately preceding the English Scholarship Examination that he has passed the Matriculation Examination of the University of London, and every candidate on the Modern side

that he has passed the Senior Cambridge Local Examination in English, French, Mathematics, Theoretical Chemistry, Practical Chemistry, Statics, Hydrostatics, and Dynamics.

36. (a) In December 1894 and in the following years, one of the English Scholarships shall be awarded by the results of an examination based upon the course of studies followed in the highest class on the Classical side, and the other English Scholarship by the results of an examination based upon the course of studies followed in the highest class on the Modern side.

(b) No pupil to be allowed to compete in both examinations. If on either side there shall be no candidate deserving of a Scholarship in the opinion of the examiners, both Scholarships may be awarded to candidates on the other side.

(c) The marks should be allotted as follows :

<i>Classical side</i> :—Total number of marks	-	-	-	-	2,000
English (including History and Literature)	-	-	-	-	300
French { " " }	-	-	-	-	300
Latin { " " }	-	-	-	-	500
Greek { " " }	-	-	-	-	500
Mathematics (Programme of the Intermediate Examination in Arts of the London University)	-	-	-	-	400
<hr/>					
<i>Modern side</i> :—Total number of marks	-	-	-	-	2,000
English (Including History and Literature)	-	-	-	-	300
French { " " }	-	-	-	-	300
Mathematics	-	-	-	-	700
Chemistry	-	-	-	-	400
Physics	-	-	-	-	300

37. The successful candidate or candidates will have to proceed to Oxford, Cambridge, one of the Scotch Universities, Trinity College, Dublin, one of the Queen's Colleges, Ireland, University College, London, one of the Inns of Court, the Royal Indian Engineering College, Cooper's Hill, or such other place of Education in the United Kingdom as shall be approved by the Governor, or such place of Education in any other country as the Secretary of State for the Colonies may, for special reasons, allow him to enter ; and will be required to gain such certificates of good conduct and progress as are usually awarded to meritorious students.

The full amount of the allowance will only be paid if the certificates are excellent. The amount payable will be reduced by £2, £3, or £4 a month respectively, if the certificates are less satisfactory. If the total amount of reduction in any year exceeds £35, it will be for the Governor and the Secretary of State to consider whether the Scholarship should not terminate.

38. Every student joining one of the Inns of Court shall be bound, except when exempted from doing so by the Secretary of State for the Colonies, to produce to the Crown Agents, in order to receive the instalments of his Scholarship as they become payable, certificates showing that he has attended two-thirds of the lectures and classes, provided by the Council of Legal Education, in two subjects during each term, and has passed a satisfactory Examination in three subjects.

39. Every laureate shall, as a condition of his nomination to an English Scholarship, make and subscribe an undertaking countersigned by his father or his lawful guardian in the form prescribed by the Schedule annexed to these Rules and Regulations.

40. The Examination will be conducted by Examiners in England, and no Scholarship will be awarded to candidates declared by the Examiners to be undeserving.

41. These Regulations shall take effect from the 1st of January 1894 and on and from that date all previous Rules and Regulations concerning the English Scholarships shall be *ipso facto* repealed.

42. At each examination conducted by the Examiners of the University of London for matriculation of that University, one Scholarship of the annual value of Rs. 250, with free tuition tenable for two years will be given to the most successful competitor.

No candidate shall be entitled to a Scholarship unless he pass the "Honours Division" or "First Division."

The holder of a Scholarship or of an Exhibition, who shall win a Scholarship, or an Exhibition, of higher value, or of longer tenure, shall be entitled to the latter only. The same rule shall apply to the holder of an Exhibition who shall win a Scholarship.

The holder of a Scholarship who shall win an Exhibition, shall continue to enjoy his Scholarship, at the expiration of which he shall be entitled to such portion of the Exhibition as would then have been available, supposing he had been holding the Scholarship and the Exhibition concurrently.

In such cases, the first portion of the Exhibition may be awarded by the results of the same examination, to the next eligible candidate in order of merit.

The available portion of any Scholarship, not being an English Scholarship, or of any Exhibition, which may be vacated by the death of the holder, or by the death or withdrawal of the holder, shall be awarded at the following examination to the candidate who is next in order of merit to the winner of a Scholarship being eligible, of the same description, provided that a candidate who, under any circumstances, would be the winner of an Exhibition, or of a Scholarship or Exhibition, shall not be bound to accept of any portion of a vacated Scholarship or Exhibition, which may be awarded to the next in order of merit who is eligible.

a. No candidate shall be eligible for either of the Scholarships who shall have completed his eighteenth year before the examination appointed for Examination by the Senate of the University of London.

b. At each examination held in connection with the University of Cambridge Local Examination system, one Scholarship of the annual value of Rs. 250, with free tuition, tenable for two years, shall be awarded to the most successful competitor among the Senior students; provided that he is under eighteen years of age on the last day of the month fixed for the examination by the University; and one Scholarship of the annual value of Rs. 200, with free tuition, tenable for three years, shall be awarded to the most successful competitor among the Junior students; provided that he is under sixteen years of age on the last day of the month fixed for the examination by the University.

For the award of these Scholarships marks obtained for Latin and Greek shall not be taken into account.

c. These Scholarships are open to all youths of the Colony provided they are British subjects and the sons of persons domiciled in the Island, or Orphans by the death of the father.

d. In the month of December of each year there will be a competition for one Scholarship of the annual value of Rs. 150, with free tuition tenable for four years; one Exhibition entitling the holder to free tuition for four years; and one Exhibition entitling the holder to free tuition on the Modern side for three years at the Royal College, open to candidates under 15 years of age on the 30th day of June previous.

e. The subjects of Examination will be the subjects chosen for the first year of the Royal College Course, and the Examination papers will be set and corrected by Examiners appointed by the Secretary of the Cambridge Syndicate or by the Registrar of the University of London.

f. These Scholarships are open to all youths domiciled in the Colony and its Dependencies provided they are British subjects.

All youths domiciled in the Island and its Dependencies shall include :—

(1) All youths legally domiciled in the Island of Mauritius or its Dependencies.

(2) All youths who shall have resided in the Colony during the five years immediately before the date of the competition.

MATRICULATION EXAMINATION.

(g) Two calendar months before the date fixed for each Matriculation Examination of the University of London, the Rector of Royal College shall cause to be posted up in the College Hall a list of those students whom, after consulting the professors, he will allow to present themselves as candidates in the approaching examination.

If, within a fortnight after the publication of the Rector's List, the responsible party of any student should appeal against the Rector's decision, that student shall be examined in the subjects prescribed for the Matriculation Examination by professors whose classes he does not attend, and the Examination papers and marks, together with the student's answers, shall be laid before the College Committee at least a fortnight before the commencement of the University Examination.

The College Committee shall then decide finally whether the student may be admitted as a candidate for Matriculation.

Any student of the Royal College who presents himself for examination by the University without the permission of the Rector, or of the College Committee, shall be considered as having been *ipso facto* withdrawn from the College by his responsible party, and shall not be readmitted unless he shall have satisfied the University Examiners.

Any student so readmitted shall be entitled to reckon the interval between his withdrawal and re-admission as part of the eight terms mentioned in Article 31 of the Royal College Rules and Regulations.

CAMBRIDGE LOCAL EXAMINATION.

h. Before the end of the month of June in each year the Rector of the Royal College shall cause to be posted up in the College Hall a list of those students whom, after consultation with the professors, he will allow to present themselves that year as Candidates in the Cambridge Local Examination.

If, within a fortnight after the publication of the Rector's list, the responsible party of any student should appeal against the Rector's decision, that student shall be examined in English Dictation, English Grammar and Analysis, English Composition and Arithmetic, by professors or masters, whose classes he does not attend, and the Examination papers and marks, together with the student's answers, shall be laid before the College Committee before the 15th of August.

The College Committee shall then decide finally whether the student may be admitted to the Cambridge Local Examination.

No student of the Royal College shall be allowed to sign an Entry-form unless he shall have obtained the permission of the Rector, or of the College Committee, to sit for the University Examination.

Any student whose responsible party claims the right to present him for examination by the University, notwithstanding the refusal of the Rector, or of the College Committee, to allow him to be examined as a Royal College Student, shall be considered as having been, *ipso facto* withdrawn from the College by his responsible party, and shall not be readmitted unless he shall have satisfied the University Examiners.

Any student so readmitted shall be entitled to reckon the interval between his withdrawal and re-admission as part of the eight terms mentioned in Article 31 of the Royal College Rules and Regulations.

College School.

i. In the month of December of each year there will be a competition for one scholarship of the annual value of Rs. 150 with free tuition at the Royal College tenable for four years, and one exhibition entitling the holder to free tuition at the Royal College for four years open to all candidates under Fourteen years of age on the 30th day of June previous.

j. The subjects of examination will be the subjects appointed for the highest class of the Royal College School, and the Examination will be conducted by Examiners appointed by the Rector of the Royal College with the approval of the College Committee.

k. In the month of December of each year there will be a competition for one Exhibition entitling the holder to free tuition at the Royal College for two years, open to all candidates under 14 years of age on the 30th day of June previous.

The subjects of examination will be the subjects appointed for the Lower Remove Class, and the examination will be conducted by Examiners appointed by the Rector of the Royal College with the approval of the College Committee.

Vacations.

43. The vacations shall be three—viz :

(a) The Christmas Vacation,
from the 15th December to the second Monday of January.

(b) The Easter Vacation,
from the Wednesday in Passion Week to the Monday after Easter Week.

(c) The August Vacation,
extending over the month of August.

44. During the Christmas and August vacations, the students will be required to get up, through the medium of Biography, a prescribed portion of Ancient or Modern History. Prizes will be given to those who distinguish themselves in these studies.

45. The weekly holiday shall be on Wednesday, which, however, may be changed to any other day of the week by the College Committee with the sanction of the Governor.*

46. There shall be no other Holidays except those observed at the Public Offices.

47. Every Candidate for admission to the Royal College is required to pass the Annual Public Examination appointed for the First Class of the College School, or to pass an entrance Examination in the subjects appointed for the first year of the College Course.

Royal College School.

48. With regard to Responsible Parties, Religious Instruction, Absence, Punishments, Terms and Vacations, the Rules and Regulations of the Royal College will include the Royal College School.

49. The fees of the Royal College School will be regulated by the College Committee, with the approval of the Governor. For the present they are fixed as follows :—

1st School & Lower Remove...	Rs. 7
2nd & 3rd School	6
4th & 5th	5

* The weekly holiday is now on Saturday.

50. In the case of brothers and half-brothers attending the College simultaneously, a reduction shall be allowed of R. 1 per mensem on the fee of each brother.

Modern Department.

51. A Modern Department has been opened at the Royal College. The instruction in this Department includes English, French, Mathematics, Modern and Contemporary History, Chemistry, with special reference to Commerce and Manufactures, Book-keeping, Drawing and Hindustanee.

52. Candidates for this Section must show a fair knowledge of English, French, and Arithmetic.

53. The fees of the Modern Department are fixed at Rs. 12.

Elementary School.

54. Elementary Classes have been attached to the Royal College School with the view of enabling pupils to begin their early studies at the Royal College. They will be thoroughly grounded in English and French and prepared to pass the preliminary examination required to gain admission into the classes of the College School.

Curepipe College School.

55. The Curepipe College School will follow precisely the same studies as those pursued at Port Louis; and the parallel progress of the two Establishments will be secured by Examinations conducted by Professors of the Royal College.

56. The Regulations of the School are in general the same as those laid down for the Royal College School. The fees, however, are for the present as follows: --

1st School & Lower Remove...	Rs.	7.
2nd & 3rd School	...	6
4th & 5th	„	5

In the case of brothers and half-brothers attending the College simultaneously, a reduction shall be allowed of R. 1 per mensem on the fee of each brother.

57. There are attached to the Institution, classes following the same studies as the lower classes of the Royal College.

Associated Schools.

58. The Committee shall have power to receive into Association with the Royal College any School in Mauritius, in Seychelles and in the Dependencies and to put an end to any Association existing now or which may exist hereafter between any School and the Royal College.

The decision of the Committee refusing to admit a School into Association or putting an end to any such Association may be appealed from to the Council of Education.

59. The Associated Schools shall submit their pupils to an annual examination to be held at the Royal College in the month of December on the programme of the corresponding classes of the Royal College School.

This rule shall not apply to Associated Schools in Seychelles.

Examiners will be appointed by the Rector of the Royal College, with the approval of the College Committee, to examine the pupils of the Associated Schools once a year in all the subjects studied during the year. The examiners will, as soon as possible after the examination, forward a full report of the results to the Rector to be communicated to the College Committee, and prizes will be awarded to deserving candidates.

60. The sum of Rs. 5,000 voted by the Council of Government as a grant-in-aid to the Associated Schools, shall be distributed among the managers of the said Schools as follows :—

(a) Rs. 1,000 for the pupils passing in the First Class and the Lower Remove Class not being above 14 years of age on the 30th day of June previous.

(b) Rs. 1,000 for the pupils passing in the Second Class and not being above 13 years of age on the 30th day of June previous.

(c) Rs. 1,000 for the pupils passing in the Third Class and not being above 12 years of age on the 30th day of June previous.

(d) Rs. 1,000 for the pupils passing in the Fourth Class and not being above 11 years of age on the 30th day of June previous.

(e) Rs. 1,000 for the pupils passing in the Fifth Class and not being above 10 years of age on the 30th day of June previous.

The maximum grant for a pupil passing in the First Class shall be Rs. 100.

For a pupil passing in the Second Class 90

For a pupil passing in the Third Class 80

For a pupil passing in the Fourth Class 70

For a pupil passing in the Fifth Class 60

The surplus left by any class is to go to the highest class the pupils of which have not obtained their maximum, so as to complete that maximum and so on.

A pupil shall not be considered as having passed in a class unless he has obtained at least one half of the total number of marks awardable in the class for all the subjects of examination.

No pupil shall gain a grant more than once in the same class.

No Manager shall obtain a grant who has applied for Association after the 30th day of April preceding the examination.

No Manager shall receive a grant in respect of any pupil who has not been a *bonâ fide* pupil of one or more Affiliated Schools during the six months immediately preceding the examination.

When a pupil has been at different Affiliated Schools during the six months mentioned in this Regulation, the grant shall be divided between those Schools in proportion to the time this pupil has been at each of those Schools respectively during the said six months.

Managers of Associated Schools shall keep accurate registers of the daily attendance of their pupils, and shall be bound to produce these registers whenever they shall be required to do so by the College Committee.

61. In the month of December in each year there will be a competition for one Scholarship of the annual value of Rs. 120 with free tuition at the Royal College tenable for two years and one Exhibition entitling the holder to free tuition at the Royal College for two years open to all candidates being pupils of one of the Associated Schools, and not being above 14 years of age on the 30th day of June previous.

The subjects of examination will be the subjects appointed for the highest class of the Royal College School and the examination will be conducted by Examiners appointed by the Rector of the Royal College with the approval of the College Committee.

In the month of December in each year there will be a competition for an Exhibition entitling the holder to free tuition at the Royal College for two years, open to all candidates being pupils of one of the Associated Schools and not being above 14 years on the 30th day of June previous.

The subjects of examination will be the subjects appointed for the Lower-Remove class, and the examination will be conducted by Examiners appointed by the Rector of the Royal College with the approval of the College Committee.

62. All other Rules or Regulations concerning Associated Schools are hereby repealed.

SCHEDULE.

I, A. B., having been selected by His Excellency the Governor, from among the Pupils of the Royal College, for the purpose of completing my Education, at the expense of the Government of Mauritius, do hereby promise that I will not, directly or indirectly, apply to the Agent-General for Crown Colonies for any money in addition to the Annual Allowances of £200 made to me for four years by the said Government, and the allowance for Passage money to and from Mauritius, and also that I will pursue my studies at such place of Education as may be approved of in accordance with the Regulations.

(Signed:) A.B.

On behalf of the above-written A.B., my (son or ward as the case may be), I assent to confirm the above undertaking.

(Signed:) C.D.

Table of Marks

ENGLISH SCHOLARSHIPS—1901.

Common to both sides.	English.	History of England and English Literature ...	100
		English, Grammar, Composition and Middle English Translation	100
	French.	Prescribed books.	
		History of French and French Literature ...	100
Classical.	Latin ...	Books	200
		Grammar and Philology	100
		Latin Prose and Sight Passages	150
Classical.	Greek ...	Books	200
		Grammar and Philology	100
		Sight Passages	150
		Roman and Greek History	100
Modern.	Mathematics.	Arithmetic and Algebra	100
		Euclid and Solid Geometry	100
		Trigonometry and Co-ordinate Geometry ...	100
		Problem Paper	100
		Higher Algebra and Trigonometry	100
Modern.	Mathematics.	Arithmetic and Algebra	100
		Euclid and Solid Geometry	100
		Trigonometry and Co-ordinate Geometry ...	100
		Conic Sections	100
		Mechanics and Dynamics	100
Modern.	Physics	Hydrostatics	100
		Sound, Light and Heat	150
		Magnetism and Electricity	150
Modern.	Chemistry	Organic	125
		Inorganic	125
		Practical	150

Greek Exhibitions.

Two Exhibitions, entitling the holders to free tuition, and tenable for two years and one year respectively, will be awarded to the best and second best candidates in an examination on the Greek language, which will be held annually in the month of December, and which will be open to all students in the Matriculation classes.

A gold Medal will also be awarded to the best candidate, and a book prize to the second.

French Exhibitions.

Two Exhibitions, entitling the holders to free tuition, and tenable for two years and one year respectively, will be awarded to the best and second best candidates in an examination on the French language, which will be held annually in the month of December, and which will be open to all students in the Matriculation and Senior Cambridge Classes.

A gold Medal will also be awarded to the best candidate, and a book prize to the second.

**THE
SYSTEM OF EDUCATION
IN
SEYCHELLES.**

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THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN SEYCHELLES.*

The Seychelles, which were for some time the residence of General Gordon and identified by him on account of their beauty as the Garden of Eden, are believed to have been discovered by a Portuguese sailor in 1505. They were for a long period the home of pirates, who preyed upon the East Indian commerce. In 1743 the Governor of Mauritius took possession of them in the name of the King of France. During the revolutionary wars the island was captured by the English, and in 1806 was made a dependency of Mauritius. This connection subsisted under varying conditions till 1880, when an Order-in-Council was passed creating the office of Administrator and nominating an Executive and Legislative Council. The separation of the two colonies was finally completed in 1903, when Seychelles was for the first time administered by a Governor of its own. Introduction.

The system of Primary Education dates from the year 1873, when a Board of Education was formed, consisting of the members of the Board of Civil Commissioners; and the Chief Civil Commissioner, subject to the approval of the Governor of Mauritius, could appoint an Inspector of Schools.

This Board was empowered to make rules for the examination of teachers, and for the rates of salaries to be paid to the teachers.

Schools were divided into two classes:—(a) Schools established by the Government, and to be maintained entirely at the expense of the Government; (b) assisted schools established by local managers, and to which aid should be granted from the public funds.

Direct religious teaching was forbidden in any Government school, but any minister of religion had the right of giving religious instruction to children of the same religious denomination as himself at such times as the Inspector of Schools approved.

Assisted schools were entitled from the public funds to grants of money for providing school-houses and furniture, and for supplementing the salaries of teachers.

The remuneration consisted of (a) a fixed salary, according to the class of certificate approved by the Board; (b) a result grant; (c) an average attendance grant.

Local managers of assisted schools were responsible for one-fourth of the remuneration of the teachers and of other expenses of the schools under their management.

* Reports on the Examination of Grant-in-Aid Schools in Seychelles can be seen at the Board of Education Library, St. Stephen's House, Cannon Row, Whitehall, London, S.W.

Under Seychelles Regulation No. 4 of 1883 the Inspector of Schools was appointed *ex officio* a member of the Board of Education.

Ordinance of
1900.

This Regulation, as well as Regulation No. 2 of 1873, has now been repealed, and in November, 1900, Ordinance No. 30—an Ordinance to make better provision for the promotion of education in the Seychelles Islands—passed the Legislative Council.

The introduction of this Ordinance was much needed, and there is no doubt that the condition of education at present existent in Seychelles will be materially benefited thereby.

Under the new Education Ordinance (see Appendix A) the Board of Education no longer consists of the members of the Legislative Council, but of the Administrator in Executive Council. Provision is also made for the establishment of an Education Committee for the purpose of advising on all questions connected with education. This Committee has already been constituted, and has done much useful work, the most important being the framing of Regulations for Grant-in-Aid Schools under Section 3 of the Ordinance. These Regulations have been approved by the Board of Education, and will come into operation on June 1st, 1902 (see Appendix B).

The following Regulations have also been approved by the Board:—(a) General Regulations for the Seychelles Scholarships under Chapter IV. of the Education Ordinance. (See Appendix D.)

(b) Regulations for the Victoria School under Section 3 of the Education Ordinance.*

Administra-
tion.

The central administration of education is vested under Ordinance No. 30 of 1900 in the Board of Education, which is constituted as follows:—

The Administrator, President.

The Legal Adviser and Crown Prosecutor.

The Treasurer and Collector of Customs.

The Auditor and Inspector of Schools.

Such Board is termed by law The Administrator in Executive Council.

There is an Education Committee, composed of ten members. Decisions arrived at by this Committee are not final, but must be submitted to the Board of Education for final approval.

The only other local authorities which exist are the two Managers of the Grant-in-aid schools, namely, the Roman Catholic Bishop and the Civil Chaplain. These two gentlemen are responsible to the Board of Education for the good management and control of schools receiving Grants-in-aid from the Government.

Finance.

The total amount provided in the Estimates of 1902 for Education is Rs.23,528. Of this sum Rs.12,000 are set aside for the payment of Grant-in-aid schools of Primary Education. The schools participating in this grant are those of the Roman Catholic

* These can be seen at the Board of Education Library, St. Stephen's House, Cannon Row, Whitehall, London, S.W.

Mission and of the Church of England. The balance of the amount voted provides for the following expenditure :—

- (a) The payment of the Inspector of Schools' salary.
- (b) The maintenance of the staff of Victoria School and of the Infant School, which serves as a feeder to the former establishment, and the supply of school furniture and books.
- (c) The payment of two scholarships of the value of Rs.600 a year each, tenable for three years, and of passage money for the winners thereof.
- (d) The purchase of books for Grant-in-aid schools.

It is difficult to state with any certainty how far voluntary subscriptions or other pecuniary assistance contribute towards the maintenance of the Roman Catholic schools.

The Church of England schools are assisted by the Mauritius Diocesan Society, the Christian Faith Society, and by voluntary subscriptions. The total amount derived from these sources is Rs.2,400 a year.

There are three schools in the Seychelles Islands where fees are paid, viz., St. Louis College, which is under the control of the Frères Maristes, the Convent, which is under the control of the Sisters of St. Joseph de Cluny, and Victoria School. The usual fee for instruction in the Roman Catholic institutions is Rs.4 per month. The amount of school fees estimated to be derived from Victoria School during 1902 is Rs.900. The fees in the Paying Branch are Rs.2 per month for the Ist and IInd classes, and Rs.3 per month for the Vth, VIth and VIIth Standards. In the case of brothers a reduction of 25 per cent. on the monthly fee of each pupil is allowed.

When the census of 1891 was taken there were 1,731 children attending school out of a total population of 16,440. From these numbers it will be seen that 10.5 per cent. of the population of the Seychelles Islands were receiving education. The census returns of 1901 are not yet in print ; but the Census Commissioner informs me that there are 1,358 males and 1,470 females, making a total of 2,828, who are attending schools and receiving private instruction, out of a total population of 19,237. The percentage, therefore, of the present population which is receiving instruction is 14.7.

Educational Statistics.

As education is not compulsory, there are consequently no laws for enforcing school attendance.

Education not Compulsory.

It is difficult to state with accuracy the number of existing private schools wholly unconnected with the Government, and therefore outside the public school system. It may with safety be said that the number does not exceed five, and that the kind of instruction imparted is of a very elementary nature. The only private schools that exist in Seychelles to my knowledge are as follows :—a Roman Catholic school at Port Gland, Mahé, another Roman Catholic school at Baie St. Anne, Praslin Island, and a lay school at La Digue Island.

Private Schools.

Inspection. The inspection of all the Grant-in-aid schools and of the Victoria School is carried out by the Government Inspector once a year for the purpose of conducting the annual examinations and of fixing the amount of grant earned by each school.

The time when, and the manner in which, such inspection is to be made are governed by the regulations formed under Ordinance No. 30 of 1900.

The number of schools at present recognised by the Board of Education is twenty-seven. As the office of Inspector of Schools is combined with that of Auditor, it has been very rarely found possible to pay any surprise visits to the schools.

Teachers. Certificated teachers only are recognised by the Government in the Grant-in-aid schools. The scale of their payment and the various classes of certificates are fixed by the Regulations for Grant-in-Aid Schools, framed under Ordinance No. 30 of 1900. (See Appendix B.)

There is no training college for teachers in Seychelles. All the teachers of the Roman Catholic schools, excepting the one in charge of Takamaka School, who is a lay female teacher, and those at St. Louis College, who belong to the Order of Frères Maristes, are Sisters of the Order of St. Joseph de Cluny, and come from Europe—the majority of them from France.

Pupil Teachers. Nor does there exist in the Seychelles Islands any regular system of pupil teachers or of apprentice teachers. Pupil teachers are, however, employed at Victoria School and at St. Paul's School, Victoria; but there is no syllabus of a pupil teacher course regulating their examination. Nor are those pupil teachers, who are so employed, paid by the Government, excepting in the case of Victoria School, where provision is made for the salaries of four monitors at the rate of Rs.180 each per annum, rising by yearly instalments of Rs.60 to Rs.480 per annum.

The number of male teachers (exclusive of the staff of Victoria School, consisting of three masters, and of the staff of Victoria Infant School, consisting of a mistress only) who are recognised by the Board of Education, is eight; and the number of women teachers recognised by the Board is thirty-nine.

Pensions. The only pensionable appointments in the Education Department are those of the Inspector of Schools, and of the masters of Victoria School.

Religious Instruction. Religious teaching does not form part of the instruction to be given in the Government schools; but a minister of religion can give religious instruction to the children of the religious denomination to which such minister belongs, at such times and places as may be agreed upon between him and the head teachers. Such instruction is given daily to the pupils of the Grant-in-aid schools by priests of their respective denominations. At the Victoria School the pupils are sent to the Church of England and to the Roman Catholic Church twice a week for religious instruction.

Singing. Singing, as a subject of instruction, is not recognised by the Education Department. In most schools, however, it forms a regular part of the opening and closing exercises

Drawing, as a subject of instruction, finds no place in the curriculum of studies for Grant-in-aid schools. It is, however, being taught at Victoria School, and at the Paying Branch of St. Louis College. Drawing.

Cookery, Laundry work, Ironing and Needlework of almost every description are taught in the Convent to thirty-five orphans. Cookery, &c.

No provision has as yet been made for manual training and instruction in handicrafts or agriculture in connection with the elementary schools. It is, however, proposed to have an annual exhibition of school work of all kinds, the regulations for which are now in the hands of the Education Committee.* The question of introducing a system of manual training, such as carpentry and bookbinding, at the Victoria School is also under the consideration of the same Committee. Manual Training.

There is no regular system for the teaching of drill and the promotion of physical exercise. Nearly all the schools, however, are provided with adequate playgrounds, and the children indulge in outdoor games of various descriptions. The pupils of the town schools take part in such games as football and cricket. Drilling.

No arrangements are made in Seychelles for Continuation Schools or Classes.

Schools for the blind, deaf and dumb have not been established, there being no such requirements. Nor has any provision been made for defective children, or for children needing special restraint. The want of such institutions has not been felt.

Under Ordinance No. 30 of 1900 regulations have been framed and provision has been made for secondary education. Secondary Education.

In the rules which regulate the course of instruction at the Victoria School† provision is made for the award of four exhibitions every year, tenable for three years, to the best pupils of the Fourth Standard, entitling the holders to free books and free tuition in the upper standards of the Paying Branch. The first examination for these exhibitions will be held in July, 1902. Exhibitions.

Provision is also made for an annual examination, open to all boys in Seychelles who can satisfy the conditions laid down in the regulations (see Appendix D), according to the result of which the two best boys will be awarded scholarships of the value of Rs.600 per annum each, tenable for three years, and passage money allowance, and will be able to continue their studies at the Royal College of Mauritius, or at some school in England to be approved by the Administrator. The first examination for these scholarships will take place in July, 1902. Scholarships.

The only schools of secondary education are the Victoria School and St. Louis College (Paying Branch). The Convent (Paying Branch) may also be said to be a school of secondary education for girls.

* It is stated in Colonial Reports, Annual, No. 395. Seychelles. Report for 1902 (Cd. 1768) that the first Annual Exhibition of School Work, open to the pupils of all Grant-in-Aid and Private Schools and to those of the Victoria School, was successfully held on December 24th, 1902. The exhibits numbered 315, and thirty-two prizes were awarded.

† These can be seen at the Board of Education Library, St. Stephen's House, Cannon Row, Whitehall London, S.W. (See also Appendix C.)

Regulations for the Higher Education of Girls have been drafted, and are now in the hands of the Education Committee.*

Technical Education.

Regulations have been made during 1901 for Apprenticeships as Hospital Attendants at the Public Hospital.† The subjects for examination are those laid down for the examination of candidates for admission to the Civil Service as Copyists.† The apprenticeships extend over a period of three years, and the apprentices are instructed by the Chief Medical Officer. Their rate of pay is Rs.10 a month for the first year, Rs.15 a month for the second year, and Rs.20 a month for the third year. The first apprentice was appointed on December 1st, 1901.

Agricultural Instruction.

Rules and conditions for Industrial Apprentices at the Botanic Station, Victoria, were drawn up in March, 1901 (see Appendix E). Provision is made for a course of agricultural training to be given by the Curator of the Botanic Station. An examination for apprenticeships was held in November last, the subjects of which are the same as those laid down for the examination of Copyists. The apprenticeship extends over a period of four years, and the course of instruction is clearly defined in the regulations annexed. The rates of wages are Rs.10 per month for the first year, Rs.15 per month for the second year and Rs.20 per month for the third and fourth years. The first apprentice was appointed on December 1st, 1901.

Commercial Instruction.

No school has been specially designed to impart a commercial education. In Victoria School, however, book-keeping and commercial arithmetic receive special attention.

Native Education.

There is not really what may be termed a native race in Seychelles. The general population is a very mixed one. Various races of the world may be said to be in one way or another represented in Seychelles. The majority of the population consists of the descendants of old settlers from Mauritius and Réunion, and of African immigrants and of liberated slaves.

The common language is a mixture of the Bourbonese and Mauritian patois—a corruption of the French language.

Conclusion.

The whole system of education has just been reorganised; a prominent place has been given to the teaching of the English language, and a very important step may be said to have been made towards the improvement and progress of the youth in Seychelles.

L. O. CHITTY,

5th January, 1902.

Inspector of Schools

* These Regulations were approved by the Administrator on February 25th, 1902, and established a system of examinations in four standards (according to age). There is also a system of money rewards and book prizes. No pupils, however, were presented for the examination announced for December, 1902.

† These can be seen at the Board of Education Library.

APPENDIX A.

THE EDUCATION ORDINANCE, 1900.

AN ORDINANCE enacted by the Administrator of the Seychelles Islands, with the advice and consent of the Legislative Council thereof.

TO MAKE BETTER PROVISION FOR THE PROMOTION OF
EDUCATION IN THE SEYCHELLES ISLANDS.

7th November, 1900. No. 30, 1900.

Whereas it is expedient to make better provision for the promotion of Preamble.
Education in the Seychelles Islands :

Be it therefore enacted by the Administrator of the Seychelles Islands, Enacting
with the advice and consent of the Legislative Council thereof, as follows : clause.

I. POWERS AND DUTIES OF BOARD AND COMMITTEE OF EDUCATION.

1. The Board of Education, established by Regulation No. 2 of 1873, Creation of
is hereby abolished, and in lieu thereof there shall be created a Board of Board of
Education for the Seychelles Islands, which shall consist of the Adminis- Education.
trator in Executive Council.

2. It shall be lawful for the Administrator to appoint an Inspector of Inspector of
Schools whose salary shall be fixed by the Legislative Council. Schools.

3. The Board of Education shall have power to frame Regulations in Regulations,
respect of the following matters, and from time to time to amend or repeal
the same :—

(A) With regard to the Victoria School, as to—

- (i.) The conditions for admission, fees payable by the pupils, and, generally, the administration and management of the said school.
- (ii.) The curriculum of studies.
- (iii.) The prizes for efficiency to be awarded to the pupils, and the conditions of competition for such prizes.
- (iv.) The appointment of Examiners to conduct all competitive examinations among the pupils.
- (v.) The award and tenure of Scholarships and Exhibitions, subject to the provisions of this Ordinance so far as the Seychelles Scholarships are concerned.
- (vi.) The manner and mode of payment of the Scholarship Allowances.

(B) With regard to Grant-in-Aid Schools, as to—

- (i.) The good government, discipline, and routine work of all Grant-in-aid schools.
- (ii.) The attendance required to entitle any school to a grant-in-aid.
- (iii.) The standards of attainments in the subjects of instruction taught in any school necessary to qualify the school to earn a result grant.

- (iv.) The month of the annual examination of each school for a result grant.
- (v.) Generally the conditions under which the annual examinations of schools for result grants shall be held.
- (vi.) The qualifications to be required for the issue and classification of certificates to teachers, the cancellation, suspension or reduction of such certificates, and generally, the punishment of teachers for misbehaviour.
- (vii.) The sufficiency of school-house accommodation, furniture and apparatus, and the admission and attendance of scholars.
- (viii.) The scale of salaries to be allowed to teachers according to the class of certificates held by them.
- (ix.) The scale of attendance and result grants to be paid to managers of schools for the attendance of scholars and for their satisfactory examination in the prescribed standards.
- (x.) The manner in which, and the conditions under which, all salaries and attendance and result grants are to be paid.
- (xi.) A system of industrial education for primary schools.

Education
Committee.

4. (1) There shall be established a Committee to be styled the Education Committee, which shall be composed as follows :—

- (i.) The Judge, Chairman.
- (ii.) The Inspector of Schools.
- (iii.) The Head Master of Victoria School.

(iv.) The following members appointed by the Administrator in the month of December in every year :—

- (a) Four members chosen by the Administrator himself, two of whom may respectively be the Bishop of Victoria and the Civil Chaplain.
- (b) Two members on the nomination of the Bishop.
- (c) One member on the nomination of the Civil Chaplain.

(2) The Head Master of Victoria School, or such other person as may be appointed by the Administrator, shall act as Secretary to the Education Committee.

(3) The Committee shall be summoned by direction of the Chairman, or on written application to the Chairman signed by at least four members of the Committee.

(4) The meetings of the Committee shall be public except on such occasions when a majority of the Committee shall otherwise decide.

(5) Three members of the Committee including the Chairman shall form a quorum. In the absence of the Chairman the members present shall elect a Chairman. The Chairman shall have a casting as well as an original vote.

(6) The Committee shall be held to be legally constituted notwithstanding any vacancies therein by death, resignation, or incapacity of any member if the number of members be not reduced at any time by such vacancies below five: Provided always that every such vacancy may be filled up by a person appointed by the Administrator, on the nomination of the person who shall have nominated the member whose death, resignation or incapacity shall have caused such vacancy.

(7) In case of failure by the said person to nominate any person to fill the vacancy as aforesaid within fifteen days it shall be lawful for the Administrator to appoint a person to fill such vacancy without nomination.

5. It shall be the duty of the Committee to advise upon all questions connected with the education of youth in the Seychelles Islands. Duties of Committee.

II. VICTORIA SCHOOL.

6. The Government Undenominational School established at Victoria, Mahé, shall henceforth be called the "Victoria School." Creation of Victoria School.

Provided that the Administrator may appoint the Head Master and Second Master of the Government Undenominational School to form part of the staff of the Victoria School.

Provided further that the provisions of the Pensions Laws shall continue to apply to the Head Master and Second Master of the Government Undenominational School so long as they continue in the service of Government.

7. (1) The Victoria School shall be under the superintendence and direction of a Head Master, to be appointed by the Administrator, at a salary to be fixed by the Administrator with the advice and consent of the Legislative Council, who shall be the Executive Officer for carrying out within such School any provisions of the Regulations applicable thereto. Staff of Victoria School.

(2) The staff of the Victoria School shall further consist of such Masters as may from time to time be appointed by the Administrator at salaries to be fixed by the Administrator with the advice and consent of the Legislative Council.

8. Religious teaching shall not form part of the instruction to be given at the Victoria School, but any minister of a Christian religion shall be authorised to give religious instruction to the children of the religious denomination to which such minister belongs, at such times and places as may be agreed upon between him and the Head Master. Religious teaching not to form part of instruction.

9. (1) Education at the Victoria School shall be free up to the Fourth Standard. Fees.

(2) In and after the Fifth Standard all pupils shall pay such fees as may be from time to time fixed by the Board of Education under Section 3 of this Ordinance.

(3) Provided that there shall be a paying branch consisting of two Standards, the first of which shall include the programme of studies of the first and second non-paying Standards and the second of which shall include the programme of studies of the third and fourth non-paying Standards, which shall be open to all children whose parents are willing to pay for their education.

(4) The fees in these two Standards shall be fixed by the Board of Education.

10. (1) The sums due for the education of the pupils at the Victoria School shall be paid to the Treasurer every month. Recovery of fees.

(2) In the event of any such sum not being paid on or before the seventh day of the following month, the Treasurer shall give seven clear days written notice to the parent, guardian, or surety, whose duty it was to pay the said sums, to the effect that if such fees are not paid he will issue his warrant to compel payment. Such notice may be served by any member of the police force.

(3) All fees due and left unpaid after the notice aforesaid shall be dealt with and summarily recovered as taxes unpaid.

(4) A certificate under the signature of the Head Master of the Victoria School shall in all cases be *prima facie* proof of the fact that the fees claimed are due, in respect of the pupil therein mentioned, by the parent, guardian or surety, as the case may be.

(5) The Head Master of the Victoria School shall send to the Treasurer every month the names of all pupils not entitled to gratuitous education.

Should the Treasurer report, and it shall be his duty to report, to the Administrator that arrears of fees due for any pupil for the period of three months have been left unpaid, and that it has not been possible to recover the same, the pupil, subject to the provisions of sub-section (6) of this section shall be excluded from the Victoria School.

(6) The Administrator, in Executive Council, shall have the power to remit, or extend the time of payment of, any sum due for school fees.

III. SCHOOLS OF PRIMARY EDUCATION.

Definition.

11. (1) Schools of Primary Education shall be schools already or hereafter established by local managers, and to which aid shall be contributed from the public funds of the Seychelles Islands.

(2) These schools shall be called Grant-in-aid schools.

Condition of payment of grant.

12. Any school of Primary Education established by any person shall, on the recommendation of the Inspector of Schools, approved by the Board of Education, be entitled to be admitted as a Grant-in-aid school if the following conditions are fulfilled:—

(i.) That provision to the satisfaction of the Board of Education be made for the regular visitation, management, and control of the school by a manager who shall have the power to appoint and dismiss the teacher of the school.

(ii.) That the teacher to be so appointed be approved by the Board of Education.

(iii.) That the average attendance of the school, computed on a period of three months next preceding the date of application to be admitted as a Grant-in-aid school, be not less than fifteen in the country districts, and twenty in the town of Victoria.

(iv.) That the school be open to all children without distinction of religion or race.

(v.) That no child receive any religious instruction objected to by his parent or guardian, or be present while such instruction so objected to is given to other children.

(vi.) That the school be at all times open for inspection.

Salaries, and attendance and result grants.

13. The aid to which Grant-in-aid schools shall be entitled shall consist of:—

(i.) A fixed salary to be paid according to the class of certificates held by the teachers.

(ii.) An attendance grant.

(iii.) A result grant.

Conditions of continuance of Schools.

14. (1) No Grant-in-aid school shall be continued in any locality unless the annual daily attendance of the school be not less than fifteen outside the limits of Victoria, and twenty in the town of Victoria, except when, in the opinion of the Board of Education, the annual daily attendance has fallen below the above figures on account of some temporary or fortuitous cause.

(2) Provided that the Grant-in-aid may be withdrawn on the recommendation of the Inspector of Schools, if any of the conditions mentioned in Section 12 (other than condition iii.) are not complied with.

15. (1) The total amount to be granted in any year for education purposes shall be annually fixed by the Legislative Council. Payment of grant.

(2) No school shall receive aid from the public funds of the Seychelles Islands until the amount of the aid has been voted by the Legislative Council.

IV. SCHOLARSHIPS.

16. (1) In the month of July of every year there shall be held at the Victoria School an examination, designated in the Regulations, and open to all boys in the Seychelles Islands, who shall satisfy the conditions laid down in the Regulations. Scholarships and Laureates.

(2) The Administrator shall award, according to the result of such examination, to each of the two best boys, who shall be called Laureates, a Scholarship, which shall be termed a Seychelles Scholarship, of the annual value of six hundred rupees, tenable for three years, to enable such Laureates to pursue their studies at the Royal College in Mauritius, or in some school in England to be approved of by the Administrator.

(3) Provided that no such Scholarship shall be awarded to a boy whom the Administrator in Executive Council shall find unworthy of such distinction on account of gross misconduct either as a pupil of the Victoria School or otherwise.

17. Every Laureate shall be entitled to an allowance of one hundred rupees, or such other amount as may from time to time be fixed by the Administrator with the consent of the Legislative Council, to defray his passage to Mauritius or to England, and to a like sum in payment of his return passage to Seychelles at the expiration of the said three years. Passage allowance to Laureates.

18. Every Laureate shall be entitled to receive his allowance in the form and manner provided for by the Regulations. Allowance when and how paid.

V. GENERAL.

19. The following laws are repealed :—

Repeal.

Regulations of the Board of Civil Commissioners :—

No. 2 of 1873 and No. 4 of 1883.

Provided that all existing rules made under Regulation No. 2 of 1873, not inconsistent with this Ordinance, shall remain in operation until they have been repealed or replaced by Regulations framed under Section 3 of this Ordinance.

20. This Ordinance may be cited as the "Education Ordinance, 1900." Short title.

21. This Ordinance shall come into force on the day of its publication in the Government Gazette. Coming into force.

Passed in the Legislative Council this 7th day of November, 1900.

APPENDIX B.

REGULATIONS FOR GRANT-IN-AID SCHOOLS.*

Framed by the Board of Education under Section 3 of The Education Ordinance, 1900.

I. SCHOOL-BUILDING AND REQUISITES.

School-building and furniture.

1. The school-building and furniture shall satisfy the following conditions, viz. :—

- (1) The grounds adjoining the school-building shall be properly drained.
- (2) The building shall be in every part at least nine feet in height from the floor to the ceiling or to the point from which the roof springs.
- (3) The roof of the building shall be in shingles or in thatch, or, if of corrugated iron, shall be ceiled.
- (4) The floor shall be in any material approved of by the Board of Education.
- (5) The building shall afford at least 74 square decimetres† of internal area for every pupil in average attendance for the last quarter.
- (6) One-fifth at least of the total wall-surface of the building shall consist of doors and windows.
- (7) Boys and girls respectively between twelve and fifteen years of age attending the same mixed school shall be kept separate from each other and shall be provided with distinct sets of desks.
- (8) Separate privies shall be provided as far apart as possible for boys and girls.
- (9) The school furniture shall consist at least of—
 - (a) Forms for pupils not using desks.
 - (b) Desks and benches affording two feet in length of desk-space per pupil in average attendance for the last quarter.
 - (c) One black-board for at least every twenty pupils in average attendance for the last quarter.
 - (d) One desk and chair for the teacher's use.
 - (e) One clock.
 - (f) One hand-bell.

* These can be seen at the Board of Education Library, St. Stephen's House, Cannon Row, Whitehall, London, S.W.

† A decimetre = about $\frac{1}{4}$ inches.

II. CERTIFICATES AND EXAMINATION FOR TEACHERS.

2. (1) Every teacher who receives remuneration from the Education Grant shall be required to hold a certificate of competency from the Board of Education to be obtained as provided for in the next section. Teacher to hold certificate of competency.

(2) Provided that holders of first, second and third class certificates at the time these Regulations come into force shall respectively be recognised as holders of first, second and third class certificates under these Regulations.

3. (1) The certificates of competency of teachers shall consist of the following classes :— Teachers' certificates.

(i.) A fourth class certificate, under Schedule A.

(ii.) A third class certificate, under Schedule B.

(iii.) A second class certificate, under Schedule C.

The fourth, third and second class certificates shall be awarded to teachers only who shall have qualified themselves for the same in passing successfully the Annual Examination under Schedules A, B and C respectively, or who shall be otherwise qualified as hereinafter provided.

(iv.) A first class certificate, which shall be awarded to the holder of a second class certificate after three years of successful teaching in the Seventh Standard of Schedule D.

(2) Certificates of capacity as teachers in Grant-in-Aid Schools may be granted by the Bishop of Mauritius or the Civil Chaplain, and by the Bishop of Victoria or his Vicar General, to deaconesses and nuns under the control of such Bishops. Teachers so nominated shall be recognised by the Board of Education as holding a fourth class certificate under Schedule A.

(3) Candidates, who shall have passed the Junior Cambridge Local Examination, or the Higher Standard Examination of the Higher Education of Girls, Mauritius, or who can produce certificates from the Rector of the Royal College of Mauritius to the effect that they have obtained half the total number of marks at the December Examination of the Middle Class of the Royal College, or who have obtained any other certificate which the Board of Education may consider equivalent, shall be required to pass only in School Management in order to obtain a third class certificate under Schedule B.

(4) Candidates who are holders of the French "Brevet Élémentaire, or Brevet de Capacité de Second Ordre," or who have obtained any other certificate which the Board of Education may consider equivalent, shall be entitled to a third class certificate under Schedule B.

(5) Candidates who have passed the Senior Cambridge Local Examination or the London University Matriculation Examination, shall be awarded a second class certificate on their passing in School Management under Schedule C.

(6) Candidates, who are members of the Royal College of Preceptors, or holders of the French "Brevet Supérieur de Capacité," or who have obtained any other certificate which the Board of Education may consider equivalent, shall be entitled to a second class certificate under Schedule C.

(7) Ordained priests of Christian denominations shall be qualified for a second class certificate on the recommendation of their respective Bishops, provided that the Salary Grant shall only be paid for such time as such priests are actually employed in teaching.

(8) Teachers holding the fourth, third, second and first class certificates from Mauritius shall be recognised as holders of local certificates of the same classes respectively.

Teachers' Examination when to be held. 4. (1) The examination for certificates of competency in accordance with Schedules A, B and C, shall be held annually as far as possible in the second fortnight of August.

(2) Except in the French subject, the examination shall be conducted in English.

Date of Examination to be advertised. 5. The Inspector of Schools shall publish a notice in the Government Gazette fixing the date of the annual examination for teachers' certificates three full months before the examination is held.

Candidates for Teachers' certificates to send in written application. 6. Intending candidates for teachers' certificates shall send to the Inspector of Schools, four weeks before the date fixed for examination, a written application stating the class of certificate for which they wish to be examined.

III. SCHOOLS.

Schools to be open to visitation. 7. All Grant-in-aid schools shall, at all times during class hours, be open to visitation by the Inspector of Schools, or any member of the Board of Education, or of the Education Committee.

Application for Grant-in-Aid. 8. Every application for a Grant-in-aid to a new school shall be made on [the approved] form, duly filled in and signed by the Manager and addressed to the Inspector of Schools.

Application for Grant-in-Aid when not to be entertained. 9. No application for a Grant-in-aid to a new school shall be entertained if the conditions referred to in Section 12 of the Education Ordinance, 1900, are not fulfilled.

IV. NATURE AND APPORTIONMENT OF GRANTS.

Apportionment of Grant-in-Aid. 10. (1) The Grants to which Grant-in-aid schools shall be entitled under Section 13 of the Education Ordinance, 1900, shall be apportioned as follows :—

(i.) A fixed annual salary to be paid to teachers according to the class of certificate, viz. :—

For the First Class Certificate	Rs. 250
Second	" 200
Third	" 150
Fourth	" 100

(ii.) An Attendance Grant, to be paid annually at the fixed rate of R.0.50c. per head upon the average daily attendance of the school provided that the school shall have been open at least 200 full days or 400 half days during the twelve months preceding the examination.

(iii.) A Result Grant, to consist of the balance left after paying from the sum annually voted under Section 15 of the Education Ordinance, 1900, the fixed salaries to teachers in accordance with (i.) and the fixed rate of attendance in accordance with (ii.), and to be apportioned in the manner specified in Sections 12, 13 and 14, subject to a proportional reduction in case the balance so left as aforesaid be found insufficient to pay the total Result Grants.

(2) No grant whatsoever shall be paid for pupils under five years or above fifteen years of age.

11. The general Standards of Classification and Syllabus thereof shall be those set forth in Schedule D. Syllabus and Standards of Classification

12. The Result Grant shall be paid in the following proportion for each pupil passing successfully in the obligatory subjects set forth in Schedule D. Proportion of Grants for obligatory subjects.

Standard I.	Rs. 2	per pupil
Standard II.	" 3	"
Standard III.	" 5	"
Standard IV.	" 7	"
Standard V.	" 9	"
Standard VI.	" 11	"
Standard VII.	" 15	"
Standard VIII.	" 20	"

13. Pupils obtaining one-half of the aggregate marks for the obligatory subjects in any one Standard of Schedule D shall be entitled to a pass, provided however that they do not fail to obtain at least one-third of the marks allotted for either subject. Pass how to be obtained.

No Result Grant shall be paid unless such pass is obtained.

14. (1) A "Rupree Grant" for each of the optional subjects of Schedule D shall be paid in addition for successful pupils therein, provided they have obtained in the obligatory subjects the required pass referred to in Section 13.

(2) A pupil shall be deemed successful in any of the optional subjects who shall have obtained one-half of the total marks allotted for such subject.

15. A pupil who shall have passed successfully in any one standard shall on no account be presented again in that same standard. Result Grant not to be paid twice for the same pupil in any one standard.

V. SCHOOL TIME AND REGISTERS.

16. All Grant-in-aid schools shall be opened during five days in the week, and the pupils frequenting them shall be taught for at least four hours daily, except during school holidays granted by the manager and on Public and Church Holidays. School Week and Holidays

17. The school year shall be from the 1st of June to the 31st of May of the next civil year.

18. For the purposes of Section 16, the school hours shall be from 9 to 11 a.m., and from 1.30 to 3.30 p.m. School hours.

19. The teacher in charge of every Grant-in-aid school shall keep the following registers :— Registers to be kept by the Head Teacher.

(1) An Admission Register.

(2) An Attendance Register, "The Durham Class Register," in which the daily attendances of pupils shall be registered according to such directions as the Inspector of Schools may issue from time to time.

(3) A Register of Transfers and Withdrawals.

(4) A Register of Visitors.

20. No pupils under five or over fifteen years of age shall be entered on the Official Attendance Register of a Grant-in-Aid School. Limit of age.

VI. EXAMINATION OF SCHOOLS.

21. (1) There shall be made by the Inspector of Schools an annual examination of the Grant-in-Aid Schools for the purpose of fixing the amount of the Result Grant under Chapter IV. of these Regulations.

Date of Examination to be advertised.

(2) The itinerary of the annual examination of Grant-in-Aid Schools shall be published in the Government Gazette fifteen days in advance.

All pupils to be presented on Examination day.

22. All pupils whose names shall appear on the Attendance Register (except in cases of unavoidable absence) shall be presented to the Inspector of Schools on the annual examination day.

Examination how to be conducted.

23. The annual examination shall, as much as possible, be conducted in English in Standards I., II., III., IV., and V., and, exclusively in English, in the Sixth and higher Standards. Provided that the examination in the French subject shall, when possible, be conducted in French.

VII. 24, 25, 26.—TRANSFERS OF PUPILS.

.

VIII. 27, 28, 29, 30, 31.—DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF MANAGER.

.

IX. 32, 33, 34.—WITHDRAWAL AND FORFEITURE OF GRANTS.

.

X. 35, 36.—MISCELLANEOUS.

.

Coming into force.

37. These regulations shall come into operation on and after the 1st of June, 1902, and shall apply to the Annual Examination to be held in 1903, provided that Section 23 shall not be strictly enforced until the Annual Examination of 1904.

Framed by the Board of Education (Administrator in Executive Council) under Section 3 B of Ordinance No. 30 of 1900, at a Meeting held on the 26th October, 1901.

SCHEDULE A.

FOR THE FOURTH CLASS CERTIFICATE OF COMPETENCY.

SECTION 3 (1), (i).

I. English.	II. French.	III. Arithmetic.	IV. School Management.	V. History.	VI. Geography.	VII. Needlework for Female Teachers.
Maxima: 150	100	150	150	100	100	50
<p>1. Reading. 2. Conversation. 3. Dictation. 4. Parsing. 5. Grammar 6. Letter writing. 7. Recitation. 8. Analysis (Simple sentence).</p> <p>TEXT BOOKS. Chambers's Fluent Reader, Book VI. Mason's Outlines of English Grammar. <i>Recitation:</i> The Field of the World. J. Montgomery. Life and Death Weighed. Shakespeare (Hamlet). Advice to a Heckless Youth. Ben Jonson. Praises of Chastity. Milton (Comus).</p>	<p>1. Reading. 2. Dictation. 3. Parsing 4. Irregular Verbs. 5. Translation into English. 6. Easy letter writing. 7. Conversation. 8. Recitation.</p> <p>TEXT BOOKS. Grammaire Larive et Fleury, 1ère année. The whole. Hachette's First French Reader. Passages for translation :- 1. " Le Chaudronnier." 2. " Le Turban Blanc." 3. " L'Alabama." 4. " Naufrage sur l'Île Royale." <i>Recitation:</i> 1. La Vieille Men- } in Hach- dante. } ette. 2. Souffrance } d'hiver } 3. Songe d'Athalie—Racine. Athalie, Act II., Sc. V. " était pendant...consulter."</p>	<p>1. Numeration and Notation. 2. First four rules, Simple and Compound. 3. Measures of Weight, Length and Time. 4. Practice, Simple and Compound. 5. Invoices. 6. Fractions, Vulgar and Decimal. 7. Proportion. 8. Simple Interest. 9. Reduction of Rupees to £ s. d. (Exchange). 10. Metric System.</p> <p>TEXT BOOKS. For 1—3 Penderbury's Elementary Arithmetic, pages 1 to 107, and pages 118 to 128. For 4—6 as set in Penderbury's Graduated Arithmetic, Part V. For 6—8 as set in Graduated Arithmetic, Part VI.</p>	<p>1. To prepare notes necessary to explain to pupils a passage chosen in text book for the I., II., or III. Standard of Schedule D.</p> <p>2. Keeping of Registers mentioned in Section 19 of the Regulations.</p>	<p>From the Roman Conquest to end of the House of York.</p> <p>TEXT BOOK. Chambers's Senior English History, pages 1 to 107.</p>	<p>1. General outlines of the Five Divisions of the world. 2. United Kingdom and India. 3. Seychelles Islands.</p> <p>TEXT BOOK. Cornwell's Geography for beginners, pages 1 to 86; 87 to 88; 89 to 90; 91 to 96; 97 to 98; 99 to 107. Maps of England, Europe and Malé.</p>	<p>Hemming, Seaming, Felling. Any garment or other useful article which can be completed by the above, such as a child's pinafore, pillow-case, pocket-handkerchief.</p>

SCHEDULE B.

FOR THE THIRD CLASS CERTIFICATE OF COMPETENCY.

SECTIONS 3 (1.), (ii).

I. English.	II. French.	III. Arithmetic.	IV. School Management.	V. History.	VI. Geography.	VII. Needlework for Female Teachers.
Maxima: 150	100	150	150	100	100	50
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Reading. 2. Grammar. 3. Analysis of sentences (easy complex sentences). 4. Composition. 5. Letter writing and narration. 6. Conversation. 7. Recitation. <p style="text-align: center;">—————</p> <p style="text-align: center;">TEXT BOOK.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">—————</p> <p>C. P. Mason's Shorter English Grammar. Recitation:— 1. The Baggar — Thomas Alon. 2. The World Compared to a Stage— Shakespeare (As You Like It). 3. The Fireside—N. Cotton.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Reading. 2. Grammar. 3. Dictation. 4. Analysis of sentences (easy complex sentences). 5. Translation. 6. Letter writing. 7. Conversation. 8. Recitation. <p style="text-align: center;">—————</p> <p style="text-align: center;">TEXT BOOKS.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">—————</p> <p>Grammaire Larive et Fleury 5me année pages 1—130. Hachette's First French Reader. Recitation:— Le Chateau de Cartes— Florian. Clémence d'Auguste— Cornelle. "Prends un siège.... parle, il est temps."</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Miscellaneous questions on chapters for Fourth Class Certificate. 2. Percentages, Profit and Loss. 3. Stocks and shares. 4. Averages. 5. The Unitary method. 6. Compound interest. 7. Square root. 8. Problems (work and time). <p style="text-align: center;">—————</p> <p style="text-align: center;">TEXT BOOK.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">—————</p> <p>Pendlebury's Graduated Arithmetic, Part VII. (the whole).</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Same as for Fourth Class Certificate. 2. Class teaching. 3. Methods of teaching reading, writing and arithmetic. <p style="text-align: center;">—————</p> <p style="text-align: center;">TEXT BOOK.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">—————</p> <p>Manuals of the Science and Art of Teaching.</p>	<p>Houses of Tudor, Stuart and Hanover.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">—————</p> <p style="text-align: center;">TEXT BOOK.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">—————</p> <p>Chambers's Senior English History, page 108 to end of book.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Same as for 4th class certificate. 2. British Colonies in Asia. <p style="text-align: center;">—————</p> <p style="text-align: center;">TEXT BOOKS.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">—————</p> <p>Cornwell's Geography for Beginners. Hewitt's British Colonies., pages 31—54.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Same as for 4th Class. 2. Stitching and sewing on strings, gathering, setting in, button-holing, sewing on button. <p>Garment, a pinafore, shift, apron, a plain night-shirt, night-gown, herring-bone stitch on canvas or flannel. Darning, simple, on canvas.</p>

SCHEDULE C.

FOR THE SECOND CLASS CERTIFICATE OF COMPETENCY.

SECTION 3 (1), (iii).

I. English.	II. French.	III. Arithmetic.	IV. School Management.	V. History.	VI. Geography.	VII. Algebra.	VIII. Geometry.	IX. Needlework for Female Teachers.
Maxima: 150	100	150	150	100	100	100	100	50
1. Grammar. 2. Analysis. 3. Paraphrasing. 4. Correction of faulty English. 5. Summarising. 6. Essay. 7. Conversation. <hr/> TEXT BOOKS. <hr/> G. P. Mason's Shorter English Grammar. Laurie's First Steps in Composition.	1. Grammar. 2. Analysis. 3. Translation. 4. Essay. 5. Conversation. <hr/> TEXT BOOK. <hr/> Grammaire Latine et Française. The whole of the 2 ^{me} année.	Miscellaneous questions on chapters for Fourth and Third Class certificates, but of greater difficulty. <hr/> TEXT BOOK. <hr/> Pondlebury's Arithmetic.	1. Same as for Fourth and Third Class certificates. 2. Discipline. 3. How to train Pupil Teachers. <hr/> TEXT BOOK. <hr/> Manuals of the Science and Art of Teaching.	House of Hanover. <hr/> TEXT BOOK. <hr/> Cyril Ransome's History of England.	1. Same as for Third Class. 2. British Colonies in America and Africa. <hr/> TEXT BOOK. <hr/> Hewitt's British Colonies, pages 85 to 188.	1. First Rules. 2. Use of Brackets. 3. Simple factors. 4. Simple equations, involving one unknown. <hr/> TEXT BOOK. <hr/> Hall and Knight's Algebra.	1. Definitions, postulates, axioms. 2. Book I. <hr/> TEXT BOOK. <hr/> Todhunter's Euclid.	1. Same as for the Fourth and Third Class Certificates. 2. The running tack, patching in calico and flannel. Cutting out and making any garment such as those mentioned in Schedule B.
NOTE:—Subjects VII. and VIII. do not apply to female teachers.								

SCHEDULE D.

Syllabus for all the Standards for which a Grant-in-aid School is entitled to receive a Result Grant.

(Sections 11, 12, 13.)

STANDARDS OF CLASSIFICATION.	OBLIGATORY SUBJECTS.		
	ENGLISH.		ARITHMETIC.
	ORAL.	WRITTEN.	—
STANDARD I.	<p>Reading: The capital and small letters of the Alphabet from Reading sheets.</p>	<p>Writing:—The Vertical Writing Copy Book No. 1. Copy: — Neat and correct copy on slate of words of from 2 to 3 letters set on Black-board. Dictation: — Capital and small letters of the alphabet on slate.</p>	<p>To read and write numbers up to 20 (Notation only). Addition on slate of numbers up to 20. MENTAL ARITHMETIC. Addition up to 20 (starting at any number below and increasing by using figures 1, 2, 3 only).</p>
STANDARD II.	<p>Spelling and reading. Meaning of nouns. To pick out Nouns from Text. Word-building as given at end of book. Book: — Chambers's Fluent Readers, 1st and 2nd Primers.</p>	<p>Writing:—The Vertical Writing Copy Book Nos. 1 and 2. Copy: — Neat and correct copy from Reading Book on slate. Dictation:—On slate, from Reading Book spelt twice and slowly.</p>	<p>To read and write numbers up to 100 (notation only). Addition on slate of numbers up to 100. MENTAL ARITHMETIC. Addition up to 100 (starting at any number below and increasing by using figures 1, 2, 3 only). Book: Pendlebury's Graduated Arithmetic, Part I., pages 1-12.</p>
STANDARD III.	<p>Quick Spelling and intelligent reading. Meaning of Nouns and Verbs. To pick out Nouns and Verbs from Text. Word-building. Book: — Chambers's Fluent Readers: Infant Reader.</p>	<p>Writing:—The Vertical Writing Copy Book Nos. 2 and 3. Copy: — Neat and correct copy from Reading text on slate or paper. Dictation:—On slate from Reading Book, spelt once and slowly.</p>	<p>Notation: Numbers of 3 digits. Numeration up to 100. Addition, Subtraction of Numbers of 3 digits. Multiplication tables 2 to 6. MENTAL ARITHMETIC. Addition of numbers up to 100 (starting at any number below and increasing by using figures 1 to 5 only). Book: Pendlebury's Graduated Arithmetic, Part I., the whole.</p>
STANDARD IV.	<p>Quick Spelling and intelligent reading. Meaning of Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs. To pick out Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs from Text. Word-building. Book: — Chambers's Fluent Readers: Book 1.</p>	<p>Writing:—The Vertical Writing Copy Book Nos. 4 and 5. Copy: — Neat and correct copy on slate or paper from Reading Book. Dictation:—On slate from Reading Book slowly dictated.</p>	<p>Notation and Numeration of numbers of 4 digits. Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication of numbers of 4 digits. Short division. Multiplication tables. MENTAL ARITHMETIC. Addition and subtraction to 100 (using figures 1 to 10). Book: Pendlebury's Graduated Arithmetic, Part II.</p>

SCHEDULE D.—continued.

STANDARDS OF CLASSIFICATION.	OBLIGATORY SUBJECTS.		
	ENGLISH.		ARITHMETIC.
	ORAL.	WRITTEN.	—
STANDARD V.	<p>Fluent and Intelligent Reading. Meaning of any of the words of Text. To pick out Nouns, Adjectives, Verbs, and Pronouns from Text. Verbs to Be and to Have. Word-building. Books: Chambers's Fluent Readers, Book II. Mason's Code Standard English Grammar, Part I.</p>	<p>Writing:—The Vertical Writing Copy Book, Nos. 6, 7 and 8. Copy:—On slate and on paper. Verbs to Be and to Have. Parsing:— Simple Sentence with Verb to Be. Dictation on Slate or on Copy Book slowly dictated.</p>	<p>Notation and Numeration of numbers of 7 digits. The first Four Rules. The same applied to Rs. and Cts. Addition and Subtraction (E. s. d.)</p> <p>MENTAL ARITHMETIC. Multiplication and Division of numbers of 2 digits by any figure of the Multiplication Tables.</p> <p>Book: Pendlebury's Graduated Arithmetic Part III., pages 65 to 76 and exercises 69 to 73; 75 and 76; 78 to 80; 82 to 90.</p>
STANDARD VI.	<p>Fluent and Intelligent Reading. To pick out any of the parts of speech from Text. Regular Verbs: Parsing; Word-building. Books: Chambers's Book III. Mason's Code Standard English Grammar, Part II.</p>	<p>Writing:— Vertical Writing Copy Book Nos. 9 and 10. Regular Verbs (Conjugation). Parsing:— Simple Sentence with Regular Verb. Dictation (Repeated three times).</p>	<p>Same as for Standard V. Plus Multiplication and Division (E s. d. and Rs. and Cts.).</p> <p>Books: Pendlebury's Graduated Arithmetic, Part III. (the whole), and Part IV., pages 97 to 116.</p>
STANDARD VII.	<p>Fluent and Intelligent Reading. Meaning of Locutions and Idioms. Regular and Irregular Verbs. Parsing and Analysis. Books: Chambers's Book IV. Mason's Code Standard English Grammar, Part III.</p>	<p>Writing:— Vertical Writing Copy Book Nos. 11 and 12. Parsing and Analysis:— Easy Compound Sentence. Verbs:—Regular and Irregular. Word-building. Dictation (repeated three times). Letter-writing.</p>	<p>Reduction: Money and Time. Decimal Notation. Metric System. Rapid casting of figures. Invoices and Bills. Simple Practice.</p> <p>Books: Pendlebury's Graduated Arithmetic Part IV., pages 97 to 122 and 131 to 144; and Part V., pages 157 to 160, and 165 to 170.</p>
STANDARD VIII.	<p>Fluent and Intelligent Reading. Meaning of Locutions and Idioms. Regular and Irregular Verbs. Analysis and Parsing. Test Exercises. Formation of Words. Books: Chambers's Book V. Mason's Code Standard English Grammar, Part IV.</p>	<p>Writing:— Vertical Writing Copy Book, Nos. 13 and 14. Parsing and Analysis. Composition. Letter-Writing. Test Exercises and Formation of Words. Dictation (repeated twice).</p>	<p>Reduction of Rs. and Cts. to E s. d. and vice versa (with exchange). Reduction of Weights and Measures. Unitary Method. Practice: Simple and Compound. Invoices and Bills. Fractions: Vulgar and Decimal, Simple Interest.</p> <p>Books: Pendlebury's Graduated Arithmetic Part V., the whole; and VI., pages 193 to 200; 207 to 222; 243 to 245.</p>

NOTE: The Inspector of Schools may use any other Reading Text-Books of equal difficulty.

SCHEDULE D.—continued.

(Section

STANDARDS OF CLASSIFICA- TION.	OPTIONAL SUBJECTS.				
	RECITATION.	GEOGRAPHY.	HISTORY.	FRENCH.	NEEDLE
Standard I.	1. Dick's song. 2. The Star. BOOK: Chambers's Infant Reader.				
Standard II.	1. The Star. 2. What the Little Mouse Saw. 3. Merry Spring. BOOK: Chambers's Infant Reader.	To show on any Wall Map the draw- ing representing the Coast line, an island, a river, a mountain, a strait, a cape.			
Standard III.	Three pieces taken from Chambers's Infant Reader at the option of the Teacher.	As for Standard II., plus: a gulf, a bay, a lake, a sea, a pen- insula, an isthmus. To show on the map of the world the continents, oceans and large islands.		Quick Spelling and Reading, neat and correct copy from reading text on slate or copy book. Book: Guyan: "J'apprends à lire."	Hem: ing child's pins pillow - ca pocket ha chief.
Standard IV.	Three pieces taken from Chambers's Book I. at the op- tion of the Teacher.	Definitions of geo- graphical terms. To show on the map of Europe the position of the names mentioned in Cornwell's Geography for Beginners, Nos. 28, 29, and 82 to 89.		Fluent and intelli- gent reading. Verbs avoir and être. Dic- tation from Text Book spelt once and slowly. Book: Guyan: "Je lis."	Hemming Seaming: a pinafore, a case, a handkerch
Standard V.	Four pieces taken from Chambers's Book II. at the op- tion of the Teacher.	To learn defini- tions, etc. etc. BOOK: Chambers's Geography Manuals Standard IV. To show on the Map of England the names mentioned in Cornwell's Geography for Beginners Nos. 31 to 41 and pages 19, 21 and 22.	The Ancient Britons to the Saxon line restored. BOOK: Chambers's Junior English His- tory, pages 1 to 35.	Reading, Dictation, exercices, verba être and avoir. Parsing. — Easy simple sentence with verb être. Transla- tion into French, passages from Cham- bers's Book II. Books: Grammaire Larive et Fleury— Année préparatoire (the whole). Guyan: Année En- fantine de Lecture Courante.	Hemming, ing, Felling- ing on canv- ing on l étau plat!

SCHEDULE D.—continued.

RDS		OPTIONAL SUBJECTS.				
10A-	EXCITATION.	GEOGRAPHY.	HISTORY.	FRENCH.	NEEDLEWORK.	
VI.	Five pieces taken from Chambers's Book III., at the option of the Teacher.	Definition of geographical terms. To learn the geography of England, Scotland and Ireland. Maps of England and Mahé. BOOK : Chambers's Geography Manuals, Standard V.	Norman Kings, and House of Plantagenet. BOOK : Chambers's Junior English History, pages 35 to 70.	Reading, Dictation, Exercises, Regular Verbs. Parsing : Simple sentence with regular verb. Translation into French, passages from Chambers's Book III. BOOKS : Grammaire Larive et Fleury, 1ère année, pages 1 to 101. Guyau : Année préparatoire de Lecture Courante.	Stitching, setting-in, gathering, plain darning and patching, marking on linen and canvas.	
VII.	Five pieces to be taken from Chambers's Book IV., at the option of the Teacher.	Australia, Canada, South African Colonies, India, Ceylon. With maps. BOOK : Chambers's Geography Manuals, Standard VI.	Houses of Lancaster, York, and Tudor. BOOK : Chambers's Junior English History, pages 70 to 106.	Reading, Dictation, Exercises, Parsing : Translation from French into English and vice versa passages from Chambers's Book IV. BOOKS : Grammaire Larive et Fleury, 1ère année (the whole). Guyau : 1ère Année de Lecture Courante.	The running tuck, button-hole stitch, marking on linen, cutting out and making a pinafore, shift, apron, night-shirt, night-gown or petticoat.	
VIII.	Five pieces to be taken from Chambers's Book V., at the option of the Teacher.	The British Colonies and Dependencies, with maps. BOOK : Chambers's Geography Manuals, Standard VII.	Houses of Stuart and Hanover. BOOK : Chambers's Junior English History, from page 106 to end of book.	Reading, Dictation, Parsing, Irregular Verbs, Letter-writing. Translation from French into English and vice versa, passages from Chambers's Book V. BOOKS : Grammaire Larive et Fleury, 1ère année (the whole). Nicolas : Lecture Morale "Tu es chef de famille."	As in Standard VI., plus cutting out and making an ordinary complete dress; bodice and skirt, coat and trousers.	

APPENDIX C.

SCHEDULE I. SCHEDULE OF STUDIES FOR THE JUNIOR CLASSES OF THE VICTORIA SCHOOL.
(PAYING BRANCH).

	ENGLISH.	ARITHMETIC.	GEOGRAPHY.	HISTORY.	FRENCH.	LATIN OR NATURAL SCIENCE.
PREPARATORY CLASSES below Standard I.	<p>CLASS A. Reading and Spelling. Copies on slate or copy book. Book :—Chambers's Fluent Readers. First and Second Primers. Recitation: I'll Try. Merry Spring. Writing :—Vertical Series, Nos. 1 and 2.</p>	<p>CLASS A. Notation numbers up to 100. Addition on copy book or on slate. Also Mental Arithmetic, addition up to 100 (using figures 1 to 5).</p>	<p>CLASS A. Oral Lessons on Test Map (without names) to acquaint pupils with drawings meant to represent any of the geographical terms.</p>			
	<p>CLASS B. Quick Spelling and Reading. Copies and Dictation. Book :—Chambers's Fluent Readers. Standard O. Recitation : Pieces set for Recitation in Standard O. (at end of book). Writing :—Vertical Series, Nos. 1 and 2.</p>	<p>CLASS B. Notation, Addition, Subtraction numbers of 4 digits. Numeration numbers of 3 digits. Mental Arith. : Addition and Subtraction (using figures 1-10). Book :—Pendlebury's Arithmetic, Standard I.</p>	<p>CLASS B. Same as for Class A. To show on Test Map of the World the Continents and Oceans and the five largest Rivers, Lakes and Islands of the World.</p>			
STANDARD I.	<p>Reading, Dictation, Verbs to Be and to Have. Writing : Vertical Series, Nos. 3 and 4. Book :—Chambers's Fluent Readers. Book I. To learn the meaning of all the Nouns, Adjectives, Verbs, &c., as well as of the Locutions and Idioms, and Verbs with appropriate prepositions, used in the Book. Recitation : Poetry : Pieces set for Recitation at end of Book.</p>	<p>Notation and Numeration. Simple Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication and Division. Book : Pendlebury's Elementary Arithmetic pages 1 to 45.</p>	<p>Europe and England. Book :—Cornwell's Geography for Beginners pages 1 to 23 and 22 to 28 orally on Test Maps.</p>			

CLASS I.

The System of Education in Seychelles.

VIII.

CLASS II.

12

STANDARD II.	<p>Reading, Dictation, regular verbs, Parsing. <i>Writing</i> : Vertical Series Nos. 5 and 6. BOOKS :—Chambers's Fluent Readers. Book II. To learn a vocabulary of all the parts of speech as well as of the Locutions and Idioms, and Verbs with appropriate prepositions, used in the book. <i>Recitation</i> : Pieces of Poetry at end of Book. C. P. Mason's First Notions of Grammar, pages 1 to 66, with exercises.</p>	<p>LOCUTIONS AND NUMERALS. The First Four Rules. Compound Addition and Subtraction (Money). Reduction (Money). BOOK :—Pendlebury's Arithmetic (Elementary), pages 1-73.</p>	<p>GEOGRAPHICAL TERMS. The United Kingdom and Europe, with Maps. BOOKS : Cornwell's Geography for Beginners, pages 1 to 30. Chambers's Geography Manuals, Standard IV.</p>	<p>THE SAXONS. Britons to the Danish Conquest. BOOK : Chambers's Junior English History, pages 1-28.</p>		
STANDARD III.	<p>Reading, Dictation, Parsing, Irregular Verbs, Easy Composition. <i>Writing</i> : Vertical Series Nos. 7 and 8. BOOKS :—Chambers's Fluent Readers. Book III. (same as for Standard II.). <i>Recitation</i> : Pieces at end of Book. C. P. Mason's First Notions of Grammar, pp. 1-120, with exercises.</p>	<p>Same as for Standard II. Plus : Compound Multiplication and Division. Measures of Weight and Length. BOOK :—Pendlebury's Elementary Arithmetic, pages 1-107.</p>	<p>The British Isles. BOOK : Chambers's Geography Manuals, Standard V. Outlines of Europe. Map of Africa to be filled up.</p>	<p>The Saxon Line Restored to Richard II. BOOK : Chambers's Junior English History, pages 27 to 69.</p>	<p>Reading, Dictation, Parsing, Verbs Avoir et Etre, Regular verbs. Translation from French into English and from English into French. BOOK : Larive et Fleury's 1ère Année de Grammaire, pp. 1-86. M. Guyau's Année préparatoire, for translation into English.</p>	
STANDARD IV.	<p>Reading, Dictation, Parsing, Analysis, Irregular Verbs, Easy Composition, Easy Letter-writing. <i>Writing</i> : Vertical Series Nos. 9, 10, 11. BOOKS :—Chambers's Fluent Readers. Book IV. (same as for Standard III.). <i>Recitation</i> : Pieces set at end of book. C. P. Mason's First Notions of Grammar (the whole).</p>	<p>Same as for Standard III. Plus : Measures of Area, Solids, Capacity and Time. BOOK :—Pendlebury's Elementary Arithmetic (the whole).</p>	<p>Physical and Political Geography of Australia, Canada, South African Colonies, India and Ceylon. BOOK : Chambers's Geography Manuals, Standard VI. Maps of Europe and Mahé, with Islets to be filled up.</p>	<p>Houses of Lancaster, York, and Tudor. BOOK : Chambers's Junior English History, pages 70 to 106.</p>	<p>Reading, Dictation, Parsing, Verbs, &c. Translation from French into English and from English into French. BOOKS : Larive et Fleury's 1ère Année de Grammaire, pages 86-137. M. Guyau's 1ère Année de Lecture Courante, for translation into English.</p>	<p>(Classical side.) Parts of Speech, Declensions, Gender, Comparison of Adjectives, Numerals, Pronouns, Verb Paradigms, Regular Verbs. BOOKS : H. Kennedy's Shorter Latin Primer, pages 1-49. First Latin Reader Sentences 1-233. — (Modern side.) Natural Science, Paul Bert chapter on animals.</p>

* Taken from the Regulations for the Victoria School, under Section 8 of the Education Ordinance, 1900. These regulations can be seen at the Board of Education Library, St. Stephen's House, Cannon Row, Whitehall, London, S.W.

SCHEDULE II.*—SCHEDULE OF STUDIES FOR THE SENI

	ENGLISH.	ARITHMETIC.	GEOGRAPHY.	HISTORY
Standard V.	<p>Reading, Dictation, Parsing, Analysis, Composition, Letter Writing, Formation of words.</p> <p>Writing: Vertical Series Nos. 12 and 13.</p> <p>Books:—Chambers's Fluent Readers, Book V. (same work to be done as in Standard IV.)</p> <p>Recitation: Pieces at end of book.</p> <p>Mason's Shorter English Grammar.</p>	<p>First four rules. Roman system of Notation, Factors, G.C.M., L.C.M.; Measures of Money and Weight. Fractions—Vulgar and Decimal, Practice, Invoices, Ratio, Proportion.</p> <p>BOOK.</p> <p>Pendlebury's Arithmetic, pages 1-152; 175-197.</p>	<p>British Colonies and Possessions, their acquisition and growth, with Maps.</p> <p>BOOK.</p> <p>Chambers's Geography Manuals, Standard VII.</p>	<p>The Houses of and Hanover.</p> <p>BOOK.</p> <p>Chambers's English History, page 106 to a book.</p>
Standard VI.	<p>Same as for Standard V. Writing: Vertical series, Nos. 13 & 14.</p> <p>BOOKS.</p> <p>Chambers's Fluent Readers, Book VI. (same as for standard V.)</p> <p>Recitation: 4 pieces at end of book.</p> <p>Mason's Shorter English Grammar.</p>	<p>Pendlebury's Arithmetic, pages 1-152; 160-202; 232-237.</p>	<p>Mathematical, Physical & Political Geography of Great Britain and Ireland, and the Colonies.</p> <p>BOOK.</p> <p>Cornwell's School Geography, pages 1-120.</p>	<p>The Houses of and Stuart.</p> <p>BOOK.</p> <p>Chambers's 5c English History</p>
Standard VII.	<p>Paraphrasing, Essay, Narration, Practice in making abstracts of lessons previously read out.</p> <p>BOOKS.</p> <p>Meiklejohn's English Grammar, pp. 8-85.</p> <p>Tennyson's Death of the Duke of Wellington.</p> <p>Recitation: from Palgrave's Golden Treasury: Part II., poems 2, 14, 22, 32.</p>	<p>Pendlebury's Arithmetic, pages 1-152; 160-202; 232-237; 272-294.</p>	<p>Mathematical, Physical and Political Geography of the whole of Europe and as in Standard V. Maps of Europe and Mahé.</p> <p>BOOK.</p> <p>Cornwell's School Geography.</p>	<p>The Houses of and Hanover.</p> <p>BOOK.</p> <p>Chambers's English History</p>

(continued).

ASSES OF THE VICTORIA SCHOOL (PAYING BRANCH).

FRENCH.	DRAWING.	ALGEBRA.	SCIENCE.	CLASSICAL SIDE ONLY.	MODERN SIDE ONLY.
<p>ding, Dictation, Parsing, Verbs, Exercises.</p> <p>BOOKS.</p> <p>annuaire Larive et Fleury. 2me Année, pages 1-132.</p> <p>schette's First French Reader. Pages 1-83, for translation.</p>	<p>Figures and easy combinations of the same to be drawn with Rulers, and Freehand.</p> <p>Elementary Free-hand Exercises.</p> <p>Text: New Code Drawing Books by C. E. Town.</p> <p>Books 4 and 5.</p>			<p>LATIN.</p> <p>Stedman's First Latin Reader, Sentences 280-383.</p> <p>Shorter Latin Primer.</p> <p>Accidence and Syntax. Numerals.</p>	<p>Paul Bert's First Year of Natural Science, chapter on Plants.</p> <p>Todhunter's Euclid: Definitions, &c., Book I. Propositions I. to VIII.</p> <p>Book Keeping by Single Entry:— Ready Money Sales Book, Stock Book, Petty Cash Book, Cash Book and Day Book.</p>
<p>ding, Dictation, Parsing, Verbs, Exercises, Composition, Letter-writing.</p> <p>BOOKS.</p> <p>annuaire Larive et Fleury. 2me Année, pages 133-224.</p> <p>schette's First French Reader. Pages 90-63 for translation.</p>	<p>Taking dimensions from a scale.</p> <p>Drawing to scale a plan or figure having marked dimensions. Enlarging and reducing plane figures to scale.</p> <p>Text: New Code Drawing Books Nos. 6 and 6½.</p>	<p>The First four Rules.</p> <p>BOOKS.</p> <p>Hall and Knight's Algebra (Elementary), pages 1 to 40.</p>		<p>LATIN.</p> <p>Stedman's Easy Latin Exercises 1-20.</p> <p>Revised Latin Primer, pp. 1 to 111.</p>	<p>Paul Bert's First Year of Natural Science, Physics.</p> <p>Todhunter's Euclid: Definitions, &c., Book I. Propositions I. to XV.</p> <p>Book Keeping by Single Entry:— Ledger, Waste Book, Balance Sheet, and other books as for Standard V.</p>
<p>me as for VI. Standard. Translation of easy passages from English into French, Essay.</p> <p>BOOKS.</p> <p>annuaire Larive et Fleury. 3me Année, pp. 1-132.</p> <p>schette's First French Reader. Pages 110 to end for translation.</p> <p>ambert's Fluent Readers, Book VI. for translation.</p>	<p>Same as for Standard VI. plus:</p> <p>Moderately difficult Exercises in Freehand, to be enlarged and reduced from the examples.</p> <p>Text. New Code Drawing Books Nos. 6, 6½ and 7.</p>	<p>The First four Rules, use of brackets, Simple Equations, Highest Common factor, lowest Common multiple, elementary fractions.</p> <p>BOOK.</p> <p>Hall and Knight's Elementary Algebra, pp. 1 to 76.</p>	<p>Paul Bert's 1st year of Natural Science: Physics and Chemistry.</p>	<p>LATIN.</p> <p>Stedman's Easy Latin Exercises 1-50.</p> <p>Stedman: Kings of Rome (Methuen).</p> <p>Revised Latin Primer, pp. 1-130 §§ 1-367.</p> <p>GEOMETRY.</p> <p>Todhunter's Euclid: Definitions, &c., Book I. the first 15 propositions.</p>	<p>Todhunter's Euclid: Definitions, &c., Book I. The first 24 propositions.</p> <p>Book Keeping by Double Entry: Cash Book, Office and Petty Cash Books, Banking Account Book, Bill Book, Account Sales Book, Day, Journal and Ledger Books.</p>

APPENDIX D.

GENERAL REGULATIONS FOR THE SEYCHELLES SCHOLARSHIPS UNDER CHAPTER IV. OF THE EDUCATION ORDINANCE, 1900.

Conditions for admission to Examination. 1. The conditions under which candidates shall be allowed to compete for the Seychelles Scholarships shall be the following:—

- (i.) Every candidate shall be a British subject;
- (ii.) Every candidate shall be under fifteen years of age on the 30th of June of the year in which the examination is held;
- (iii.) Every candidate shall send to the Headmaster of the Victoria School an application, with his certificate of birth annexed, not later than the 31st of March previous to the examination. No application made after that date shall be entertained.

Subject matter of Examination. 2. The Seychelles Scholarships Examination shall be awarded according to the results of an examination based upon the course of studies set forth in Schedule II.* for the Seventh Standard of the Victoria School, provided that no candidate shall be allowed to compete at the same time in the Classical side and in the Modern side.

Laureates must satisfy Examiners. 3. (1) The Scholarships shall be awarded according to the results of the Examination, provided that the candidates obtaining the highest marks shall be in the opinion of the Examiners deserving of the Scholarships.

- (2) If on either side there shall be no candidate deserving of a Scholarship in the opinion of the Examiners, both Scholarships may be awarded to candidates on the other side.

Marks. 4. The marks allotted for the subjects shall be as follows:—

For the Classical side		1,200 marks.
English	-	100
English Dictation and Essay, Letter or Narration	-	100
English History	-	150
French, including Dictation and Composition	-	150
Drawing	-	50
Geography	-	150
Arithmetic	-	150
Algebra	-	75
Geometry	-	75
Science	-	75
Latin	-	125
Total		1,200
For the Modern side		1,200 marks.
English	-	100
English Dictation and Essay, Letter or Narration	-	100
English History	-	150
French, including Dictation and Composition	-	150
Drawing	-	50
Geography	-	150
Arithmetic	-	150
Algebra	-	75
Geometry	-	100
Science	-	75
Book-keeping	-	100
Total		1,200

* See Appendix C above.

5. (1) The Seychelles Scholarships Examination shall be held at the Examination Victoria School in the first fortnight of the month of July of every year ; where held the questions shall be set, and the answers of candidates corrected by and by whom Examiners appointed by the Secretary of the Cambridge Syndicate. conducted.

(2) Provided that in case of need the Board of Education shall be empowered to postpone the examination.

(3) The date of the Examination shall be fixed by the Administrator, and a notice of the same shall be published in the Government Gazette three weeks at least before the appointed day.

(4) The first examination for these Scholarships shall be held in July, 1902.

6. The Seychelles Laureates shall proceed to the Royal College of Mau- Laureates to ritius or such other place of education in England as shall be approved of proceed to by the Administrator, and shall be required to gain such certificates of good Mauritius o conduct and progress as are usually awarded to meritorious students. to England.

7. Every Laureate shall, as a condition of his nomination to a Seychelles Form to be Scholarship, make and subscribe an undertaking countersigned by his filled by father or his lawful guardian in the following form :— Laureates and re- sponsible party.

I, _____ having been selected by His Honour the Administrator for the purpose of completing my Education at _____

at the expense of the Government of Seychelles, do hereby promise that I will not, directly or indirectly, apply to

_____ for any money in addition to the Annual Allowance of Rs. 600 made to me for three years by the Seychelles Government, and the Allowance for Passage Money to and from Seychelles, and also that I will pursue my studies at such place of Education as may be approved of in accordance with the Regulations.

(Signed)

On behalf of the above written _____ (my son or ward as the case may be), I assent to confirm the above undertaking.

(Signed)

Father or Guardian.

8. The Allowance of Rs. 600 to the Laureates shall be payable either in Mode of pay Mauritius or in England, in such manner and at such place as may be ment of approved of by the Administrator in the case of each Laureate. allowance.

9. Candidates undergoing the examination shall be under the control of Sub- Sub-Examiners to be appointed by the Administrator. Examiners.

Made by the Board of Education (Administrator in Executive Council) under Ordinance No. 30 of 1900, at a meeting held on the 4th February, 1901.

APPENDIX E.

RULES AND CONDITIONS FOR INDUSTRIAL APPRENTICES
AT THE BOTANIC STATION, VICTORIA.

- Annual examination for apprenticeships. 1. In January of every year an examination will be held for two apprenticeships at the Botanic Station open to the youth of Seychelles.
- Subjects of examination. 2. The subjects of examination will be those laid down for the examination of candidates for admission to the Civil Service as Copyists.
- Certificates of conduct and health. 3. Candidates for examination will be required to produce two certificates of good conduct from well-known persons, and a medical certificate that they are physically fit for employment as apprentices.
- Age of candidates. 4. Candidates must not be less than fourteen years or more than sixteen years of age on the 1st January of the year in which the examination takes place.
- Duration of apprenticeships. 5. The apprenticeship will extend over a period of four years.
- Dismissal. 6. Inefficient apprentices, or those who misconduct themselves, may be dismissed at any time by the Administrator on the report of the Curator of the Botanic Station.
- Hours of labour. 7. The hours of labour will be 6.30 to 9.30 a.m., and 11.30 a.m. to 4.30 p.m.
- Work. 8. Apprentices will be required to perform whatever work may be directed by the Curator, but, generally speaking, they will be taught the following duties:—
First Year.—Handling the ordinary implements used in digging, harrowing, sowing, planting, etc., preparing soil, and trimming and cutting trees, hedges, etc.
Second and Third Years.—In addition to the above, the preparation of manure, potting, grafting, pruning, and laying out beds, and the organs of plants.
Fourth Year.—Classification of plants, laying out of grounds and forestry.
9. The following will be the rates of wages:—
- | | | |
|-------------|-----------|-------------------|
| First Year | - - - - - | Rs. 10 per mensem |
| Second Year | - - - - - | 15 " " |
| Third Year | - - - - - | 20 " " |
| Fourth Year | - - - - - | 20 " " |
10. Apprentices will receive wages only for the days on which they work, but no reduction will be made in respect of Sundays or Public Holidays.
11. In case of illness, certified by a medical practitioner, apprentices will draw half-pay during such period of their absence as the Administrator, on the recommendation of the Curator, may decide.
12. In the event of apprentices being absent owing to any injury received whilst at work, the Administrator may authorise their drawing full pay for such period as the Curator may recommend, or as the circumstances of the case appear to justify.

E. B. SWEET-ESCOTT,

7th March, 1901.

Administrator,

APPENDIX A1.

THE EDUCATIONAL WORK OF THE BASEL MISSION ON THE GOLD COAST:

ITS METHOD IN COMBINING INDUSTRIAL AND MANUAL TRAINING WITH OTHER INFLUENCES INDISPENSABLE TO THE FORMATION OF THE CHARACTER OF THE NATIVE RACE.

I. INTRODUCTION.

Education has always been a difficult problem with regard to the African tribes, considering the degraded state of minds based upon heathenism and the low state of civilization. The condition of the people to be educated being such it will be universally acknowledged that a mere imparting of knowledge and literary training will not be sufficient, but that there must be combined with it a training in useful industries, a most energetic influence on the character and a decisive work upon the will of the natives.

The Basel Missionaries on the Gold Coast, being fully aware of this fact, have from the beginning dealt with these educational questions in various ways :

I. In making a simple and limited mode of manual work, chiefly agriculture, compulsory in all their Elementary Schools up to Standard III.

II. In adding other industrial and technical instruction to agriculture in their higher Central Schools comprising the Standards IV.-VII., as well as in their two Training Schools for catechists and teachers.

III. In training nearly all the girls attending the standard classes of the Elementary Schools, but especially those in their Boarding Schools for Girls, in needlework and the different branches of domestic economy.

IV. In making expensive experiments in establishing an Agricultural School on the mountains of Akuapem, now discontinued, and in erecting a still flourishing workshop for carpentry, joinery, and smithwork on the Coast.

V. In establishing Mission stations with solid mission houses, airy and well-ventilated schoolrooms and teachers' houses in the centres of the inland provinces, each of these stations being an object lesson on the usefulness of all kinds of handicraft, an example of a higher mode of living, and a triumph of civilization amidst the heathenish barbarism.

VI. In giving a sound education—the instruction throughout all the Basel Mission Schools being based upon the culture of the native language—apt to influence and raise the great mass of the people.

II.

AGRICULTURAL WORK DONE IN THE LOWER SCHOOLS UP TO
STANDARD III.

In all the lower schools of the Basel Mission some agricultural work connected with the school is compulsory. A smaller or larger piece of land belonging to the school or to the Basel Mission Christian community of the place is cleared and cultivated with one or two or three of the following plants: coffee, cocoa, arrowroot, cassada, colanut, rubber, sissal-hemp, etc. The further manual work done consists in watering, weeding, replanting and fencing in the plantation. In the case of ~~one and cocoa~~ the fruit is prepared through all its stages until it for sale or export. The preparation of the coffee, which till recently was the chief product of the school plantations, causes, as there are no machines in use in these small schools, not a little trouble. The berries are plucked, dried, and by beating them in wooden mortars, husked, dried again and selected.

The Basel Mission Elementary School at Kropong had, in 1888, 1,000 coffee trees on their plantation, and earned 600 lbs. of coffee; other smaller schools have 300 to 600 trees on their plantations. Things which threaten to be fatal to the good result of this agricultural work are:

- a. The exceedingly low price paid for coffee on the market in recent years.
- b. The lack of other means of transport to the Coast besides carriers; therefore the further away from the Coast, the less the cultivation of coffee will pay.
- c. The fact that for some years past the coffee trees in large districts of the Colony have been subject to damage by insects.

Cassada and arrowroot are dried and ground on small perforated tin plates (taken from provision and kerosene tins) and worked into starch and powdered arrowroot, fit for washing and cooking purposes. At the Basel Mission Boarding School at Christiansborg (on the Coast), the preparation of starch from cassada has become an industrial branch, worked in a systematic way by simple machines constructed in the Basel Mission workshop. Though this home-made starch cannot compete with Colman's starch in purity and efficiency, yet it is gladly bought by the native population for washing purposes. The newly introduced plants—rubber, colanut and sissal-hemp have not yet reached the stage of being made into articles for use or sale.

In some schools weaving of mats, baskets and caps is taught, but in no systematic way and without any industrial scope.

Though in smaller schools distant from an European Station, where the superintendence of the manager cannot be strictly exercised, the agricultural work is of a very limited and simple character, and not very systematically done, as there is seldom

proper tilling and manuring of the ground or dressing of the trees, yet with a little care and attention on the part of the teacher such school plantations will be a kind of model plantation, so far as the work goes, for the surrounding native population. In proof of this only two points need be mentioned :

a. Before setting out the plants a deep hole is made and filled with vegetable mould taken from virgin soil, a thing utterly neglected in the plantations of the common natives.

b. The plants are set out in regular lines at proper distance from each other, whilst the natives in foolish greediness, wishing to get as much as possible in the shortest time, let their plants grow thickly bushed together.

And there is no doubt that in the province of Akuapem the example given by the Basel Mission in its school plantation at Akropong was imitated by the natives, and coffee extensively grown until the insects began to destroy the trees, and the low price paid for coffee made most of the natives discontinue the cultivation of it, and try the new product—cocoa. Besides the good example given to the natives, the work on the school plantation is of great benefit to the pupils themselves, as :

a. After the mental work done in the schoolroom, the working on the plantation affords a healthful physical exercise.

b. It prevents the children from lounging about and idling away their time after school, giving them at the same time not only a lesson on the value of time, but also on the dignity of labour.

III.

THE INDUSTRIAL WORK DONE IN THE HIGHER SCHOOLS (STANDARDS IV.-VII.) OF THE BASEL MISSION.

The six Higher Schools of the Basel Mission, called Middle (Grammar) Schools, are all Boarding Schools under direct European superintendence, therefore the attendance in these schools is very regular, the instruction effective, and the discipline very strict.

Schools in such a favourable position ought to be able to do something good in industrial work, too.

a. In agriculture the same plants as in the Elementary Schools are cultivated, viz., coffee, cocoa, colanut, sissal-hemp, rubber, cassada. But under the eyes of the European Superintendent—though no object-lessons are as yet given upon the plants cultivated—all work is done systematically and according to a plan. The area under cultivation is much larger than in the Elementary Schools ; for instance, at Akropong, two acres, at Begõro, four acres of ground ; at the latter place the crops produced the sum of £10 10s. 6d. in the year 1895, which was spent in buying a husking machine ; at Akropong, till lately, an old machine for winnowing was used.

b. Though there are no technical classes with special masters attached to these schools, yet a great deal of industrial work is done in addition to agriculture, as :

1. Masonry, *i.e.*, paving of gutters; every kind of work in swish, as swish walls; brick-making, whitewashing; even small stone walls, as foundation for swish walls, were erected by the scholars; breaking and hewing of stones, etc.

2. Carpentry of a limited character, as planing boards, joining of forms, etc., wood carving, etc.

3. Bookbinding, especially at Akropong, which, five years ago, was awarded the first prize at the annual exhibition.

4. Weaving of mats, baskets, sunshades, etc. As there is great difficulty in getting special masters for such different kinds of work, the principals of these schools themselves, being mostly men of different practical attainments, teach the boys, and if that be not the case, by some kind of tradition the above-mentioned manual attainments are kept up by the elder scholars.

How far this manual work will have a lasting influence upon the character of the scholars is difficult to say. The hope which one of the School Inspectors had in proposing technical classes at the Government School at Acera, that such technical instruction would induce scholars who had passed Standard V. to apprentice themselves for a period of three years at least, in order to become workmen in the Public Works Department, will, we are afraid, meet with sad disappointment. There is a distaste for anything savouring of labour among the upper standard boys, who think that to be a scholar is to be a gentleman, and to be a gentleman precludes the possibility of gaining a livelihood except by the pen. Therefore it was and will be always an exception to the rule when a boy who has passed Standard V. makes up his mind to learn a handicraft, as smith or carpenter. As the Basel Mission Schools with higher standards were established with the primary aim of serving as preparatory schools for the Training Schools for Teachers and Catechists, it is not our aim to prepare the pupils for a trade, but we are pleased that the great mass of the pupils of these Higher Schools (with the exception of the Grammar School at Christiansborg) wish to enter the Mission service as catechists and teachers. The industrial instruction given in these schools has therefore mostly an educational value, *i.e.* :

1. As the pupils have six daily lessons, and have to study at least two to three hours in the class-rooms under superintendence, two hours' healthful exercise in manual work daily is of great physical benefit.

2. The time-table thus leaving for the days from Monday till Friday, only two hours' leisure time in a day, gives the pupils a good lesson on the value and right use of time.

3. All scholars from the first to the last are compelled to do any manual work shown to them, even less agreeable tasks, as

carrying of stones and making of swish, by working the ground with the bare feet, and thus are kept as much as possible in humbleness and strict obedience, and taught that labour is no disgrace even for a high standard boy.

4. Lastly, even as teachers and catechists, these practical acquirements will be of good use to them.

Even in the two Training Schools for teachers and catechists nobody is exempted from manual work, which is done for one hour every day, and is nearly the same as in the Middle Schools.

IV.

TRAINING OF GIRLS IN NEEDLEWORK AND DOMESTIC ECONOMY

In the larger Elementary Schools, reaching as far as Standard III., and even in some with only Standard I., instruction in elementary needlework is given, generally under the superintendence of the wife of the head teacher. Though even in these smaller schools very good results are achieved, yet a more lasting influence upon the character of the girls is obtained in the Basel Mission Boarding Schools for Girls. In these schools, under the direct superintendence of a European lady, the girls get a Christian training of such a kind as to fit them to be useful wives and mothers at a future day; they are trained especially with a view to their becoming wives of the teachers, catechists, and other better situated members of the Basel Mission community. Therefore:

a. Sewing is here of really an industrial and therefore useful character. At the yearly visit of the Inspector, as well as at the annual exhibition at Accra, the needlework done in these schools is publicly exhibited, and includes a useful variety, from the joining of pieces to the cutting out and making up of shirts, short frocks, and drawers, pillow-cases, babies' garments and bibs, socks, stockings, antimacassars, etc.; even various samples of lace work. The verdict on this kind of work, pronounced by the Government School Inspector at his annual visit to one of these schools, was: "Needlework, as usual, is excellent."

2. Domestic Economy, as far as it is taught, is only an improved form of what the natives require in ordinary life, but we think this is an useful step in the right direction. The girls are trained in the habits of cleanliness, order, and practical utility bearing on home life; they receive instruction in washing, starching, ironing, mending, darning and house-cleaning; they cook their own food, and some are actually trained in European cookery of the plainer kind; indeed, they are practically and well taught.

V.

AGRICULTURAL AND INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS

The Basel Mission, recognising the fact that industrial training is a most important factor in the education of a heathen.

un-civilised nation, tried to exercise an every-day influence on the people, making the spade and other instruments go hand-in-hand with the Bible.

a. At the beginning of the Mission on the mountains of Akuapem, an agricultural school for native youths under a European agent was established at Akropong. In connection with this school, very expensive experiments were made in order to introduce European methods of cultivation. Horses, mules, asses and cattle were brought from the Canary Islands, the plough and spade were used for tilling the ground instead of the native hoe, cutlass and mattock; and every effort made to get greater facilities of transport by carriages. Very costly attempts were made to introduce other than native products, as coffee, cotton and tobacco; for the latter, a large drying hall was erected at Akropong; again, trials were made with different kinds of grain, vegetables and fruit trees; a beautiful alley of mango and orange trees at Akropong still gives evidence of those admirable exertions (from 1857-1878) of the Mission. After a twenty years' costly and laborious struggle to make this great agricultural enterprise succeed and pay, it had to be given up, from the following reasons:—

1. The natives had no perseverance or spirit of enterprise, and preferred their easy and traditional way of agriculture to new painstaking efforts, considering any hard labour a disgrace for a *free man*.

2. Political friction and hostilities between the tribes on the Gold Coast frustrated the consolidation of this peaceful work.

3. Frequent deaths of the European agents made the Society shrink from risking more valuable lives.

Yet this admirable work was not discontinued without leaving a lasting mark on the country: the cultivation of coffee was taken up by many natives, and until recently many acres of ground were covered with coffee trees; and only the low price paid for it, as a result of foreign competition, caused many to plant cocoa instead of coffee.

b. Besides agriculture, other trades were taken up by the Basel Mission, as:—

Book-binding, shoemaking, straw-plaiting, etc., under the superintendence of lay-missionaries. Two of these heroic and self-denying men built the first road into the interior, leading from the coast to the foot of the Akuapem mountain, winding up the mountain to Aburi, and from there over hills and valleys, crossing many rivulets, to Akropong and Odumase, a distance of about forty-five miles. This was done from 1850-1860. Though the Government granted some pecuniary help, the greater part of this expensive work was borne by the Mission.

c. Another industrial establishment which still exists, and is quite unique on the whole coast, is the Basel Mission Works, at Christiansborg, on the coast near Accra, where carpenters, wheelwrights and blacksmiths are trained to do very good work, not only all

along the Gold Coast, but also down to the rivers, and the Congo Free State. This establishment, which for many years had to fight for its very existence, and required heavy contributions from the Mission for its upkeep, now seems to be enjoying better days; not only does it pay, but it is nowadays generally appreciated, and its eminent usefulness acknowledged everywhere. And well does it deserve its success. The Basel Mission works are superintended by two European managers, one of them an expert in every kind of iron work, and the other a professional worker in wood. The workshops are airy and well-ventilated, and equipped with every necessary apparatus, possessing not less than eleven machines for iron, wood and turnery work.

There are at present six skilled labourers and twenty-four apprentices employed. The manager in ironwork, who looks back upon an experience of fifteen years, has seen more than 160 young men apprenticed in this establishment during this period; two-thirds of whom were pupils in the ironwork department, and one-third in joinery and turnery work. It is true that, before 1890, many of these apprentices, after one or one and a-half years' stay in the workshops wilfully left, thinking themselves already "masters of arts," or at least considering what they had learned enough to seek their fortune elsewhere as independent workmen. Since 1890, when the Basel Mission Works were reorganized, the apprentices have had to sign a bond, by which they promise to continue their studies for a period of three years, and deposit £4 as security, which is returned after the completion of the term of three years' apprenticeship, but if the apprentice leaves before the completion of the term, or if he is discharged on account of disobedience or misconduct, this sum is forfeited.

The workshops being now in a better financial position, and having a good internal organization, the great and good work done in this institution is patent to everybody. A young man who has finished his three years' apprenticeship there will be sure to be appreciated wherever he works; there is only one voice of praise for workmen trained in the Basel Mission Works from Sierra Leone to the Congo river, on board of the steamers as well as in the factories along the coast, where there are railways, or on military expeditions. Lately a gentleman saw a workman, returning from the Congo Free State, deposit £250 with the purser on board a steamer; this man had learned his trade in the Basel Mission Works, at Christiansborg, and had earned the above-mentioned sum in a comparatively short time. These good results are based on the following points:

1. The managers are skilful, energetic men, devoting all their time and strength to the work.

2. The instruction given in these well-equipped shops is solid, thorough and well graded, from making a key, to the repair of steam engines, from making a simple box, to the construction of go-carts (a carriage with two wheels and springs, drawn by

native servants), gigs and dog-carts, trucks of two and four wheels of the greatest solidity and strength. In the year 1901, not less than sixty of these different carriages were constructed and sold.

3. The superficial and shallow character of the natives, who want to earn money and to get a good living as quickly and as easily as possible without earnest labour and due perseverance, is greatly influenced for good in these shops, as the apprentices, under direct European superintendence, have to work patiently and diligently for three full years; being constantly corrected and pushed forward, and by word and example taught to strive after thoroughness.

4. By stern discipline, requiring the strictest obedience, they are trained in habits of punctuality and order.

5. The managers also try to influence their apprentices and workmen religiously—morning prayers before the beginning of the day's work being compulsory for all—and to implant into them the sense of honesty and truthfulness.

Indeed, the Basel Mission Works at Christiansborg are an institution, the value of which for the whole West Coast cannot be too highly estimated. The Basel Mission has never received the least subsidy from the Colonial Government, but has from its own exertions, and of its own accord, supplied the Public Works Department with its best native servants, and greatly promoted civilization on the whole coast. This, our glory, shall not be taken away from us.

VI.

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF MISSION STATIONS IN THE INTERIOR.

The Basel missionaries, when advancing into the inland provinces—Akuapem, Krobo, Akyem, Okwao, Asante—had to build their own houses. They came to Africa with the intention of doing the work of evangelisation and civilisation amongst the Negro tribes for life, *i.e.*, to live amongst the natives for a number of years (on an average, five years) before going on furlough, and to return again after one or two years' absence.

A missionary home, affording the moderate comfort required by a European family, was therefore absolutely necessary. The Mission-houses of the first period were solid stone houses of one storey, those of the second period (from 1860) are houses of two storeys, the second mostly framework with bricks.

The missionaries had to teach the natives all the masonry work, the sawing of boards and beams, the splitting of shingles, and all the carpenters' work. Besides the Mission-houses, spacious chapels, school-houses and teachers' houses were erected, solid swish-buildings with doors, windows and shingle roof.

On the land acquired by the Mission the Christian converts had to build their houses; a new settlement, on the principles of a Christian community, arose before the eyes of the natives, exemplifying a new and higher mode of life.

No better lesson can be given on the usefulness of all kinds of handicrafts, and no better picture of a higher and happier mode of life placed before the eyes of a degraded, slow-bellied, heathenish nation, than these stations of the Basel Mission. Therefore, wherever the Basel Mission is setting its foot the whole aspect of the country is being changed; its stations are indeed landmarks of civilisation.

VII.

THE CULTURE OF THE NATIVE LANGUAGES.

In speaking of the education of a native tribe, and of influencing its character through schooling, one thing is not to be forgotten: the culture of the native language. It is a generally acknowledged truth that the education of a heathen, uncivilised, degraded nation, in order to raise it to a higher moral standard and better mode of life, cannot be done through the medium of a foreign language, but that a sound education can only be given on the basis of the vernacular. An educational system which utterly disregards the reading and writing of the native language, and teaches professedly English only, will have a good result with only a comparatively small number of students who reach the higher standards; the great mass of the scholars will derive very little or no profit from their years of studying the foreign language, and a good number of these will become half-educated caricatures of civilisation. It is statistically proved that not even one-sixth of all children entering a school in the Gold Coast Colony go beyond Standard III. According to the official report of 1893-94, of the 6,925 scholars presented for examination no less than 4,579, or nearly 66 per cent., are classified under infants and sub-standards; no less than 6,277 were under Standard IV., and only 648 in the Standards IV.-VII. In the year 1899 there were of 10,164 scholars examined, 6,208 in infants and sub-standards; under Standard IV. were 8,781, and in Standards IV. to VII. only 1,383. Now what about the great majority which does not go beyond Standard III.? The truth is, though most of those who passed Standard III. may be able to read the reading-book of Standard III., as the contents were, perhaps, explained to them with the help of the Vernacular, yet even these scholars are as a rule not able to read an easy English story-book with understanding, not to speak of writing the easiest English letter or essay. Therefore, we ask again, what about the 86 per cent. not going beyond Standard III.? What benefit had they from their schooling, if not able to read and write their own language? Are they not an easy prey to a most foolish vanity, priding themselves and parading before the uneducated natives a few English phrases? These poor, puffed-up specimens of a wrong system of education, having only nibbled in the most superficial manner at a foreign language, look down haughtily upon their uneducated countrymen, unconscious how contemptible their arrogance appears to the European spectator.

The Basel Mission Society, being an educational body as well as a Missionary Society, and as such wishing to influence the masses, was from the beginning convinced that a school system, if it would raise the people to a higher and better mode of life, could in no way dispense with the Vernacular. Consequently, the Basel Missionaries chose two languages, the first of which is prominent on the coast around Accra, the seat of Government, called the Gã or Accra, language; the other one, the Tshi, or Asante, language, is the leading language in the interior up to Salaga and Atabu. By the help of an alphabet, skilfully and conscientiously based on the Lepsius Standard Alphabet, these two languages were written on the phonetic system, and are now, as they appear in the books, a very accurate representation of the spoken language. Many thousands of natives have learned to read and write their language easily and fluently, and unanimously testify that the language as written by the Basel Missionaries is an excellent medium to fix their language.

A good number of well-graduated school books, as well as religious books (*e.g.*, the whole Bible), were compiled and printed and bound in Europe. By the help of these books the Vernacular is taught on a system well adapted to its requirements. All the scholars entering a Basel Mission School begin with the Vernacular, till a stage is reached in which systematic study of English, learning the language whilst learning to read, can be taken up; and then instruction in both languages goes on together till the end of Standard III. Whilst correct and fluent reading and writing of the Vernacular is an aim in itself, and for the greater part of the scholars—who are not proceeding beyond Standards I. or II. or III.—is indeed the chief part of all their instruction, the Vernacular is also regarded as preparatory to English teaching and made subservient to this end. There is no doubt that the Vernacular, having been laid as good foundation, will be of great help to a better understanding and more solid acquisition of the English language. One of the Government School Inspectors stated in his report: “The previous training of pupils in the Vernacular makes it certain that at least 80 per cent. of those presented in Standard I. will not fail to pass. Also the writing in Vernacular, taught in a thorough and well-graded system, prepares the way for the English one.”

It is therefore beyond any doubt that by the school system of the Basel Mission, including Vernacular as a chief agency, the character of the natives educated in the Mission schools is deeply influenced. It creates not only respect for their own language, and in consequence also respect for their native customs and their nationality, but also tends to promote the intellectual powers of the whole race.

Considering all the above-mentioned points, and looking back upon the great and good work done amongst the native tribes on the Gold Coast by the Basel Missionaries, who:—

(a) Not only imparted common science, and the knowledge of the English language, but who

(b) By strict discipline and an excellent school organisation, trained their pupils in all good habits ; and

(c) By the manual work enforced upon all their pupils, taught them the value of time, the dignity of labour, and greatly encouraged the cultivation of new products ;

(d) Who in their workshops trained a great many very useful handicraftsmen, not only for the Gold Coast, but for the whole of West Africa ;

(e) Who by their Mission-houses, their well-built chapels, schools and teachers' houses, taught the natives how to erect better habitations, and to strive after a better mode of life ;

(f) Who, by the culture of the native language, deeply influenced the great body of the people, and developed the intellectual powers of the whole race ;

Considering all this, one will not be surprised that all the Government School Inspectors, who annually visit the schools all over the Colony, and inquire carefully into all the details of the educational work done, with one accord state : that the Basel Missionaries, advancing at a slow pace, in their usual persevering manner, are making very sure progress ; that their work is the most real and solid ; that they are the most powerful of all denominations at work in the Colony ; that for more than fifty years they have done immense good to the Colony ; that, to quote the verdict of one of the former Inspectors of Schools, with regard to the Interior, the Basel Mission has alone made a permanent mark on the country.

W. J. ROTTMANN.

Akropong, Gold Coast, July 5th, 1902.

APPENDIX B 1.

NOTES ON INDUSTRIAL TRAINING FOR NATIVES ON
THE CONGO.

(BAPTIST MISSIONARY SOCIETY)

1.—(a.) Industrial training has been attempted by some of the Missions, but largely as a means to secure a supply of more or less skilled labour without having to send to the coast for costly work-people. The training has largely consisted in the performance of the simpler tasks under the supervision of skilled coast mechanics working under the direction of the missionaries, or, as in the Government workshops, with skilled Europeans. Craftsmen from the coast do not like the idea of the "bush people" of the interior learning their trades—the same remark applies in some measure to the European mechanics and makes the wished-for system of apprenticeship difficult to work. Attempts have been made, but they have not yet proved an appreciable success; but, in the nature of things, such a system could hardly be expected to succeed seeing that trades-union principles extend so widely, even beyond the range of trades unions themselves.

(b.) As to courses of study in matters industrial nothing can be said, seeing the work in hand, for the time being, has been the only determining factor as to the training given or acquired. Regular "Technical" or "Industrial" teachers, so far as I know, have never been sent to the Congo. The missionaries, however, when engaged in housebuilding, re-erecting of steamers, and the incidentals connected with their establishments in the country, have found the occasion for training some hundreds of young people as brickmakers, bricklayers, sawyers, carpenters, and some few engineers. This supply of native labour has made the establishment of new stations towards the interior, of late years, a simpler and less costly matter than those nearer the coast at the outset of their enterprise. At the four or five printing offices established, some scores have learned to set type, bind books, etc.; at the Bolobo Mission press some fifteen or eighteen young men do practically all the work except the proof-reading. Press work, however, is not so popular among the young people as other trades, the demand for such skill being comparatively limited.

(c.) Agricultural work, unfortunately, is at a discount with boys and men, and even in the Government plantations the work is mainly done by the women. That the men should take to tilling the ground is an object much to be desired, but I fear it will be a long time before they do so. Belgian, French, and in a lesser degree evangelical missionaries, have all tried to break down the

prejudice of the boys in this matter, but in no case can any considerable success be claimed—in some instances distinct failure has followed. It is needless to point out how disastrous it is for a country that its menfolk should taboo agriculture, or how important it is for those who are seeking the development of the country to foster every effort to produce a change in this respect.

2.—Those who have acquired handicrafts have become accustomed to drawing comparatively good wages for their services, and to the spending of the same upon what were, awhile ago, luxuries and non-essentials. There “luxuries,” however, are in many cases becoming, as they are to all civilised people already, the necessaries of life, and this to the advantage of commerce. The industrious members of the community are most decidedly its best characters. Health and physique are certainly improved in a great number of cases by the provision of clothes and better houses, enabling those thus protected to pass through times of bad weather without incurring the stress involved by the old conditions of life.

3.—Under present conditions I consider it wise that all scholars should be “half-timers,” going to school one-half the day and working the other, till they can read and write, and perhaps do the first four rules in arithmetic. When this standard has been reached, excepting in the case of those who give distinct evidences of ability to qualify for teachers, I do my best to get our young people drafted off into one or other of our workshops—habits of industry are of more importance for the great majority than “higher education,” and the dignity of labour is a lesson they all need to be taught. Most of our more or less skilled native work-people commenced to learn to read and to work at the same time. Few Congo scholars go to school twice a day, and all our boarders, except mere children, work during half of each day, and go to school the other half. Day scholars we cannot control out of school; the boys loaf about for the great part, but girls go to help their mothers in the farms—in fact, this working in the fields makes the attendance of the girls much more irregular than that of the boys. Below the age of sixteen our system of “half-timers” works well, but whether or not it would be advantageous for young men proceeding beyond ordinary school classes I cannot say from experience, but I should try the experiment, if the occasion offered, with every confidence. We have generally a few specially-talented pupils round us, but not enough to constitute a separate department; they are individually dealt with by these specially interested in them.

4.—Technical education, as understood in Europe, does not exist on the Congo, but all our boarders, as previously indicated, work for a portion of each day in one or other of our industrial departments, that is to say, all but the very young, *i.e.*, those under ten or eleven.

The ordinary school curriculum covers reading, writing, and arithmetic in the vernacular, and a very little French. Even in the schools conducted by French-speaking teachers the

progress made in that language has hitherto been but slight. Just now I learn that extra stress is being laid on this subject, the Government being in need of French-speaking storekeepers and clerks.

5.—The special difficulty is economic. Mission societies cannot be expected to devote their funds to technical or industrial work, except so far as it may promise to be advantageous in furnishing a supply of home-trained instead of imported and expensive labour. In this matter our society has been in a measure successful. The Government is not in a position to vote the funds required for dealing with this subject in anything like a comprehensive manner. (*See also 1 (a.) above.*)

GEORGE GRENFELL.

Yalembo, Upper Congo, 1902.

APPENDIX B 2.

EDUCATIONAL WORK IN LIVINGSTONIA.

WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE EFFECTS OF MANUAL, INDUSTRIAL,
AND AGRICULTURAL INSTRUCTION.

It should be mentioned at the outset that none of our Livingstonia missionaries being at home at present, and there not being sufficient time to write out and get back an answer, the following statement has been written without that full and detailed information desirable to answer satisfactorily the questions put by the Board of Education.

ORIGIN AND HISTORY OF THE MISSION.

It may help to a clearer understanding of the Educational work in Livingstonia if a short account be first given of the origin and history of the mission. It was David Livingstone who first proposed to the Scottish Churches the starting of a mission on the uplands of Lake Nyasa, in Central Africa. At the time it was found impossible to carry this through, but the suggestion was never lost sight of. On his death, twelve years later, Dr. James Stewart, of Lovedale, coming straight from the funeral of the great African traveller in Westminster Abbey, proposed to the General Assembly of the Free Church of Scotland (1874) the carrying out of Livingstone's idea, as the best tribute to his memory. His words were:— "What I would now humbly suggest as the truest memorial of Livingstone is, the establishment by this Church, or several churches together, of an institution, at once industrial and educational, to teach the truths of the Gospel, and the arts of civilised life, to the natives of the country." The proposal met with warm support, and was heartily adopted. An influential committee was appointed, of which Mr. James White, of Overtoun, father of Lord Overtoun, was made the first convener.

It will thus appear that, from its first conception, the Livingstonia Mission was designed to be an industrial mission. While everything was to be subordinate to the one grand purpose of preaching and teaching the Gospel of Jesus Christ, education, industry, medicine, and literature were all to have a place. Experience in Lovedale had shown that this mode of missionary work was best suited to the wants and conditions of the African people. It was, therefore, agreed that the work in Livingstonia should be conducted along four lines, viz., Evangelistic, Educational, Industrial, and Medical. Hence a carpenter, a blacksmith, an agriculturist, and an engineer accompanied the two pioneer clerical missionaries, one of whom was a medical man, an M.B., C.M. of Aberdeen.

The first seven years of the mission (1875–1882) were largely years of inquiry, exploration and surveying—a civil engineer

being of the company. They were years of severe hardships and sore trials. Difficulties were overcome, prejudices removed, and suspicion changed into confidence. But even during these early years, industrial work played a prominent part in improving the habits of the workers, and securing the goodwill of the people.

The next twelve years (1883-1895) saw the mission greatly consolidated and widely extended. Rarely, in the mission history of the church, has a new land of darkness been so rapidly and effectively mapped out. A vast stretch of unbroken heathenism was practically taken possession of for Christianity and civilisation. This period saw six central stations, to the west of Lake Nyasa, settled, with nearly one hundred out-stations, schools multiplied to 120, with about 30,000 children in attendance, eight languages reduced to writing by the staff, with the whole of the New Testament and part of the Old Testament translated into one, school books prepared, teachers trained, the sick healed, and to all classes the Gospel preached. Again the industrial work played an important part. Brick-making, house building, garden cultivation, printing, and bookbinding, &c., quite changed the habits of the people, and turned fierce raiders into peaceful carriers and tillers of the soil.

The third period (1895-1900), which marks the close of last century, saw the starting of the long-looked-for training institution. It was begun at a new station, called Livingstonia, near Florence Bay, on the N.W. shore of Lake Nyasa, which is now the central station of the mission. What Lovedale and Blythswood are among the Kafirs in the South, centres of education, industry, and civilisation, it is hoped soon to make Livingstonia, in Central Africa. The institution can hardly yet be said to be in working order, as it is little more than five years since the site was chosen. It is on a plateau about 4,000 feet above sea level, with hills to the west of it, rising 2,000 feet higher. The district was practically uninhabited, the people having been driven out by the fierce 'Ngoni.

For a time, work was carried on tentatively and slowly, as an experiment to test the suitability and healthiness of the situation. Experience having confirmed the wisdom of the choice, rough temporary houses were erected for the staff, and dormitories for the pupils. Schools were put up, and a workshop with wooden framework reed walls and a saw-pit. All who attended school gave part of their time to manual labour, and native lads were apprenticed to the various trades.

The four lines of work originally contemplated—Evangelistic, Educational, Industrial, and Medical, are all now in working order, though not fully developed. On the educational side, the institution has four divisions—(i.) Preparatory; (ii.) Lower Course; (iii.) Upper and Normal Course; (iv.) Theological Course. The Lower Course teaches Standards II.-IV.; the Upper Course Standards V.-ex. VI., with special subjects. At present there are 223 resident and about 1,000 out-scholars.

[See Notes I., III. and IV. for the codes and regulations for the training of teachers.]

INDUSTRIAL WORK.

On the industrial side there are two distinct divisions—(a) a school of manual training for the pupils to train their hands as well as their heads. (b) Apprenticeship to the different trades of the industrial department.

I. *Manual Training.*

For all the pupils (boys and girls), part of every day is devoted to industrial work. Companies are engaged in mason work, building and plastering, rough carpentry, road-making, gardening, tailoring, and mat weaving, besides the duties arising out of the Boarding Department. A tentative code has been formulated, and followed out as far as the conveniences of the station permit, with courses of work arranged for systematic instruction.

All the classes of the institution are free in the afternoon for systematic training in industrial work.

In the Lower School, the boys are arranged in companies, not so much according to age as according to physical ability. The little ones get light work, such as weeding or attending to the paths on the station, which gives them exercise in the open air, and develops their physique. Others are in the printing office; while the more robust get work in the carpentry and building departments, and in the making and repairing of roads. It is proposed, for the future, to give each boy in turn a regular course of manual instruction in carpentry, wood-turning, and building, to which is to be added a course of forging. All these industrial courses are intended to be the complement of the literary side of the Institution to train the hands as well as the minds of the pupils.

In the Upper School the boys receive technical instruction only by turns of a month at a time during the school session, seeing that the majority of them are at present acting as teachers. But they may remain at the Institution during the October and November vacation, and get instruction in industrial work, such as is going on. For this extra work they are paid, and so can help to defray part of the expense of their education.

With the amount of extra work going on just now at the Institution there are endless opportunities and splendid advantages for manual training. But, in addition, all through this Upper School course the spheres of pastors, teachers, tradesmen, etc., are set before the pupils, and their training directed according to their choice. A beginning has been made with the purely technical classes, and they have been well spoken of by the masters. Last year twenty-one of the pupils in these classes were found occupying honourable places in the prize list.

II. *Apprenticeship to Trades.*

The various trades or industrial departments have now taken shape, and are as follows:—(1) Printing and book-binding.

(2) Carpentry and saw-milling. (3) Building, including brick-making, brick-laying, stone-quarrying, hewing and building. (4) Agriculture. In addition work in the stores gives a preparation for a commercial life, while the advent of the telegraph has given another department for training. Already in this department (the telegraph service), quite a number of mission boys are to be found as operators. In 1901 no fewer than 210 natives were under industrial training on engagements of one to five years, and 200 labourers were employed. Machinery, driven by water-power, has been introduced into the workshops, and a turbine, a circular saw, a band-saw, planing, grooving, and other machines are in use. The water for this purpose, and for the supply of the community, since an abundant supply of good pure water is essential for health, has been brought from the mountains over a distance of five miles in steel pipes at a cost of £4,000, the generous gift of the Convener, Lord Overtoun. Water power from the Manchewi river, adjoining, provides a means of generating electricity, and an electric installation for the supply of light and power is now being fitted up. A turbine and dynamo for generating the electricity at the waterfall, and a motor for the threshing and flour mills have been sent out, while it is hoped to add motors for the machinery in the printing, carpentry, and blacksmith departments. The installation will provide power and carrying cables for 600 sixteen-candle-power lamps, and light up the whole Institution and grounds at less cost than the present outlay on kerosene oil. All the work connected with these large undertakings has been done, and is being done, by the natives under the superintendence of Europeans, viz. — One electrical engineer, one surveyor, one agriculturist, two printers, three carpenters. and three masons.

The industrial or technical teachers are all European. There are twelve such in the Institution at present. Some of these are sent away with their apprentices to do work as required at other stations. These industrial masters have not been specially trained in the art of teaching. The mission has had difficulty enough to get good tradesmen with good characters willing to go. Native industrial teachers have not been tried, simply because the Institution has not had time yet to train them.

As to the age at which manual training ends and technical education begins it is impossible to say, as sometimes two and even three generations may be seen sitting in the same class. Happily this is every year becoming rarer. There are still, however, apprentices and other workers who had not the opportunity of education in earlier years. For these an evening school is held. The enthusiasm on the part of many of the pupils is very marked, and every year good work is done. Last year 134 attended, and ninety-seven pupils went in for the examinations. But, however earnest the pupils may be, the energies of both pupils and teachers are fairly well used up after a full day's work.

The effects of industrial training on those receiving it are,

according to the testimony of the missionaries, undoubtedly good. This is specially noticeable in the case of the older lads, and their example and influence are telling increasingly on the younger. Further, this kind of training is adding to the economic value of the lads. So much is this the case that it is becoming increasingly difficult to retain the services of not only lads who have finished their apprenticeship, but also those who have just begun. They receive offers of service from traders and others at wages with which the Mission cannot compete. Steps are being taken, with the co-operation of the Administration, to make binding indentures of apprenticeship.

The experience of Livingstonia Institution is too limited to give an opinion as to how far industrial education can be successfully combined with instruction of a more literary and general character. So far as their short experience goes the testimony of the missionaries is favourable to such combination. That it is desirable seems evident. The African needs to have his hands trained as well as his head, otherwise he is very helpless. The most useful and successful men among them are almost invariably those who have received some industrial training. The missionaries all ask for it, and desire to see it extended and developed.

In British Central Africa the white population, so far from objecting to the education of natives, seem to desire it, as the trained pupils of the Institution are in great demand and eagerly sought after. This is partly to be accounted for by the fact that the supply of native labour is far short of the demand. But the fact remains that the trained native commands a higher wage and is preferred to the untrained. In British Central Africa there is as yet no competition between white and native labour.

In closing it may be useful to quote the testimony of Mr. Fred L. M. Moir, Secretary of the African Lakes Corporation, and for years the manager in Central Africa:—"On inquiring at the officials in Glasgow, great appreciation is recorded of the lads educated at the Livingstonia Mission. Large numbers of old Mission boys are employed as overseers of carriers, as engineers in steamers, as carpenters and bricklayers, as interpreters, as keepers of small stores who have to keep accounts of their transactions, and in other capacities. A boy recommended by the Livingstonia Mission as having creditably passed through its classes is almost sure of immediate employment. There seems no near prospect of too many such educated lads being put on the labour market."

J. FAIRLEY DALY.

February, 1903.

NOTE I.

REGULATIONS FOR THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

There are two courses of training which qualify teachers for the charge of schools under the Mission, viz. :—

1. THE NORMAL COURSE AT THE INSTITUTION.

2. THE ACTING-TEACHERS' COURSE PROVIDED AT THE SEVERAL STATIONS.

1. *Normal Course.*

(a) Pupils may be admitted to the Normal Department of the Institution upon passing an examination in the subjects prescribed for Standard IV.

(b) Attendance for five sessions is required in this Department, during four of which the pupils must be daily engaged, for at least one hour, in the work of teaching, under supervision.

(c) At the end of the course the pupils are examined in the following subjects :—

1. Scripture Knowledge.
2. English Language.
3. A Vernacular Language.
4. Writing.
5. Arithmetic.
6. School Management.
7. Practice of Teaching.
8. Geography.
9. History.
10. Practice of Singing.
11. Drill.
12. Freehand Drawing.
13. Theory of Music.

Nos. 12 and 13 are optional.

(d) A pass in six of the first eight subjects entitles a Teacher-Probationer's Certificate; but any subjects in which the candidate has failed, and examining subjects omitted in this examination, must be taken at subsequent examinations during probation.

(e) The period of probation is for three years, including three examinations of the school period in which the probationer is engaged.

(f) The probationer, besides taking up any subject required by rule (d), may offer for a higher examination in any subject in which a pass has previously been secured.

(g) At the end of the probation a Schoolmaster's (or Schoolmistress's) Certificate is given, graded, according to the results of these examinations, and the Reports upon the School or Classes conducted during the period.

2. *Acting-Teachers' Course.*

(a) Pupils who have passed the examination in Standard IV., and who are employed as teachers, may proceed with this course under supervision at any Station of the Mission, as a free.

Just

(b) They may attend such special classes as are provided at their Station, and the Continuation School at the Institution, or study privately when no classes are available.

(c) On passing examinations in Standards V. and VI., the pupil will receive an Acting-Teacher's Probationary Certificate; and the period of probation will begin.

(d) The period of probation is for three years, including three examinations of the school in which the probationer is engaged.

(e) During probation examinations will be set in the undernoted subjects :

1. School Management.
2. Practice of Teaching.
3. Geography.
4. History.
5. Music.
6. Freehand Drawing.
7. Drill.

Nos. 5 and 6 are optional.

(f) Any compulsory subjects in which a probationer fails must be taken at subsequent examinations; and a probationer may offer for a higher examination in any subject in which a pass has already been secured.

(g) At the end of the probation a Schoolmaster's (or Schoolmistress's) Certificate (A.-T. Course) is given, graded, according to the results of these examinations, and the Reports upon the School or Classes conducted during the period.

Livingstonia Mission, October, 1897.

NOTE II.

EXTRACT FROM THE REPORT OF THE LIVINGSTONIA MISSION FOR 1901.

LIVINGSTONIA.

INDUSTRIAL.

Mr. Hardie, since his arrival, has been chiefly engaged in preparing for the work of the next dry season, when native labourers become available. A road suitable for vehicular traffic is needed between the lake and the top of the cliff, from which a road is already made to the Institution. As the difference of height from the lake to the top of this cliff is 2,300 feet, and the distance in a straight line is only about three miles, a great deal of search and careful surveying were required ere a line with a suitable gradient was found. This could only be satisfactorily accomplished after the bush fires had cleared the face of the hills and gorges, thus showing the exact contour of the ridges. Now the line of road has all been marked out, and, with the few men available, part of it near the lake end has been cleared. The making of the road will be a heavy piece of work; but it will relieve natives of the carriage of many and heavy loads, which is apt to frighten them from coming here at all.

Similar preparations are being made for the laying of the water pipes.

Mr. Chalmers arrived on 23rd November, and at once set to work on needed repairs on the wood-working machinery, and setting up other machines that had but recently arrived.

1. *Printing.*—Mr. R. D. M'Minn reports :

Staff—Compositors, six apprentices ; bookbinders, one journeyman and seven apprentices.

Work done.—In Namwanga—a small Catechism (500 copies). In 'Ngoni—Parables, &c. (500 copies). In Mambwe, for the London Missionary Society—School Primer (500 copies), Parables (250 copies). In Konde, for the Berlin Mission—School Primer (1000 copies). School roll-books for Dutch Mission and London Missionary Society ; cargo receipts and manifests, passage tickets, log-sheets, &c., for African Lakes Co., Ltd., Tanganyika Concessions, Ltd., &c. ; also the usual variety of work for our own stations—memos., account headings, school registers, certificates, schedules, syllable sheets, &c.

There has been a considerable increase in the amount of binding done for members of the staff and others.

Work on hand.—Seven books in as many different languages, including a Nyanja Hymn Book for the Dutch Mission ; Acts and Gospel of John, for the London Missionary Society ; and a School Primer, for the Berlin Mission.

Value of work	£377	14	4
Books sold in book store	268	16	10
					<hr/>		
					£846	11	2

2. *Carpentry.*—Mr. Meldrum reports :

During the end of 1900 and the beginning of 1901 the Carpentry Department suffered very much owing to the lack of European supervision, Mr. John M'Gregor being the only carpenter engaged at that time in the work ; and when we remember that he had to look after the workshop, the erection of the turbine house and machinery, keep all the sawpits going, and about 800 outside workers in addition, we can imagine his position. Matters have been righted to a large extent during the year, Mr. Murray being relieved from the charge of the Agricultural Department, owing to the return of Mr. and Mrs. Moffat from furlough, and the appointment of Messrs. Meldrum and Adamson. At the present time each one has charge of a certain branch of work—two at Livingstonia, and two for the other stations—so that now the wants of these are being attended to by two European carpenters with native helpers, and also as much material supplied from Livingstonia as it is possible to prepare. The present staff of native workers consists of 3 journeymen carpenters, 16 sawyers, and 37 apprentices, of whom 19 have been engaged during the year ; while 3 have left owing to sickness, 2 have been dismissed as unsuitable, and 2 have left without giving any reason. During the year 2 apprentices finished their course of five years, and are now engaged as journeymen.

We are employed at the present time with the woodwork of a house for Dr. Elmslie at Ekwendeni, which will soon be ready for occupation ; a cottage at Livingstonia, which will soon be ready for the roof ; and a landing-stage for goods at the lake shore. The house presently occupied by Mr. Moffat has been finished ; alterations were made on the house at Hora ; and the Educational Department had several reed houses erected for schoolboys, also a reed school at Livingstonia, and help given to the natives in erecting similar schools at Mlowe and at Hora. A shed had to be erected at Manchewe as a wood store. Little could be done for outside customers owing to the need for work at the Institution and other stations.

The following is a summary of the work done :—22 panelled doors, 5 glass doors, 33 windows, 9 school desks, 8 school forms, table for saw sharpener, 6 tables, 1 wardrobe, 1 sideboard, 3 small chests of drawers, 1 wash-stand, 3 sets of tressles for book-stands, 2 picture frames, 29 small blackboards for village schools, 3 blackboards for Institution, 3 ox carts, 2 yankers,

9 wheel-barrow, 2 hand-carts, 6 ladders, 24 rakes, 3 masons' bunkers, 18 straight edges, 2 grain sieves, several yokes and 90 skeys for oxen, and several smaller articles, in addition to repairs needed during the year.

Trees to be cut up into planks and boards are chiefly brought from the top of Mount Nyamkowa. Owing to cold and mist on the mountain top the natives cannot begin this work till July or August, and they leave off in November to go home to cultivate their own gardens. From Nyamkowa and other places several hundred logs have been brought to the sawmill to be ready for cutting up during the time that native labour is scarce.

3. *Agriculture.*—Mr. M. Moffat reports :

There is not much of importance to chronicle in connection with the work in this department for the past year. Since the closing of the school last March, on account of the shortness of food, the department has managed to keep up the food supply without any assistance from our friends at Bandawe.

Our crop of maize was particularly good. Nearly 90,000 lbs. were harvested. Of beans we did not gather in such a plentiful supply—only about 8,000 lbs. The wheat crop was fairly good ; about 6,000 lbs. were threshed out. The return from our small coffee plantation was very meagre, amounting in all to some 600 lbs. Very little tree planting has been done.

The cattle have thriven fairly well. We have reared forty calves, and a good supply of milk has been sustained, whilst the trek oxen have been invaluable in the carting of brick and stone and the ploughing of the fields.

4. *Building.*—Mr. Gauld and Mr. Sutherland report :

On Mr. Sutherland's arrival from Bandawe in February, 1901, nothing gave him more surprise than the work in hewn stone done by the boys at the Institution. He was soon at work repairing the brickwork of the turbine flume, which had been destroyed by heavy floods, and building a pillar of stone to support the wooden part of the flume. For this work 287 feet of ashlar and 2½ tons of lime were used.

In March the building of a stone house was begun, and the apprentices showed considerable interest in the work, and some became fairly good builders. In May this work was postponed for a time to help at a brick cottage, with back wing for kitchen, at which Mr. W. I. Henderson with a company of school boys had been at work. Lack of bricks necessitated the building of this cottage being stopped for a time, and allowed of a return to the stone building. The dilapidated condition of the carpenters' present reed shop made it necessary to begin the permanent workshop, and the foundations were excavated for walls 200 feet long and gables 30 feet wide, with stone foundation for brick walls above. This work went on till most of the labourers left in December, at which time the stonework of two gables and 40 feet of each side wall had been brought up to the ground level.

A number of orders for monumental stonework have been received. Several tombstones, with inscriptions, have been sent to different places. A cross for Tanganyika, a baptismal font for the new church at Bandawe, and a memorial stone with inscription for the pavilion at Zomba in memory of our late Queen, have been partly made or completed, and there are nine orders still to be overtaken. One native especially shows a deep interest in and liking for this work.

Mr. Gauld arrived from Bandawe at the close of March. The crane for the quarry, sent out by kind friends in Glasgow, was at once set up with Mr. W. I. Henderson's help. It has been most useful, and when at work saves us about five shillings per day as compared with native labour required to accomplish the same work. Other one or two derrick cranes to lift 30 or 40 cwts. would be an immense help and saving in house-building operations.

A verandah was added to Rev. Mr. Henderson's house, and another to the new cottage the late Mr. W. D. Macgregor had occupied. The brickwork

for boilers in the kitchen at the dining-hall was rebuilt. The foundation of another brick cottage was laid in stone, and the brickwork carried up to the level of the joists.

In June, Mr. W. I. Henderson, with native helpers, went to Ekwenden to build the brickwork of a new house there, and after he left for furlough the natives remained to help with the building of the school church, outbuilding and repairs.

A large amount of stone has been quarried, and substantial work done with it, including fire-place and door and window lintels and sills. In the brickfield between 400,000 and 500,000 bricks were moulded, but great losses were sustained owing to untimely showers. Lime was brought by steamer from Young's Bay to Florence Bay, but it takes a long time to get it carried to the buildings by means of loads of from 30 to 50 lbs. on the head of carriers up the steep ascent from the lake.

Some 1,200 labourers have been employed for longer or shorter periods during the year, and there are at present a large number serving a five years' apprenticeship, and others working on engagements for one year.

* Approximate value of industrial work done :—

	£	s.	d.
Printing Department	377	14	4
Carpentry Department	1,020	0	0
Building Department	1,650	0	0
Agricultural Department	500	0	0
Natives under industrial training on engagements of one to five years, 210			

* From "The Aurora," a Journal of Missionary News and Christian Work, Livingstonia, April 1st, 1902.

APPENDIX B 3.

THE EDUCATIONAL WORK OF THE BLANTYRE MISSION, BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA.

The following information has been furnished by the authorities of the Blantyre Mission in response to an inquiry addressed to them by the Board of Education.

(1) *What has been done to provide manual, industrial, or agricultural education for natives? Of what do such courses consist? Are the teachers Europeans? Have they been specially trained in the work of teaching? Have native teachers been tried? If so, with what success?*

Every native boy at Blantyre and Domasi, Zomba and Mlanjé, is taught a trade, though he may be a teacher, or a catechist looking forward to the ministry. He is trained by the resident qualified European Missionary to be a printer, a joiner, a gardener, a builder, a cobbler, etc. A number are hospital attendants. One or two medical assistants are so advanced that they can do everything, except major operations. Some make excellent teachers.

(2) *At what age does technical education in industry and agriculture begin in the earlier stages of general education? (i.e., before the commencement of specifically technical education?) Is manual training made a feature of the curriculum? If so, with what results?*

The Educational Regulations (see Note II.) will give the ages. Manual training is an essential feature.

(3) *Does it appear that industrial and agricultural education is having good effects (a) on the character of the natives receiving it; (b) on their economic efficiency.*

The effects are good, both on character and economic efficiency.

(4) *Can such industrial and agricultural education be successfully combined with instruction of a more literary and general character? If so, to what degree has such a combination proved desirable?*

Yes, certainly. The aim is to maintain the missionary character. The trained young men do evangelistic work.

(5) *Has there been any opposition on the part of any section of the white population to the provision for natives of a kind of education which might enable the latter to compete effectively with skilled white labour in various industrial occupations?*

There is little or no skilled white labour, except that the trading

and transport companies have European employees who have natives under them. The planters and traders compete for the services of the educated mission-boys, and, as they offer higher wages than the Mission can give, it is difficult for the Mission to retain its workers. In fact, this sifts the workers, only earning boys who like Christian work remaining in the Mission.

January, 1903.

NOTE I.

BLANTYRE MISSION EDUCATIONAL CODE.

MARCH 1900.

VERNACULAR SCHOOL.

Also Village Schools and Out-Station Schools.

CLASS I.

Reading.—Alphabet.

Writing.—Holding Slate and Pencil ; Strokes.

Arithmetic.—Figures 1-9, 0 ; English and Vernacular numerals 1-10.

Catechism.—Questions 1-3.

Religious Knowledge.—Life of Christ and Old Testament History taught orally in alternate Sessions.

CLASS II.

Reading.—Syllabus.

Writing.—Strokes, Hooks, *m, n, l, u, w, o, a, s, r, d, g.*

Arithmetic.—Vernacular and English numerals 1-50. Addition Tables of two units.

Catechism.—Questions 4-7.

Religious Knowledge.—As above.

CLASS III.

Reading.—1st Mang'anja or Yao Reading Book ; Spelling.

Writing.—All letters ; short words without capitals (on slate).

Arithmetic.—English and Vernacular numerals 1-100 ; Sums of three lines of units.

Catechism.—Questions 8-19.

Religious Knowledge.—As above.

CLASS IV.

Reading.—2nd Mang'anja or Yao Reading Book.

Writing.—Capital Letters ; sentences copied from blackboard.

Arithmetic.—Addition of 4 lines of figures and numeration up to 10,000 ; Subtraction tables.

Catechism.—Questions 20-36.

Religious Knowledge.—As above.

CLASS V.

Reading.—3rd Mang'anja or Yao Reader.

Writing.—Dictation of a paragraph from Lesson, with punctuation and capitals, etc.

Arithmetic.—Addition and Subtraction ; Numeration up to 1,000,000.

Catechism.—Questions 37-51.

Religious Knowledge.—As above.

Special Subject.—For those proceeding to Anglo-Vernacular School—English ; Queen's Primer, Parts I. and II. ; Spelling ; Translation and Re-Translation.

ANGLO-VERNACULAR SCHOOL.

(AT BLANTYRE STATION ONLY.)

JUNIOR DEPARTMENT.

STANDARD I.

Reading (English).—Infant Reader and Book I. ; Spelling ; Translation and Re-Translation.

Reading (Vernacular).—A Gospel.

Writing.—Dictation on Slates ; Copy.

Arithmetic.—Addition ; Subtraction ; Multiplication 1-6.

Catechism.—Questions 52-60.

Religious Knowledge.—As above, with special knowledge of Gospel re

STANDARD II.

Reading (English).—Book II. ; Spelling ; Translation and Re-Translation

Reading (Vernacular).—A Gospel.

Writing.—Dictation with Pencil in Book ; Copy.

Arithmetic.—All Simple Rules.

Composition.—Writing a story in Vernacular ; proper use of capitals full stops.

Catechism.—Questions 61-78.

Religious Knowledge.—As above.

STANDARD III.

Reading (English).—Book III. ; Spelling ; Translation and Re-Translation

Reading (Vernacular).—A Gospel.

Writing.—Dictation in Book with Pencil ; Copy.

Arithmetic.—Compound Rules—Money ; Reduction of Money.

Composition.—Letter in Vernacular with Punctuation.

Grammar.—Parts of Speech in English and Vernacular.

Catechism.—Questions 79-100.

Religious Knowledge.—As above.

ANGLO-VERNACULAR SCHOOL.

SENIOR DEPARTMENT.

(FOR PUPIL TEACHERS AND APPRENTICES IN THE VARIOUS MISSION INDUSTRIES.)

STANDARD IV.

1st Year.

Reading.—Book IV. ; Spelling ; Translation and Re-Translation.

Writing.—Dictation with pen on paper ; Copy.

Arithmetic.—Compound Rules (Weights and Measures) ; Reduction of Elementary Fractions.

Grammar.—Knowledge of Article, Noun and Adjective.

Composition.—Vernacular Essay and Short English Sentences.

Geography.—Points of Compass ; Globe ; Maps ; Local Geography maps.

Religious Knowledge.—Our Lord's Miracles and a Period of Old Testament

STANDARD V.

2nd Year.

- Reading.*—Book V. ; Spelling ; Translation and Re-Translation.
Writing.—Dictation on Paper ; Copy.
Arithmetic.—Simple Proportion ; Fractions ; Bills of Parcels.
Composition.—Vernacular Essay ; English Sentences.
Grammar.—Knowledge of all Parts of Speech.
Geography.—General Outlines of Geography of the World ; Continents ; Oceans, etc. ; Geography of Africa.
History.—General Outlines of History.
Religious Knowledge.—Our Lord's Parables and a Period of Old Testament.

STANDARD VI.

3rd Year.

- Reading.*—Book VI. ; Spelling ; Translation and Re-Translation.
Writing.—Dictation on Paper.
Arithmetic.—Compound Proportion ; Decimals ; Interest ; Mensuration of Simple Areas.
Composition.—Vernacular Essay and English Sentences.
Grammar.—Analysis of Sentences.
Geography.—Europe generally and British Isles.
History.—Outlines of Church History.
Religious Knowledge.—Book of Acts and Period of Old Testament History.
Special Class for Teachers.—School Management and Method.

ADVANCE CLASSES.

FOR DEACONS, EVANGELISTS, OR READERS.

FIRST YEAR.

- English Reading.*—Translation and Re-Translation ; with Elementary Knowledge of English Literature.
Advanced Arithmetic.—Involution and Evolution ; Mathematical Properties of Square, Circle, Triangle, Oblong, Parallel Lines.
Science.—General Physiology and Physical Geography.
Composition.—English and Vernacular Essays.
History.—General History of British Isles, with its relation to their Geography.

SECOND YEAR.

- English Reading.*—Translation and Re-Translation, with Elementary Knowledge of English Literature.
Science.—Some other scientific subject.
Old Testament.—The Pentateuch.
New Testament.—The Synoptic Gospels.
History.—General History and Expansion of Civilization with its relation to the Geography of the World.

THIRD YEAR.

- Old Testament.*—Joshua to 2nd Kings.
New Testament.—Gospel of St. John, Acts of the Apostles with reference to the various Epistles and other writers.
Theology.—The Creed.
History.—General outlines of Church History with special knowledge of First Four Centuries.

**COURSE OF INSTRUCTION
FOR APPRENTICES TO THE TRADE OF PRINTING.**

FIRST YEAR.

1. Learning cases, type, and method of distributing.
2. Composing plain work, with instruction in spacing, justifying, moving of type, and preparing for distribution.
3. Learning manuscript signs, punctuation, capitalization and indentation.
4. Learning proof-correcting signs.
5. Taking copy and correcting proof.

SECOND YEAR.

1. Composing—more advanced ; tabular work.
2. Making up, imposing and locking up for small press—hand and treadle.
3. Inking ; making and care of rollers.

THIRD YEAR.

1. Advanced composing—displaying.
2. Making up, imposing, and locking up for large press—hand or cylinder.
3. Use of large press.

Apprentices will be examined at the end of each year, and will show specimens of their work. The result of the examination will be entered in their certificate.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION FOR APPRENTICE CLERKS.

FIRST YEAR.

Copying letters ; indexing letter books ; addressing letters ; folding and arranging letters, receipts, etc.
Arithmetic.—Weights and Measures.

SECOND YEAR.

Invoices :—giving receipts ; despatching and receiving orders.
Petty Cash :—Elementary exercises in book keeping.
Arithmetic.—Averages and percentages.

THIRD YEAR.

Rendering accounts :—Freight calculation ; commercial abbreviations stores, letter writing and typewriting.
Arithmetic.—Interest ; ratio and proportion, etc.

Apprentices will be examined at the close of the year, and will produce specimens of their work. The result of the examination will be entered in their certificates.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION FOR CARPENTRY APPRENTICES.

FIRST YEAR.

Marker.—Rough planing and use of jack plane ; use of square and right-edge ; reading, and use of foot rule.

2nd Quarter.—Smooth planing ; use of smoothing plane and hand plane ; training the eye in planing straight edges ; sawing and use of different saws ; names and uses of various tools.

3rd Quarter.—Use of auger and boring brace and bits ; dressing wood for door and window frames ; grinding tools on grindstone ; sharpening plane irons, chisels, etc., on oilstone.

4th Quarter.—Making door and window frames. Making a plain door and brick mould.

SECOND YEAR.

1st Quarter.—Making roofing for houses and putting on iron.

2nd Quarter.—Putting in and fastening door and window frames ; hinging the same ; mortising ; marking off wood ; making a screen.

3rd Quarter.—Making book-shelves, school forms, black-boards and stands ; use of bow saw.

4th Quarter.—Making common tables, wash-stands, towel rails, chairs (camp and folding).

THIRD YEAR.

1st Quarter.—Making a window and glazing it ; a panelled door.

2nd, 3rd and 4th Quarter.—Dining-room table ; chair ; sofa ; picture frames ; French polishing.

Special.—Wood Turning and Wood Carving.—For those desiring it special instruction will be provided.

Apprentices will be examined at the close of each year, and will produce specimens of their work. The result of examination will be entered in their certificates.

OUTLINES OF SUBJECTS TO BE TAUGHT

DURING THREE YEARS' APPRENTICESHIP IN HOSPITAL.

QUALIFICATION AT END OF APPRENTICESHIP—¹²HOSPITAL ATTENDANT.¹³

FIRST YEAR.

The general structure of the body and the elements of physiology.

The treatment of wounds, ulcers, and burns.

Bandaging.

SECOND YEAR.

Temperature taking. The elements of dispensing. Weights and Measures.

The different syringes and their uses. Baths and the packs, cupping, poultices, fomentations. The care of patients, bedsores, etc. Sick-room cookery. Disinfecting.

THIRD YEAR.

How to observe patients, the pulse, etc. ; states of collapse, concussion, delirium, etc. What to do in emergencies, drowning, poisoning, snakebite, loss of blood. Contagion and infection. Ventilation.

Apprentices will be examined at the end of each year. The result of each examination will be entered in their certificates.

NOTE II.

REGULATIONS

FOR THE EDUCATIONAL AND INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENTS OF THE
BLANTYRE MISSION, 1900.

I.—GENERAL.

1. In the admission of pupils, preference will be given to those who bring certificates of character or letters of recommendation from other stations of the Mission, or who have passed through the Vernacular course in any of the out-stations or village schools, or who are recommended by European employers and who are over fourteen years of age and under twenty. Admission of young boys or of very young girls is not advisable except in special circumstances and then only when recommended by parent or guardian.

2. All Christian parents sending children to school are expected to pay the usual fees for board and education.

3. All boarders and others resident on the Mission are expected to attend morning and evening prayers at the stated time of worship.

II.—BOARDERS.

4. All boarders are expected to be within Mission bounds after sunset except by special leave of the Head of the Mission. Any boarder found absent from the station, visiting any of the villages after that hour, or absent during the night without such leave, or any boarder bringing in beer into the station, or frequenting beer-drinkings in the villages is liable to dismissal.

5. All boarders must be in their dormitories after night bell has rung, and must answer their names at roll call.

6. All boarders must rise at bugle call, sweep and clean out their dormitories, and fold their blankets and mats before first bell. On Saturdays they must wash and clean out their dormitories and have them ready for inspection at eight o'clock.

7. All boarders must take their turn in washing the plates and sweeping the dining hall after each meal.

III.—JUNIOR SCHOOL.

8. All pupils in the Junior School must work in the afternoon and on Saturday forenoon at such useful occupation as is appointed them in part payment for their board and education.

9. All pupils in the Junior School must take their turn in sweeping out the school daily, and on Friday afternoon and Saturday morning must wash out and clean the school under the direction of the teachers and pupil teachers.

10. No pupil will be retained in school, or continue to receive education in the Mission after he has passed through the Junior School (Standard III.), unless he binds himself by agreement or indenture as apprentice for three years to any of the industrial departments of the Mission to work in accordance with the regulations appointed for the same as per Section VI. of these regulations.

11. Certificates of character and education will be given to all who pass through the course of the Junior School Code and pass the exit examination.

IV.—SENIOR SCHOOL.

12. The Senior School is open to all apprentices, and is held from 6.30 to 8 in the morning and from 8 to 9 in the evening. The subjects taught are those of the Senior Code—Standards IV. to VI.

13. Certificates of character and education will be given to all who pass through the course of the Senior School Code and pass the exit examination.

V.—GIRLS' INDUSTRIAL WORK.

14. The hours of work are from 6.30 to 8 in the morning, when the girls are engaged in household work in the various mission houses as far as opportunity permits. From 8 to 12 the senior girls who are not in school are trained in laundry work, sewing, cutting out and making garments. From 2 till 5 the girls both junior and senior engage in manual work of various kinds. One afternoon in the week is devoted to washing and ironing their own clothes.

VI.—APPRENTICES.

15. The working hours are from 8 to 12 and from 2 to 5, and on Saturdays from 8 to 12.

For hospital attendants the hours of duty will be arranged by the doctor in charge.

16. Every apprentice must present himself promptly at his work at the ringing of the bell, and must continue steadily at work during the appointed hours.

17. No apprentice may be absent from his work for any purpose whatever without permission of the Head of the Department.

18. No smoking is allowed at any time during work hours.

19. The school hours for apprentices are from 6.30 to 8 in the morning and from 8 to 9 in the evening, and pupils must present themselves promptly on the ringing of the bell.

20. The period of apprenticeship shall be three years. The rate of wages for apprentices shall be as follows :—

1st Year 2s. 6d. per month.

2nd Year 3s. 6d. per month.

3rd Year 5s. per month.

21. A bonus of £2 sterling shall be paid to an apprentice in the event of his completing the full period of his apprenticeship and giving satisfaction as being faithful and competent in his calling and as having conducted himself to the satisfaction of the Head of the Mission and of the Head of the Department in which he has served, who shall be the sole judges as to the above qualities in the apprentice.

22. One month's holiday without pay or one fortnight with pay is given each year at such time during the school vacation as the Head of the Mission may arrange.

23. Leave of absence will be granted at other times only when sufficient cause is shown. For such leave application must be made first to the Head of the Mission and next to the Head of the Department to which the applicant may belong. In cases of sickness a medical certificate is required.

24. At the end of each year the apprentice will be examined in the subjects of the course for that year, and will submit for inspection specimens of his work. The results of such examinations will be entered on his certificate of character and discharge.

25. When an apprentice is found culpably wasting his time by being unpunctual at bell or by loitering when he ought to be at work he shall be subject to a small fine.

26. Work or tools spoiled through carelessness shall be paid for by the culpable party.

VII.—ADVANCED COURSE.

27. An advanced course is provided for those who desire to proceed with their education towards the office of deacon, evangelist, or catechist with a view to the ministry of the native Church. This course will embrace the following subjects :—

First year :—English, Advanced Arithmetic ; a science subject ; Composition, History.

Second year :—English ; a science subject ; Old Testament ; New Testament ; History.

Third year ;—Old Testament ; New Testament ; Church History ; Theology ; Christian Ethics.

During the above course pupils will be able to support themselves by means of their trade or calling.

APPENDIX B 4.

THE EDUCATION OF NATIVES IN SOUTH AFRICA.

This subject, which has long interested English people, has a fresh importance to-day, for the manner in which it is dealt with is calculated to affect, either directly or indirectly, every colony in South Africa, not only through the example offered by the local administrations, but by the influence exercised on the large native population which is being attracted to the mines in the Orange River Colony, Transvaal and Rhodesia from all parts of the Continent.

The steps already taken in regard to education in the new colonies show that there is full recognition of its value so far as children of European origin are concerned. It is quite right that this should receive the first consideration, but we have to bear in mind that where two races on different planes of civilization come into such close contact, as do the whites and blacks in South Africa, they act and re-act on each other, and where the higher race neglects its duty to the lower it will itself suffer

It must be admitted that a wide-spread prejudice exists in South Africa against the school native, based upon a conviction that book learning has lowered his usefulness for work, for which it makes him more disinclined than he naturally is, as well as uppish and conceited.

The opportunities of education within the reach of the average native are generally meagre and imperfect. As the books conveying instruction are not in themselves demoralising, the fault, if fault there is, must be with the instructors or pupils, or both.

The teachers are mostly missionaries who have devoted their lives to Christianize and civilize the natives. In the great majority of cases these worthily carry on the duties of their profession; but many of them with their families have necessarily led isolated lives, with few chances of associating or exchanging ideas with people engaged in other work, and have in consequence been unconsciously influenced by their surroundings, and some amongst them, impressed by the evidence they recognised of a humanity having so much in common, have come to the conclusion that the moral and intellectual difference between white and black is but a question of religion and book-learning. This view would be readily adopted by the native and would foster conceit and discontent with service. But whatever the objection to the school Kaffir may be, or whatever reason may be offered for this objection, the growing desire of the intelligent young natives to be taught cannot be disregarded. The more they come in contact with Europeans the more this is

shown, as is evidenced by the increasing attendance at the Missionary schools for adults, as well as at the night schools in the towns and mining centres where such schools are available.

It appears the province of the Government to afford the natives opportunities of satisfying their legitimate desire for knowledge by providing suitable buildings and teachers under the supervision of qualified inspectors in mission schools, by grants-in-aid, dependent on a proper system of teaching, it being understood that in every school receiving Government aid instruction must be given in English. In the case of wage-earning youths and adults the expenditure need not be large, as in night-schools established in towns and mining centres the scholars' fees should pay the greater part of the current costs, and in mission schools the same thing should be encouraged. With regard to children's education, it is best left in the hands of religious bodies or societies, but as the parents lose the service of their children while being taught, they are, as a rule, unwilling to make further sacrifices. State aid, subject to satisfactory reports from Government inspectors, should be given. This has been recognised by all the colonies in South Africa and its extension would probably meet present requirements as far as primary education is concerned. As regards higher education, the demand for natives who are qualified to act as teachers, interpreters, sub-clerks, shopmen, etc., exceeds the supply, and it would benefit the community for Government to establish institutions to meet this want, and substantially to subsidise those already existing, but here, as in the case of primary schools for wage-earning natives, fees should be expected from those who desire to learn.

But, though natives mostly ask for book-learning, it is yet more desirable to offer them opportunities of industrial training. The few arts and crafts of which we found them possessed resembled those we had over a thousand years ago and cannot survive competition with our present methods. Being thus deprived of all chance of progress in their own industries, it seems fair that some compensation should be provided. In prospect of the coming increase of European settlement in South Africa there will be a large field for artificers at a moderate rate of wages, and this can be partially met by trained natives. The objection of Europeans to teach trades to natives, based on fear of competition, is very shortsighted. The South African natives, as a rule, are wanting in initiative and self-confidence. After proper training they prove useful apprentices and fair journeymen, but it is unlikely for generations to come that they will be found efficient as master-workmen, a position which belongs to the European and which it is his own fault if he loses. Industrial schools are generally conducted by the various Missionary societies and some of them have produced excellent results considering the small means at their disposal. Such institutions well deserve increased aid from the Administrations.

In addition to schools there are other ways of having natives

instructed in trades. For instance, Administrations and Corporations might require their European artificers in permanent employ to have a certain number of selected native apprentices who would thus fall under the supervision of qualified officials.

However this question of education is met, there are difficulties and prejudices to overcome, and this consideration makes it wise not to be too ambitious at first, using when possible existing institutions which so far have weathered the storm. The object in view, affecting as it does the mutual advantage of the divers races who seem destined to share the future of South Africa, is one undoubtedly worthy of our best efforts.

MARSHAL CLARKE,
Resident Commissioner,
Southern Rhodesia.

Leamington,
April, 1902.

UNDER STANDARD.—DIVISION 1.		
Reading.	Alphabet ; figures 1—9, 0	S;
Writing.	Practice in holding slate and pencil : strokes. (B. B.)‡	Si
Arithmetic.	Vernacular and English numerals, 1—10.	V
Religious Knowledge.	Oral teaching on the Saviour's life upon earth ; the Lord's Prayer ; the Commandments.	O
(Music)		
STANDARD 1.		STANDARD
Reading.	1 Chinyanja Reader.†	2 Chinyanja Reader.†
Writing.	Sentences from B. B.‡ ; transcription ; 2 lines of dictation ; letters and short words on paper.	Sentences from B. B. lines of dictation ; sentences
Arithmetic.	Addition (5 lines by 3) ; subtraction of hundreds ; multiplication table—6 ; numeration 1—1000 ; figure circle ; mental.	Rules up to short division table ; numeration circle ; mental.
Religious Knowledge.	One Gospel to be professed annually ; 4 Parables to be committed to memory ; Katekisma la Hare, 1—5.	One Gospel to be professed annually ; miracles ; Katekisma
<i>Special Subjects :</i>		
English.	An English 2 Primer.	English Standard 1 Book.
Grammar.		
Geography.	The cardinal points of compass ; meaning of map ; continents and oceans ; the Lake District and Africa generally.	Do.
History.		
Science.	Object lessons on common things, e.g., domestic animals, plants, fruit, and substances in daily use.	Object lessons on common trees, fruits, fuel, and with rain and agriculture domestic and wild.
Vocal Music.	Sol-fa modulator ; 2 easy pieces.	Do. ; 3 easy pieces.

* Before the year 1897 the word "Livingstonia" applied to the whole Mission, afterwards "The Livingstonia Mission," but it has occasioned some confusion in British Central Africa, I think, the joint production of several Missions working round Lake Nyasa.

SUBJECT.	INTERMEDIATE CLASS.	STANDARD I.
<i>COMPULSORY.</i>		
1. Religious Knowledge.	A Synoptic Gospel: 20 verses of Scripture to be learned (or equivalent from Catechism).	A Harmony of the G 20 verses of Scripture learned (or equivalent Catechism): Names of in New Testament: Numerals.
2. Reading, Vernacular.*	Third Vernacular Primer: Dictation (4 lines).	First Standard Vernacular Reader: Dictation (8 lines).
3. Reading, English.	Infant Reader: Dictation (2 lines).	First Standard Reader: Dictation (3 lines).
4. Arithmetic.	Numeration and notation—1—1,000: Mental addition and subtraction: Addition and subtraction of hundreds on slates.	Complete notation: Multiplication tables: Simple multiplication up to multiplication: A subtraction, and multiplication on slates.
5. Writing.	Sentences on slates copied from Black-board: Short easy words, medium hand, on paper with pens.	Sentences on slates from Black-board: Transcription: Medium-hand copy-book.
6. Grammar and Composition, Vernacular.		
7½ Grammar and Composition, English.		Oral lessons in Translation.
8. Geography.*		Local geography, bring geographical nomenclature.
9. History.	An Epoch of O. T. History.	An Epoch of O. T. History.
<i>OPTIONAL.</i>		
10. Science.		Object I
11. Music.		School Hymns or Songs—Six new pieces Election
12. Drill.		

APPENDIX B 5.

ON NATIVE EDUCATION—SOUTH AFRICA.

Native education in South Africa is almost entirely in the hands of the Missionaries. It is supported partly by Government grants and partly by funds from home. The latter are employed as salaries of Missionaries and teachers and for buildings. It is also now aided in some places by native fees. Where Education Department grants are given there is, of course, inspection. Such inspection at one institution, with over 700 pupils, lasts over two months.

It will be accepted as a sound principle that education in any country should be shaped so far as possible to meet the requirements of the individual, or community, or people to whom such education is given. It cannot be said that native education in South Africa has been so dealt with. The course of education, subjects for examination and certificates are the same for black and white. Formerly, though now less so, Europeans and natives, in Missionary institutions at least, were in the same classes.

This guiding principle helps to determine generally what shape the education of the native races should take in South Africa. It should be practical, industrial, and, for the great majority, largely elementary. Complaint is made by colonists that there is too much mere book work, and too little practical training. One cause of both complaint and result has been mentioned. The Missionary, however, has no choice.

The second cause is the view the native takes of education. He confounds instruction and education, means and end, and has an ambition to learn all that the white man learns. He also makes little or no distinction between intellectual and moral education, and does not understand that the best results are only got when the two are combined, and secured by being made definite objects, continuously aimed at from first to last. But there are others besides the African who do not give sufficient prominence to this combination. In consequence it sometimes, perhaps often, happens that in the long struggle to reach a certain intellectual level, the higher or moral result is missed, with the consequence, to the individual and to the world, of a less useful and less completely educated man.

The mind of the African is empty, and he has a great idea of what he calls "getting knowledge." Hence his anxiety about instruction merely, apart from mental discipline and habit. To this must be added little liking for manual labour, though that dislike is not peculiar to his colour in certain latitudes. He is not, however, so unwilling to work as is generally stated. But there is the erroneous idea that manual work is servile toil, and mental work is supposed to elevate a man to a higher class. This is the old

native idea of social rank. It is common, probably, in the West Indies as well as in South Africa, and may be over a wider area. His desire, therefore, is to learn whatever the white man learns. This aspiration is very strong, no matter how slight may be the knowledge attained of any particular subject. Educational equality is probably looked at as a step to further equality. There is such an idea existing among a small and not very satisfactory class. Hence there is a strong desire, almost amounting to a craze, for Latin and Greek among a few, though the amount of knowledge gained of such subjects is, of course, useless.

But taking the curriculum, as prescribed by the Education Department of Cape Colony, as it stands, another cause which operates against much manual or practical training of the native during his too short course of education is the large number of subjects in the normal classes which are kept running through the entire course. Little time is left for what is certainly a most important part of that training. And it is obviously unfair to the native to put him into competition with the white on the same subjects during a three years' course and in a foreign language, and to add on the weight of a totally different kind of manual training, which the European does not so much require, and does not get, and has therefore more time and energy for purely examination subjects.

In reply to the inquiries sent as to—

1. *Provision made for manual and industrial or agricultural education for natives.*—So far as I know no separate educational institution or organisation strictly belonging to the Education Department of Cape Colony exists for that end. Such agencies in a partial form, however, are found at various Missions. These are at Keiskanna Hoek, Grahamstown, Zonnebloem, and St. Mark's, of the Church of England. There are the Wesleyan Institutions at Healdtown and Lesseyton, Butterworth, and others smaller. At some only one trade, or, for girls, domestic economy is taught. Lovedale, of the Scottish Presbyterian Mission, is the largest and oldest. It has had for over forty years the following trades:—Carpentering, waggon-making, blacksmithing, printing, book-binding, and, later, post office and telegraph work; and for girls, laundry work, sewing, and dressmaking. The average number in these is about 100 in both departments. The number might be much larger, but the grants allowed by the Education Department are not sufficient to allow of large numbers being taken. The grant for some of the instructors is about £96 a year, which is, in reality, half the sum that is necessary. We require to pay £150 a year, and give a free house. All apprentices in this section are indentured for three and some for four years. The course consists of regular training in each of these departments, so that at the end of apprenticeship the lads may be able to take the position of journeymen.

2. *Special training of Instructors.*—Generally, the older men have not been specially trained in the work of teaching, except in

what is strictly called the Technical workshop. The instructor here is a trained teacher in his own subject. This department is separate from the workshops. The instructors, or trades masters, are all Europeans. In this Technical division, the normal school pupil-teachers and lads in Standard V. all receive a certain course of woodwork and drawing. The building is large, and of two stories. It contains bench accommodation for a class of seventy-two working at the same time.

3. *Native teachers in the industrial departments.*—These have been tried, but not successfully, one or two being in blacksmithing and one in printing, but the exclusive training is not entrusted to them. The question as to the amount of success by native instructors is answered by this, that European superintendence is always necessary.

4. *Agricultural education* was once tried at Lovedale, but not successfully. The natives have the idea that there is nothing to be learned that they do not already know, but all the lads engage to some extent in field work, in planting maize, in hoeing, and in dealing with crops, reaping and digging them up. They see, however, methods entirely different from their own methods. Thus all maize is planted in drills by a drilling machine. The first rough hoeing is done by a horse grubber. No native as yet plants maize in drills, and most Europeans also sow it broadcast. Lovedale was the first in the district to introduce these machines for drilling and planting. A very few advanced farmers throughout the country use them.

5. *When Technical education in industry and agriculture begins.*—Not in the earlier stages of general education, except in the one section already mentioned of wood-work. The low condition of education among the natives, and the want of knowledge of English, renders several years necessary in the standards. But manual training of some kind is made a feature of the curriculum as already described, namely, that all must engage in some kind of work for two hours daily. At one extreme lies rough field work, hoeing crops, or road-making, and at the other—it may be the care of the library, or of lamps, or windows, or post or telegraph messengers, or as house boys, knife or boot cleaners, and so on, according to their strength and years.

6. *Effects of industrial and agricultural education on character and efficiency.*—Agricultural education, as a special and systematic work, may, for the reason already mentioned, be left out of account. Natives are willing enough to attend a class of agriculture, even some of them of agricultural chemistry, but practical work in the fields, which in the hot season is severe, is not so much to their liking, nor so popular. As to the effects on character, there is always some effect of a beneficial kind, though there is nothing in work *per se* to make a man moral, without additional influences. About its economic efficiency and value there can be no question.

These lads who serve an apprenticeship can earn about 5s. a day shortly after leaving, while as labourers they would receive 1s. 6d. to 2s. a day.

7. *Combination of industrial and agricultural education with instruction of a more literary and general character.*—These cannot be combined in any efficient degree so far as our experience at Lovedale goes. We have the greatest difficulty in getting apprentices in the industrial departments to attend evening classes for an hour and a half. These classes range from Standard III. to Standard VI., or even VII. The lads are generally tired or sleepy, and also think that they have now reached an age in which they should not be troubled with school work. The combination is not practicable, except in a few individual cases, any more than it is amongst Europeans. It is difficult to combine the artisan and the student.

8. *Opposition from Colonial workmen.*—On the part of some trades, among the white population, there has been at intervals opposition to the natives being taught trades. Into some workshops the native has a difficulty in getting admittance; in others not. In printing establishments and newspaper offices he is generally taken readily. On the other hand, some disturbance arose a few years ago among the tinsmiths in one Colonial town in opposition to the training of apprentices and sale of tinware by an industrial mission of the Episcopalian body. Such outbursts appear in letters in the newspapers or in partial strikes, but they are not serious, and generally do not last. Competition on the part of the native with white labour is as yet in its infancy. We are constantly asked for a far greater number of lads who have finished their apprenticeships than we can supply. Specially is this the case with printers, blacksmiths, waggon-makers, and carpenters.

The right lines of native education are then that it should be—(1) largely industrial, with a good general education up to at least Standard IV.; (2) with a normal course of training for three years for a more limited class to afford the supply of qualified teachers for native village schools; (3) with opportunity under certain financial limitations for a much smaller class to go as far as matriculation; and (4) further, to any extent they may choose to go at their own expense, and on the same terms and privileges as Europeans. This last may be justified on the theory that education proceeds from above downwards, not from below upwards. A small educated class stimulates the ambition of those below; and specially does this hold good among Africans.

The obstacle to any great extension of industrial training is the meagre amount allotted by the Education Department to such instruction. It is unreasonable to expect that the missionary-contributing public of Great Britain will continue to supply artisans for the advantage of the Colony. These Missionary Societies started the work, have shown its practicability, and spent a good

deal of money on buildings, tools, salaries of masters, and taken such risks and losses as these efforts have involved. They cannot be expected to do this indefinitely, and on the expanding scale which the development of South Africa and the increase of native population will necessitate.

It is also only at what are called Aborigines Institutions of the larger class that such work is really carried on in any thorough and systematic method. The case of Lovedale may be taken to represent all other such Institutions. We would require greater expansion at present to produce any impression on the vast native ignorance which exists, and the corresponding want of economic efficiency. The Missionary Committee are quite opposed to any further expenditure in this direction for the reason I have mentioned. I have asked now for £10,000, chiefly for buildings, dormitories, workshops, and tools, and will not get it. If such education, therefore, is to be undertaken, it should be by the Department of Government which is responsible for it. The gross annual expenditure on education in Cape Colony now is, roughly, £270,000. That on the Aborigines Institutions is, roughly, about £25,000 per annum,* or less than one-tenth of the whole amount, while the native population may be 4 or 6 or 10 to 1 of the European, according to the district. In Natal, where the proportion of population is 64,000 Europeans to 865,000 natives, including coolies, the expenditure is £56,000; and that assigned to native education, roughly, between £5,000 and £6,000. In comparison with the expenditure in the United States on such places as Hampton, in Virginia, for American Indians and negroes; at Carlisle, in Pennsylvania, for American Indians only; at Haskell, in Kansas, and elsewhere, the amount expended in the Cape Colony is comparatively trifling.

The expenditure per head on Aborigines, that is on purely native schools, is, I believe, 12s. 3d. per head; on Mission schools, which are poor white and partly black and half-caste, 13s. 4d.; on third-class public schools for Europeans, £2 1s. 3d.; on private farm schools, £2 18s. 10d.; on first-class public schools, £3 17s. 4d. Recently, so far as I am able to judge, first-class public schools have received an increase of 7s. per head; private farm schools, over 9s.; second-class public, over 12s.; while native school grants have been reduced by nearly 2s. per head. All this indicates that if native education is to be developed on right lines, namely, a large combination of industrial training, and on any scale adequate to the wants of the country and the rapid increase of native population, the Education Department would need to put forth some strength in this direction.

The grant to Lovedale for all purposes is about £2,200 a year. The half of this is allotted for teaching purposes, and is spread over a line extending from the sewing mistress in the Elementary Station School at £10, to grants in the standards; for three teachers in the Normal Department; for trades masters in the printing car-

* I have no Blue Books at hand.

pentering, and waggon-making, and in the technical department ; while there is a limited section for matriculation and theological work for which no grant is given, and for the latter, is not expected. The same arrangement holds good as to distribution or application of grants in the Girls' School and Work Department. The other half of the above total is for Maintenance Grants. It may seem a large sum, but spread over so large a surface it is not so.

The annual cost of the place is, roughly, £10,000, of which one-quarter comes from the Mission Committee in Scotland, one-fifth from the Education Department of the Cape Colony, and the remainder from native and local sources. The scale on which the place is maintained is possibly only by payments from the natives themselves in the shape of fees for board and education. Beginning from nothing thirty years ago, these amount now to close on £5,000 a year ; and the total sum thus paid by natives is a little over £58,000. The demand for education will steadily grow, as the natives are in earnest on the matter, but we are crippled for want of buildings, and also of means or capital required, before any great measure of self-support can be reached

JAMES STEWART,

April, 1903.

APPENDIX B 6.

THE WORK OF THE MORAVIAN MISSIONARIES IN SOUTH AFRICA AND NORTH QUEENSLAND.

The experience of the Moravian missionaries in dealing with some of the races, lowest down in the scale of humanity, extends in one or two cases to more than 150 years, and in several fields they have met with considerable success, both from an educational and industrial point of view. They have no schools where exclusively technical subjects are taught, and they can scarcely be said to have established in any of their stations a purely industrial mission, yet from the earliest time of their labours they have striven to wean their converts from their indolent and nomadic habits, to show them the benefits of a settled mode of life and to instruct them how to utilise the gifts of nature around them. There is an old picture in the possession of the Church showing Schmidt, the first missionary to South Africa in 1739, surrounded by Hottentots, teaching them the use of the spade.

The class of men who volunteered to go from their German homes in the earliest years of the Mission were specially fitted for work of this kind. Most of them had served an apprenticeship to some trade or industry before they thought of Mission service, and so were well calculated to become instructors in some industrial pursuit. The result of their teaching and example is well illustrated by the effect produced upon such races as the Hottentots and Bushmen of South Africa.

These two races are said to be the remnants of the earliest inhabitants of Africa. Both races were very low down in the scale of civilisation. The Hottentots were described as short in stature, with narrow foreheads, low skulls and prominent jaws, living in small beehive-shaped huts built of sticks and covered with rush mats. Their food consisted chiefly of fruits and roots. In character they were capricious, indolent, untidy, and morally degraded. The Bushmen were even inferior to these. They belonged to an earlier pigmy race. Their skins were leathery, yellow, and greatly wrinkled even in early life, their visages concave, noses flat, but with keen, piercing eyes. They were the gipsies of South Africa, had no fixed abodes, sometimes sheltering in caves, at other burrowing in the sand, or sheltering behind a rough screen of brushwood. Their habits were filthy in the extreme; their food ants' eggs, locusts, and snakes. They had no civil organisation, no chiefs, nor any vestige of religious belief or ceremony.

It was on such unpromising material as this that the missionary had to work. The result of that work may be seen to-day in numbers of stations in South Africa. One example may suffice.

About the beginning of the last century the Government gave a grant of land for the use of the missionaries and their converts of a small valley, called Bavian's Kloof or the Vale of Baboons. Now the place is known as Genadendal. A small colony of Hottentots and Bushmen was founded here, and the natural resources of the valley developed. Now about 18,000 letters pass yearly through the Genadendal Post Office, most of them written by natives. The whole colony is peopled by the descendants of the degraded Hottentots and Bushmen. As in most districts of South Africa, so here the scarcity of water is the great drawback, but a small stream runs through the valley, and this has been utilised to the utmost. First it is made to turn the station corn mill, then it is artificially divided into five branches, from which numerous channels are cut, and the water distributed over the 800 gardens of the natives. Twelve of the most trustworthy inhabitants are elected to act as overseers of this system of irrigation, and as the water is limited in quantity, to see to its equitable distribution. A recent census of the fruit trees in Genadendal was taken, which showed that there were 14,000 pear, 8,000 peach, 4,000 apricot, and 2,000 orange trees cultivated in these gardens. In addition to this shops were opened for carpenters and wheelwrights, and forges were erected for smiths. A certain kind of knife is made there which is highly valued throughout the colony for its sterling quality and excellent finish. The men, educated and trained in this colony, are greatly sought after by farmers and others around, and their trustworthiness and reliability ensure them constant employment. A goodly number are working on the railway line, especially on that portion which passes through that dreary, sterile tract known as the Great Karroo.

One great factor in transforming these degraded races into a thriving industrial colony, in addition to the influence of the gospel, has been the object lesson of seeing the missionaries working with their own hands, both with and for the natives, and it would seem as if the missionary added greatly to his influence and power over the native mind, if, in addition to his preaching ability, he added that of a skilled workman in some trade.

In North Queensland, Australia, there is a native reserve under the superintendence of the Moravian missionaries. Everyone knows the degraded condition in which the aborigines lived, and the Report for 1901 furnishes striking evidence of the progress towards civilisation made in the last few years. Three distinct features characterise the work of the Mission: education for the mind, salvation for the soul, and occupation for the body. The station at Mapoon is gradually changing from a native camp into a modern village. The young people begin to take more pride in comfortable dwellings and personal appearance. There are 145 *bonâ fide* inhabitants living in houses. There is an average attendance of forty-five children at the school. The majority can read English with fluency and expression. Their writing is especially good, and arithmetic is mastered as far as compound

addition. It is not, the Report adds, so much the knowledge gained, as the training to be obedient to rules and regulations, that is of importance. In addition to the elementary teaching the girls are taught sewing, housework, and other useful attainments, fitting them to become better wives and mothers than their unfortunate sisters; the boys are taught gardening, carpentering, milking, and other employments suitable to their years and strength.

This teaching is followed up by special instruction classes for those who formerly attended the day school, so that they may not lose the knowledge gained during their school days. Occasionally, simple lectures are given on such subjects as "The Life of the Butterfly," "The Construction and Laws of Machinery," "The Human Body," etc., etc., all being illustrated by pictures and diagrams. These simple lectures have proved not only a great attraction for the young men, but have also been the means of improving them both in mind and body. During the year over 2,000 feet of board was sawn from local timber, and a number of native houses have been erected with it, and all done by native labour under the direction of the Superintendent of the Mission. Gardens are fenced in and kept in good order, and a fair amount of vegetables and fruit raised.

During the year the Mapoon natives collected a considerable number of botanical specimens, all of which are of economic value, *i.e.*, plants which are used either for food, weapons, or medicine. In this way a new species of acacia was discovered, and named by the Government botanist "Rothi Bail."

The Report declares that the character of the people, nay, even of the inhabitants of the whole district (a coast line of fifty miles) has been greatly changed, but the results of the whole work cannot be tabulated, nor can the change be expressed by any arithmetical figures. Industry and work are essential factors and valuable auxiliaries in shaping the lives of a savage race, consisting of beings devoid of even elementary laws and regulations to assure prosperity and safety of life. The station is, of course, in the first instance a centre for the spread of the gospel, but Mapoon has become a vast nursery of civilisation as well. On another reserve, one of the native women is now acting as school-mistress.

J. M. WILSON.

October, 1902.

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PREFATORY NOTE TO VOLUME 23
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The history of Russian education contained in these pages closes with the end of 1904. The outbreak of the war with Japan delayed the issue which was then about to take place, for an official publication, even though the Board of Education had refused responsibility (as they now do) for the opinions expressed by the author, may be the cause of misconception in times of storm. There were, however, strong reasons for limiting the account by the year 1905, even though when peace was restored opportunity offered for carrying the story down to a later date. This year marked the opening of a new epoch which is still too young to admit of just estimation. The history of the present changes must be written in the future, but for the convenience of students mention may here be made of three changes which have taken place since 1904 and which are of such importance that no book dealing with Russian education and appearing in the present year could properly omit to mention them. They are:—(1) the grant of autonomy* to the Universities and places of higher education of University rank. This step is foreshadowed in Mr. Darlington's fifth chapter. (2) The changes in secondary education referred to as in contemplation on page 159 of the Report have now been carried into full effect. This does not render the course of the Gymnasia obsolete as a certain number of these schools continue on the old lines; on the other hand the curriculum of the real-schools described on pp. 281-285 has now been superseded by new programmes of work. (3) The Department of Trade and Manufactures within the Ministry of Finance has now been erected into a separate Ministry. The Commercial Schools which were administered by this Department have been transferred to the new Ministry, consequently it is no longer accurate, as it was when this Report was written, to speak of the Commercial Schools as attached to the Ministry of Finance. In two places in the Report itself reference is made for convenience sake to events subsequent to 1904, viz. (a) on page 182, where reference is made to the use of Polish as a medium of instruction in primary schools, and (b) on page 480 (note) where mention is made of the *ukaz* of 20th October, 1906.

In judging the Report as a whole it is scarcely necessary to remind students that an account of an East European autocracy by a West European scholar of strongly democratic sympathies

* Subsequent administrative measures seem to have curtailed somewhat the extent of the autonomy granted by the decree.

must inevitably present the history of Russian education from a point of view which will not coincide in all probability with that which would be adopted by a Russian historian, whatever his political bias. That is in the nature of the case inevitable, but if too much stress were laid upon this consideration, it would invalidate the study of any country, or any aspect of a country's social life, by the intelligent foreigner for the benefit of his fellow countrymen. From the British point of view perhaps the conclusions most likely to be tentatively drawn from the carefully balanced statement which Mr. Darlington has endeavoured to present will be (1) that Western learning has not been thought an unmixed blessing by some of the most serious-minded of Russian statesmen; (2) that the educational policy of the Russian Government has not been continuous or consistent; and (3) that the Universities and institutions of University rank have suffered because they were in the first place institutions for the recruitment of the Imperial services, and only in the second place institutions for the advancement of learning. But this last is itself a West European judgment which needs to be tempered by the recollection that a non-democratic empire must needs take steps to educate its officers, and that this need has affected the development of our Indian Universities to the full as much as it has the Russian.

In conclusion the Board of Education desire it to be known that this book was a labour of love. It occupied for many years the scant leisure that comes in the working life of an Inspector of Schools; it is the outcome of more than one long visit to Russia, and of continuous study of men and books. It brought its author no reward; for its production was delayed by manifold mischances and dogged as by an evil fate. First came the war; then the unrest that succeeded to it; then times of severe official work in Wales; then an important journey of inquiry on the Continent for which Mr. Darlington was specially selected by the Board; and then his sad death in 1908 at an age when many men are still looking forward. Since that date other smaller obstacles have stood in the path, but the last of them has now been removed, and the volume is made public in the belief that it will help to explain the intellectual growth of a great and friendly power, and will increase the international sympathy which was always near to the heart of an accomplished scholar and linguist.

Office of Special Inquiries and Reports.

August, 1909.

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EDUCATION IN RUSSIA.

INTRODUCTION.

A word or two appears to be necessary by way of introduction to this Report in order to explain its general plan and scope and the standpoint from which it has been written.

The writer has endeavoured to treat Russian education as one aspect of Russian culture. He is convinced that no account of the educational system of any country would be complete or even intelligible which should not take into consideration the influences which have affected, as well as those which are now affecting, the general intellectual and social life of the nation concerned. If it is important to bear this in mind even in relation to the countries of Western Europe, it is doubly so in relation to Russia. For in describing the state of education in most of the great countries of Europe it is possible to take for granted the existence of a certain historical background, made up of national experiences shared more or less in common by all the peoples who have contributed to European progress, and consequently to assume a considerable similarity in their present-day conditions and needs. In the case of Russia, however, the peculiar historic relation in which she stands to the general movement of European culture alters the nature of the problem and renders it impossible to start with assumptions which would be justified in the case of any other great country of Europe.

The late Matthew Arnold, in a passage which was written with immediate reference to the study of literature, but may equally well be applied to every field of intellectual activity, bids us regard Europe "as being for intellectual and spiritual purposes one great confederacy bound to a joint action and working to a common result."* That such a great spiritual confederacy actually exists among those nations whose civilisation has sprung up on European soil from the twofold seed of Christianity and classical antiquity admits of no doubt; and all the nations of Western Christendom which have passed through the same phases of historical experience stand in more or less intimate relation to it. But it is only with large reservations that the same can be said of the great nation of Eastern Europe with which this Report is concerned. Barely two centuries have elapsed since the current of Russian history mingled with the wider stream of the history of Europe; and even now the adhesion of Russia to the ideals of European culture is less absolute, her connection with the European confederacy is less organic, than is the case with any of the Western countries, not

* *Essays in Criticism*, 3rd Ed., 1875, p. 46.

even excluding England. Standing historically as well as geographically midway between Europe and Asia, Russia never forgets that she belongs to both. For her the secular barrier which elsewhere divides the two great historic continents has been broken down. It is doubtless part of her task to teach to the East the lessons of civilisation which she herself has learnt from the West. But she does not learn from the West alone; and it may well prove to be one of the functions which destiny has in store for her to show how all that is valuable in the ancient civilisations of the East may be preserved and combined with all that is best in the modern civilisation of Europe.

It is this unique historical position occupied by Russia in relation to the Western world which makes it necessary, in the writer's opinion, to treat the subject of Russian education largely, though of course not exclusively, from the historical point of view. The actual position of Russian education cannot be understood without some knowledge of its origins and of the conditions which have determined its development up to the present time; because only in proportion as these are realised does it become possible to apply a correct standard of judgment to the existing state of things. For example, the backward condition of Russian primary education with its consequence, a low average level of culture, is explicable only as the result of social and economic conditions which, though corresponding to those of the mediæval stage of Western civilisation, lasted in Russia until the abolition of serfdom forty years ago. On the other hand, the recent advances made in professional and technical instruction stand in direct relation with the industrial developments of the last generation, which in their turn were made possible only by the liberation of labour from the restraints imposed upon it by the existence of serfdom. The present-day problems of higher education in Russia are unintelligible unless studied with reference to the vicissitudes through which the principle of university autonomy has passed in the course of the last century; whilst the secondary schools of general education have been affected during the same period by a variety of causes intimately connected with the social and political history of the time. All this, of course, only means that in Russia, as elsewhere, the present is the child of the past. But the point of importance is that the past of Russia requires special study from every student of her present position, because her past is different from that of Western Europe. These considerations have determined the plan of the present Report. A considerable portion of it is taken up with an attempt to trace the development of the Russian system of public instruction in its various forms and grades from the foundation of the Russian Empire to the present time. This historical sketch is followed by a description of the organisation of the system in the form which it has now assumed; and, finally, some of the chief educational questions which still await settlement in Russia are reviewed and discussed.

The great interest which must necessarily attach to the subject of

Russian education need hardly be emphasised here. It is the natural consequence of the great position which Russia occupies in the world and of the great destiny which is manifestly reserved for her. Her territory is surpassed in extent only by that of the British Empire. Her population has increased tenfold in two hundred years, and is still rapidly growing. Of the 135 millions of human beings who own the sway of the Tsar, over sixty per cent. are Slavs of his own race, Great or Little Russians, forming a solid national nucleus which ever tends to assimilate to itself all the non-Slavonic elements in the Empire. As a nation Russia is only at the outset of her career; the great natural resources of her soil are almost untouched; other undeveloped resources she possesses in the intellectual capacities of her people, among whom the advantages of education are still confined to a small minority. Yet with limited opportunities such as these she has already afforded the earnest of splendid achievements in many departments of letters, of science, and of art. She moves slowly, for time is on her side; and yet she is capable of rapid and decisive action when the moment for such action has clearly arrived. The nation which quietly and without bloodshed accomplished an act of emancipation whereby twenty-two millions of serfs became in a single day free men and citizens of the Russian Empire is capable of great things, and must surely achieve them.

No civilised nation is more widely sundered from Russia by history and national temperament, as well as by social and political ideals, than our own. Yet the two peoples have some things in common which are of the highest importance. We, too, have been distinguished, though in a lesser degree than Russia and for very different reasons, by a certain aloofness from the main currents of European thought. On us, also, has been laid the great responsibility of empire. And lastly, we equally with Russia are called to take our part in communicating whatever is of universal and permanent value in European civilisation to the peoples of Asia. In respect to the peoples of inferior culture who have come under their rule both nations have a duty to fulfil which is essentially an educative one. From this point of view, therefore, if from no other, everything that relates to the educational equipment of the one nation must possess a special interest for the other.

The Russian writers who have paid particular attention to English education are few, but amongst them are included some of the ablest men in the Empire. All those whose writings are known to the author of this Report have approached the subject in a candid, courteous, and open-minded spirit which calls for grateful appreciation on the part of Englishmen. It has been the aim of the writer to discharge the task imposed upon him in a similar spirit. He can at least claim to possess the qualification for such a task which is derived from a keen and sympathetic interest in all that concerns Russia, a genuine admiration for the high intellectual and moral qualities of her people, and a sincere appreciation of the brilliant services she has already rendered to the progress of mankind

He has, of course, striven to preserve an attitude of strict impartiality towards all the great questions of educational politics upon which Russian opinion is still deeply divided. No account of Russian education would, however, be intelligible which did not recognise the fact that in Russia, as elsewhere, there is a conflict of social ideals—a conflict none the less inevitable nor the less keenly waged because it does not always express itself in forms familiar to constitutionally governed peoples or to those among whom opinion on such matters is more definitely organised on party lines. The influence of these competing social ideals upon educational thought and practice in a country where, as in Russia, the social aims of the school tend to take precedence of those which are individual is immediate and profound. In the history of Russian education we have, for example, to take account from the first of the deep cleavage of opinion and sentiment which has always divided, and still continues to divide, those who find the ideals of Russian culture implicit in the thought, the institutions, the history, and traditions of the Russian people themselves from those who hold that the path of progress for Russia lies in the track of the older civilisations of Europe. The conflict between modern bureaucratism and the steadily rising social forces which seek expression in educational movements independent of state initiative is a still more instructive instance of the way in which great fundamental problems of human progress and social organisation affect the question of national education. It is the privilege of a foreign observer to follow such controversies as these from a detached standpoint, to feel in them, not a personal, but a scientific interest, to be able to appreciate fairly the ideals of both parties, without regard to the direction in which his own sympathies may lie. It is from this neutral point of view that the writer has endeavoured to survey the field of Russian education. Although a certain reserve in the treatment of some questions of contemporary interest has been inevitable in view of the conditions under which this Report is issued, he has nevertheless striven to render equal justice to the ideals of opposing schools of thought in Russia, and to supply without conscious bias or partiality the materials on which any well-informed judgment on Russian educational questions must rest.

The writer desires here to express his great obligations to the Russian State authorities for their courtesy in affording him information and access to educational institutions during two visits paid to Russia for the purposes of this Report. He is especially indebted to the late Minister of Public Instruction, M. Bogolepov, for a Report of the Proceedings of the Secondary Schools' Commission of 1899, with which he was supplied by M. Bogolepov shortly before the latter's assassination. The Transactions of this Commission have not yet been published, and no information concerning them could therefore be given in the following pages; but it has nevertheless been of very great service to the writer to have had access to this important record of contemporary opinion on the

problems of secondary education in Russia. His special thanks are also due to Messrs. Sonin and Nekrassov, Curators respectively of the St. Petersburg and Moscow Educational Districts, for opportunities afforded him of visiting places of education under their charge; and to M. Sanchurski, District Inspector of Secondary Schools in the Educational District of St. Petersburg, for his personal guidance and assistance during the writer's stay in the Russian capital. Much courtesy has also been extended to the writer by the authorities of the Holy Synod. He desires especially to acknowledge the personal kindness shown him by M. Pobedonostsev, the High Procurator of the Holy Synod, who in the course of several interviews discussed with him at length questions affecting the Church Schools and other aspects of Russian Education. Any insight which he may have obtained into the spirit and aims of the Church Schools is largely due to these interviews and to similar conversations with other prominent persons connected with the educational organisation of the Holy Synod.

While the writer owes much to the information placed at his disposal by representatives of the central government, he has also gratefully to acknowledge similar assistance rendered to him by persons interested in the schools of the zemstvos and in kindred manifestations of social initiative in the domain of education. Here the difficulty is to mention individual names where kindness has been so general; but he must not, in any case, omit to acknowledge his indebtedness to the guidance and help given him, both in Russia and in England, by Professor Paul Vinogradoff, formerly Professor of History in the University of Moscow, and now Corpus Professor of Jurisprudence at Oxford. Professor Vinogradoff is well known in Russia, not only as an historian and jurist of the first rank, but as one of the most competent experts in that country on all pedagogical questions. He has been the consistent exponent of a body of opinion widely differing from that which underlies the existing organisation of Russian education: and from that point of view the help he has given by way of criticism and suggestion during the passage of the proofs of this Report through the Press has been invaluable.

Finally, the writer desires to tender his most sincere thanks for the assistance and encouragement given to him by Mr. Michael E. Sadler, to whom, as Director of Special Enquiries at the Board of Education, the inception of the work was in the first place due. Mr. Sadler's advice has been freely sought and generously given at every stage of the progress of the Report, and his unsurpassed knowledge of educational systems, at home and abroad, has made his suggestions specially helpful. It is, perhaps, hardly necessary to add that none of those who have assisted the writer with advice or criticism are in the slightest degree responsible for any statement of fact or opinion contained in the Report.

A bibliographical list is appended to the volume, from which the extent of the author's indebtedness to the published work of others may be gauged. The writing of the First Chapter, in particular, has

been a task of considerable difficulty, owing to the fact that much of the historical material had to be obtained from primary sources. But the task could hardly have been attempted at all, at any rate by a foreigner, but for the previous work of Miliukov, Ikonnikov, Schmid, Pypin, Count D. Tolstoi, Falbork and Charnoluski, to whom the writer accordingly desires to record his special obligations here.

The greater part of this Report has been in type for a considerable time. Its completion was delayed, because it was hoped that some definite solution of the outstanding problems of university and secondary education would be reached in time for an account of the new proposals to be included in the Report. The Russo-Japanese War and the subsequent political unrest appear to have indefinitely postponed any such prospect.

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CHAPTER I.

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF RUSSIAN EDUCATION.

I.—THE PRE-PETRINE PERIOD.

The history of Russian education in its organised form can scarcely be said to date back to a period anterior to the time of Peter the Great. Schools in which the rudiments of Christian learning were taught certainly existed in the pre-Mongolian period, but in what numbers we have little means of judging. They were taught for the most part, though not exclusively, by the clergy, and were maintained either in connection with the churches or in private dwellings. Intellectual progress of all kinds, however, received a rude check during the period of Tatar domination, which lasted for more than two hundred years, and effectually isolated Russia from Western Christendom. When Russia at last shook off the Mongol yoke, and gathered up once more the broken threads of her national history, she emerged into view semi-orientalised in habits and ideas, and linked to the peoples of Western Europe only by the ties of a common origin and the possession of a common faith. Such intellectual culture as she possessed had been preserved for her by the Church; but indeed of purely secular culture she possessed only the merest rudiments. Slowly, but surely, however, the influence of Western ideas made itself felt. In spite of the jealous watch kept along her western frontier by Poles, Swedes, and others of her neighbours who feared nothing so much as her emergence from a state of comparative barbarism, scraps of mediæval Western learning and science found their belated way into Russia, even in the sixteenth, and still more in the seventeenth century. Foreigners, especially Germans, began to settle in Russia for purposes of trade, bringing with them the arts and crafts of the West, and thus familiarising the Russians with the external appliances of European civilisation. In the seventeenth century European literature began to attract a select few among the higher classes; and thus the first foundations were laid of that tradition of aristocratic culture which has since made the Russian nobility the most refined and the most cosmopolitan in the world.

But these stirrings of intellectual life were at first faint and few. The schools which existed confined themselves to the bare rudiments of religious and secular instruction. The mass even of the nobles were sunk in intellectual torpor. Among the clergy examples of learning were, until the latter half of the seventeenth century, almost as rare as among the laity. For the most part the clergy, content with their traditional Byzantine lore, looked with suspicion on all Western ideas and customs, which were identified in their minds with Latinism and the claims of the Roman

been a task of considerable difficulty for Boris Godunov for the establishment of the historical material had to be of to be abandoned owing to this. But the task could hardly have been considered," as Karamzin tells us a foreigner, but for the previous work teaching of youth to the Schmid, Pypin, Count D. Tolstoi, Falborsar proposed to bring into whom the writer accordingly desires to record close of the sixteenth century conflict of forces resulting here.

The greater part of this Report has been in type trained in an exclusive time. Its completion was delayed, because it was but a part in the definite solution of the outstanding problems of university history of secondary education would be reached in time for an account of new proposals to be included in the Report. The Russo-Japanese War and the subsequent political unrest appear to have indefinitely postponed any such prospect.

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Church. It gave to Peter the Great in the next generation the instruments he required for his ecclesiastical reforms. It also rendered a considerable service to the progress of Russian culture by supplying the translators who busied themselves in the seventeenth century and later in bringing within the reach of those who understood only Russian the chief results of Western science. The brilliant and versatile Simeon Polotski, who later on became tutor to the children of the Tsar Alexis, and, among many other literary achievements, wrote the first Russian play, was perhaps the most distinguished alumnus of the Kiev Academy, and at the same time its most typical product. He taught for some time in Moscow, having as one of his pupils Medvedev, who afterwards himself opened a Latin school in the metropolis. These two men were the most conspicuous representatives of the party of progress in the contest which was waged during the latter part of the seventeenth century upon the question whether Greek or Latin was to have the predominance in education. The Orthodox-conservative party advocated Greek as the language of the primitive Church and of its earliest liturgies and primary records; their opponents urged the claims of Latin as the language of science and European culture. Kiev was marked out both by its historical and geographical position as the natural headquarters of the Latinists; Moscow, which, since the fall of Byzantium, had become the metropolis of the Orthodox world, was equally naturally the home of religious conservatism.

This struggle between modern enlightenment on the one hand and the mere *vis inertiae* of conservatism on the other, would seem to admit of but one issue, if we did not bear in mind that the conservative party were able to appeal to a strong traditional prejudice against everything Latin in matters affecting religion and morals. On the other hand the arguments of the Latinists were powerfully reinforced by the circumstances attending the introduction of the reforms of Nikon (which consisted in the correction of the liturgical books of the Russian Church so as to bring them into conformity with the ancient manuscripts). The ignorant zeal for the letter of the sacred writings in their traditional form, which was displayed by such sects as the Staro-obriadtsy, was merely the *reductio ad absurdum* of the blind conservatism which would confine all learning within the traditional limits prescribed by the custom of the Church. The lessons of the *raskol*, or great schism, were not lost upon the leaders of the Russian Church. When in 1685 the Moscow Slavo-Greco-Latin Academy was founded with the same objects as that of Kiev, some compromise with the new ideas was seen to be necessary. It was felt to be no longer possible to omit Latin altogether from the curriculum. Whilst, therefore, all the Kiev teachers were rigidly excluded from the staff, which consisted entirely of monks, and whilst every precaution was taken that the spirit of the teaching should be in strict conformity with Orthodox doctrine, the programme of studies was fairly wide, including the same subjects as had long

been taught at Kiev, with the addition of ecclesiastical and civil law. In order to make all possible provision against heterodox influences, it was decided to obtain teachers from the very fountain head of Orthodox learning, Greece itself. Recommended by the patriarch of Constantinople, the two brothers Likhudi, learned Greeks who had studied at Padua, and had there taken their doctor's degree, were placed in charge of the new Academy. They continued to administer the affairs of the institution until 1694, in which year reactionary ideas having once more gained the upper hand, they were removed from office. Some years later, at the invitation of the Metropolitan Job, they removed to Novgorod, where they founded a school with a curriculum similar to that of the Slavo-Greco-Latin Academy.

The two Academies at Kiev and Moscow represent the high-water mark of educational progress in Russia in the seventeenth century. They were both ecclesiastical foundations, and their aim was strictly theological. Western learning and science entered, it is true, into the plan of studies, but only as necessary weapons in the warfare to be waged on behalf of Orthodoxy. The need, however, of a more liberal education was increasingly felt by the upper classes of society, who, failing other means of education, were beginning to engage foreigners as private teachers in their families. It is a significant indication of the attitude towards Western culture which prevailed in Great Russia that all such foreign teachers were placed under the immediate supervision of the Moscow Academy, and persons who admitted them into their families without its permission were liable to confiscation of property. The time, however, was fast approaching when the Church was to cease to have the monopoly of education. With the dawn of the eighteenth century a new period in Russian history opens; the educational questions debated so keenly by the theologians of Kiev and Moscow, are suddenly crowded out of the arena by the needs of the modern State, as interpreted by its imperious and energetic head, Peter Alexeievich, known in history as "the Great."

II.—REIGNS OF PETER THE GREAT AND HIS IMMEDIATE SUCCESSOR (1689—1761).

The secular school in Russia owed its origin to the initiative of the great Tsar-Reformer himself. It is characteristic of the time and the man, and in a certain sense also of the nation which produced him, that the schools which he created should have had a strictly "professional" and civic character, and that their aim was purely utilitarian and practical. In them all—whether Naval Schools, or Mathematical Schools, or Schools of Artillery or Engineering—the minimum of general mental training was combined with the maximum of preparation for a specific career in the service of the State. This was entirely in accordance with the ideas of education then universally prevalent in Russia, where the conception of the school as an instrument of individual mental culture,

apart from the interests of the Church or the State, had as yet taken no root. It was not, as we shall see, until the contact of Russia with Western Europe had become much more complete, and the diffusion of European ideas much more general, that the view of the school as a place of special training for a particular career, civic or ecclesiastical, began to widen out into the conception of the school as a place of liberal education.

The peculiar character of the schools of Peter the Great finds its best explanation in the character and career of Peter himself. His own passion for work and admiration for workers, his eminently practical bent of mind, his ambition for the material progress of his country, and his clear realisation of the connection between technical knowledge and material well-being, supply the key to his whole educational policy. The school was simply an instrument fashioned by him for the accomplishment of his political aims. It was inevitable, therefore, that the schools which he created should bear the impress of his own genius, and that their limitations should be the limitations of Peter's own mind. His own inclinations led him from a child in the direction of the mathematical and mechanical sciences; he studied carpentering in the German Suburb of Moscow, and acquired the art of shipbuilding in the dockyards of Saardam and Deptford; engineering and the science of war he learnt from practical experts like Timmerman and Gordon, perfecting his knowledge in the school of experience. Literary training he had practically none. With the value of such training for the purposes of general culture, with the value as mental gymnastic even of the mathematical sciences which he prized, he was probably little concerned; while the idea that such general intellectual culture might be the ultimate condition of all material progress was certainly as foreign to him as it was to his contemporaries generally. His one aim was to appropriate and turn to immediate practical use the results which had been attained in the West by centuries of patient thought and experiment. For the realisation of this aim he needed a number of specially educated agents. For the creation of his new capital on the Neva, for his system of canals, and his other material undertakings, he needed skilled architects, builders, and engineers; for his Navy, ship-builders, carpenters, and mechanics were necessary; for his military operations men skilled in the arts of war; for the work of administration and diplomaoy, jurists and men versed in modern languages. The existing schools of Russia could not give him the agents he required; and he therefore proceeded to found schools with the specific purpose of supplying himself with them.

He seems at first to have had the idea of utilising the Slave-Greco-Latin Academy for his purpose. "By the grace of God," he said, in an oft-quoted conversation with Adrian, the last of the Russian patriarchs, "we have a school; let this school, then, give us men who with proper instruction shall be fit for all requirements, not only for the service of the Church, but for the military and civil service, and for the arts of building, and of medicine."⁴

But the task before him was too complex to be solved so simply. In fact, Peter solved it in the first instance by sending young men abroad to be specially trained for the work for which they were intended. This was an expedient for which a precedent had been set by Boris Godunov, and which has since Peter's time been repeatedly adopted with excellent results to Russian education. But it could be used as a temporary or occasional expedient only. In order that Peter's aims as defined in his own words quoted above, might be fully realised, it was necessary that the means of instruction should be provided in liberal measure in Russia itself, and Peter seems to have early comprehended that the education needed to train men for his service was not such as the existing academies, with their exclusively humanistic programme and theological bias, could be easily made to furnish.

His earliest foundation, the "School of Mathematics and Navigation," (established in Moscow in 1701, but transferred some years later to St. Petersburg, and there re-christened the Naval Academy*), was at the same time the most important. Its first Director was Farquharson, an old Professor of the University of Aberdeen, who had been invited to Russia by Peter after his visit to England in 1695, and who is remembered as the author of the first Russian manuals of geometry (Euclid's Elements), algebra, and trigonometry. Not only Farquharson, but most of the other teachers of the School of Navigation and the Naval Academy were English or Scotch, and the language of instruction long continued to be English. For several years the School of Navigation remained the only establishment of its kind in the country; and during the years which preceded the inauguration of the great reforms of the reign, it supplied Peter not only with naval officers, but with engineers, teachers, civil servants, and administrative agents of all kinds. During the early years of the century he was fully occupied with the strenuous prosecution of his foreign wars; and it was not until the victory of Poltava (1709) had left him free to set his hand to the work of internal reorganisation, that two other important technical schools were founded, viz., the School of Engineering and the Artillery School (1712). These again were followed by others of a similar type.

The purely *civic* and *utilitarian* character of these schools was their most striking feature. Founded and maintained as they were by the autocratic power, they were made to subservise the interests of the State throughout, to the exclusion of all considerations connected with the moral or intellectual development of the individual as such. The object of the schools was purely and simply to train young men of the noble class for the public service in some particular branch of the administration; their pupils were therefore considered from the day of their admission as

* The Moscow School of Navigation continued to exist after 1715 as a kind of preparatory school for the Naval Academy. Both institutions were in 1752 merged in the Naval Corps of Cadets (*Morskoi Shliakhetski Kadetski Korpus*).

having actually entered on their official career, and in fact counted their years of training as part of their service. Every noble was already bound to serve the State in some capacity or other, and Peter's intention was to fit them by means of the schools more completely for the work required of them. Attendance at school, therefore, became an obligation of nobility. It was, however, an obligation greatly resented by the old families, who for the most part feared and disliked Peter's innovations in general; and it was so frequently evaded in practice that in the earlier years of their existence the schools were thrown open to non-nobles (*raznochintsy*), who were, however, confined to the lower classes of the schools, and prepared only for the lower ranks of the public service. Later on the attitude of the nobles towards the schools was somewhat modified, and it became possible to give them a more exclusive and aristocratic character.

The first attempt at State provision of elementary education also dates from the time of Peter. The ability to read and write already existed here and there among the mass of the people, being valued generally for religious purposes. It would appear that the greater part of the schools where this ability was acquired were maintained by *raskolniki* (dissenters), though others also existed in connection with monasteries.

Peter now endeavoured to provide for a more general diffusion of the rudiments of learning by the establishment of two different types of elementary schools. First in order of creation came the so-called "cypher," or arithmetical, schools, which dated from 1714. The subjects taught in these schools were reading, writing, and arithmetic, and the elements of geometry; the teachers were old students of the Naval Academy; and the schools themselves were placed under the control of the Admiralty. Education in them was free,* and open to all classes; it was also made obligatory for children of the lower officials in the public service, between the ages of ten and fifteen, and this obligation was later extended to all classes, though the nobility, for whom the special schools described above existed, soon obtained exemption from it. However, the prejudice against the cypher schools and against school learning generally was so great that from the first they were badly attended, except by the children of the clergy; the *ukaz* of 1719 making instruction compulsory, was met with a passive resistance, and could not be enforced. Of those who did attend we read that many ran away, and had to be punished by imprisonment for so doing. A second type of elementary school, in which the curriculum was less precisely defined, but was, on the whole, more literary than that of the cypher schools, was called into existence by the famous Dukhovnyi Regiment of 1721, which

* The teachers, who were paid by the State, had nevertheless the right to demand a fee of a rouble from every child who received a certificate of having completed the course. No pupil who had not obtained this certificate was, by law, allowed to marry; but it may be questioned whether this latter regulation was ever made effective.

imposed upon the bishops the duty of establishing schools in their respective eparchies. These Eparchial Schools were, of course, under the immediate supervision of the Holy Synod, and were, as far as possible, supplied with teachers from the Academies at Kiev, Moscow, and Novgorod. They supplied a recognised want in educating the children of the clergy who, according to the Russian custom, usually adopted their father's calling. They were, therefore, opened in considerable numbers, as many as forty-six being started during the five years following 1721, and were attended by children of all classes. The most successful of them were after 1730 re-organised with an extended curriculum as "seminaries," or places of secondary education for the children of the clergy, and as such rendered a very important service to Russian education in general. Meantime, the establishment of the Eparchial Schools dealt a heavy blow at the Cypher Schools, by drawing away a large contingent of their best scholars. The latter schools had already (in 1720) been weakened by the release of certain of the trading classes from the obligation to educate their children. Many of them, even during Peter's lifetime, were merged in the Eparchial Schools, and others were closed. After his death the Admiralty made an attempt to transfer the schools to the Holy Synod, which, however, declined to assume responsibility for them on account of the purely secular character of their curriculum. In 1732 the establishment of garrison schools for soldiers' children closed yet another source of the supply of scholars to the Cypher Schools, which gradually languished away, and before the middle of the century had completely disappeared.

Small as were the permanent results of Peter's educational reforms, especially in respect of popular instruction, they nevertheless mark a very important epoch in the history of the Russian school, involving as they did a complete revolution in current ideas of education. His schools were *secular* in character as opposed to those of the seventeenth century, which were *religious*; they were maintained in the interests of the *State*, and not only for the advantage of the *Church*; their curriculum was mainly *technical*, whilst that of all previously existing schools had been chiefly *literary*. In all these respects Peter's educational aims ran directly counter to the prejudices of his time and country. He was all his life engaged in imposing an alien culture on a people who were for the most part insufficiently prepared for it, and averse to receiving it. He had to struggle against the apathy of a society which did not understand his reforms, and against the sullen opposition of a Church which detested them. If this be borne in mind, and if it be also remembered that the means he took to accomplish his end were the rough and ready methods of a man who was himself imperfectly educated, and whose ideas of the uses of intellectual culture were almost exclusively utilitarian, we shall no longer wonder that so little of his work survived him; the wonder will rather be that he was able to accomplish so much

within the space of life allotted to him. When all possible deductions are made, the impulse given to intellectual progress during his reign must be acknowledged to have been far-reaching and profound.

Peter did not live to carry through his most important educational project, that for the foundation of an Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburg. It was the age of the foundation of Academies and learned societies. France had had its Academy of Sciences since the middle of the preceding century; the Royal Academy of Sciences at Berlin had been recently opened. The advantage of such institutions in furthering the progress of science had not escaped the notice of the Tsar, who entered into a correspondence with the celebrated German philosopher and scientist, C. Wolff, upon the subject. The outcome of this correspondence was the elaboration of a scheme for the foundation of an Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburg, with the special object of encouraging the study of languages and other branches of learning and the translation of books into Russian. The scheme was submitted to Leibnitz, who had framed the plan of the Berlin Academy, and was approved of by him. It provided for the institution of some seventeen professorships; and as Peter was only too well aware how little the state of learning in Russia justified the hope that the professors would find audiences to lecture to, he included in his plan the foundation of a gymnasium which should stand in close connection with the Academy, and ultimately act as a feeder to it—an arrangement which was copied by the founders of the Moscow University in the reign of Elizabeth, and may remind us of the dual foundations of school and college so frequent in our own education history. The Academy was, in fact, intended to serve the threefold purpose of a learned society, a teaching university, and a gymnasium, but, as we shall see, it really fulfilled only the first of these three functions.

The plan was completed in all its details during Peter's lifetime, but it was left for his widow and successor to carry it into effect. The Academy was opened by Catherine in 1726, and liberally endowed by her. The professors appointed during the next three or four decades included several men of European celebrity, such as Nicholas and Daniel Bernoulli, Bülfinger, Euler, Müller, and Schloeser. So far as their lectures were concerned, however, their talents must have appeared to them during the early years of the Academy's existence to have been entirely thrown away upon Russian society, for no auditors presented themselves. As the statutes under which they were appointed absolutely required that they should lecture, they satisfied the letter of the law by attending one another's lectures; and the novel expedient was also resorted to of importing students from Germany to form an audience for the professors. The Academy gymnasium started on its career under somewhat better auspices, but its period of success was short, as it soon ceased to be attended by the children of the better classes, and its organisation left

much to be desired. It consisted of two divisions, or schools : the lower, or " German " school, had three classes ; the higher, or " Latin " school, had sometimes two and sometimes three classes. The teachers were Germans, and German was the language of instruction in the lower school, and partly, too, in the higher, though Latin was also used in the latter. The curriculum was a very wide one, but as the pupils were not obliged to go through the whole course, many attended the gymnasium for modern languages only.

During the first forty years of its existence the history of the Academy was marked by many vicissitudes. It was staffed at first chiefly by foreigners ; gradually, however, Russians began to take their place. As time went on, the lack of students was to some extent supplied by former pupils of the gymnasium, who desired to receive higher instruction ; and a certain contingent was from time to time drawn from the Slavo-Greco-Latin Academy and the theological seminaries. But for many years the number of such students remained small, and it was necessary for the Government to offer special attractions in the shape of bursaries in order to keep the auditories of the Academy professors moderately full. Even these attractions were sometimes insufficient ; the number of students never exceeded twenty, and sometimes fell as low as two. There were times when lectures ceased altogether ; this was the case, for example, in 1757, and for some time previous to that year.* Nevertheless, in spite of the fact that the facilities for higher education thus provided were manifestly in advance of the public demand for such instruction, the Academy rendered important service to Russia by acting as the guardian of the interests of culture during the time of disturbance and change which intervened between the death of Peter and the accession of Catherine II. The work of translation, which was one of the objects contemplated by Peter in planning the Academy, went steadily forward. Many of the professors undertook private tuition in the great houses of the capital, and thus helped to spread

* Count D. Tolstoi, whose account of Russian education in the eighteenth century has been drawn upon for many of the details given above, thus sums up his general conclusions as to the teaching side of the Academy's work during the first half century of its existence : " The Academy University was in reality a fiction, and the gymnasium very unsatisfactory. But if both these institutions had had a real, as opposed to a paper, existence, it is manifest that even so a single gymnasium could not provide a sufficient contingent of students for the University, and that a single University was not capable of preparing a sufficient number of scholars for the Academy. It cannot therefore but be admitted that the idea of combining in the Academy of Sciences places of higher and secondary instruction was a mistaken one, and this conclusion is supported by the event." (*Vzgliad na uchebnuu chast' v Rossii v xviii stolietii do 1782 goda*, p. 12.) As early as 1733 Tatistchev, in his " Conversation of two friends on the advantages of learning and schools," pointed out that the Academy could not succeed as a teaching institution without more lower schools to supply it with properly prepared students. See the chapter on Tatistchev in Denkov's " History of Russian Pedagogy," vol. ii. p. 105.

the haven of knowledge among the higher nobility. There is evidence to show that mathematical studies in particular were successfully pursued in the Academy at this time. The conditions were not so favourable to intellectual progress in other directions. The study of the abstract sciences may be prosecuted under the most rigid of autocracies without fear of exciting political or religious susceptibilities. It is otherwise with such subjects as history, philosophy, and, one may say, the "humanities" generally. In the Russia of the early eighteenth century, even more than in the France of the sixteenth, "*les grands sujets étaient défendus.*" Ikonnikov, the historian of the Russian universities, tells us that Müller, one of the Academy professors, was charged with *lèse majesté*, because in a MS. which had been seen by a friend he had stated that Russian princes had been forced to bow beneath the Tatar yoke. It was not, as Ikonnikov reminds us, until the accession of Catherine II. had inaugurated a more enlightened era that historical writing became really possible in Russia.

The failure of the Academy to attract students to its lecture halls must not be taken as a sufficient criterion of the interest taken by Russians generally in education in the middle of the eighteenth century. The desire for some kind of education was clearly growing among the upper classes of the laity, though a feeling of social exclusiveness prevented them from making use of institutions which, like the Academy and the gymnasium attached to it, were open to non-nobles. Other institutions, however, which afforded what would now be called a secondary education, were more in favour. The special State schools, such as the Naval Academy and the *Shliakhetnyi Kadetski Korpus* (founded 1731), which offered special privileges, provided for the education of a large number of future State officials. The Slavo-Greco-Latin Academy, though intended primarily for the education of the clergy, became very popular at this time with the *noblesse* of Great Russia; it numbered as many as 460 pupils at one time on its books. The Kiev Academy was equally well patronised by the nobles of Little Russia. The ecclesiastical seminaries which began to be definitely organised in 1737, with a curriculum modelled on that of the Kiev Academy, threw open their doors at first to the children of laity and clergy alike; in 1738 there were seventeen of these seminaries, with 2,589 pupils, and in 1764 twenty-six, with 6,000 pupils. Many, however, preferred a more modern curriculum to the antiquated scholasticism in vogue at the academies and the seminaries formed upon their model. A new interest in foreign countries, and in their manners, learning, and literature, was springing up, and instruction in foreign languages was consequently much sought after. It became common for the richer nobles either to send their children abroad, or to have them educated privately by foreign tutors, or to place them in private boarding schools, which began in the time of Elizabeth to spring up in considerable numbers, and, in the two capitals, at any rate, were almost without exception kept by foreigners. In Moscow, where a large proportion of the nobility still resided, the number

of foreign teachers employed in schools or private houses was very large. They were naturally not the very *élite*, either in respect of intellect, morals, or breeding, of the nations to which they belonged; and the Government began to view with alarm the tendency to entrust the education of boys and girls belonging to the best Russian families to their care.* Apart from the boarding schools kept by foreigners, there also existed a considerable number of day schools in the hands of native Russians, in which foreign languages were not taught, and the instruction was for the most part of a very elementary kind. No sort of check was placed by the Government at this period upon the opening either of day or boarding schools; anybody might keep a school of either kind, and anybody might be employed to teach in such schools; and when opened, they were not subject to inspection of any kind.

The growing concern of the Government as to the influence of foreign teachers led directly to the establishment of the Moscow University in 1755. By this step it was hoped not only to supply to some extent the demand for better education, which was showing itself among the higher classes, but also to train up gradually a sufficient number of Russian teachers to satisfy all the educational needs of the Empire. The conception of such a university was due in the first place to Lomonossov, who is, perhaps, best known as the father of Russian literature, but was also a man of such

* The contemporary criticisms of Tatistchev (as given by Denkov, *loc. cit.*) upon some of the educational institutions mentioned above are full of interest. He notes the following defects in the curriculum of the Corps of Cadets: (1) The small attention paid to religious teaching, (2) the total omission of natural and civil law, and (3) the elementary character of the instruction given in arithmetic, geometry, fortification and other necessary sciences. In respect to other schools he blames the inadequate way in which modern languages are taught, since without these no progress can be made in mathematical science. He has a very poor opinion of the Moscow Academy, because of its old-fashioned curriculum. But his strongest condemnation is reserved for the teachers employed in private families. "Many," he says, "for lack of skill engage perfectly incapable teachers; and it sometimes happens that cooks, lackeys, or illiterate persons are taken as teachers of French and German, and any sort of worthless vagabonds are entrusted with the teaching of morals or politics, and thus harm instead of good results from the money expended." A good notion of the educational "methods" employed by these foreign teachers may be gained from the earlier chapters of the *Memoirs of A. T. Bolotov* (*Zapiski Andreia Timotheevicha Bolotova, 1738-1794. S.P.B., 1871*). See pages 64-69 for the proceedings of his German tutor, and pages 163-4 for the equally absurd methods of his French teacher. Pages 104-110 describe his life in Ferré's pension, then (1749) reputed the best in St. Petersburg. Ferré was also a teacher at the Corps of Cadets. Bolotov seems to have learnt French, geography, and drawing whilst with him. As to history, he says that it was not customary to teach it in that pension, and he goes on to observe that this was probably better than to study it by the methods common in boarding schools at the time he wrote (1789), which consisted, according to his account, in making the pupils learn the historical matter by heart in the French language, without understanding what they were learning. As a rule, no instruction in the Russian language was given in these schools, and the text-books used in all subjects were in French. The habit of using French as the language of instruction was doubtless to some extent justified at a time when Russian had been little cultivated for literary purposes.

encyclopedic learning that he was himself called by Pushkin "our first university." The realisation of the project was the work of the enlightened and cultured Ivan Shuvalov, whose influence with the Empress was then at its zenith. Apart from the considerations already mentioned, the choice of Moscow as the site of the new university is stated to have been dictated by its position in the very centre of the Empire, and by the fact that nearly everyone likely to wish to study there would have relations or friends in Moscow, which would make it easier for him to maintain himself during his university course. The new university consisted of three faculties: law, medicine, and philosophy, of which the last-named, providing instruction in philosophy (logic, ethics, and metaphysics), with rhetoric and history, formed a kind of preparatory school through which students in the other two faculties had to pass. The faculty of law included natural and national law, Russian jurisprudence, and politics; the faculty of medicine provided for chemistry, natural history, and anatomy. A later proposal to add a faculty of theology fell through. The constitution of the university was a somewhat remarkable mixture of the autonomous and autocratic elements. On the one hand, in view of the necessity of making the university as attractive as possible to a society only imperfectly alive to the advantages of higher learning, the university was placed outside the control of the ordinary police, and subordinated directly to the Senate; it had its own privileged court, which exercised jurisdiction over professors and students alike. On the other hand, in view of the fact that the majority of the professors were necessarily foreigners, more or less ignorant of the Russian language and customs, the financial and general administration of the university was entrusted to officers appointed *ad hoc* by the Government, and a strict supervision was maintained in the interests of the State over the actual instruction. In addition to their university courses proper, the professors were bound to deliver a certain number of public lectures. The public, however, do not seem to have availed themselves largely of this provision for their benefit, for the sufficient reason that the lectures were delivered in Latin, which was also the language employed by most of the professors in their university teaching.*

In order to ensure a sufficient supply of properly prepared students, the precedent set at St. Petersburg by the foundation of a gymnasium to serve as a preparatory school to the Academy was followed in connection with the new university; but, in deference to the social prejudices of the nobles, two gymnasia were founded at Moscow, one reserved for the nobility, and the other open to *raznochintzy*. The curricula of both gymnasia assigned an important

* It was not till 1768 that professors of Russian birth were enjoined to use the Russian language in their lectures. Before this time the use of Russian or Latin had been optional with all the professors. Minutes of University proceedings, according to Count D. Tolstoi, were kept until 1765 in French, after that year in Latin.

place to modern languages, but in other details they differed considerably from each other, prominence being given in that for nobles to military sciences, while in the corresponding institution for non-nobles arts and technical knowledge took their place. It was Shuvalov's special aim to foster the study of modern languages, as the means by which European culture might be transplanted to Russian soil. Such subjects as history and geography were taught in French or German according to the nationality of the teachers, who as a rule knew no Russian.

A similar dual gymnasium was established three years later at Kazan. These foundations of Shuvalov were intended to prepare the way for a much more ambitious scheme, which would have anticipated in many respects the educational reforms of Alexander I., but was destined never to be carried out in its entirety. Shuvalov proposed to create two more universities, one at St. Petersburg and another at Baturin: in the more important towns there were to be gymnasia which should prepare for the Corps of Cadets or the university; in the smaller towns a kind of preparatory schools to the gymnasia were to be established. The scheme was framed with the idea of bringing State education within the reach of every child belonging to the *noblesse*. Any attempt to carry the project into effect was prevented by the death of Elizabeth: but it is in any case probable, as Shuvalov was warned by some of his expert advisers, the members of the Academy, that the time was not yet ripe for an enterprise of such wide scope. Meantime, while the gymnasium at Moscow, under the wise direction of Professor Schaden, its headmaster for 25 years, well fulfilled the expectations of its founders, the success of the experiment at Kazan, owing largely to an unfortunate choice of teachers, was scarcely such as to encourage its extension to other towns.* The desire of the Government to make these schools popular led them to make a liberal use of the system of grants or bursaries to individual scholars attending the gymnasia, and it is stated that the greater number of these, both at Moscow and Kazan, were in receipt of such assistance.

The same general line of policy was followed with regard to the university, which was made the avenue to noble rank: every student, whatever his birth, was presented on admission into the university with a sword, received the personal nobility which accompanied admission into the *chin*, and was assured an exceptionally privileged position on his later entry into the service of the State: meantime he was allowed to count the period spent at the university as actual years of service. Provision was made for the free instruction of a considerable number of students, who were also maintained at free quarters during their residence at the university. Nevertheless, the number of students seeking

* Derzhavin, who was amongst the first fourteen pupils entered at the Kazan Gymnasium, has left us a very poor account of the methods of instruction in use. See his words quoted by Count D. Tolstoj on pages 45 and 46 of the "View of Education in the Eighteenth Century."

higher instruction was not large. Once more, as had already been the case with the educational reforms of Peter the Great, the Government had legislated in advance of the conscious requirements of the public. The whole organisation of the Moscow University, with the schools preparatory to it, bears the impress not of an institution called into existence by a natural and spontaneous demand from below, but of one imposed from above by a Government which needed a larger number of educated persons for the purposes of civil administration, and was also impressed with the manifest advantages which educated peoples possessed over those in a backward state of culture.

Two years after the foundation of the University of Moscow, an attempt was made to bring the teaching in private schools under Government control, by the Imperial *ukaz* of the 29th April, 1757, which ordered that all foreigners wishing to teach young persons should prove their fitness for the work by submitting themselves to examination in St. Petersburg, at the Academy of Sciences, and in Moscow, at the university. In the absence, however, of a system of State control over the private schools themselves, this measure was found ineffective in practice.

III.—REIGNS OF CATHERINE II. AND PAUL (1762–1801).

So matters stood at the accession of Catherine II. The reign of this extraordinary woman marks an epoch in the history of Russian education, not so much, however, because of the reforms she actually accomplished, though these were considerable, as because of the new spirit which she sought to infuse into Russian teaching. With the single exception of Peter the Great, whose work in so many directions she continued and carried towards completion, no monarch so gifted and versatile as Catherine has ever sat upon the Imperial throne of Russia. German by origin, but French in all her intellectual sympathies; the disciple of the *Encyclopédistes*, and the correspondent of Diderot, Grimm, and Voltaire; literary dilettante, and sagacious woman of affairs; high-priestess of autocracy in virtue of her position, yet holding with apparent conviction ideas of individual liberty which were at the very moment sweeping France irresistibly into the vortex of revolution, Catherine is one of the most striking, as well as one of the most representative, personalities of the eighteenth century; morally and intellectually, she was an epitome of the contradictions of her time.

One of the strongest indications of the versatility of her genius is the fact that, though a foreigner by birth, she was able to place herself so closely *en rapport* with all the diverse influences of Russian life that her personality appears to dominate the whole history of her reign. So far as Russia is concerned, the latter half of the eighteenth century is emphatically the age of Catherine the Great.

In her reign, the movement towards the assimilation of Western thought and science which had received so powerful an impulse

through the reforms of Peter the Great, reached its culminating point, and Russia became finally recognised in the intellectual as well as the political sense as a member of the family of European nations. It is a fact of profound significance in the intellectual history of Russia that this assimilating process should have taken place at the precise moment when the influence of French literature and philosophy on the intellectual life of Europe was at its zenith. France was then the intellectual centre of continental Europe. French thought dominated the eighteenth century as the thought of Germany dominated the first half of the nineteenth. Nowhere was the intellectual influence of France more strongly felt than in those countries of Northern Europe whose own national culture was comparatively late in developing. There was a moment in the eighteenth century when French even seemed likely to take its place side by side with the national tongues of Northern Europe as a kind of international language of literature and science. It will be remembered that Frederick the Great wrote only in French; that the Berlin Academy published its transactions in French; that until the time of Holberg, French drama monopolised the Copenhagen stage to the exclusion of Danish. It was inevitable from the very moment that Russia turned her thoughts towards European science, that she should fall even more completely under the spell of France than western countries of more ancient culture had done. The disposition to go past her German teachers to what seemed to be the fountain head of European thought at the time is traceable in Russia earlier than the reign of Catherine—we need only refer here to the correspondence of Ivan Shuvalov with Voltaire. But it was not until the reign of Catherine that this movement became general in Russian society. French civilisation, French manners, French philosophy now found a second home on the banks of the Neva; French fashions in literature were copied by Russian writers; French became the language of the Court and of the educated nobility. It is important to realise, however, that the influence of French ideas affected as yet only the upper strata of Russian society, and that even within this limited circle their effect was more superficial than elsewhere. The very society which so quickly appreciated the outward grace and beauty of French literature and so readily imitated the brilliancy and polish of the intellectual culture of which that literature was the expression, remained comparatively insensible to the deeper currents of French thought, or only vaguely apprehended their profound social significance. Hence the whole of the intellectual movement which resulted in Russia from the influence of French literature and philosophy leaves a certain impression of artificiality and lack of depth, and it is still one of the disputed questions of Russian history whether the Gallicising influences of the eighteenth century are to be regarded as incidents in a natural organic process of intellectual growth, or as mere attempts to engraft an alien culture upon Russian life.

The collision of French ideas, however superficially apprehended, with Russian traditions inevitably called forth a national reaction.

If the influence of French thought made for enlightenment on the one hand, it tended also to shake old habits and beliefs on the other. The conservative instincts of Russian society became alarmed at the growth of foreign influence and the consequent weakening of national traditions. The satirical writings of the time abound in denunciations of foreign fashions in speech and manners, in protests against the rationalising and destructive spirit of French literature, and in particular against the influence of foreign tutors in the training of Russian youth.

It is characteristic of the peculiar position which Catherine occupies in Russian history that in a sense she stands as the representative both of the influence of French philosophy and of the national reaction against it. In the earlier years of her reign she was much under the influence of Voltaire and the French *encyclopédistes*, and her policy, both in education and in other matters of internal administration, bears evident traces of the ideas of this school of thinkers; but as years went by, and she saw more clearly the inapplicability of the French social philosophy to the conditions of a people on an entirely different plane of development, her attitude towards French thought changed to one of criticism and disapproval. The events of the French Revolution finally completed this process of change and inaugurated a period of reaction in her policy, which had unfortunate results for the educational progress of Russia.

Catherine was in many respects eminently fitted by her personal attainments to carry out a great work of educational reform. She was well-read both in ancient and modern classics, was versed in the writings of the great jurists of the time, such as Montesquieu, Blackstone, and Beccaria, and had devoted much thought to the subject of education. Her own pedagogical views were formed chiefly under the influence of Montaigne; but she was familiar with the works of Rousseau, Basedow, and others, and she had also a high, though by no means an un-critical, regard for Locke. Her Instructions to Prince Nicholas Saltykov, on his appointment as tutor to the young Grand Dukes in 1784, contain numerous passages borrowed or abridged from the latter author's "Thoughts on Education."*

It was inevitable that a ruler with intellectual tastes such as those we have indicated should turn her thoughts seriously towards the state of public instruction in Russia, and that she should approach the question in a broad philosophic spirit, which stands in marked contrast with the purely practical aims of the great Tsar, her predecessor in the work of educational reform. Whereas Peter had contented himself with producing a new type of official, Catherine

* See the synopsis of parallel passages printed as an appendix to Count D. Tolstói's "View of Education in Russia in the Eighteenth-Century," pages 91-100. Count Tolstói notes that all the borrowings from Locke have reference to physical and moral training. Besides these Instructions, which form in themselves a pedagogical document of some importance, Catherine also prepared several school books. A careful critical estimate of her educational writings is contained in Mr. Lavrovski's book published at Kharkov in 1853, "*O Pedagogicheskom Znachenií Sochinení Ekateriny Velikoi.*"

aimed at nothing less than the "creation of a new race of men." Whilst Peter had used the school as a means of supplying the immediate necessities of the moment, Catherine looked upon education as an instrument for moulding the future. Peter's aims were narrowly material and utilitarian, and directed solely to the advantage of the State: Catherine, on the other hand, under the influence of the enlightened humanitarian ideals of the eighteenth century, placed the object of education in the development of the child himself. In the secularity of her ideals Catherine stood on common ground with the Tsar-Reformer; but in her conception of public education as a moral as well as an intellectual concern, she not only went far beyond the views of Peter, but she showed herself in advance of all the ideas of education current in her time in Russia. "Her main intention," says Betski, her principal adviser and coadjutor in educational matters, "was not merely to further the progress of arts and of learning among the people, but also to implant good moral principles in their hearts." Hitherto the school had been looked upon purely as a place for imparting knowledge: the discipline of character and the teaching of the rules of conduct were assumed to be the exclusive business of the Church and the home. Catherine distrusted the influence of the home as tending to perpetuate traditions which conflicted with her plans for the regeneration of society; and she exalted in a corresponding degree the function of the school as a place of training, not only or chiefly of the intellect, but of the inward disposition and outward conduct as well. In so doing she realised, as none of her predecessors had done, the ideal of education as a harmonious development of the intellectual and bodily powers; and if her conception of the kind of development which should be aimed at was somewhat superficial and external, if it resulted at its best in the production of well-bred, agreeable, and intelligent men and women of the world, her service to Russian education is none the less very great. Wider ideas of the scope and function of education began to prevail from Catherine's time onward; and in that sense, if in no other, her reign deserves to rank as epoch-making in the history of Russian education.

Any estimate of the services rendered by Catherine to Russian education is, however, subject to one important deduction. A certain inconsistency is perhaps always inherent in the practice of enlightened despotism; and in Catherine's case this inconsistency revealed itself in a jealousy of independent social initiative in the work of education which suited ill with her own efforts on behalf of popular enlightenment. This attitude of mind became more pronounced after her early enthusiasm for liberal ideas had begun to wane; and we shall see to what lengths it led her in her closing years when we come to consider the independent educational movement which was started by the circle of Novikov and Schwartz.

Perhaps her most secure title to fame from a pedagogical point of view rests on the fact that she was the author of a bold and comprehensive scheme of education for girls. It was not the

least remarkable of the achievements of Catherine that she was able to carry through such a scheme in Russia at a time when even in the Western countries of Europe (apart from isolated experiments, such as that of Madame de Maintenon at St. Cyr), female education had received only the most rudimentary development. The influence of the semi-Oriental views of woman, which were universally prevalent in Russia during the middle ages, lasted long after such outward expressions of them as the use of the veil and seclusion within the *terem* had disappeared. Of girls' schools, properly so-called, there were practically none before Catherine's time. "Why should a girl be taught to read and write?" says a character in one of Catherine's own comedies; "Book-learning is of no use to a girl. The less a girl knows the less rubbish she talks."* Girls received such education as was thought good for them either at home or in convents. The private boarding schools for girls which had of late sprung up in the capitals were used for the most part by foreigners resident in Russia, and in any case were not deserving of much confidence. Catherine distrusted the methods of the boarding schools as much as she did the traditions of Russian home education. On the other hand, if she was to realise in any degree her dream of creating a new race of men and women, it was clear that the first step was to educate wisely the future mothers of the race.† She, therefore, established a girls' school at Smolny Monastery, which was taught and conducted on her own principles. The regulations on the basis of which this school was organised were drawn up by Betski, and received Imperial sanction on the 12th March, 1764. In its final form the school consisted of two departments, one for girls belonging to the noble class, the other for the daughters of the bourgeoisie. The curriculum was different in the two departments. In that for the daughters of nobles it was as follows:—In the first class (ages 6 to 9) were taught Russian and foreign languages, arithmetic, drawing, dancing, music and needlework; in the second class (ages 9 to 12) geography and history were added; and in the third (ages 12 to 15) a literary course, consisting of the reading of historical and other books of an improving kind, was taken, together with the elements of architecture and heraldry. In the fourth and highest class, consisting of girls from 15 to 18, the subjects already studied were revised, and instruction was given in law, the rules of deportment and politeness, good behaviour and conduct. In the department for burghers' daughters, the curriculum in general subjects

* O Vremia, Act III., Scene 3, p. 24 of Pypin's edition (*Chudikhina loquitur*).

† A letter written by Catherine to Voltaire in 1772 contains a concise expression of her ideas as to the aims of girls' education: "I know not whether this battalion of young girls, as you call it, will produce Amazons: but we are very far from wishing to make nuns of them; on the contrary, we train them so that they shall be the joy of the families into which they enter; we want them to be neither prudes nor coquettes, but amiable girls who will be able to train their own children aright and guide the affairs of a household." Quoted by Count D. Tolstoi ("View of Education in the Eighteenth Century," p. 50), from *Sbornik Russkago Istoricheskago Obshchestva*, Tom 13. p. 226.

followed generally the same lines, but instead of the accomplishments needed for polite society, prominence was given to subjects connected with household management and domestic economy. Up to 1783 most of the instruction was given in French or some other foreign language, but in that year the Schools Commission called attention to the fact, with the result that Russian was introduced as the language of instruction.

Catherine put her educational ideas into practice also in the *Shliakhetnyi Corpus* (a cadet school for the sons of gentlemen), of which Betski himself was placed in charge, and also in the gymnasia connected with the Academy. Other special schools were also reorganised during this reign, e.g., the Corps of Pages in 1785, and the Artillery and Engineering School about the same time. A School of Mines was founded in 1774. Special interest attaches to the Moscow *Blagorodnyi Pansion*, a secondary boarding school founded in 1778 in close connection with the Moscow University. This school, which owed much of its fame and success to the devoted efforts of A. A. Prokopovich-Antonski, its inspector from 1791 onwards, played an important part in the education of the Russian nobility towards the close of the eighteenth century. Among its pupils may be mentioned the poet Zhukovski.

All kinds of schools, however, suffered considerably from the lack of good teachers, a difficulty which, as we shall see, was to hamper all-efforts for the improvement of Russian education for many years to come.

The pedagogical experiments above described were, of course, conducted on a small scale, and though they undoubtedly exercised an important educative influence upon Russian society, and laid the foundation for further developments in the future, their immediate results were comparatively insignificant. Catherine's educational work was, however, by no means confined to these experiments. She projected a scheme of national education, which, however partially it was carried out, was conceived in a broad humanistic spirit, and, like her efforts for the education of girls, served as a foundation upon which her successors were able to build up a more efficient system.

Her mind was occupied with this subject as early as 1770, when she proposed to introduce a compulsory system of education for the whole male population, the course of instruction to last eight months. Her first actual attempt to deal with the question dates from 1775, in which year was issued the decree establishing in each Government the so-called *prikazy obshchestvennago prizrenia* (Boards of public assistance), and imposing upon them the duty, amongst other things, of founding and maintaining schools in all towns and the more populous villages. Little practical result followed this measure; the grant placed at the disposal of each *prikaz* for all purposes amounted to only 15,000 roubles, and even had the question of finance presented no obstacle to the establishment of schools, the difficulty of obtaining a proper supply of teachers must have proved insuperable.

There the matter rested for several years. Meantime the Empress was devoting much attention to the subject, as is evident from her correspondence with Grimm, who drew up a plan of studies at her request, and whom she invited in 1777 to undertake the supervision of education throughout the Empire. He refused, however, on the score of ignorance of the language. Finally, on the advice of Joseph II. of Austria, with whom Catherine discussed the subject on the occasion of their meeting in 1780 at Mohilev, she decided to adopt the Austrian system of primary education as recently organised by Felbiger. The essential features of this system were the establishment of two grades of schools, called respectively the Trivialschule and the Hauptschule; with the provision that all the teachers of these schools should have previously been trained in a Normal-schule, and the obligation to teach according to certain prescribed books. Felbiger had been assisted in Hungary by Jankovicz de Mirievo, an Austrian subject of Servian origin, who was a graduate in law and economic science of the University of Vienna. Joseph suggested that Jankovicz, as being an Orthodox Catholic with a knowledge of Russian, and having special experience in educational organisation, would be capable of rendering valuable assistance to Catherine in working out her educational plans.

He was accordingly invited to Russia, and arrived there in 1782. The same year a "Commission for the Establishment of Schools" was appointed, with Count Zavadovski at its head and Jankovicz as one of its members. The duties assigned to the Commission included not only the provision of schools, but the training of teachers and the preparation of suitable educational books. The result of its labours was the Statute (*Ustav*) of 1786, relating to National Schools. By this enactment two grades of schools were called into being, viz., *major (glavnyia)* schools in the chief towns of provinces; and *minor (malyia)* schools in district towns and in villages. The major schools consisted of four classes, the course in each occupying a year, except in the highest class, where the course lasted two years. The minor schools in district towns had two classes, those in villages only one. The curriculum was based on the concentric system, that is to say, it was intended to differ only in scope as between the two grades of schools. In the lowest class of the minor school the curriculum included only the three R's, with religion and the elements of grammar; in the highest class of the major school it extended to such subjects as geometry, architecture, mechanics, and physics. Latin and Greek were nowhere taught, though provided for by the Statute. The supreme control of this organisation was vested in the Schools Commission itself; subject thereto, the actual management was in the hands of the *prikaz*, of which the governor of the province was president. The oversight of all educational details was entrusted to an official bearing the title of Director of National (or Primary) Schools, who had a seat on the *prikaz*. There was, however, great difficulty in securing a proper supply of teachers for the new schools. One of the essential features of the Austrian system was the establishment in

each province of a normal school supplying all the schools of the province with trained teachers. This was not practicable in Russia ; and the single training college established at St. Petersburg was quite inadequate to supply the needs even of the major schools throughout the Empire. The result was that the Russian schools had in many cases to supply vacancies in the staff from among their own pupils, a certain number of teachers being also obtained from the ecclesiastical seminaries. Nevertheless, the supply of teachers remained inadequate, in point both of quantity and quality, throughout the whole of Catherine's reign. Many of those who entered the profession found themselves so badly and irregularly paid that they left the schools for other employment on the earliest opportunity. The financial position of the schools themselves was most precarious. Practically no funds were provided by the State, and the schools had to be maintained entirely by local contributions. When these failed, they were closed ; this happened, for example, in the case of all the schools in the Government of Tambov. During the reign of Catherine 223 schools in all were opened, and some of those in the larger towns appear to have been fairly well attended, though the course of the major schools proved to be considerably in advance of popular requirements. But the hope of the Government that they would provide education for all classes of society was not destined to be fulfilled. The gentry held aloof from them, preferring to educate their children either in schools confined to the sons of the nobility, or by private tuition. The pupils of the State schools were mainly drawn from the trading classes, or were children of soldiers. Between the years 1782 and 1800 some 176,730 scholars, of whom 7 per cent. (12,595) only were girls, are stated to have passed through these schools.

In attempting to account for the small measure of success which attended the establishment of the Catherinian schools, Count D. Tolstoi, whose monograph on these schools remains the chief source of information on the subject which is available to the ordinary student, draws a detailed comparison between the system of public instruction in the forms which it assumed in Russia and Austria respectively. This comparison is particularly instructive as showing how much more unfavourable to the spread of education the social and economic conditions were in the former country than in the latter. The organisation was, in its general outlines, the same in both countries ; but the points in which the Russian system deviated from its model indicate in every instance a comparative poverty of material and intellectual resources which was, of course, inevitable in the stage of historic development which Russia had then reached, but which placed her at a great disadvantage in comparison with Austria for undertaking any great forward movement in education. The points of inferiority noted by Count Tolstoi in the Russian system are (1) the inadequacy of the provision made for the training of teachers ; (2) the necessity of entrusting the supervision of education to the organs of general administration (*i.e.*, to the governors, acting with the *prikazy*), whereas in Austria

this work was undertaken by a special *Unterrichtskommission* in each province; (3) the defective intellectual qualifications of the persons to whom the local oversight of the Russian schools was entrusted; (4) the fact that the Russian clergy took no part in the work of popular education, whereas in Austria the whole administration was in the hands of the clergy, who supplied, in fact, most of the educational initiative; (5) the *de facto* limitation of educational facilities to the towns in Russia; (6) the lack of an organising genius such as Felbiger had shown himself to be in Austria (Jankovicz in Russia confined himself mainly to the preparation of text-books); (7), finally, and this is most important, since it accounts for the defective provision both of training colleges and schools, and also for the inadequate supply of teachers—the lack of sufficient financial resources. Tolstoi points out that Austria was in an exceptionally fortunate position in this last respect, inasmuch as the establishment of her school system coincided with the suppression of the Order of Jesuits, whose property was devoted to educational purposes.

The existing institutions of higher education—the University of Moscow, the Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburg, and the theological Academies—continued to make progress during Catherine's reign. Under the fostering care of the learned Metropolitan Platon, the Slavo-Græco-Latin Academy at Moscow entered on a period of enhanced educational usefulness, its curriculum being modernised and extended. The Russian Academy was founded in 1783, with the special object of guarding the purity and developing the resources of the Russian language. The quickened intellectual interest which was characteristic of the time affected University studies especially. The Moscow University grew in influence and efficiency, approximating more and more to the type of University common in Germany. The panegyrist of Catherine, writing in 1801, thus sums up the work of the University during her reign: *—

"The number of its youthful alumni increased with every year, and the benefits conferred by this temple of learning kept pace with the increase in numbers. And if we now see many worthy magistrates in the capitals and in the most distant provinces; if the official style no longer invariably repels us by its barbarism; if the necessary rules of logic and language are not seldom observed in the decisions of the courts; if the Government can always find a sufficient number of young men fitted to be its instruments and to turn their knowledge to the advantage of all departments of the public service; the State owes this benefit to the University of Moscow, and the Moscow University owes its glory to Catherine and the spirit of her reign."

Learned societies also began to be founded in connection with the University. From 1767 onward the Russian language came more and more into use as the language of instruction.† The proportion of Russian professors constantly increased. Many of

* Karamzin, "Istoricheskoe pohvalnoe slovo Ekaterii 6 M." Works, ed. Smirdin, I. 367, 368.

† "In the memorable year 1767, Catherine II. relieved the science of Moscow from the yoke of the Latin tongue, overthrew the learned prejudice of the time which hindered the extension of learning in our fatherland, and expressed to Kheraskov her wish that Russian should be used in teaching at the Moscow University" (Istoricheskaia zapiska, published in 1855 on the

these had received their training in foreign universities, and through them the influence of the contemporary thought of Western Europe was brought to bear strongly on the minds of the younger generation of Russian students. An instance of this, which will be especially interesting to British readers, is the influence which the Glasgow school of thinkers (Blackstone, Hume, Ferguson, Adam Smith) exerted through the medium of Tretiakov and Desnitski, lecturers at the University of Moscow who had been sent by Shuvalov to study at Glasgow. This practice of sending young men to be educated at foreign universities at the expense of the State came greatly into vogue during this period. Among the German universities those of Leipzig and Göttingen were generally selected for this purpose. Both were then at the very height of their fame; Leipzig was the richer in traditions of learning, but Göttingen, with its cosmopolitan character, its atmosphere of refined culture, and its devotion to the modern sciences, possessed a special attraction for the Russian youth. Apart from these State-endowed travelling studentships, it became more and more common for young Russians of the higher class to resort to foreign universities to complete their education. Radistchev, for example, received his university education at Leipzig. The Princess Dashkov, the friend of Catherine, and President of the Academy of Sciences, sent her son to take his degree at Edinburgh. Professor Morfill states that many Russians were to be found at this time at the University of Oxford; and we are told by Rambaud, the French historian of Russia, that even in the reign of Elizabeth, the number of Russian students at Paris was sufficiently great to make it worth while to build an Orthodox chapel, under the protection of the Russian Ambassador. At Strassburg, during the years 1785–87, there were as many as forty-four students of Russian nationality; and when under the régime of Catherine's successor it was decided to recall to their native country all Russians who were studying at foreign universities, it was found that the number of such at Jena was sixty-five, and at Leipzig thirty-six. The attraction which Western universities exercised upon young Russians of position had an important indirect influence upon the later history of Russian education. All the trusted advisers of Alexander I. during the early years of his reign were men who had come in this or other ways under the influence of Western culture and learning, and this fact, as we shall see, went far to determine the particular mould in which the educational reforms of Alexander were cast.

It was not university teaching only that young Russians sought abroad. It was also usual for parents to send their children to be educated in foreign schools. But the majority of Russian children of the upper class received their instruction in private boarding

occasion of the centenary of the Moscow University). Catherine's care for the interests of the Russian language, while undoubtedly creditable to her in view of her foreign birth and cosmopolitan education, must be understood in connexion with the wave of nationalism and reaction against foreign influences by which she was borne to power.

schools, kept, as a rule, by foreigners (that is, Frenchmen or Germans), who used their native language as the medium of instruction. These schools differed much in quality, but were usually very poor. Both Von Wizin and Karamzin attended the *pension* of Professor Schaden in Moscow, which must have been one of the best of its kind. (Professor Schaden was the first Director of the Gymnasium attached to the Moscow University.) In St. Petersburg, however, the aristocratic schools provided by the State, such as the military and naval schools, continued to attract a large number of pupils, because of the special training they afforded for the public service; and it would appear that in the eighties, at any rate, only a minority of the pupils in the twenty-six boarding schools of St. Petersburg were of Russian parentage. The most unsatisfactory feature of Russian education was the tendency to employ foreign private tutors, which prevailed especially in the provinces. The literature of the time (including some of Catherine's own plays)* abounds in indications of the wretchedly inefficient character of the instruction imparted by these men, who were recruited from the most diverse professions and callings, and were generally without any special qualifications for their work, apart from their knowledge of their native languages. The German tutor in Von Wizin's *Nedorost* ("The Minor") was an ex-coachman; the French tutor in Pushkin's "Captain's Daughter" had been a hairdresser in France and a soldier in Prussia; the one described in the same author's "*Dubrovski*" had been brought up to the confectionery business. If we are to accept Pushkin's account of the proceedings of the tutor in the former novel as true to historic fact, the value of the training such men were qualified to give must have been, both intellectually and morally, much worse than none.

The Government was not blind to the disadvantage and danger of this state of things. Already, in 1757, it had made an attempt to weed out undesirable teachers by the imposition of an intellectual test, but without much success. The measures taken by Catherine in 1784 to attain the same end were much more drastic and effectual. In that year the Schools Commission, which had been established two years earlier, was directed to obtain information concerning all private schools and boarding houses, to inspect them thoroughly, and to subject their keepers and teachers to a searching examination. Russian and foreign schools were alike affected by this regulation, and the latter, as it happened, survived the test better than the former. All the Russian schools were closed, their pupils being advised, and in some cases compelled, to enter the newly-established State schools. Of the foreign schools one only was closed, but the rest were thoroughly overhauled, and placed for the future under the general control of the Schools Commission and the immediate supervision of the Director of National Schools. By the provisions of the Ordinance (*nakaz*) of 1784, which regulated

* See for example the portrait of the French tutor in "Mrs. Biestnikov and Family," Sc. 15 (p. 206 of Pypin's edition).

all matters relating to private schools, it was made the duty of the latter official to supervise not only the instruction given in such schools, but their premises and general administration; the methods of instruction adopted were to be the same as those in use in the State schools. Russian must be taught as an obligatory subject, and every half year a public examination of the pupils must take place in the presence of the Director of National Schools, who had to present a yearly report to the *prikaz* on the state of the schools under his supervision. The right to permit the opening of private boarding schools was reserved to the Schools Commission,* who would require to be satisfied as to the curriculum, the fees, and the qualifications of the proposed teacher. The *nakaz* of 1784 is important as being the first of a series of measures by which a rigid system of State control was ultimately established over the private schools of Russia, and their methods of teaching and curricula approximated to those of the State schools. In causing the closure of all the inferior schools kept by native Russians, who found it difficult to satisfy the statutory conditions imposed on the keepers of private schools, and in preventing the existence "on a legal basis" of similar schools in future, the legislation of 1784 probably did much to retard the development of Russian education upon native lines. We are told, however, by the official narrative from which most of these details are taken,† that "these schools, finding support in the ignorant mass of the population, continued to exist in secret, evading all supervision, and rendering futile all measures undertaken against them."

The effect of the *nakaz* of 1784 upon the foreign schools and boarding-houses was not so overwhelming, as these schools were able to count on a strong feeling in their favour among the richer classes of society, and moreover supplied a demand which was not met by the State schools. To quote again from the same official account, "these schools received more consideration, notwithstanding their defects, because they were the only places where what was then considered to be higher education could be obtained; their pupils learnt French, dancing, music and polite manners, which were regarded as being in themselves a perfectly sufficient mark of education. This view of education which obtained in the highest ranks of society and gradually passed over to the more well-to-do middle classes, explains why in our foreign boarding schools a knowledge of languages and external polish of manner long held the foremost place, while the moral and religious training of the pupils, the development of their intellectual powers, the awakening and strengthening of patriotic sentiments of devotion to the throne and love for the fatherland were neglected. Need we wonder after this, that young Russians, trained in such schools, frequently left them denationalised both in ideas and sentiments,

* This right was in 1786 transferred to the *prikaz* in each government.

† *O polozhenii nashikh chastnykh uchebnykh zvedenii*, pp 5, 6.

and acquired an unreasoning contempt for everything Russian? " To this we need only add that a certain cosmopolitanism of sentiment was a characteristic note of the period, and that this cosmopolitanism was at least as much a cause as an effect of the influence of the foreign schools on Russian society.

The latter half of the reign of Catherine witnessed the rise of an educational movement which is historically noteworthy as having been the result neither of State initiative nor of private enterprise, but of the action of purely social and philanthropic motives. This was the movement started by Novikov, Schwartz, and the Moscow Masons. Novikov was a man of great business talent and organising capacity, who devoted the best years of his life to the work of spreading enlightenment among the Russian people. Beginning his career as a journalist and editor of periodical magazines, he early became connected with the Freemasons, who had then obtained a strong footing in Russia, as in other continental countries, and were distinguished by their interest in moral and social questions and their antagonism to the rationalising spirit of the eighteenth century. His connection with this society had a strong determining influence upon his career. From 1775 onwards his publishing and journalistic activity was directed largely to philanthropic ends. In 1777 he established two schools in St. Petersburg, which were maintained entirely from the proceeds of his journal the *Utrenni Svet* (Morning Light). In 1779 he removed from St. Petersburg to Moscow to undertake the charge of the University Press, which he had leased from the authorities. Now began the period of his greatest activity and usefulness. At Moscow he became the centre of a circle of like-minded persons, mostly belonging to the Martinist section of the Freemasons; he edited numerous magazines and published books aiming at intellectual and moral edification; he opened bookshops in Moscow, and organised the book trade in the provinces, using the masonic lodges as agencies for this purpose. A large element in his activity was the publishing of translations from useful books in foreign languages. At Moscow he found a zealous coadjutor in Johann Georg Schwartz, a Transylvanian Professor in the University, whose idealism and moral fervour formed a fitting counterpart to the sober and methodical genius of Novikov. Under the influence of Schwartz, who was appointed inspector of the pedagogical seminary established in 1779 in connection with the university, the work of the Novikov circle developed greatly on its educational side. Schwartz gathered round him a band of young students, whom he inspired with some of his own zeal for education, and enlisted in the work of translation. His idea was to further the spread of enlightenment partly by bringing in qualified teachers from abroad, and partly by the training of native Russians for the work. The Friendly Learned Society, founded by his efforts, included in its objects the raising of funds for the education of Russian youths at home and abroad; and a considerable number of young Russians were thus educated, the most famous *alumnus* of the society being Karamzin. Schwartz, however, died in 1784, and soon afterwards

began an official persecution of the Martinists, whose work was, however, not finally stopped until 1792. In that year Catherine, whom the events of the French Revolution had now rendered thoroughly suspicious of liberal ideas, ordered the prosecution of Novikov, with the result that he was sentenced to imprisonment for fifteen years in the fortress of Schlüsselburg. This action on the part of the Empress vindicated afresh the monopoly of the State in the work of education, and brought to an untimely end a movement which was fraught with possibilities of future benefit to Russia. The newly awakened spirit of social service received a rude check, from which it was many years in recovering.

The prosecution of Novikov was but one symptom of a general tendency towards reaction which clouded the last few years of Catherine's reign, and produced a very perceptible slackening in her educational activity. Under the Emperor Paul the reactionary movement was carried to still greater extremes. The liberty of the Press was curtailed; intellectual activity of all kinds was repressed and well-nigh paralysed. Education in particular ceased to progress, and indeed fell backward, as will be evident from the fact that the number of State schools declined in the last two years of Paul's reign from 316 to 284.

To this general tendency towards decline and retrogression there was one bright exception. The education of girls continued to be well cared for by the Empress Maria Feodorovna, under whose special patronage and supervision the Emperor placed not only the Girls' School, founded by Catherine, but also certain other institutions of a partly philanthropic, partly educational character. Thus was formed the nucleus of those "institutions of the Empress Maria" which, even during her own lifetime, increased so largely in number and importance as to require to be placed at her death (1825) under the administration of a special department of the Imperial Chancellery, and which have for more than a century rendered such conspicuous service to the cause of girls' education in Russia. The institutions administered by her during the reign of her husband and her son were founded and maintained partly by contributions from private persons or societies, and to a certain extent also by grants from the Imperial Treasury; but they owe their existence also in large measure to her own generosity and personal interest in the education of girls. The total amount actually given and bequeathed by her for their support considerably exceeded two million roubles. During a period equal in length to a whole generation the schools had the benefit of her constant care, and long after her death they continued to retain the impress of her own individuality, which contrasted in many important respects with that of Catherine. She was the very reverse of doctrinaire. A respect for the influence of the home, which was part of her German training, led her to defer by three years the age of entry to the schools, which had been fixed by Catherine from five to ten years. Nor had she much more sympathy with the ambition of her predecessor to create a "new race of men" than

means of education. Her aim was the much more practical and conservative one of giving the daughters of poor nobles such an education as would fit them for posts as private governesses and the like. Hence the curricula of the schools under her charge were framed in accordance with current ideas as to the essentials of a polite education, the greatest prominence being given to the study of modern languages, though such subjects as history, geography, arithmetic, logic, and rhetoric were also taught.

If, taking all influences into account, we endeavour to form an estimate of the general condition of Russian education at the end of the eighteenth century, we shall conclude that the chief results of the intellectual movement of the century had been to improve the education of the clergy, and to create an upper class of cultivated and refined men and women. That this refined society was composed of women as well as of men is certainly the most striking evidence of progress which the age has to offer, if we bear in mind the very primitive ideas as to the position of women which had prevailed in Russia up to and even after the time of Peter the Great. But the education of this aristocratic minority was only partially received in schools and colleges provided by the State, and only to an insignificant degree in educational institutions which were open to all classes. It was the aim of Catherine, as of most of her successors, to create a comprehensive national system of education which should ignore social distinctions and provide instruction alike for the *petite noblesse* and the mercantile class. Thus Catherine hoped, as we learn from the statements of Betski, to create a class corresponding to the *tiers-état* in France. For the present, however, all efforts to create such an educational system were frustrated by the inveterate caste-prejudices and social traditions of the Russian nobility, and, except in the larger towns, ended in failure. Neither private boarding schools nor private tuition afforded, or could afford, an adequate substitute for an efficient national system of instruction. All contemporary evidence goes to show that the education of all classes below the aristocracy was at best superficial, and often absolutely worthless. As to the lowest class of all, the serfs, any effective scheme of education for them was now, and was destined for several generations to remain, outside the range of practical politics. It is stated that of the whole Russian population at the end of the century only one out of eight hundred was receiving education of any kind. But it is important to emphasise the fact that the actual advance in culture, at any rate among the upper classes, which took place during the reign of Catherine was much greater than can be measured in terms of the increase in teaching institutions or agencies, and was dependent upon a general quickening of intellectual interests, which in its turn was the result of social and literary influences derived in great part from abroad.*

* Some idea of the general intellectual progress made in the reign of Catherine is given by the statement of Karamzin that in 1777 there were only two bookshops in Moscow, doing a business of less than 10,000 roubles

IV.—REIGN OF ALEXANDER I.

I.—THE CONSTRUCTIVE PERIOD (1801-1812).

In the above brief sketch of the work of the Empress Maria Feodorovna in connection with girls' schools, we have somewhat anticipated the course of events. In March, 1801, amidst general rejoicing, the youthful, amiable, and high-minded Alexander succeeded to the throne, left vacant by the tragic death of his father. His accession was acclaimed as the dawn of a new era ; and by nothing did the hopes entertained of him seem to be more completely justified than by the efforts made on behalf of education in the early years of his reign. It is important, however, to bear in mind that in respect of education, as of every other branch of Alexander's domestic policy, his reign falls into two well-marked periods, separated from each other by the year 1812. During the first period he was still influenced by the philosophical ideas which had formed the intellectual environment of his youth. Educated as he had been under the immediate supervision of his grandmother and by tutors of her choosing, he shared all her social and humanitarian interests, and in the first manifesto which he issued after his accession he proclaimed his intention to be guided by her principles and to govern in her spirit. The lead of the young Emperor was heartily followed by Russian society. "The humanitarian intentions of the Monarch," writes Karamzin in 1803, "are influencing the minds and hearts of men ; everywhere a philanthropic spirit is being manifested ; everywhere useful institutions are being projected and plans thought out." (Works, iii. 345.) The first years of the reign were consequently marked by a series of efforts at constitutional and social reform, in which the Emperor was guided by the advice of men like Adam Czartoryski, Novossiltsev, Stroganov, and Kochubei, ardent enthusiasts for progress like himself. In the year 1812,—a year in every respect memorable in the history of Russia—Alexander's character and ideas underwent a profound change, religious in its origin, but ultimately

a year ; in 1802 there were twenty such shops, representing a trade of 200,000 roubles a year. Karamzin, Works, iii., pp. 545-550, "On the Book Trade and the Love of Reading in Russia." Some further statistics are given by Miliukov (*Ocherki*, III, ii., p. 154), who tells us that of the 9,513 books known to have been published in Russia during the eighteenth century, 8,595 (or over 90 per cent.) appeared during the latter half of the century, and 6,586 (or over 60 per cent.) in the years between 1775 and 1800. In view of the important part played by the reading of books in the history of Russian culture, these figures are very instructive. They afford, however, no precise measure of the extent to which the habit of reading had spread in Russia in the eighteenth century, as they take no account of books imported from abroad. The demand for foreign books among the educated class was very great, and it was characteristic of the reactionary policy of the Emperor Paul that the importation of such books was (in 1800) absolutely forbidden.

affecting his whole mental outlook and policy.* The purely social ideals of his earlier years, though not wholly abandoned, began to be subordinated to the religious interests by which he was now pre-occupied. Unfortunately this attitude of mind on the part of the Emperor, combining with other accidental causes, gave an opportunity to the foes of educational progress, of which they were not slow to avail themselves. Magnanimous, humane, conscientious, and unselfish to a fault, Alexander was well described by one of his Ministers as a "Cæsus in good intentions"; his misfortune was, as the same statesman has also indicated, that he was so often badly served by the instruments of his administration. Moreover, his humanitarian aims were apt to be neutralised by a Hamlet-like indecision of character, which led him to shrink from the consistent application of his principles to the practical problems with which he had to deal at an extraordinarily difficult and critical period in the history of his country.

The educational policy of Alexander was directed to the building up of a compact and permanent national system of instruction, which should supplement the manifest deficiencies of the brilliant, but superficial, reforms of Catherine, and thus provide in an adequate manner for the educational needs of all classes within the Empire. In the consideration of the details of this system he was guided by the advice of his old tutor, the Swiss La Harpe, as well as by that of the so-called triumvirate (Czartoryski, Novossiltsev, and Stroganov).

In 1802, within a year after his accession, Alexander abolished the standing Schools Commission, and created in its stead a Ministry of Public Instruction (*Ministerstvo Narodnago Prosvestchenia*, literally, Ministry of Popular Enlightenment). This was done as part of a general system of internal re-organisation, by which the old so-called "collegiate" administration, inaugurated by Peter the Great, was replaced by special Departments of State, or Ministries on the European model. The first Minister of Public Instruction was Count Zavadovski, who had been President of the superseded Commission. He was, however, merely a figurehead. A much more important share in the actual administration of the new régime belonged to his assistant (*tovaristch*), M. N. Muraviev, a man of considerable learning and enlightened views, who had been one of the young Emperor's tutors. He unfortunately died in 1807, at the early age of fifty. The functions assigned to the new Ministry included the supreme control over education and educational institutions with the exception of such as were specially placed under other jurisdictions. This exception proved to be in the sequel a somewhat important one, as it affected not only the Cadet Corps, which were under the control of the military and naval authorities, and the schools belonging to the Holy-Synod,

* For the character of this change as described by Alexander himself, the English reader may refer to the "Life of William Allen," vol. ii., pp. 15 and 264.

but also the girls' schools under the personal protection and administration of the Empress Marie; the effect of it, therefore, was to take the secondary education of girls wholly out of the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Public Instruction for two generations. Besides schools and colleges, the new Ministry had under its supervision all public libraries, museums, and public and private printing presses, and was also entrusted with the censorship of printed publications.

In 1803 certain preliminary regulations were issued which foreshadowed the main features of the new educational system about to be created. The definitive statute creating this organisation followed next year. By these two important acts of the legislature, the Empire was parcelled out into six Educational Districts, each consisting of several Governments resembling each other in their general circumstances. At the head of each Educational District was placed a Curator (*popechitel*), who was to live in St. Petersburg and act as the representative of the interests of his district there. The whole body of Curators were constituted a High Administrative Council of Education (*Glavnoe Pravlenie Uchilistich*) acting under the Ministry of Public Instruction. The first duty imposed on the Curators was to found universities in their respective districts, where none such already existed. As we have seen, the only purely Russian University was that of Moscow. In addition to this, however, the Educational District of Vilna also possessed a University, which continued to exist until it was suppressed after the Polish insurrection of 1831-32. The University of Dorpat, originally founded by Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden in 1632, was revived in 1802, after a period of eclipse lasting nearly a century. It was decided to proceed immediately with the foundation of three more Universities at St. Petersburg, Kharkov and Kazan; while Kiev, Tobolsk and Ustiug-Veliki were designated as the seats of others to be created in the future. The Universities of Kharkov and Kazan actually came into existence in 1804; the complete organisation of that of St. Petersburg was for special reasons deferred to the year 1819.*

The constitutions of the new Universities (to which that of Moscow was now assimilated) were framed on German models. The authority of the Curator was limited to a general control, and the actual administration of the University was vested in the University Council, which was an autonomous corporation, consisting of the whole body of Professors and adjuncts (or assistant professors). It filled up vacancies in its own ranks and elected its own rector and deans of faculties, who constituted together in each University an executive body (*pravlenie*), charged especially with the financial administration of the University. The University Council had wide powers of control, not only over the instruction given in the University, but also over the whole educational system

* The further foundations were as follows: The University of St. Vladimir at Kiev in 1833; the New Russian University at Odessa in 1865; the Imperial University of Warsaw in 1869; the University of Tomsk in 1898.

of the District. The members of the University were placed outside the jurisdiction of the ordinary police authorities and made responsible only to their own tribunal, from which there was an appeal to the Ruling Senate alone. In each University there were constituted four Faculties, viz., (1) Moral and Political Sciences; (2) Physical and Mathematical Sciences; (3) Medicine; (4) Humanities. The professorships comprised in these faculties differed slightly in denomination in the three Universities, but at Moscow the arrangement was as follows. The Faculty of Moral and Political Sciences contained chairs in theology, interpretation of Holy Scripture and Church history, speculative and practical philosophy, law (natural, political, and national), the civil and criminal procedure in the Russian Empire, ancient and foreign law, diplomatics and political economy. In the Faculty of Physical and Mathematical Sciences were taught theoretical and experimental physics, pure mathematics, applied mathematics, astronomy, chemistry, botany, mineralogy and rural economy, technology and the sciences relating to commerce and manufactures. The Faculty of Medicine comprised six chairs in different branches of medical and veterinary science. The professorships constituting the Faculty of Humanities were: Russian language and literature, Greek language and literature, antiquities and Latin, universal history, statistics and geography, the history, statistics and geography of Russia, Oriental languages, the theory of fine arts and archæology.

There were two reasons why the foundation of Universities was regarded as the most urgent necessity of the moment. In the first place, experience had shown that the main difficulty in the way of creating an efficient system of secondary and primary schools was the lack of qualified teachers. This lack the Universities were intended to supply. The "preliminary rules" had laid it down that every university should have a training-school or pedagogical institute attached to it, where students should be maintained at the public cost, on condition of their binding themselves to serve six years at least in State schools. Such a training school had been founded by Catherine at St. Petersburg, and still existed, though it had of late fallen very much into decay; it was now reorganised with an extended curriculum under the name of the Pedagogical Institute and started on its new career with a contingent of 100 students drawn from the ecclesiastical seminaries. One of the main objects of the Government being thus provided for in St. Petersburg, it was not thought necessary to complete the organisation of the University until the year 1819. At Kazan the existing gymnasium was converted into a Pedagogical Institute.

The second reason for regarding the foundation of Universities as of immediate importance was the fact that an important part of the administration of the schools was to be entrusted to them. In addition to the Universities the new educational law provided for the establishment of a complete system of secondary and primary schools, which were to be of three grades: provincial schools or gymnasia, district schools and parish schools. Each chief town

of a province (government) was to have at least one gymnasium each district town (*uiezdný gorod*, the chief town of an *uiezd*, or district) was to have at least one district school; while each parish was to contain, as far as possible, one primary school. It was, of course, assumed that district and parish schools would exist in the chief provincial towns side by side with the gymnasia; and that parish schools would be established in the district towns side by side with the district schools. The existing major and minor schools of the Catherinian system were to be reorganized as schools of the new type, by converting the lowest or first class of each into a parish school, while the new district schools were constituted out of the second class of the Catherinian schools, with an additional higher class. The two highest classes of the major schools became the first and second classes of the gymnasia, which also received two new classes in addition.

At the head of this organisation in each Educational District stood the University, that is to say, the Council as the governing body of the University was at the same time charged with the oversight of secondary and primary schools, which it exercised through an annually appointed Schools Committee consisting of six professors under the presidency of the rector. Similarly the director of each gymnasium was at the same time director of the district schools in his Government, whilst a subordinate official, with the title of *smotritel*, had the duty of supervising under the director's instructions the work of the parish schools, whose teachers had to qualify for their work by undergoing examination at the hands of the teachers of the district schools and the gymnasia, and to be recommended by the director of the gymnasium for final confirmation of their appointment. Thus each grade of schools was placed in intimate relation to the grade immediately above it, and the whole together formed a compactly organised and closely articulated system, of which the University in each Educational District was both the administrative and the intellectual centre, appointing and removing the staffs of the primary schools, nominating for approval by the Minister the directors of the gymnasia, and providing for the general supervision of school work by a system of visitation by professors. Private schools of all grades were brought into the system by the requirement that all intending teachers in such schools should be examined at the gymnasia for certificates giving the license to teach, and by providing that requests for permission to open private schools should be addressed to the director of the local gymnasium, and that the decision of the matter should rest with the University. Boarding schools where both sexes were taught together were forbidden; it was ordered that religion should be taught in all boarding schools according to the creed professed by the children, and that the Russian language should form part of the curriculum. Unity of educational aim as between the different districts was secured by the presence of the six Curators in St. Petersburg sitting as members of an Administrative Council to

advise the Emperor and his Minister as to the main principles on which the educational policy of the Empire should proceed.

The inter-relation of the several parts of the educational machine to each other was kept in view throughout. For example, just as one of the prime objects of the universities was to provide teachers for the gymnasia, so the gymnasia were expected to train teachers for the district schools, and a system of State bursaries was early established in connection with the gymnasia to facilitate this object. The close connection between the various grades of schools was also reflected in their curricula. The principle adopted was—to use a convenient though inexact metaphor—that of the educational ladder. The curriculum of the gymnasium presupposed that of the district school, and the latter again presupposed that of the parish school. A seven years' course was thus created, one year being assumed to be spent over the curriculum of the parish school, two years over that of the district school, and the last four being occupied with that of the gymnasium. The course of the primary school included religion, reading, writing, the elements of arithmetic, and the study of a prescribed book treating of rural economy, nature-lore and the like. In the district schools religion and arithmetic were also taught, with the addition of moral and civic duties, the grammar of Russian and local languages, the rules of style, history and geography, and the elements of geometry, natural history, physics and technology—surely a comprehensive enough programme for two years. It is worthy of note that the teaching of religion in the district school was entrusted to a lay member of the ordinary staff. The instruction given in the gymnasium included a more extended course in physics and mathematics, French and German (in all four classes), Latin (in the three lower classes only); and it was also largely concerned with social and philosophical sciences, such as logic (in the first or lowest class), psychology and ethics (in the second), æsthetics (in the third), law and jurisprudence and political economy (in the fourth). Religion, Russian, the rules of style, arithmetic and handwriting were omitted from the curriculum of the gymnasium.

The most striking feature of the educational scheme, taken as a whole, is the boldness and thoroughness with which it broke with the classical tradition then dominating education in Western Europe, and gave to the course of instruction in Russian gymnasia a preponderatingly modern and philosophical character. The object of the framers of the scheme in thus crowding the curriculum of the secondary school with subjects generally regarded as properly belonging to the university is manifest. They wished to give a complete general education in the secondary school apart from the university. This aim is stated with sufficient clearness in Section 4 of the Statute itself, and with somewhat more detail in a letter addressed in 1812 by the then Minister of Public Instruction (Count Razumovski) to Rommel, who had expressed surprise at the encyclopædic character of the instruction given in Russian schools. "Je crois devoir," he says, "vous mettre

au fait des vues, que l'on a suivies dans le plan d'enseignement actuel. On y a fait entrer les sciences politiques, de commerce et la technologie, tout le monde ne pouvant pas avoir l'occasion de continuer les études aux universités, et les gymnases recevant des enfants de tous les états, gentilshommes, négocians, artisans et autres, ceux d'entre eux, qui sont obligés d'achever leurs études aux gymnases, ou qui selon leur état n'ont pas besoin d'acquérir des connaissances plus étendues, ont l'occasion d'y acquérir des notions des objets surmentionnés, autant qu'ils conviennent à chaque état. C'est dans cette vue, que les sciences ne sont pas enseignées dans les gymnases avec autant de détail, qu'aux universités."* The gymnasia of 1804–18 were, in fact, as Ikonnikov has said, "universities in miniature." Such a theory of secondary education, however, takes little account of the fact that the successful study of such subjects as the social and philosophic sciences requires a certain preliminary intellectual training, for which the educational scheme of 1804 absolutely failed to provide. Much may undoubtedly be said in favour of giving to such subjects a larger place in the curriculum of secondary schools than is now usual; and had the Russian experiment been tried in more favourable circumstances and with a juster sense of the relative importance of competing subjects of study, the result might have been particularly instructive to us in view of some recent controversies.

The whole scheme was undoubtedly devised and elaborated with much care; its capital defect was that the new organisation was incompletely adjusted to Russian conditions. The educational system of Alexander I. formed, in fact, a kind of *enclave* of autonomy within an autocratic State. To a large extent, this was the result of a too indiscriminating adherence to Western models. This was especially the case in relation to the University system, where the example followed was that of the self-governing Protestant Universities of Germany. In the framing of this part of the scheme the Government was largely guided by the advice of German savants, such as Meyners and Brandes. But it may also be doubted, notwithstanding the views expressed on this point by the historian of the Russian gymnasia,† whether even the Russian advisers of the Emperor at this time (Czartoryski, Kochubey, Novossiltsev, Strogonov) were not better acquainted with the social and intellectual conditions prevailing in Western Europe than with those of their own country. They were at all events without exception deeply imbued with Western culture, and strongly attracted towards those ideas of constitutionalism and self-government of which they found the best examples in English political life.‡ It was not long before the fundamental defects of the system arising from the cause we have indicated began to reveal themselves in the sphere of all three grades of education, higher, secondary and primary.

* Quoted by Schmid, p. 80, from the Autobiography of Rommel, p. 519.

† Schmid, p. 13.

‡ Of the four statesmen named above two (Czartoryski and Kochubey) had actually completed their education in England, and a third (Novossiltsev) had spent four years of his life there.

The first difficulties arose from the incompatibility of university autonomy with the bureaucratic *régime*. Some of the Curators claimed the right, which was certainly not permitted to them by Statute, of cancelling obnoxious regulations of the University Councils. When (as happened for example at Kharkov) the professors protested against such a misuse of the curatorial authority, they were censured by the Provincial Court and threatened with punishment in case of continued "disobedience." This struggle between curators and councils is the more curious as one of the main objects of fixing the residence of the curators in the capital, and not in the university towns, was to prevent any undue interference on their part with the autonomy of the universities. The results of the conflict were deplorable. Many of the professors left in disgust; and their places were taken by less distinguished but more amenable successors. The universities continued throughout the reign to be in name autonomous, but the attempt to create a free university within an autocratic State was only partially successful from the first, and the university reform of the next reign in sweeping away the principle of academic independence involved little more than a formal change.

Another difficulty resulted from the fact that the professors appointed in the first place to the chairs of the new universities were for the most part foreigners ignorant of the Russian language. They delivered their lectures in Latin, as it was still customary to do in the universities of Germany; but their audiences understood Latin nearly as little as the professors understood Russian, for the simple reason that the classical languages were inadequately studied in the schools. This difficulty of language militated strongly against the success of the teaching in every subject except mathematics. The disadvantage to a university student of an insufficient acquaintance with Latin was so obvious that it ultimately led the Government to adopt the reform in the curriculum of the gymnasia which was advocated by Uvarov, and of which we shall speak later. Until this reform was carried into effect the gymnasia were in the nature of things incapable of turning out students fully equipped to profit by a university course. As a temporary measure, students were admitted to the universities without Latin on condition of their acquiring it during their course at the university itself. The practical inconveniences, however, of employing professors unable to lecture in Russian had been proved to be so great that the expedient was never again adopted on anything like the same scale. It was deemed better to prepare native Russians for professorial chairs by sending them to study in foreign universities. In 1808, for example, twelve students of the St. Petersburg Pedagogical Institute were sent abroad for this purpose.

The success of the universities was further impeded by the old difficulty of inducing the nobility (who apart from the clergy formed the only educated class at this time) to place their sons in institutions which were open to all ranks of society. This was a

great disappointment to the Government, who seem to have counted on overcoming these caste prejudices, and to have expected that the nobility would form the chief support of the new universities. Not only did the Russian universities suffer from the objection that was felt against them on social grounds, but they were neglected by the nobility for another reason. It was the aim of most Russian parents to expedite as much as possible the entry of their sons into the public service, in order that their subsequent careers might not be adversely affected; and until the *ukaz* of 1809, as we shall see later, made a university diploma or its equivalent a necessary condition of admission to the public service, a university course presented itself in the light not of a help, but of a positive hindrance to success in life. The only career for which a university diploma was at first an absolute necessity was that of teacher in the gymnasias. Hence during the first few years after their foundation, the universities existed to all intents and purposes solely for students preparing for the teaching profession, and of these the larger part received their education at the cost of the State.* In the hope of conciliating the opposition of the nobility to the universities, boarding-houses or hostels were established in connection with them for the use of nobles only.

While many causes thus combined to reduce the usefulness of the universities, the gymnasias were in no better case. The decline of efficiency in the former could not, of course, but affect the schools under their supervision. Moreover, the prejudice felt by the nobility against places of education which were open to all classes, told with especial force against the gymnasias of the large

*Miliukov (*Ocherki*, II, pp. 317-320). It would appear, however, from the text of the *ukaz* of 1809 that the Universities of Vilna and Dorpat were well attended. We may quote here a contemporary criticism of Karamzin on the state of the purely Russian Universities; "Professors have been brought from abroad, though there are no pupils for them; among these professors there are many worthy persons, but they are of little use to us; the pupils do not understand foreign teachers, for they are ill acquainted with Latin, and their number is so small that the professors lose all inclination to meet their classes. The whole mischief arises from the fact that we have formed our Universities on the German model, without considering how different our conditions are. In Leipzig and Göttingen a professor has only to ascend his rostrum and the lecture hall will fill with hearers; but we have none who care for higher learning. Our nobility enter the public service, our merchants simply wish to learn arithmetic and foreign languages for the sake of their business. In Germany how many young men study at the Universities with a view to becoming advocates, judges, pastors, professors? Our attorneys and judges have no need to know Roman Law, our clergy are educated somehow in the seminaries and proceed no farther; whilst the privileges attached to a learned career in Russia are still so new that parents do not at once decide to prepare their sons for it." (Article on Old and New Russia, printed in full as an Appendix to Pypin's "Social Movement in Russia under Alexander I.," pp. 508, 9. This article belongs, of course, to Karamzin's reactionary period; it is, in fact, an elaborate criticism of the whole reform movement.) As to the inner life of the universities of that period a very pleasing picture is drawn for us by S. T. Aksakov in his recollections of his own student days in the early years of the reign. See the passage quoted by Pypin (*op. cit.*, pp. 108, 9) from the "Semeinaja Khronika."

towns, since these were exposed to the competition of the special schools of the nobility on the one hand, and of the private boarding schools on the other. Both of these competing types of schools appealed to the prepossession in favour of boarding schools as against day schools, which long continued to influence the higher classes of Russia in as great a degree as it has influenced our own; and from the point of view of instruction also, each of them met a particular demand, which the curriculum of the gymnasia was unable to satisfy, the special schools providing direct preparation for the public service, especially for a military career, while the private schools offered a linguistic training which was eagerly sought after. It might have been expected that the gymnasia would at any rate attract the poorer nobility, who found other schools out of their reach. This, however, they failed to do to any great extent, partly owing to the length of their course, and partly owing to the character of their curriculum. Thus the "Major" School of Ekaterinoslav, which was attended by 158 pupils in 1804, was reduced to less than one-fourth of that number after its transformation into a gymnasium. When the nobility did send their children to the gymnasia it frequently happened that they removed them at the age of fourteen, in order that they might commence their career in the public service as early as possible. Hence the upper classes of the gymnasia were poorly attended, and this of course directly affected the number of their pupils proceeding to the University. The fact was thus made abundantly evident that the legislation of 1804, so far as any rate as secondary education was concerned, was out of harmony with public sentiment, which demanded an entirely different type of education from that provided by the State.

Nor was the efficiency of the new schools everything that could be desired. They were much hampered by a dearth of teachers. It would appear from statistics relating to the year 1808 that in the gymnasia then existing there were more than 100 pupils to every teacher. Another indication of the same state of things is found in the fact that instances of "major" schools of the old Catherinian type occur as late as 1825, the reason for their non-conversion into gymnasia being without doubt the impossibility of providing them with the necessary staff. Judging from official circulars, the teachers seem to have been frequently as poor in quality as they were insufficient in quantity. The directors, moreover, were not, as a rule, men of pedagogic training, or otherwise capable of wisely directing the work of their subordinates. Generally they were retired officers with a strong inclination to despise their new vocation. The oversight exercised by the Universities doubtless did something towards keeping up the standard of teaching in the schools; but it could not supply the lack of trained pedagogical faculty in the responsible heads of the gymnasia, or of efficiency in their staffs.*

* It should be borne in mind that it was no part of the duty of the director to teach, and that he had to divide his attention between the gymnasia and the lower schools for which he was responsible.

But the greatest enemy to efficiency in the gymnasia was undoubtedly the character of their curriculum. "The great variety of widely different subjects," we read in an official memorandum of 1864 dealing with these schools, "the comparatively small number of hours devoted to instruction, and the requirement that each teacher, with the exception of the language and drawing masters, should teach several subjects, the study of any single one of which demanded no little effort—all this gave to the instruction in the gymnasia established by the law of 1804 a superficial and encyclopædic character, than which nothing could be more inimical to that thorough and efficient teaching which alone can develop the minds of the pupils and enrich them with real, as opposed to apparent, knowledge. This 'plethora of half-assimilated knowledge' " (a phrase borrowed from a manifesto of Nicholas I., which we shall notice later) "was the capital fault of the school legislation of 1804." Taking all the difficulties of the gymnasia into account, we are not surprised to learn that young men left them inadequately prepared for higher studies, and that a so-called "preparatory course" had to be established for their benefit at the Universities.

The position of the district schools was also unsatisfactory, since all the causes which tended to diminish the efficiency of the gymnasia reacted ultimately upon them. The classes for which these schools were chiefly designed had little notion of any education which went beyond the power to read and write, and withdrew their children from school as soon as they had mastered the merest rudiments of learning. The district schools also suffered greatly from the fact that the wretched condition of their finances made it impossible to retain their most capable teachers in the profession. The statement of Shishkov in 1826, to the effect that "the lower schools would long ago have been emptied, had it not been for the rule of the Ministry of Public Instruction which required that every teacher educated at the cost of the State should give six years' service in the schools," applies to the whole of Alexander's reign.

Worst of all, however, was the condition of the parish schools. No part of the Government's educational programme was more enthusiastically welcomed at the outset than that which was concerned with rural schools. "The main benefit of the new Act," wrote Karamzin in 1803,* "will be the establishment of village schools." Unfortunately, however, while the whole cost of establishing universities and gymnasia was made a charge on the Imperial Treasury, no public funds were available for the work of primary education, which was accordingly commended to the public spirit and generosity of individuals, clerical and lay, and of local authorities. Karamzin, in the article just quoted, addressed

* "O novom obrazovanii narodnago prosvestcheniia v Rossii." Works, iii., 352. The whole article may be read as a useful contemporary commentary on the Statute of 1804.

a special appeal to the nobility to throw themselves heartily into the work of providing popular schools, admonishing them, with the recollections of the French Revolution fresh in his mind, that "the nobility had never fallen where it did not hesitate to make sacrifices for the commonweal."⁴ The appeal, however, was for the most part made in vain, for it was addressed to a class who were far from being convinced of the advantage of educating the serf population, a class, moreover, in whom the spirit of social enterprise had not yet been sufficiently awakened, and who possessed no social traditions or habits to guide them in the performance of the task pointed out to them, and no social organisation through which they could act. So far as the nobility were concerned, therefore, the work of primary education was for the most part left undone. Only on a few estates were schools established by the liberality of private individuals. Much more was accomplished by the exertions of the clergy, who for a time showed real activity in the work of establishing schools. In the Government of Novgorod, for example, as many as 110 village schools were opened in the year 1806 by the clergy, who in the dearth of other teachers frequently took upon themselves the entire charge of the school without fee or reward, and even gave up the use of their own dwellings for the purpose. But this activity was short-lived. Nearly all the schools in the Government of Novgorod had been closed within two years. It was the same in other provinces; and in the course of a few years the parish schools called into being by the Statute of 1804 had practically disappeared except in some of the towns.

Thus, even before the first decade of the century had passed, the Government was confronted with the fact that the educational reform of 1804 had proved a more or less complete failure all along the line. General indifference to education, caste prejudices and traditions, the lack of social initiative, bureaucratic interference, the dearth of qualified teachers, and the unsuitability of the approved curricula, had all combined to produce a result which stood in discouraging contrast to the high hopes with which the scheme had been launched by its promoters. When the Government awoke to this condition of affairs, much of the enthusiasm with which the reform had been started had evaporated. Moreover, the authors of the reform were no longer in the ascendant in the councils of Alexander. The influence of the "triumvirate" had given place to that of Speranski, a man of strong intellect and great organising capacity, bold and far-sighted in his political views, but with no great faith in educational Utopias.* During Speranski's period of power, which did not survive the fateful year of 1812, no radical reform in the educational system

* In a notable passage of his "Plan of Reforms," Speranski combats the idea "that enlightenment should precede freedom"; he would have had political reform take precedence of popular education on the ground that "an educated slave is the most miserable of mankind." See chapter on Speranski in Pypin's "Social Movement in Russia under Alexander I.," pp. 158, 9.

was undertaken, but he is nevertheless responsible for one measure of capital importance which had far-reaching effects in the subsequent history of Russian education. This was the *ukaz* of 1809, by which advancement in civil rank was made henceforth to depend upon the possession of a University diploma, or an equivalent educational qualification.

Already in the "preliminary rules" of 1803 it had been announced that "after the expiration of five years no person who had not completed a course of instruction in some public or private school should be appointed to any post in the civil service which required a knowledge of law or other subjects." The general disinclination to value the means of education which had been provided by the Government led Speranski to advise the Emperor to put this provision into effect. This was done by means of the *ukaz* of the 6th August, 1809. A University degree already entitled its holder to a definite position in the scale of ranks—a doctor, *e.g.*, had the eighth rank, a magister the ninth, a candidate the tenth, and an ordinary graduate the twelfth. The effect of the *ukaz* of 1809 was to make the possession of such a University diploma a condition of promotion in the public service, and to compel certain classes of civil servants, if not already in possession of such a diploma, to submit to a special examination in subjects of general knowledge, in order to obtain the right of promotion to the higher ranks in the civil hierarchy. This raised a storm of protest, as not only did it alarm the prejudices of the nobility, who preferred the old method of promotion by seniority or length of service, but it also compelled many men who had served long periods to sit for the special examination; and the indignation excited by the *ukaz* was in the end a powerful contributory cause of Speranski's downfall. Amongst others, Karamzin strongly criticised the requirements of the special examination as being in many cases irrelevant to the candidates' special duties.* There can be no doubt, however, that this drastic measure had the ultimate effect of raising very considerably the standard of education in the public service, and consequently of enhancing also the value set upon learning by Russian society.

Some important steps were taken in 1811 with reference to the private boarding schools which, as we have already seen, continued to be in great favour with the nobility and well-to-do classes. In that year a special report was prepared by Count Razumovski, the Minister of Public Instruction, pointing out the evils which entangled the State and the national life from the system of who "being the training of the youth of the upper classes to persons ties to the new no Russian and despised it," and were bound by no report, "country in which they lived. "Their pupils," said the cannot put with think and speak after the manner of foreigners, and As the result few words together correctly in their native tongue." mission to of of this report it was provided that in future the per-

* On a boarding school should be made dependent, not

only on intellectual, but even more on moral qualifications; that a knowledge of Russian should be required from the keepers of boarding schools, and, most important of all, that the language of instruction in all such schools should be Russian. At the same time, a tax of 5 per cent. on all receipts from fees was imposed on the keepers of boarding schools. This tax was, however, discontinued in 1817, when it was found that the burden was not really being borne by the principals of the boarding schools, who had promptly shifted it on to the shoulders of the parents, by adding the amount of tax to the school fees.

Though, as has been said above, no general measures were taken during this period to remedy the acknowledged defects of the State secondary schools, the year 1811 is also notable for the introduction, in the form of an experiment confined to the St. Petersburg Educational District of certain changes in the curriculum of the gymnasia which were destined to be generally adopted later on, and which involved nothing less than a revolution in the whole aim and spirit of Russian secondary education. These changes were due to Count S. S. Uvarov, who in 1810, at the early age of 25, had been appointed Curator of the Petersburg District by Razumovski, who was his father-in-law. Uvarov deserves special mention here as one of the few men—not more than half-a-dozen at the outside, if the reigning family be excluded—whose individuality has left an abiding impress on the whole theory and practice of Russian education. For nearly forty years, with the exception of a short period (1821–26) which he spent in another department of the public service, Uvarov remained closely associated with the work of Russian education, and both as Curator of the St. Petersburg District, and afterwards as Minister of Public Instruction, rendered services to educational progress which probably no other man among his contemporaries in Russia could have rendered. Uvarov was a man of deep and wide culture, a diligent classical student, and a perfect master of the German and French languages, which he used for literary purposes with as much facility as his native tongue. Speranski coupled Karamzin and Uvarov together as “the first Russian scholars, not only in point of merit, but also in point of time”; and Goethe (to whom Uvarov had dedicated his essay on Homer, written in German and published at St. Petersburg in 1817), calls him “einen fähigen, talentvollen, geistreich gewandten Mann.” A classicist by taste and conviction, it was not until he was appointed Curator that he seriously began the study of Greek under the guidance of his friend C. F. Gräfe, Professor of Greek at St. Petersburg. But already he had formed his opinions as to the place which the classics ought to hold in Russian secondary education, and he came to the duties of his new post with the conviction that the true remedy for the evils from which the Russian gymnasia were suffering was to place their curriculum on a classical basis.

The principles underlying the changes introduced by Uvarov were described by him in a memorandum accompanying his new

educational proposals, which were presented to the Minister of Public Instruction in October, 1811. "The general aim of the gymnasia," he says, "is to prepare its pupils for following a course of study at the Academy or the Universities, and therefore their curriculum should not include subjects which belong to the Universities alone. The plan hitherto followed in the St. Petersburg gymnasium has included many subjects wholly incompatible with each other, and this incompatibility has had very disadvantageous consequences. Political economy, commercial sciences, finance, æsthetics, and philosophical grammar, which require for their study a well-trained intellect and therefore form part of the instruction of the Universities, have not only not proved useful to the pupils, but have even been distinctly hurtful. Instruction in these subjects has burdened the memory of the pupils without developing their intellectual powers, and has diverted them from subjects which form the first foundation of true education in all countries and in every age. Religion, the mother tongue, and the classical languages, history understood in a wide and deep sense, geography in all its departments, mathematics, grammar, logic, rhetoric, native and foreign literature—these are the subjects with which alone the gymnasium should occupy itself. Such are the principles to which we must return. Guided by these general considerations, I venture to submit to you a plan of instruction, into which only those subjects enter which, in my opinion, are in harmony with the aim of the gymnasium. You will observe that the classical languages are regarded therein as one of the main instruments of education."* The plan of instruction was sanctioned by the Minister in November, 1811, for introduction into the Educational District of St. Petersburg alone.

The position formulated in the first sentence of the passage above quoted was of course the precise antithesis of that taken up by the authors of the law of 1804, who looked upon the gymnasia (with the schools preparatory to them) as affording an education complete in itself, while the main object of the Universities was to prepare teachers for the gymnasia and officials for other branches of the public service. Uvarov's conception of secondary education as a mere foundation for the higher studies was undoubtedly narrower than that which underlay the Statute of 1804; and to this extent, if his proposals be judged by modern ideas, they must be held to have involved a step backwards. The changes he initiated have, however, to be considered in relation to the circumstances of the time. The gymnasia had in fact failed to provide a complete education for those who were not proceeding to the University; while neither in fact nor in theory did they provide an adequate preparation for those who were. In Uvarov's opinion the reason for their failure to do one or the other lay in the inferior position assigned to the classics in their curriculum, and in the inclusion of other subjects (social sciences and philosophy) which

* Schmid, pp. 86 and 87.

could not be successfully studied without a preliminary intellectual discipline such as the classical languages were best fitted to give. Moreover, a practical consideration which was bound to weigh heavily with the Government, even though they might not share Uvarov's conviction of the essential advantage of a classical education, was the fact that, as things now were, it was impossible to profit by many of the lectures given in the Russian Universities without an adequate knowledge of Latin. The main features of the scheme of studies introduced by Uvarov were, therefore, the relegation of social sciences and philosophy to the Universities, the introduction of the study of Russian and also of Greek into the curriculum of the gymnasia, and the increase in the number of hours devoted to Latin. Uvarov also discarded the principle by which the course of the parish school and the district school were presumed to have been gone through by pupils entering the gymnasium; instead of this three lower classes were now added to the gymnasium, which thus obtained a seven years' course. Latin was begun in the third class, Greek not before the sixth; thirty-two hours a week were assigned to the former language, six hours a week to the latter. At the same time religion and the study of the mother tongue were made a part of the curriculum.

In this way classical instruction obtained a firm, and as it proved, a permanent footing in the Russian Secondary School, and it is interesting to note, in connection with a subject round which controversy has raged so hotly in Russia during the last forty years, that the important place now assigned to classics in the curriculum of the gymnasia was due quite as much to the accidental and temporary circumstance that some University professors lectured in Latin as to purely pedagogical considerations.

It is convenient to anticipate the course of the narrative in order to say that the experiment of Uvarov succeeded so well that in 1816 the Universities were requested to consider the advisability of a more general adoption of the system. They reported in favour of it, and their opinion was supported by the Scientific Committee (*Uchenyi Komitet*), then recently established, who emphasised the advantage of greater concentration in the course of studies in the gymnasia. "Let us be bold enough," said they in one document, "to teach our young people less, and they will undoubtedly learn more." So the encyclopædic curriculum of 1804 went by the board; the new views were adopted by the Administrative Council, and the system of Uvarov was finally extended to all Russia in 1819. The curriculum as finally settled in that year included religious knowledge; the Latin, Greek, German and French languages; geography, history (including mythology and antiquities), statistics (general and Russian); logic and rhetoric; pure mathematics, statics and the principle of mechanics; experimental physics and natural history; drawing; and (where teachers of these subjects were available) dancing, music, and gymnastics. At the same time the curriculum of the district school was lightened by the omission of

“moral and civic duties,” natural history and technology, while Latin and German were introduced for pupils preparing for the gymnasium.

We add here some statistics relating to Russian gymnasia and district schools for the year 1808, as given in Schmid's *Istoriia srednikh uchebnykh zavedenii v Rossii*, p. 69. The author warns us, however, that the number of pupils in both kinds of schools here given must be taken as only approximately correct, and in any case they do not include returns from the untransformed major and minor schools:—

Educational Districts.	No. of Gymnasia.	No. of Pupils.	No. of District Schools.	No. of Pupils.
St. Petersburg - -	3	294	5	1,066
Moscow - - - -	10	447	44	2,356
Vilna - - - -	6	1,305	54	7,422
Kharkov - - - -	8	477	18	1,747
Kazan - - - -	5	315	5	248
	32	2,838	126	12,839

This account of the secondary and higher education of Russia in the first period of Alexander I.'s reign would not be complete if we did not add that a large number of ecclesiastical schools were now founded for the instruction of the children of the clergy. For the education of the clergy themselves there were now four academies (*viz.*, at St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kazan and Kiev), as well as seminaries in various places. Fifteen provincial schools were also established for the education of noblemen's sons destined for a military career; and the year 1811 also saw the foundation at Moscow of the private school of Muraviev for future officers, where some of the most remarkable men of the later years of the reign received their education, and which in respect of its general influence was, as Pypin says, “one of the best expressions of the social spirit which was awakened in Russian Society in Alexander's time.”* A still more important foundation, dating from the same year, was the Lyceum of Tsarskoe Selo, which still exists under the name of the Alexander Lyceum, and during the ninety odd years of its existence has done much to form the minds and characters of the governing classes of Russia. The immediate occasion of its foundation was the failure of the Universities, for reasons above described, to supply the necessary contingent of well-educated young men for the various offices of the public service. The course of instruction was arranged to cover a period of ten years, and was

* Social Movement under Alexander I., p. 422.

divided into two sections, the elementary and the higher, each occupying three years. We give here an abridgement of the curriculum, as it embodies the ideas of the Emperor and his advisers as to the necessary intellectual equipment for the higher posts in the public service. The following subjects entered into the elementary course :—

- (1) The grammar of the Russian, Latin, French, and German languages.
- (2) Moral sciences (*i.e.* the fundamental principles of religion, philosophy, and logic).
- (3) Mathematics and physics.
- (4) The history of Russia and other countries, geography and chronology.
- (5) The elements of *belles-lettres*, reading and analysis of passages from the best authors, rhetoric.
- (6) The fine arts, drawing, handwriting, gymnastics, fencing, riding and swimming.

The higher course consisted of more advanced instruction in moral sciences, mathematics, physics, literature, languages, the fine arts and gymnastics, and, so far as time permitted, of practical notions of architecture and perspective.

II.—THE REACTION (1812-1825).

The year 1812—the year of the War of the Fatherland and the burning of Moscow—marks an epoch in the life of Alexander as well as in the history of his people. Henceforward, under the influence of the religious mysticism which now took possession of his mind, he began gradually to withdraw his interest from the plans of educational reform which had formerly occupied him. Moreover, he now became much absorbed in international politics, in which the part played by Russia in liberating Europe from the Napoleonic yoke naturally gave to him a preponderating voice. The change that had taken place in his views did not at once fully reveal itself. During the first few years following the retreat of Napoleon from Moscow, no monarch so filled the eye of Europe as Alexander ; everywhere he was acclaimed as the friend of oppressed peoples, the champion of liberty and enlightenment ; and his own action in according a constitution to Poland seemed for a time to justify the hopes that were placed in him. But this phase in his career was not of long duration. Gradually he fell under the sway of the general reaction which prevailed among the ruling classes of Europe against the tendencies in politics, religion, and philosophy which had characterised the close of the eighteenth century, and were now associated in men's minds with the causes that had produced the French Revolution. He became possessed with a dread of liberal ideas, and with a distrust of the effects of education ; and of this change in his attitude the reactionary advisers by whom he was surrounded did not fail to take full advantage. Hence the last fourteen years of Alexander's reign

are melancholy years in the history of Russian education. It was not merely that from the year 1812 onward all progress ceased, except in a few special directions; mere inactivity was soon succeeded by obscurantism and retrogression, and by a disposition to suspect and persecute science in the name of religious truth.

The influence of the Emperor's personality, though always a force of enormous potency in Russia, would scarcely be sufficient to account for the decay of education in Russia in the second and third decades of the century, were it not for the fact that certain currents of thought and sentiment affecting Russian society as a whole were running strongly in the same direction. The events of the year 1812 had produced a profound impression on all classes in Russia. The peril in which the Fatherland had seemed to stand had aroused national feeling to an unprecedented degree. The defence of Russian soil against the unhalloved invader, who was popularly supposed to be Anti-christ himself come in the flesh, was undertaken in a mood of religious exaltation, but at the same time with a high-spirited resolution such as only great peoples exhibit at supreme moments of their history; the successful issue of the struggle was an achievement which added lustre to the Russian name, and could not fail to appeal strongly to the pride and imagination of the whole people. The first fervour of national enthusiasm passed away with the danger which had called it forth; but it left its traces behind it in a great quickening of the national consciousness and in a revulsion against foreign ideas and influences of all kinds. One noteworthy indication of the influence which this change of sentiment exerted in the educational field was the growing disinclination to employ foreign professors at the Universities, and even to use foreign Universities for the training of Russian professors. Moreover, the inevitable result of this attitude of mind was to influence Russian thought in a conservative direction, and to leave it peculiarly open to the infection of the reactionary spirit which, as we have noted above, was beginning to determine the policy of the governing classes of Europe.

But while this was the effect of the War of the Fatherland upon the great majority of Russians of the upper classes, it exercised upon a certain number of thoughtful minds an influence of a precisely opposite nature. The officers who accompanied the Russian armies into Western Europe were there brought into contact with a social order and social ideals widely different from those to which they were accustomed in their own country, and many of them returned to Russia deeply imbued with ideas of constitutionalism in politics, and with enthusiasm for social reform and popular enlightenment. They thus reinforced the small band of political reformers to which the Emperor himself and his early advisers had belonged. But the times were not propitious for the open propaganda of their principles, and they therefore organised themselves into secret associations with aims generally similar to those of the German Tugendbund. Their ideas formed a sort of leaven which, working under the surface of Russian society, ultimately

produced important results in the intellectual history of Russia, but for the present had no direct influence upon the spirit of the administration.

Meantime, the conservative reaction was in full swing. Everywhere amongst the official classes there was a revulsion against liberal ideas and a disposition to revert to the old paths—a disposition which expressed itself in the political domain by a revived belief in the divine right of autocracy, and in the religious domain by a somewhat narrow and mediæval interpretation of Christian dogma, a renewed interest in theology, and a deep distrust of modern philosophy.* The Protestant Universities of Germany, which had served as models for those of Russia, became the objects of special animosity. It will be remembered that even in Germany itself the principle of University autonomy was being seriously limited by the action of the German Princes after the conference of Ministers at Carlsbad. The course of events in Russia shows the influence of the same ideas. "The whole mischief," said Magnitski, who, as a member of the *glavnoe pravlenie*, became the soul of the reaction in Russia, "the whole mischief which has been observed in our Universities has been caused by the education, the books, and the men we have imported from the German Universities. There the infection of unbelief and revolutionary principles which started in England and gained additional strength in pre-revolutionary France has been erected into a complete and, so to speak, classic system. . . . The learning and literature of North Germany are so infected with this poison that they can be used only with the greatest caution." Another member of the Administrative Council, Alexander Skarlatovich Sturdza, wrote a pamphlet, published in French and German, "On the present state of Germany," which is largely taken up with a philippic against the German Universities and a denunciation of the freedom of the press, and in which he proposed among other things to suppress "*akademische Freiheit*" as being "incompatible with present political conditions," to substitute municipal police for the University jurisdiction over students, to restrict the right of the body of professors to fill up their own numbers, and to subordinate this right completely to the decisive control of the Government. The whole pamphlet, though ostensibly written with reference to Germany only, is applicable,

* A letter written in 1813 by Uvarov to Baron Stein (quoted by Pypin, as well as by Ikonnikov and Schmid, from Pertz' Life of Stein) aptly illustrates the state of opinion in Russia during the early years of the reaction. The following are extracts:—*L'état des esprits est tel dans ce moment que la confusion des idées est au comble. Les uns veulent des lumières sans danger, c.à.d., un feu qui ne brûle pas. D'autres (et c'est le plus grand nombre) mettent dans le même sac Napoléon et Montesquieu, les armées françaises et les livres français, Moreau et Rosenkämpff, les rêveries de Sch. . . . et les découvertes de Leibnitz. . . . On se jette à la tête les mots de Religion en danger de morale compromise, de fauteur des idées étrangères, d'illuminé, de Philosophe, de Franc-Maçon, de fanatique, etc. En un mot, c'est une déraison complète. . . . Voilà au milieu de quelle confusion et de quelle profonde ignorance on se trouve obligé de travailler à un édifice miné par les fondemens, et qui menace ruine de toutes parts.*"

mutato nomine, to Russia also, and accurately reflects the views of educational administration which now became predominant in the official circles of the latter country.

Among the minor causes which contributed to the reaction in Russia, as it affected education, we must not omit to mention the influence of the Jesuits during the first fifteen years of the nineteenth century. The Jesuits had enjoyed the protection of the Russian Government since the reign of Catherine, who afforded them an asylum in White Russia when their Order was suppressed by the Pope in the rest of Europe. Their boarding schools, of which they had six in Russia in 1804, had a great vogue with the upper classes. It is a sign of the liberal spirit prevailing in educational matters at the beginning of Alexander's reign that in spite of the personal dislike which the Emperor felt towards the Order these Jesuit Schools were at first encouraged by the Government, which appears to have felt no apprehension of possible proselytising. They found a convinced and enthusiastic exponent of their system of education in the person of Count Joseph de Maistre, who was himself a pupil of the Jesuits, and who stands in the history of French literature as the representative of ultranontanism and the Catholic reaction. De Maistre resided in St. Petersburg from 1802 to 1815, as the Ambassador of Sardinia at the Court of Russia, and during that period was a personage of great importance in Russian society. The influence which he exerted over Count Razumovski, the Minister of Public Instruction, is well known, and the direction in which it was exercised may be gathered from his "Cinq lettres sur l'éducation publique en Russie, à M. le Comte Razumovski," written in June and July, 1810. Two extracts from these letters will suffice to show the spirit of the advice tendered by M. de Maistre to his friend: "Vous rendriez, M. le Comte, le plus grand service à votre patrie si vous persuadiez une grande vérité à votre excellent souverain; cette vérité est que S.M.I. n'a réellement besoin que de deux espèces d'hommes; de *gens braves* et de *braves gens*." "Au lieu d'étendre le cercle des connaissances en Russie, il faut le restreindre, pour l'avantage même de la science."* It will be seen that these obscurantist suggestions were entirely in harmony with the principles which were shortly to become dominant in Russian education. In St. Petersburg De Maistre acted, to use the expression of Count D. Tolstoi, "as a kind of lay general of the Order" of Jesuits,† and his influence with Razumovski was sufficiently great to procure, in 1812, the elevation of the Jesuits' College at Polotsk to the status of an Academy with the same rights as the Russian Universities. In that year, however, the influence of the Jesuits in Russia reached its culminating point, and they were among the first victims of the reaction which set in against the liberal policy of the early years of the reign. Some of them were suspected of sympathy with the French in the War of 1812.

* *Lettres et opuscules inédits du comte Joseph de Maistre*, 1861 ed., vol. ii., pp. 285 and 291.

† *Rimskii Katolitsizm v Rossii*, II., x., p. 178.

They were also accused of "misusing the confidence reposed in them" by proselytising the youths committed to their care, and in 1815 they were banished from St. Petersburg and forbidden to enter either capital. They continued to make White Russia their centre until they were finally banished from Russian territory in 1820, their Academy at Polotsk being closed. The practice, however, of sending Russian children to Jesuits' Schools in Austria still continued, and seven years later it was found necessary to take special measures to prevent this.

It was not entirely a coincidence that the fall of Razumovski as Minister of Public Instruction took place the same year as the expulsion of the Jesuits. He was succeeded in the office by Prince Alexander Golitsyn, an amiable and accomplished man and the intimate friend of the Emperor, whose religious views he fully shared, having traversed with him the same path of evolution from *philosophie* to mystic. As High Procurator of the Holy Synod he had already had some experience of educational administration, and had during his tenure of that office re-organised the whole system of ecclesiastical schools. The tide of reaction now rose quickly to its height. The Ministry of Public Instruction was administratively combined with the Holy Synod in 1817. One by one the vacant places in the Administrative Council were filled up by men imbued with anti-liberal ideas. Sturdza became a member in 1818; Magnitski and Runich in 1819. Against the influence of men like these the efforts of Uvarov, though steadily exerted in the interests of an enlightened view of education, could accomplish little or nothing. Pedagogical considerations now retreated almost entirely into the background. The sole test applied to every form of teaching was: "Is it in harmony with the truths of revealed religion" (as interpreted by the Administrative Council)?

An extreme, though typical, example of the way in which the new order of things was carried into effect is afforded by the proceedings of Magnitski in reference to the Kazan educational district, to which he was sent by Prince Golitsyn to conduct a special inquiry in 1819, and of which he became Curator next year. As the result of his special inquiry Magnitski proposed to sweep away the Kazan University altogether. This was opposed by Uvarov, and the Emperor refused his consent. The University was, however, completely re-organised; eleven of the professors were dismissed; a director was appointed to have special charge of morals and discipline; and the programme of studies was remodelled in such a way as practically to convert the University into a theological seminary. The instructions issued by the educational authorities in St. Petersburg to the director with respect to the moral and intellectual training of the students are an interesting and characteristic document of the period. In these instructions it is set forth that "the aim of the Government in the education of students is the training up of faithful sons of the Orthodox Church, loyal subjects of the Emperor, good and useful

servants of the fatherland." . . . "The soul of education and the supreme virtue of a citizen is humility; and therefore obedience is the most important virtue in a student." Accordingly, religious teaching and observances were to have a prominent place in the University, and "students who distinguished themselves in the Christian virtues were to be preferred before all others," and to receive "all possible privileges in respect of the public service." Instruction in all subjects was to be given in the spirit of the Holy Gospel. The students of the philosophical faculty were to be guided to the conclusion that "everything that was not in agreement with the sense of Holy Scripture was to be unreservedly rejected as falsehood and error." The professor of classics was instructed that "whilst exhibiting the beauties of the pagan writers, he must at the same time show the greater excellence of those saintly men whom this freethinking age, blind to their exalted genius, has excluded from its list of models, simply because they were Christians and saints, as, for instance, John Chrysostom, Gregory Nazianzen, St. Basil, and St. Athanasius; and while such instruction in archæology was to be given as was required for the study of classical authors, he must teach in much greater detail the Christian antiquities which are necessary for the study of the writings of the saints." The instructions as to the teaching of Oriental languages (Arabic and Persian) were conceived in a like spirit. The professor of history was to deal with pagan times in general outline only; and in reference to the period after the commencement of the Christian era he was to direct attention chiefly to Christian antiquities with the object of showing that the Christians had all the virtues of the pagans in an incomparably higher degree, together with many others wholly unknown to the antique world. He was to exhibit by reference to the most credible sources the wisdom and courage of the martyrs, the patience and angelic purity of the recluses, and to show that there were true Christians and saints engaged in State affairs, seated on the throne of kings, and employed in their councils and their armies. He was to show that the first ages of Christianity abounded most in great and holy men, that pagan history exhibits no precedent for the persecution of Christians, and that against every pagan hero may be set hosts of Christian heroes and heroines without distinction of age. He was to show that all which in pagan history is called greatness and virtue is only a supreme degree of human pride, and of no account in comparison with Christian greatness. He was to describe the decline and fall of the Roman Empire as a punishment of God, using savage nations as His instrument, and to show how through ages of darkness and barbarism Christian people kept alight the lamp of learning in their humble retreats, and afterwards restored it anew to the world. Finally, he was directed to take Bossuet as his guide in his course of universal history.*

* *Sbornik Postánovlenii*, L., pp. 1317-1337.

The University, as the body charged with the administration of secondary education, was directed to draw up similar instructions for the guidance of the directors of the gymnasia. In a word, the whole educational policy of Magnitski was, in fact, what he proclaimed that it should be, a consistent and thorough attempt to carry out the principles of the Holy Alliance in the domain of Russian education.

The inevitable result followed. Parents who had no mind for the theological spirit in which the University was conducted sought education for their sons elsewhere. In 1822 there were only ninety-one students in the University of Kazan. There was peace at Kazan, but it was like the peace that reigns in a solitude. Magnitski was nevertheless highly satisfied with the results of his policy of "thorough," and in 1823 he contrasts to its advantage the education of Kazan with that given elsewhere. "In other places of education," he says, "it is openly preached that Tsars rule by consent of their peoples, in virtue of a social contract; at Kazan this revolutionary lie is contradicted. In geography it is proclaimed that this science contemplates the earth in the form in which it left the hands of the Creator. This blasphemous denial of the Fall has no place at Kazan. In history it is declared that the world has existed for several hundreds of thousands of years; the chronology of the Holy Scriptures is followed at Kazan. In the history of our native country some of the Lord's anointed are branded with the names of tyrants and evil-doers; at Kazan good and bad Tsars are considered as the reward or the punishment of peoples, their deeds are taught as a matter of history, but their persons, which are subject to the jurisdiction of God alone, are respected."

As a matter of fact, however, the condition of things at other Russian universities was hardly better than at Kazan. The teaching of philosophy and science was subject everywhere to the same jealous supervision. At Kharkov the number of professors fell from 28 to 8. The University of St. Petersburg was finally established in 1819, owing to the exertions of Uvarov; but, as at Kazan, side by side with the elected rector was placed a State-appointed director, and the functions of the professorial body were confined to purely educational matters. Moreover, the new University was destined shortly to lose the advantage of the wise and enlightened administration of Uvarov, who ceased to be Curator in 1821. His position as a member of the reactionary Administrative Council had long been a difficult one. When in 1821 Professor Kunitsyn's book on natural law was denounced by Runich in the Administrative Council, Uvarov defended him, but was defeated; the professor was deprived of his post at the Alexander Lyceum and forbidden to teach in any other institution under the Ministry of Public Instruction, and Uvarov resigned his office. He was succeeded as Curator by Runich, who was a soldier by profession, had had no training in the work of education, and was a mere henchman of Magnitski. The policy of Magnitski

at Kazan was immediately applied at St. Petersburg. The special object of attack was the political and philosophical sciences. In September, 1821, Runich reported to the Administrative Council that all these sciences "were taught by the professors in a spirit contrary to Christianity, and that ideas were being implanted in the minds of the students which were prejudicial to the public order and welfare." On his proposal, it was decided to dismiss four professors, viz., Hermann and Arsenov (statistics), Galich (philosophy), and Raupach (history). Of these Galich expressed regret, and was reinstated; the other three were deprived of their chairs. Other dismissals followed, one of the victims being the former rector, Balugianski. The universities were forbidden to employ for the future professors who had studied abroad, and the practice of sending Russians to foreign universities to prepare themselves for professorial chairs in Russia was, as a matter of course, discontinued.* All this affected not only the quality of the teaching at the universities, but also the number of students attending them. From the opening of the University of St. Petersburg to 1837 only 365 students completed their course. The older University of Moscow suffered less from this cause than the new foundations. From 215 in 1812 the numbers at Moscow rose to 695 in 1822-23, and to 876 in 1825-26. The Universities of Vilna and Dorpat, owing to their exceptional position in the midst of non-Russian populations, were also comparatively unaffected by the reactionary movement; the latter university in particular reaped considerable, if indirect, advantages from the close relations in which it stood with the German Universities, and was thus able to maintain a high standard of learning, the existence of which acted as a stimulus and an example to the other universities of the Empire when the reaction had spent its force.

In estimating the numbers of young Russians who were at this time receiving higher education, it must be borne in mind that concessions were constantly being made by the Government to the prejudice felt by the nobility against the universities. These concessions generally took the form of allowing the same (or even greater) rights in regard of entry to the public service to certain institutions which admitted only the sons of nobles as were secured to the universities; such were the Alexander Lyceum, the hostels for the nobility (*blagorodnye pansiony*), attached to the University of Moscow and the Pedagogical Institute of St. Petersburg, and the so-called High School of St. Petersburg, † which was formed in 1822 out of the boarding-house attached to the St. Petersburg Gymnasium. There were six places of higher

* It may be noted that of the professors dismissed in 1821 several, including two referred to above (Galich and Kunitsyn), had thus been educated abroad at the Government's expense.

† It is a significant indication of the strength of the prejudice of the nobility against the universities that they were willing to pay 1,000 R. a year for the education of their sons at the St. Petersburg High School, whereas it appears from an article written by Karamzin in 1803 that the cost of education at Moscow University was only 106 R. a year.

education in Russia of the same type, and in the enjoyment of the same rights, as the St. Petersburg High School.

As regards secondary education in the latter half of Alexander I.'s reign little remains to be said. We have already described the transformation of the gymnasia into classical or semi-classical schools, which took place in 1819 on the initiative of Uvarov. We need only note here that this change, involving as it did the exclusion of social and political sciences from the curriculum of the gymnasia, was entirely in harmony with the general attitude of the administration towards these sciences, though it was also justified by pedagogical considerations. Private schools, however, where modern languages were taught, and little else except "deportment," more than maintained their ground in competition with the gymnasia for the patronage of the higher classes. In 1820 the single gymnasium of the St. Petersburg Educational District contained 760 pupils, as against 2,002 who were educated in the private schools of the District; four years later the number of gymnasists had declined to 450, while the number of those attending private schools had slightly increased. Private schools also continued to be preferred by the public to the State district schools, in spite of all the efforts of the authorities to discourage the former in favour of the latter. The proprietors of these schools were generally Frenchmen, who, in point of fitness for their duties, seem to have been little, if at all, in advance of their predecessors of a generation earlier, as described for us by Pushkin and Von Wizin.* On the other hand, the influx of French emigrants after the Revolution would seem to have somewhat improved the quality of private tuition in the families of the wealthier nobles.

Popular education made comparatively little progress in the period of which we are treating. An attempt was made during the Ministry of Golitsyn, and with the sympathy and concurrence of the Emperor, to introduce into Russia the Lancasterian method of instruction, which was then at the height of its vogue, and was thought, not only in England but elsewhere, to be destined to create a revolution in the methods of primary instruction. In 1813 Dr. Joseph Hamel, a young Moravian scientist, was sent by the Russian Minister of the Interior to London for special purposes of study, and there was introduced by Sir Humphry Davy to the Quaker philanthropist, William Allen, who was a chemist of repute, and a Fellow of the Royal Society. Allen was then exerting himself to promote the spread of the Lancasterian methods in England and elsewhere. A visit paid to one of the Lancasterian schools under his guidance convinced Hamel of the value of the system for Russia; the latter accordingly sent an account of it to his Department in St. Petersburg, and finally published a detailed report on the Lancas-

* The expressions used by Shishkov, Minister of Public Instruction, in 1826 with regard to these keepers of private schools are strong and significant. "These men," he says, "who have in many cases already tried, at the expense of their consciences, every illegitimate method of making money, finally betake themselves to the training of youth."

terian schools under the title of "*Der gegenseitige Unterricht*" (Paris, 1818). In 1814 Alexander himself visited London and attended a meeting of Friends, at which Allen was present. At a subsequent interview Allen took the opportunity of describing to the Emperor the system of education adopted by the British and Foreign School Society. Alexander was interested, and next year two Russians were sent to the school established on Lancasterian lines in Paris "to learn the plan, that they may be able to form schools in Russia" ("*Life of Allen*," p. 240). Subsequently, at Allen's suggestion, four young students of the Pedagogical Institute of St. Petersburg were sent to Borough Road to be trained in the Lancasterian system. In 1818-19 Allen himself visited Russia, and had several interviews with the Emperor and other important persons with reference to the establishment of schools on the "British plan." He was informed that Prince Golitsyn was preparing to lay before the Emperor a proposal for spreading it (the system) more widely, and he left Russia well satisfied with the prospect of success. But comparatively little came of it. We hear of schools on the Lancasterian plan at St. Petersburg, Tula, Kiev, Nikoliev, Sevastopol, Tiflis, Irkutsk and other towns; some of the liberal nobles established such schools on their estates; and there were also schools for soldiers taught by Lancasterian methods. In 1821 Magnitski proposed to abolish district schools altogether in the Kazan Educational District, and to replace both district and parish schools by popular schools on the Lancasterian system; but the proposal was never carried out. In spite of the Emperor's prepossession in its favour, the system never became popular. Even during his lifetime it met with a good deal of quiet but determined opposition*; and after his death there was no further attempt made to extend it, though Lancasterian schools continued to exist at least as late as 1864. The whole number of rural parochial schools at the beginning of the next reign was not greater than 600.

Golitsyn had made many enemies among the orthodox party by his pietistic (or, as we should say, "evangelical") tendencies, and this party, having enlisted the powerful aid of Arakcheev, whose influence with Alexander was now supreme, procured his removal from the Ministry of Public Instruction in 1824. He was succeeded by Admiral Shishkov, a devoted son of the Orthodox Church and student of the Russian language, whose general attitude of mind in matters of religion and politics was that which came to be associated later with the ideas of Slavophilism.† His views of education

* See *Life of Allen*, II., p. 338, for reports of such opposition. Allen adds, "The Emperor has a difficult part to act." For further particulars as to the suspicion with which the Lancasterian schools were regarded and the presumed grounds for this suspicion, see Pypin's "*Social Movement under Alexander I.*," pp. 339-342.

† "Bon vieillard, simple, pieux, connu par une assez grande érudition, et par une connaissance approfondie de sa langue" is De Maistre's description of him (*Lettres et opuscules*, fourth edition, vol. iii., p. 395).

were set forth in a speech delivered before the *Glavnoe Pravlenie* a few months after his appointment, and are worth quoting, as they contain the germ of ideas which were for many years to come to dominate Russian educational policy. "Learning, without faith and without morality," he says, "does not constitute national happiness. Learning is as hurtful in a bad man as it is useful in a good man; and moreover it is useful only when, like salt, it is used and taught in due measure, having regard to the position in life of its recipient and the necessities of his particular vocation. A superfluity of learning is as much opposed to real enlightenment as a deficiency of it. To teach the whole people, or a disproportionate number of them, to read and write would do more harm than good. To instruct a farmer's son in rhetoric would be to make of him a bad and worthless, if not a positively dangerous, citizen. But instruction in the rules of conduct and in Christian virtues and good morals is necessary to everybody" (Schmid, p. 175.) In these words Shishkov clearly foreshadowed the main principles of the reorganisation of the educational system which took place at the beginning of the next reign. In other respects also the policy of Shishkov anticipated the coming régime. In a memorandum addressed to the same body (the *Glavnoe Pravlenie*) he called attention to the great variety of books and educational methods used in the schools, which rendered it impossible to make the instruction uniform or to maintain the desired control over its spirit. A Committee was formed at his instance to consider what measures could be adopted to simplify the system of instruction, and at the same time to make it more Russian and more Orthodox in tendency. The labours of this Committee were, however, interrupted by the death of Alexander, which took place on the 20th of November, 1825.

V.—REIGN OF NICHOLAS I. (1825–1855).

Nicholas I. was both in personal character and in general policy a striking contrast to his brother. He had no sympathy either with the liberal principles which underlay Alexander's earlier administration, nor with the dreamy mysticism which marked his later years. To the last Alexander was under the influence of vague ideas of liberty and constitutionalism. "They may say of me what they like," said he, shortly before his death, "I have lived and will die a Republican." And, however difficult it may be to reconcile Republican principles with the use of administrative instruments like Arakcheev and Magnitski, the difficulty is only an illustration of the many contradictions which Alexander's character and conduct exhibited. There were no such contradictions in the character of Nicholas. A man of inflexible will, and strong, though narrow, convictions, his policy was consistently devoted to the maintenance of the existing political system. He was the very embodiment of the spirit of authority, the firmly-convinced upholder of personal

rule at a time when autocracy seemed destined to be reckoned among the lost causes of Europe. A soldier by profession and training, he carried the spirit of the martinet into every branch of the public administration, and his reign was accordingly marked by an extension of the bureaucratic *régime* and an enlargement of the functions of Government which rendered all independent social initiative, and all freedom of thought and discussion, well-nigh impossible.

The effect of the new *régime* upon public education was direct and immediate. Before Nicholas could seat himself firmly on the throne, he had to quell a revolution. The liberal tendencies which had been encouraged in Russia during the early years of Alexander's reign, and had been further fostered during the Napoleonic wars by contact with the social systems and ideals of the West, had been driven more or less beneath the surface of society during the recent years of reaction, but on the death of Alexander they found ill-organised and futile expression in the attempt of the "men of December" to establish a constitutional monarchy. That attempt was put down with a stern hand, but the lesson of the 14th of December was never forgotten by Nicholas. Recognising an intimate connection between the recent political troubles and the "infection of ideas imported from abroad" (Manifesto of the 19th December), he determined to check the evil at its source by a radical reform in the whole system of Russian education. Within five months of his accession he appointed a "Committee for the Organisation of Educational Institutions," under the presidency of Shishkov, the object of which was to introduce uniformity into the educational system in regard both of administration and of methods of instruction, and in particular to institute a much more vigilant control over the text-books and note-books used in the schools and universities. Nicholas' own view of the problem before the Committee, and of the general lines upon which the contemplated educational reform should proceed, was clearly indicated in his Manifesto of the 13th July, in which the sentences upon the Decembrists were announced. "It is not to education," he says, "but to indolence of mind, which is a far more hurtful thing than indolence of the bodily powers, it is to the lack of solid intellectual attainments that we must attribute that self-willed habit of thought, which is the source of violent passions, that disastrous plethora of half-assimilated knowledge, and that impulse towards extreme visionary theories, of which the beginning is moral deterioration, and the end is ruin."* The word rendered "plethora" in the above extract (*roskosh* = excess, luxuriance) is one which was destined to play a prominent part in Russian school politics during the second quarter of the nineteenth century. It would be scarcely too much to say that the whole educational policy of Nicholas was shaped by his dread of "excess," or in other words by his desire to make the

* Schmid, pp. 217-219.

education imparted in the State Schools proportionate to the presumed need of the pupils, having regard to their present social status and future relations to the State. The positive ideas underlying his policy may be fairly summed up in the one word "discipline." He required that there should be greater concentration in the subjects of study, and that the school should concern itself with the training of the character as well as of the intellect. His condemnation of a system of education which aimed at imparting a little knowledge on many subjects was clearly directed against the encyclopædic curriculum of the educational system of 1804, though it touched also the superficial teaching in vogue at the private schools. A later rescript, addressed to the Minister of Public Instruction whilst the Committee was still in session, struck at the root of another of the leading ideas of the reform of 1804, viz., the educational ladder. In this rescript, after pointing out certain moral and social disadvantages which resulted from the instruction of children belonging to different ranks of society in the same school, the Emperor laid down the rule that, while the children of peasants might be educated in parish and district schools, the universities, gymnasia, and institutions of similar rank should be strictly reserved for the "free orders" (*svobodnyia sostoiania*). But while thus indicating the general lines of reform for the guidance of the Committee, he left all details to be worked out by them, and even deferred in minor matters (*e.g.*, with regard to the inclusion of Greek in the curriculum of the gymnasium) to their judgment.*

A memorandum on the reforms necessary in national education, which was drawn up at the Emperor's request by the poet Pushkin and presented to the Committee, possesses a special interest as showing what was the opinion formed of the situation by a man of high genius, who viewed the question from a detached standpoint. In this document Pushkin traces the rise and growth during the last fifteen years of liberal and revolutionary principles, and attributes them partly to the influence of foreign ideas, and partly to the absence of a sound system of education. He discusses the fascination which rank in the civil hierarchy exercised over the imagination of Russian society, and the effect it had in inducing young men to enter the public service as early as possible, so as to secure early promotion. They thus entered upon life without solid knowledge and without positive principles, and were left at the mercy of every new-fangled notion. The abolition of civic ranks would have great advantages, but as this was not practicable, they should be turned to the advantage of the State by being reserved for those only who had passed through the State Schools. He would therefore have all the Russian youth drawn into the State Schools, and would abolish the special examinations instituted

* Nicholas I. showed throughout his life a strong prejudice against the classics in education, and resolutely opposed the introduction of Latin into the plan of studies drawn up for the Tsarevich Alexander by his tutor, the poet Zhukovski, who was personally a convinced classicist.

by Speranski, in accordance with the *ukaz* of 1809. He condemns unsparingly the Russian system of private tuition which "confined the pupil to the study of two or three foreign languages, and a smattering of all the sciences, imparted by any hired teacher. Nor is the training afforded by the private boarding-schools much better. In either case the pupil finishes his studies at sixteen. We must not hesitate to crush private education at any cost." He would extend the course of the Secondary School by three years, in order that the minds of the pupils might have so much the more time to settle and mature before they entered on practical life. As to the subjects of the curriculum, he thinks languages take up too much time. Six years, for example, are too long to devote to French, which can easily be acquired by practice. But "what," he asks, "is the use of Latin and Greek? Is luxury permissible, where the lack of necessities is so keenly felt?" He condemns purely literary exercises in school, but would have history taught in the upper classes, so that young people on leaving school may not be swept off their feet by novel political ideas. Finally, "the study of Russia should, in the closing years of their course, chiefly occupy the minds of young men of the upper classes who are preparing for the service of their native country." * The particular measures advocated by Pushkin were not in all cases adopted, but his memorandum contains much which deserves study as a reflection of ideas current at the time.

The labours of the Committee for the Organisation of Schools extended over more than two and a half years, and finally resulted in the Statute of 8th December, 1828, relating to gymnasia, district and parish schools. This enactment, together with the regulations of 1833 and 1834 as to private schools and private tuition, and the new University Statute of 1835, embody the essence of the educational policy of Nicholas. The main features of the new educational system were as follows:—

(1) In the first place it broke finally and completely with the principle of the educational ladder. The governing idea of the new *régime* was that all instruction should be suited to the existing rank of its recipients. As things actually stood, this change of attitude was more important in principle than in reality, for it was stated by Shishkov before the Committee that scarcely one in a hundred of the pupils of the district schools proceeded as far as the Universities. Nevertheless the change was not accomplished without a spirited and eloquent protest from Prince Lieven, who was afterwards (1828–1833) Minister of Public Instruction. "In States," he told the Committee, "where classes are sharply divided one from another, where the passage from one to another, especially from the middle ranks of life to the nobility, is exceedingly difficult, and it seldom happens that nobility is awarded in return simply for long and distinguished service—in such States it is very easy to establish a caste-system of education. But in the Russian Empire, where there is no middle order, except in so far as it is represented by the trading class, where the artisan is in every respect

* Schmid, pp. 221–224.

equal to the agriculturist, where a well-to-do peasant may at any time become a merchant, and is often both peasant and merchant at the same time, where the line of nobility stretches out so far that at one end it touches the steps of the throne, and at the other is almost lost among the peasantry, where every year many belonging to the citizen and peasant class enter the order of nobility by the attainment of the necessary rank in the military or civil service—in the Russian Empire such an organization of schools presents difficulty." The Committee, however, took the view that "although the laws did not forbid the passage from one rank of life to another, still this could only take place as the result of special personal qualifications, and should by no means be the object of general endeavour; and therefore a public system of education should aim at securing for the children of each class such a training as would fit them to be useful and contented in that rank of life to which it had pleased a most high Providence to call them at their birth."* The statute, therefore, defined the special aim of parish schools as consisting in the "spread of such elementary knowledge, as was more or less useful to everybody, among persons of the very lowest ranks." The district schools, however, were to be open to all, as poor nobles might have difficulty in finding other means of educating their children, but were specially designed "to afford to the children of tradesmen, artisans, and other town-dwellers, . . . such instruction as would be most useful to them, having regard to their manner of life and their special needs and customs." The gymnasia were designed to serve the double purpose of preparing for the universities, and of affording a proper and sufficient education to such persons as were not able or willing to continue their education at the Universities, and they were stated to be intended chiefly for the sons of nobles and officials.

(2) In the second place, the *social* and *political* aims of education were brought into fuller prominence by the new legislation. The Government, having once realised the immense influence of the schools in moulding political opinion and social ideals, made it a prime motive of its policy to use the schools as a means of enforcing its own social and political views. Education in the reign of Nicholas became, to a degree never before reached in Russia, a branch of internal politics, with aims clearly defined and steadily kept in view. These aims were repeatedly formulated by Uvarov, who administered the educational system of Nicholas' reign for more than fifteen years (1834–1849), as consisting in the maintenance of the threefold principle of Orthodoxy, autocracy, and nationality.† It was not simply that the Government supervised closely the matter as well as the method of instruction in the State-provided

* Schmid, pp. 232, 233.

† See especially the Introduction to Uvarov's report on the first ten years of his ministry (*Desiatiletie Ministerstva Narodnago Prosvetsheniia*, 1833–43). The authorship of the formula above given—which became the watch-word of official nationalism in Russia—is usually ascribed to Uvarov: but it is said to have been used earlier by Karamzin.

schools. This had been done, more or less thoroughly, by its predecessors. The policy of Nicholas involved in addition a vigorous effort to establish a State monopoly in secondary and higher education. It was sought to attain this object, first, by adopting Pushkin's plan of "attracting the whole nobility into the State Schools," and, secondly, by assuming a stricter control over private schools and private tuition, and by limiting the right of Russian parents to send their children to schools abroad.

The increased control now exercised by the State over the gymnasias and other public schools affected not so much the subjects of instruction as the methods of administration, and the general spirit in which the schools were carried on. With the view of retaining the pupils under discipline and control as long as possible, the course of the gymnasias was extended to seven years. Side by side with the director of each school was now placed an *inspector*, who was specially responsible for the discipline and morals of the pupils, and for the due carrying out of the programs of instruction; and *honorary curators* were also appointed from amongst the local gentry to exercise a general supervision over the gymnasias. Uniformity of curricula was insisted upon; each subject was taught according to a prescribed scheme, and the choice of text-books was strictly limited. As regards the subjects entering into the curricula of the reorganised schools the changes made were comparatively few. It will be seen from the accompanying table of subjects and hours that the course of instruction in the new gymnasias differed but little from that of the reformed gymnasias of 1819, that is to say, it was predominantly, but by no means exclusively, classical and mathematical. Classics (in schools where Greek was taught) occupied about 28 per cent. of the whole available school time; mathematics (in schools without Greek) and Russian literature each occupied 14 per cent. Religion, history, and geography were also important subjects. The social and political sciences which figured so prominently in the curricula of 1804 now disappeared almost entirely. The question of the position which the classical languages should occupy in the gymnasium course was not decided without a good deal of controversy. Pushkin, as before stated, advocated the exclusion of Latin as being a mere educational luxury; and in this he undoubtedly voiced the opinion of the great mass of the nobles, who cared nothing for classics, either for their own sake or as the necessary basis of a University education. The view of Pushkin did not, however, commend itself to the majority of the Committee, which had to consider not only the wishes of the nobility, but the interests of Russian scholarship in general. They, nevertheless, hesitated considerably as to the place to be assigned to Greek. In the discussion of this question the influence of Uvarov was, to the surprise of many of his friends, cast into the scale against the indiscriminate introduction of Greek into the curriculum of all the gymnasias. Speaking with all the authority of a man who was at once a fine classical scholar and an educational administrator of wide experience, he

declared his opinion that the time was not yet ripe in Russia for the general teaching of Greek in the gymnasia. "What advantage," he asked, "can we expect from feeble, immature, and superficial instruction in the Greek language in our distant provinces? Where shall we find capable teachers of the subject when, putting aside Professor Gräfe, who has a European reputation as a Hellenist of the first rank, we have barely three or four of his pupils who possess the necessary qualifications for a professorial chair?" In view of this lack of qualified teachers, he proposed that Greek should be taught only in the gymnasia of University towns, "and, perhaps, also in Riga and Mitau." This was the solution of the question which was ultimately adopted. The law of 1828 ordained that Greek should be taught in University towns, adding, however, that "as necessity arose and opportunity offered, the teaching of this subject should be introduced into other gymnasia also." The schools were encouraged to take up Greek by the provision that those pupils who had studied this language should, on leaving the gymnasium, be admitted *at once* into the fourteenth class in the scale of ranks, a highly-prized privilege at a time when hereditary nobles had to wait a year for the same distinction, and others as long as five years. A glance at the table on the next page will show that, whereas Latin was taught from the first class upward, Greek was begun only in the fourth class, and that the time devoted to it was obtained partly at the expense of mathematics, and partly at that of either German or French; only one of these modern languages being obligatory where Greek was taught. The official scheme of instruction in the classical languages was drawn up by Gräfe and Middendorff, Director of the Pedagogical Institute at St. Petersburg, who are stated to have taken as their models the Lehrplan of the contemporary Prussian Gymnasia and Realschulen with Latin.

The course in the district schools included instruction in religion, the Russian language, writing, arithmetic, geometry, geography, history, and drawing. Practically, therefore, the curriculum was the same as that of the gymnasium, omitting languages, but the range of the instruction in each subject was, of course, narrower. The State now made itself entirely responsible for the maintenance of these schools, as it had already done in the case of the gymnasia and the Universities. The course of the district schools was also extended to five years; and provision was made for supplementary courses in commercial and technical subjects. The curriculum of the parish schools was left untouched.

THE GYMNASIA IN NICHOLAS' REIGN.

CURRICULUM ACCORDING TO THE STATUTE OF 1828.

Subjects.	Cl.i.	ii.	iii.	Gymna-ia with Greek.				Total.	Gymnasia without Greek.				Tot.
				iv.	v.	vi.	vii.		iv.	v.	vi.	vii.	
1. Religion	3	3	3	3	1½	1½	1½	16½	3	1½	1½	1½	1
2. Russian* (Language and Literature, with Logic).	6	6	6	4½	4½	4½	3	34½	4½	4½	4½	3	3
3. Latin	6	6	6	6	6	4½	4½	39	6	6	4½	4½	3
4. Greek	—	—	—	7½	7½	7½	7½	30	—	—	—	—	—
5. German	3	3	3	4½	4½	4½	4½	27	4½	4½	4½	4½	2
6. French	—	—	—										
7. Mathematics	6	6	6	1½	1½	1½	—	22½	4½	4½	4½	3	2
8. Geography and Statistics	3	3	3	1½	1½	—	3	15	1½	1½	—	3	1
9. History	—	—	3	3	4½	4½	4½	19½	3	4½	4½	4½	1
10. Physics	—	—	—	—	—	3	3	6	—	—	3	3	—
11. Writing	6	6	3	—	—	—	—	15	—	—	—	—	1
12. Drawing	3	3	3	1½	1½	1½	1½	15	1½	1½	1½	1½	1
Total number of hours	36	36	36	33	33	33	33	240	33	33	33	33	240

* This included Slavonic, which was commenced in the iv. class.

The reorganisation of the State schools was only a part, and, indeed, the least important part, of the problem with which the Government had set itself to deal. The chief difficulty in its path arose from the successful competition which private schools and private tuition maintained with the State schools. It must be borne in mind that the great majority of private tutors in the families of the nobility, and of the keepers of the private schools to which the nobility sent their sons by preference, were still foreigners. It was naturally felt to be intolerable that the training of the governing classes of Russia should be to so large an extent in the hands of foreigners. That such should be the case was due to the unique position which Russia occupied in relation to European civilisation. It was part of the penalty she had to pay for becoming a learner in the school of Western culture. No Government, however, could be expected to acquiesce permanently in such a state of things. Least of all could a State which had inscribed on its educational banner the triple device of Orthodoxy, autocracy and nationality, rest satisfied to leave the education of the flower of its aristocracy in the hands of men who were aliens by birth and language, who belonged as a rule to religious communions historically hostile to the Orthodox Church, and whose political sympathies might be presumed to be reserved for a social order widely different from that of Russia. Pushkin had said "We must not hesitate to crush private instruction at any cost," and Shishkov at first proposed to close all private schools at the expiration of a given limit of time. The proposal was, however, opposed by other members of the Committee, including Prince Lieven, on the ground that not all private schools were bad, and that at present Russia was not in a position to dispense wholly with them without the risk of doing serious injury to education. The law of 1828 consequently made no essential change in the position of private schools, though it contained a number of provisions having in view the maintenance of a close supervision of their work on the part of the State authorities, and directed in particular that their curricula should as far as possible be approximated to those of the State schools. For the moment the policy adopted by the Government aimed at weakening their influence by making the State schools more attractive to the nobility. The experience of a quarter of a century had shown how strong was the objection felt by the nobility to allowing their sons to mix freely in school with children not of their own class. This objection was now admitted to be reasonable, and in order to meet it and at the same time to afford to children belonging to the noble class the opportunity of a more thorough education than the private schools could offer, the Government decided to establish *blagorodnye pansiony*, or boarding-houses for the nobility, in connexion with the gymnasia. These boarding-houses, which became very popular (by the year 1849 they had been established in connexion with 47 out of a total of 75 gymnasia, and we are told in an official document of that year that they were nearly always full), fulfilled

an educational function apart from the purely social objects for which they were primarily devised. They were permitted to add to the course of the gymnasia "certain subjects more properly belonging to the education of the higher classes." These subjects included in practice gymnastics, music, singing, fencing, riding and dancing: and much greater stress was laid on the acquisition of a fluent command of foreign languages. For example, in the boarding-house of the Kiev gymnasium the pupils were allowed to speak Russian only on Sundays, the week-days being divided equally between French and German. Day-boarders were admitted and an important philanthropic purpose was served by the free maintenance in the boarding-houses at the cost of the nobility of a considerable number of children of poor members of their order.

Thus upon the day-school system of Alexander I., which ignored all differences of social status, was engrafted the boarding-house system of Nicholas I., founded on caste distinctions. Alongside of the gymnasium open to the free orders and maintained by the State appeared the boarding-house, under the same management as the gymnasium, but maintained at the cost of the nobility, and closed to all save the sons of nobles and officials of the eighth rank and upwards. A further development in the same direction were the "institutes for gentlemen's sons" which were sanctioned in various provinces, and enjoyed all the privileges of the gymnasia, but with a course shortened by the omission of the lowest class or two classes. All these concessions to class feeling had the effect of greatly increasing the popularity of the gymnasia among the nobility.

The success of the State schools, however, was not secured without further repressive measures directed by the Government against private schools and private tuition. A circular issued in 1831 by Prince Lieven, as Minister of Public Instruction, made it very difficult for foreigners to open new boarding schools in Russia, by requiring that any person seeking permission to do so should be accredited by the Russian Embassy in the country of his origin, and should also have resided five years in Russia, and be able to present satisfactory certificates of good conduct during that period, before his application could be granted. Count Uvarov, on his accession to office in 1833, went still further. In November of that year the establishment of new private boarding-schools in St. Petersburg and Moscow was wholly forbidden. In other places permission to open boarding-schools might be granted in cases of "extreme necessity," but only where it appeared that the educational facilities provided by the State were inadequate. In any case—and this is most important of all—the right to open new private boarding-schools was reserved to Russian subjects. Gradually the reins of control over all private schools were drawn tighter and tighter. The supervision of those in the two capitals was entrusted to certain academicians, professors, or officials of the Ministry of Public Instruction, who were appointed to the office of inspector by the Minister, but were immediately responsible to

the curators of the respective Educational Districts; and they were instructed to see that special attention was paid in all the schools under their charge to the teaching of religion, the Russian language, Russian geography and history, and that all instruction was, as far as possible, given in the Russian language. "The regulations as to inspectors of private schools in the two capitals" (we quote from the official memorandum on Russian private schools, published in 1857) "completed the general system of private schools within the Empire. The main features of this system are, the placing of private schools under Government supervision, which became ever more and more stringent; the restriction of the influence of foreign keepers of boarding-schools, ending with the absolute refusal to foreigners who had not assumed Russian nationality of the permission to maintain private boarding-schools; the strengthening of the Russian element, not only by entrusting the work of education to Russian subjects, but by making instruction in the Russian language, in Russian geography and Russian history obligatory in private boarding-schools; and, lastly, the aggrandisement of the educational institutions of the State at the expense of the private schools by limiting the number of the latter."*

To this summary it is important to add that the curricula of all private schools was bound, according to the provisions of the statute of 1835, to approximate as nearly as possible to those of the State schools, so that the private schools fell naturally into three categories, corresponding respectively to the gymnasia, the district schools, and the parish schools. A later regulation which had important consequences was the fixing, in 1847, of a normal limit to the number of private schools which were allowed to exist at any one time in the two capitals.

Measures of equal stringency were directed against the liberty of foreigners in respect of private tuition. Nobles, officials, and merchants were in 1834 strictly forbidden to employ foreign tutors who had not received a certificate from one of the Russian Universities; and in the same year was issued the Imperial order which for many years continued to regulate the position of private tutors in Russia. By this order the status of private tutor (*nastavnik*) was reserved to persons who possessed a certificate or diploma from one of the Russian Universities or Theological Academies; that of private teacher (*uchitel*) was obtained by passing a special examination in those subjects which the candidate professed to teach;† both classes of teachers had, if Russians, certain definite rights assured to them in respect of *chia* and other distinctions, and both were placed under the supervision of the Director of Schools in each province. Persons teaching either in private houses or in schools without the necessary legal qualification were punished by fine and prosecution in the case of Russians, and by

* *O polozenii nashikh chastnykh uchebnykh zavedenii*, p. 17.

† But the corresponding status could be obtained without examination by women who had completed a course in one of the institutions of the Empress Maria.

expulsion from the country in the case of foreigners. A later regulation of the same year dealt with the qualifications required from private teachers who gave mere elementary instruction. It had already (in 1831) been made illegal to send the children of Russian parents abroad for education between the ages of ten and eighteen, exceptions to this rule being permitted only with the Emperor's own consent. Among the reasons assigned for this measure was the fact that young Russians educated abroad "sometimes return to Russia with the most erroneous ideas concerning their native country: knowing nothing of its true requirements, its laws, manners, social order, nor in many cases of its language, they are strangers in the midst of everything that pertains to their fatherland."

The administration of the secondary schools was now (1835) taken out of the hands of the universities, and transferred wholly to the Curator, assisted by a council, which included among the members the rector of the University. The system of control by the universities had never worked well, owing to the enormous distances which separated the university towns from many of the provincial gymnasia, and the increased number of schools had now made its continued existence impracticable. The change now instituted had the effect of rendering the efficiency of the gymnasia less dependent upon that of the universities, and was thus to the advantage of gymnasia and universities alike. The parish and district schools were also placed under the direct supervision of the Curator of the Educational Districts.

The remodelling of the university system followed that of the Primary and Secondary Schools. The catastrophes of the latter part of the preceding reign had left the universities in a complete state of disorganisation and decay. In many cases the occupants of professorial chairs had not even the university degrees required by statute for the posts they held. Many chairs were vacant, or were held by a single professor in conjunction with other offices. It was necessary at once to adopt temporary measures to restore the universities to some degree of efficiency. In 1828 recourse was again had to the old plan of sending students to foreign universities to be prepared for professorships. The prohibition of this system had, in fact, defeated its own object; for by reducing the supply of thoroughly-trained Russian professors it had not only lowered the intellectual standard of university teaching, but had made it impossible to impart to it that national impress to which the Emperor and his advisers attached so much importance. Twenty of the most promising students were now selected from the Russian Universities and sent for a three years' course of training at Dorpat, to be followed by an additional two years at Berlin or Paris; the Emperor insisting as a *conditio sine qua non* that every student selected for the purpose should be of Russian parentage. A "Professorial Institute" was created at Dorpat, with one of the local professors as director, to provide for the instruction of these future holders of Russian chairs; and during the ten years of the existence

of this Institute no less than twenty-three University professors were actually thus trained. Six students were also selected from the Ecclesiastical Academies of St. Petersburg and Moscow to be prepared abroad for professorships in law. In addition to these measures, the Pedagogical Institute of St. Petersburg, which had been merged in the University in 1819, was restored, with the object of preparing professors for the universities and teachers for the schools. In 1833 the University of Kiev was founded to replace the recently-suppressed University of Vilna and received a temporary constitution which remained in force until 1842.* Meantime a general scheme for the reorganisation of the university system was being elaborated in the Ministry of Public Instruction. It was completed and embodied in legislative form in 1835 by Uvarov, who had now succeeded Prince Lieven as Minister.

By the new University Statute, which applied to all the universities of the Empire, except those of Kiev and Dorpat, the principle of academic autonomy was almost entirely abandoned. The universities were deprived of their judicial powers, and although general educational administration was left in the hands of the University Council, the latter exercised these functions subject to the control of the Curator. The Executive Committee of the Council (*Pravlenie*), consisting of the rector and deans of faculties, with a State-appointed Syndic, retained in its hands the financial administration, but became practically independent of the Council, to which it no longer reported its proceedings. The rector and deans of faculties continued to be elected by the Council from their own body, but they held office for four years, and their election was subject to confirmation in the case of the rector by the Emperor, and in the case of the deans by the Minister. The professors and adjuncts were also still elected by the University Council, subject to the confirmation of the Minister; but to the latter was also reserved the right of appointment without reference to the Council. A professor was required to hold a Doctor's degree, and an adjunct that of Magister, in the faculty in which he lectured. Great authority in all matters of academic administration was entrusted to the Curator, who was now required to reside in the university.

* An interesting statement of the objects with which the University of Kiev was founded is contained in a Report by Uvarov, entitled "Ten Years' Work of the Ministry of Public Instruction, 1833-1843" (p. 39). He says: "The new University was intended, so far as possible, to smooth away the various characteristic features which distinguish the youth of Poland from those of Russia, and especially to suppress in them the idea of a separate nationality, to bring them into closer and closer touch with Russian ideas and customs, to communicate to them the general spirit of the Russian nation. The bringing together of the Russian and Polish youth in the ancient metropolis of Russia; the thorough study of the Russian language and literature, and acquaintance with Russian institutions and systems—such were the principal means by which it was sought to attain this important end."

town of his district.* He exercised a general oversight over the discipline of the universities, acting for this purpose chiefly through the inspector, who was no longer, as formerly, a professor appointed by his colleagues, but might be a military officer or civil servant brought in from outside, and was in any case appointed directly by the Curator, and responsible to him alone. All students were now required to wear uniform. Divinity and church history and law were made obligatory subjects for students in all faculties. The number of faculties was reduced to three by making the faculty of humanities and that of physical and mathematical sciences into two separate departments (called respectively the philological and the mathematical) in a new faculty of philosophy. The old faculty of moral and political sciences was renamed the faculty of law, and in it were established new chairs in modern Russian law, with the special object of preparing students for a career in the public service; at the same time philosophy and political economy were transferred from this faculty to the Department of philology in the faculty of philosophy, which also received chairs in Russian and Slavonic history.

The connection of these changes with the maintenance of the "threefold idea of Orthodoxy, autocracy, and nationality" is sufficiently obvious; but there can also be no doubt that, in their purely educational aspects, they were conceived in the interests of efficiency. Later enactments of the reign with regard to the universities were all in the direction of reducing still further such fragments of academic freedom as were left to them under the Statutes of 1835. By the Statute of Kiev University, promulgated in 1842, the rector was appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction from two candidates elected by the University. The Institute of Docents, also, which had existed at Dorpat since 1820, was introduced at Kiev, in order to provide for future vacancies in the ranks of the professors without the necessity of sending students abroad to be prepared for these posts. In these and other respects the Kiev Statute foreshadowed the changes adopted with regard to other Universities in 1849.

The ministry of Uvarov (1833-1849) constitutes an important epoch in the history of Secondary and Higher Education in Russia. Politically, the period was one of arrested progress; educationally it was a time of great advance, for the most part along national lines, the political conditions of the time being reflected in a certain aloofness of attitude on the part of the official classes towards the main tendencies of contemporary European thought. In the domain of education this intellectual aloofness expressed itself in

* This requirement had the indirect effect of reducing enormously the importance of the *Glasnoe Pravitelnie*, since it was thus made impossible for its most important members, the Curators, to attend its sittings regularly. By the end of the reign its existence had become merely nominal; and in 1862 it was transformed into a "Council of the Minister" of the type existing in other departments of State. At the same time the Scientific Committee of the *Glasnoe Pravitelnie* was re-constituted as the "Scientific Committee of the Ministry," and was brought into more direct relations with the Minister.

the assumption that for Russia the period of imitation was over ; that henceforth she would learn from Europe all that it was useful for her to know, but would slavishly copy neither European principles nor methods. This idea runs through many of the official documents of the time. "Having outlived the period of indiscriminate imitation," we read in the Journal of the Ministry of Public Instruction for 1833, "Russia is better able than her foreign teachers to adapt the fruits of education to her own peculiar requirements ; she clearly distinguishes the good from the evil in the rest of Europe ; she makes use of the former, while rejecting the latter, for she bears within her heart these two sacred pledges of her happiness—faith and nationality, with which is indissolubly joined a third—autocracy " (Schmid, p. 300). And again : "The Government, viewing with favour every new manifestation of intellectual activity within its own borders and abroad, taking advantage of every new experiment, and following with attention every step and every change in European education, is firmly convinced, and clearly indicates its view, that all these movements, methods, and experiments can only be useful to us in certain respects, when they are adjusted to the course of *our own* civic development, to the requirements of *our own* State institutions, and are not out of harmony with *our own* national sentiment " (Schmid, p. 293).

This official attitude of critical reserve towards the intellectual movements of Western Europe did not prevent Russian education from making material progress during the period under consideration. On the contrary, the administration of Uvarov was distinguished by a steady advance in the efficiency both of the universities and the gymnasia. Both increased rapidly in numbers and public consideration, and in the forties, at any rate, began to attract the sons of nobles and higher officials to an extent hitherto unknown, thus accomplishing one of the main objects which the Government had had in view in the reorganisation of the educational system.* The universities ceased to serve as mere training schools for the teaching profession, and began to be real nurseries of higher learning and centres of scientific research. Of the scholars and men of letters or of action who distinguished themselves in the next reign, especially during the "period of great reforms," a very large proportion had passed through the Uvarovskian gymnasia, or the universities, or both. A list of such men would include almost all the Russian names most familiar to English ears—Turgenev, the Aksakovs, Ostrovski, Katkov, Leontiev, and many others of hardly less note. It is not a mere historical coincidence that the State schools of Nicholas's reign should have this array of famous names to point to ; all other available evidence leads to the conclusion that, despite many defects of method and equipment, and the lack of proper

* See Uvarov's general résumé of the results attained during the first ten years of his administration (*Desiatiletie*, pp. 32-34).

pedagogical training on the part of many of the teachers, the secondary schools were as a rule well taught up to the standard of that time, and that the advance made in University teaching during the first twenty years of the reign was even more remarkable than the improvement in the efficiency of the schools. Nevertheless the lack of a sufficient supply of qualified instructors continued to be severely felt both by the universities and the gymnasia. Frequent exceptions had to be made to the rule which required the Doctor's degree in the case of a University professor, and that of Magister in the case of an Adjunct. Of the headmasters at least one-third had no degrees.

That progress was made under such difficulties was due in no small measure to the influence of Uvarov's own personality. In the instruments of his educational policy Nicholas was as fortunate as Alexander had been otherwise; and by none was he better served than by Uvarov. Working in entire accord with the general aims of the Emperor's policy, he was yet able by wise and liberal methods of administration to temper within certain limits the rigidity of the bureaucratic *régime*;^{*} his sincere and lifelong interest in education, and his wide range of intellectual sympathies made their influence felt upon his subordinates in the public service; as an administrator he was keen, capable, and tactful, as a disciplinarian firm to the point of severity; while his own position and achievements in the field of scholarship were sufficient to win the respect of the most brilliant professors and educational workers of the time and to secure their loyal support for his administration. As regards university teaching opinion was certainly repressed within certain strictly-defined limits; but the pressure was at any rate evenly and consistently applied. There was none of that uncertain and spasmodic harring of opinion which had so much hindered the progress of higher education in the second and third decades of the century. The secondary schools, based as they were in the main upon principles which Uvarov had consistently advocated since 1809, were the objects of his special solicitude as Minister. Hence it is that Russian

^{*} Thus at Kazan Oriental languages were allowed to be substituted for Greek, Slavonic, and German; at Archangel English was introduced; in the Siberian gymnasia instruction was given in Russian law and judicial procedure; commercial and technical courses were instituted in connection with the gymnasia in places where local circumstances indicated that such courses would be useful. It may be interesting to quote Uvarov's words *à propos* of the teaching of Oriental languages at Kazan, as it contains a comment upon a characteristic of the Russian educational system which never fails to strike a foreign observer. "The lack of local and special application has already been one of the chief difficulties which the Ministry of Public Instruction has encountered in the development of the educational system. The same subjects in precisely the same form have been supposed to be taught on the Dwina and on the Kam, on the shores of the Baltic Sea and on the banks of the Caspian. It has been shown to be useless and impossible to reduce all the requirements of such different regions of the Empire to one unchangeable plan, to one fixed immovable form, and this unpractical principle has been without doubt the main reason of the lack of confidence felt in our schools, and of the inadequate influence which some of them have exercised upon the localities in which they were situated."

Secondary Education of the middle of the century has become peculiarly associated with his name; for while the schools of the three great predecessors of Nicholas are known respectively as Petrine, Catherinian, and Alexandrine, those of Nicholas' own reign are called only by the name of Uvarov—*Uvarovskiiia uchilistcha*.

But for the real explanation of the educational progress made during the reign of Nicholas we must look to circumstances lying wholly outside the region of bureaucratic administration and methods. The second quarter of the nineteenth century was signalised in Russia by one of those spontaneous outbursts of intellectual activity which occur in the history of every civilised nation, and which, however we may explain their historical genesis, it seems vain to attempt to assign exclusively to any mere combination of external causes. We refer to the brilliant literary and scientific Renaissance which reached its culmination in the forties, but was the natural outgrowth of an intellectual movement dating from the beginning of the previous decade. On its purely literary side this movement may be regarded as the continuation of the splendid literary tradition which had been established by Pushkin, and which was now worthily maintained by a line of successors, such as Lermontov, Koltzov and Gogol, with others of lesser note, who all wrote during the thirties and forties. But on its scientific and philosophical side, which was more important than the literary, it took its direction under the influence of those very tendencies of Western thought, which were regarded in official circles with so much suspicion.

The early thirties mark the opening of an entirely new era in the intellectual life of Russia—an era of constructive thought, distinguished from those which preceded it by the fact that the search for organising principles now took the place of the more or less superficial appropriation of the results of Western culture. The new spirit manifested itself first of all in an intellectual movement affecting certain groups of young men who were studying at the Moscow University. This movement had two sides, one politico-social, the other philosophical; the former found its most typical representatives in such men as Herzen and Ogarev, who in some sort carried on the political traditions of the Decembrists, but were more definitely influenced by the social doctrines of Saint-Simonism: the latter in the members of the circle of Stankevich, which occupied itself mainly with the study of German philosophy, particularly the doctrines of Schelling and Hegel. The Stankevich circle included in the early thirties men who ten years later stood as widely apart as Belinski on the one hand and I. Kireevski and I. Aksakov on the other, but who for the moment found common ground in the study of the abstractions of the Hegelian system. In particular, Hegel's doctrine of the dialectical process as applied to history, which was then exerting over European thought as great an influence as the theory of evolution was destined to exercise a generation or two later, was eagerly accepted by all the members of the Stankevich circle, though it was afterwards applied by them to Russian con-

ditions in ways widely differing according to their individual predilections. As time went on, the interests of the Stankevich circle began to be transferred from abstract problems of philosophy to social questions, and in consequence of this a cleavage took place between its liberal and conservative sections. The former now drew closer to the group of social reformers of whom Herzen was the central figure, and out of this fusion arose the new party of Westernists (*Zapadniki*) whose controversy with the Slavophiles during the forties forms one of the great episodes of the intellectual history of Russia, and has also profoundly influenced its social life in many directions. In view of the importance of this controversy we may venture briefly to recall its main features.

The question at issue was the attitude which Russia should assume towards Western culture. The Slavophiles started with a belief in the moral bankruptcy of European civilisation resulting, as they maintained, from its materialism and rationalism.* Fully accepting the theory of Hegel as to the historical succession of peoples, they proclaimed that Russia, with her capacity to combine religious with intellectual culture was the destined historical successor of the effete West. This capacity was assumed to result from the special advantage which Orthodoxy possessed over Protestantism with its tendency to degenerate into rationalism on the one hand, and over Catholicism with its disposition to tyrannise over the reason on the other. Hence they decried all borrowings from the West, belittled the work of Peter the Great and the whole "Petersburg" period of Russian history, would approve of nothing in the existing State organisation which could not be traced back to pre-Petrine times, and sought the germs of an independent national culture in the traditions, customs, beliefs and ideals of the mass of the people who were as yet untouched by Western influences. The Westernists contested the assumption that the civilisation of the West had entered on the period of decay, protested against the idealisation of primitive forms of culture, maintaining in particular the essential superiority of the conscious results of intellectual labour over unconscious or semi-articulate traditions and beliefs, and proclaimed that the only condition under which Russia could carry forward the work of civilisation lay in her acceptance of the results of Western civilisation as the starting-point for future progress.

* As a comment on the attitude of the Slavophiles towards Western civilisation, it is worthy of remark that every important feature of their doctrine can be traced back to a Western source. They accepted the theories of Hegel on the philosophy of history, but they also owed much to the influence of Schelling, who represented in philosophy the same movement as found expression in Romanticism in literature, viz., the reaction against the rationalising tendencies of the "illumination" period. The romantic mysticism of Schelling wedded to the theories of the unconscious growth of institutions as expounded by Savigny, and to the vague ideas of nationalism which were afloat in men's minds as the result of the new interest in national psychology created by the events following the French Revolution, account for nearly everything in the Slavophil creed which was not borrowed from Hegel. See an article by Prof. P. Vinogradoff on "L. V. Kireevski and the beginnings of Moscow Slavophilism." in *Voprosy Filosofii i Psikhologii*, 1892, No. 11,

The direct effect of the Slavophil controversy upon Russian education was very great, if only because of the enormous impetus which it gave to the study of history, archæology, and law, and of national literature, folk-lore and institutions. But the questions debated between the Slavophiles and the Westernists represent only one phase of the intellectual movement which resulted in Russia during the forties from contact with Western thought. We have also to take into account the influence exerted at this period by the brilliant band of young Russian scholars who had been educated, generally at the expense of the State, in German universities and who from 1835 onwards, began to return to Russia in order to occupy chairs at the Universities. During their residence abroad they had come under the influence of all those great movements of thought which proceeded from the German Universities and so profoundly affected European scholarship and science during the first half of last century. Their great place of resort was the University of Berlin, then at the very height of its fame and influence. Here they had attended the lectures of Hegel or of his immediate disciples; they had studied history in the light of the critical methods of Niebuhr and Ranke; they had been the personal pupils of teachers of European authority like Savigny, Eichhorn, Raumer and Ritter. During the later thirties and the early forties the chairs of the Russian Universities were being rapidly filled by young Russian professors, who had been trained under the conditions above described and were qualified both by attainments and natural capacity to infuse a new spirit into the university teaching of their native country. The statement of Uvarov in an official report of the year 1843, that "in the chairs of the Russian Universities were to be found young Russian professors in no wise inferior to the best foreign teachers, but with this difference that attachment to everything national creates a true bond of union between teachers and taught" was already fully justified by the work which was being done for Russian science by men like Redkin and Krylov, Kriukov and Granovski.

The particular home of this intellectual movement was the University of Moscow, which now attained the position (never since entirely lost) of being the main focus of the constructive thought of Russia. Seldom in the history of any country has so much intellectual power been concentrated within the walls of a single teaching institution as was to be found in the University of Moscow during the forties. History was taught in the Westernist spirit by Granovski, Kudriavtsev, Soloviev, Kavelin, while the Slavophil point of view was represented by Shevryiev, whose special field was the history of Russian literature; Redkin and Krylov lectured on law; Katkov on the history of philosophy; Leontiev on Greek Mythology and Roman antiquities. But the movement was by no means a purely academic one. Closely associated with the leaders of thought within the university were other men of not less note, who were connected with the university merely as former students—Slavophiles like I. V. Kireevski, who

edited the *Moskvitanin*, and gave to Slavophilism its philosophical basis; Khomiakov, who undertook the rehabilitation of Byzantinism; K. Aksakov, and Iury Samarin—Westernists, like Herzen, Botkin, and that keenest of literary gladiators, Belinski, whose articles in the *Otechestvennyia Zapiski*, which he edited from St. Petersburg, were models of the skilful treatment of social questions under a thin veil of literary criticism. Under the influence of these diverse currents of thought a new interest in intellectual matters spread in the educated society of Russia. That society was still small and homogeneous enough to make the communication of ideas easy, and the very absence of any public life in which educated persons standing outside the bureaucracy could share, caused them to throw themselves with all the more zest into the discussion of purely literary and intellectual questions. In this cultivated society thought began to be busy on all the problems of social politics, the public discussion of which was forbidden; the articles of Belinski were eagerly scanned not only for the sake of their charm of style, and the critical insight which they displayed, but also for the sake of much that was only indirectly implied by the writer and had to be read between the lines: the lecture-hall of Granovski was crowded with hearers ready to applaud not only the eloquence and historical learning of the professor, but also the skill and courage which could make a lecture on Charlemagne the occasion for the expression of opinion as to the debt owed by Russia to the civilisation of the West. Thus it was that, in spite of the narrow limits set to speech and writing by the policy of the State, the time of Nicholas I. was a period of unprecedented intellectual activity and progress, and one in which the forces of thought, even though denied full expression for the moment, were nevertheless silently preparing the ground for the social and educational reforms of the next reign.

The influence of the movement of the forties upon the intellectual life of Russia was indeed profound and far-reaching. Not only did it give a strong immediate impulse to the progress of science in directions which have been already indicated, and cause a great diffusion of intellectual interests among the rank and file of Russian society, but the movement of the sixties in favour of primary education was largely affected by ideas which took shape under its influence, particularly by the new respect for the common people which was the best result of the Slavophil teaching, and by the studies of Russian national life and institutions which were undertaken in the Russian universities. But the deepest significance of the movement is to be found in the fact that it marks the point in the intellectual history of Russia when the public opinion of educated society definitely forsakes the lead of the autocracy and establishes itself as an independent social force.

The increased diffusion of intellectual interests led directly and naturally to an increased demand for education. Both the gymnasias and the universities filled rapidly in the later thirties and in the forties. In 1847 the number of gymnasists was about 20,000,

or nearly three times as many as at the end of Alexander I.'s reign. The number of university students had increased at about half the same rate. No sooner, however, had this increased demand for education shown itself than the Government began to feel alarmed lest its principle of adapting education to the rank of its recipient should be endangered. As early as 1840 Uvarov called attention in a circular to the necessity for taking precautions lest the general desire for higher education should lead to the creation of an intellectual proletariat. "In my opinion," he says, "while perfect fairness should be observed in the admission of students (to the universities), some attention should be paid both to the origin of the young men who devote themselves to the higher studies and to the future which awaits them. If, on the one hand a wide development of intellectual capacities is an undoubted advantage, on the other hand this development should be commensurate with the needs of the student in his future civic vocation. Although in dealing with this subject it is difficult to assign definite limits, or to lay down hard and fast rules, we may and should be guided by the consideration that, in view of the desire for education which is everywhere growing, the time has come to take care that this extraordinary aspiration towards the higher subjects of study shall not be suffered to disturb in any way the existing class-system, by awakening in youthful minds the impulse to acquire unnecessary knowledge, which cannot be successfully applied in practice."* The demands for higher and secondary education continued, however, to increase, and in 1845 it was determined to check it by raising the fees both in the universities and in the gymnasias. It was categorically stated by Uvarov in proposing this measure that it was required not so much on economic grounds, as by the need of restraining the aspirations of young men for education within limits corresponding in some degree to existing social divisions.

The frankly aristocratic tendencies of the administration were nowhere so clearly manifested as in the attitude of the Government towards the instruction of the lower classes. Practically nothing was done by the Ministry of Public Instruction to extend primary education among the rural population. The only effective steps taken in this direction were due to the initiative of another department of State, viz., the Ministry of Imperial Domains, which began in the thirties to establish village schools for the State peasants. The particular object of these schools, which were maintained by special taxes levied on the peasants themselves, was to train the clerks needed in the work of rural administration. Their number slowly increased, until in 1853 there were about 3,000 of them providing Primary Education for nearly 150,000 children of the peasant class. Statistics are wanting as to the number of rural Primary Schools under the control of the Ministry of Education, but it is probable that they were few. So long as serfdom continued in Russia, it was difficult for any effective

* Schmid, p. 345.

system of Primary Education to take root, as such a system must always depend for its success on the co-operation of the landed proprietors, who were apt to regard the education of their serfs as incompatible with their own interests. Such elementary instruction as was diffused among the mass of the people was imparted by means of the so-called *shkoly gramoty*, or reading-and-writing schools, of which there seem to have been a great number, leading a precarious and unrecognised existence, but really serving a useful purpose in bringing the rudiments of learning within the reach of the lowest class of the population. It will be remembered, of course, that Finland had an educational system of its own, and that Poland continued to be separately administered until the late sixties. The case of the Baltic Provinces was also peculiar. Here a certain degree of instruction had been fairly general among the Lutheran population since Reformation times, owing to the fact that the ability to read and write was required by the Lutheran Church as a qualification for confirmation; and from the forties onward a large number of Lutheran Primary Schools began to spring up in the provinces, as the result of the revived interest of the squires and pastors in the education of the Lettish and Esthonian peasantry. For the Orthodox population of these provinces about a hundred special schools were also established with the assistance of the Government, and placed under the supervision of the Orthodox clergy. But the Orthodox teachers were poorly paid, and the schools were not a success.

Uvarov ceased to hold office as Minister of Public Instruction in October, 1849. Six months before his resignation he had become responsible for a measure which went far to undo the work of his life, devoted as it had been mainly to the spread of classical learning in Russia. In order to understand how this surprising result came about, it is necessary to recall the fact that the year 1848 was a time of political trouble and revolution throughout Western Europe. Fears, based on a somewhat slight foundation in actual fact, began to be entertained that this revolutionary movement might affect Russia, and led the authorities to examine anxiously the bases of the existing educational system. The classics fell under suspicion of encouraging republican sentiments, or at any rate of weakening the sentiment of allegiance to the established order of things in Church and State. This trend of opinion was reinforced by the predilection always strongly felt in Russia for studies of a more positive and practical character, and by the prejudice against the classics as mere dead and useless learning—a prejudice to which vigorous expression was at this time being given even in Germany. The great controversy between classicism and realism, which was so powerfully to affect the course of Russian education for the next fifty years, was, in fact, beginning, and for the moment the tide was running strongly against the classics. It was under the combined influence of these causes that the reactionary ordinance of March, 1849, was issued. By this ordinance the course of the gymnasia was divided into two parts; the first, called the *general*

or *elementary*, portion, was confined to the three lower classes, and comprised instruction in religion, Russian, mathematics, geography, French, German, writing, and drawing; the second, or *special* portion, commenced with the fourth class, and allowed the student to concentrate upon (a) classics, (b) mathematics, or (c) law, according as he was intended (a) for the universities, (b) for the military profession, or (c) for a career in the Civil Service. Though a knowledge of Latin was still required from those who wished to enter the universities, Greek was obligatory only for those who intended to pursue their studies in the First (or Philological) Section of the Faculty of Philosophy. A further blow was aimed at the teaching of Greek two years later, when the Emperor suggested that Greek (which, under the sympathetic administration of Uvarov, had been introduced into forty-five out of seventy-five gymnasia) was a superfluous subject of study in *all* schools excepting those in towns with a Greek population, such as Taganrog and Nezhin. The Minister (Shirinski-Shikhmatov) proposed to retain it also in one gymnasium in each university town. This was done, with the result that Greek was henceforth taught in only five or (including the Dorpat District) eight gymnasia throughout the Empire. In the rest of the schools its place was taken by law or natural sciences. These radical changes were introduced suddenly, and before a sufficient supply either of teachers or of text-books in the new subjects was ready. The result was a general disorganisation of the educational system, affecting not only the secondary schools, but ultimately the universities also.

Similar reactionary measures were taken in connection with the universities. Young Russian scholars were no longer allowed to be sent to foreign universities to prepare themselves for professorships, and foreign savants might no longer be invited to fill University chairs in Russia. The number of pensioner-students in the faculties of Law and Philosophy was limited to 300 in each university. The universities were deprived of the right to elect their own rectors; henceforth the rector could not be at the same time a professor, and might be an outside person, provided only that he had a degree. The choice of the deans of faculties was also made subject to revision by the Minister. The right of the universities, and even of the Academy of Sciences, to receive foreign books and periodicals without their being submitted to the Censor was curtailed. The teaching of philosophy was discontinued, except in regard to logic and psychology, which subjects were handed over to the professors of theology.* The place of philosophy was taken by pedagogy. Finally, all instruction had to be given according to fixed programmes, and lectures were placed under rigorous supervision. It will easily be seen how all these

* It is interesting to note that among the persons deprived of their posts in consequence of this regulation was M. N. Katkov, who became so famous as the apostle of conservative reaction in the next reign. He had been since 1845 assistant professor of Logic, Psychology, and the History of Philosophy at the University of Moscow.

restrictive regulations, in combination with the disorganisation of the secondary schools, lowered the standard of academic efficiency during the closing years of Nicholas' reign. Literature suffered along with learning. The restrictions imposed by the Censorship upon all literary productions increased in severity to such an extent as practically to make original writing impossible, and the period from 1848 to 1855 was actually described in an official report of the next reign as a "censor's reign of terror" (*epokha tsenzurnago terrora*).

Happily the accession of Alexander II. in 1855 was to put an end to this interval of obscurantism and repression, and to open a new and brighter page in the history of Russian education.

It remains to note, however, before passing on, that the number of military schools was considerably increased in the reign of Nicholas, and that much was done for technical education of various kinds by the exertions of Count Kankrin, who was Minister of Finance from 1823 to 1844. In particular we may mention the foundation of the Technological Institute at St. Petersburg in 1828 (opened 1831). Progress was also made in the organisation and extension of secondary education for girls. In 1828 the existing institutions of the Empress Maria were placed under the Fourth Department of the Imperial Chancellery, and during the reign of Nicholas, twenty-four new "institutes," as the boarding schools for girls had come to be called, were founded, bringing the total number up to thirty-eight. The curriculum of these schools was unified, as had been done in the case of the gymnasias for boys, the number of hours allotted to each subject being strictly defined. The rule of the institutes was strict; the girls were kept in an almost monastic seclusion, never going home during the whole of the six to nine years they spent in the institute, except on some extraordinary occasion. The instruction seems to have been rather superficial and to have been largely confined to the accomplishments necessary for polite intercourse. Still it would appear to have been good of its kind; certainly the portraits of educated Russian girls and women which are met with in contemporary literature leave a not unfavourable impression as to the general effect of the school training of the time. The number of pupils who were being taught in the institutes at the close of the reign was 6,860, of whom more than half received their education at the cost of the State. An important advance in the extension of girls' education was also made in the forties by the establishment of secondary girls' schools for the daughters of the clergy. Taking all grades of girls' schools together, the number of girls receiving education in 1856 is stated at 51,632, as against 30,964 in 1834. The number of males receiving instruction had increased during the same period in a somewhat greater proportion. According to some figures given by Uvarov for the year 1834, the proportion of persons under instruction to the total population was as 1 to 200. Statistics referring to 1856 show that the proportion was then something like 1 to 170.

VI.—REIGN OF ALEXANDER II. (1855–1881).

The accession of Alexander II. inaugurated a new era in the educational as well as in the social and political history of Russia. The "Tsar Liberator" was cast in a very different mould from his predecessor. Broad in his sympathies, enlightened and progressive in his policy and devoted to humanitarian ideals, he was in every respect a fit instrument for the accomplishment of the epoch-making changes which will ever remain associated with his name. He ascended the throne in the very crisis of the need, as well as of the opportunity, for reform. Influences making for reform had been silently gathering strength for years, and had been held in check only by the iron resolution of an autocrat averse by conviction to all change. The break-up of the old social order, so far as it rested on serfdom, was now recognised as an historic necessity; the pure bureaucratism of the late reign had been discredited by the course of the Crimean War; the economic position of Russia was rapidly changing. Hence it was that when Alexander pronounced in favour of reform, the whole educated society of Russia rallied with rare unanimity to his support. The first seven years of the new reign constitute one of those ideal moments which occur so seldom in the life of any nation, when the strife of faction ceases, when sectional interests are put aside or forgotten, and when the whole people act together by a common high-minded impulse towards a single great national end. Slavophiles and Westernists, on whom the hand of repression had in recent years weighed alike heavily, were at one in their enthusiasm for reform. The old restrictions on freedom of thought and speech were largely removed; the universities in particular regained by a series of special measures extending over the years 1856 to 1861 all, and more than all, the liberty which they had possessed under the statute of 1835. Government by public discussion and all the other formulæ of Western constitutionalism were extolled by the sentiment of the hour. Literature revived as by the touch of a magician's wand; journalism rose rapidly to the position of a power in the intellectual life of the country.

Education was affected by these influences at many points. Russian pedagogic literature took its rise in this period, as the natural result of the intellectual impulse of the time, combined with the humanitarian spirit which then pervaded all Russian thinking. Pirogov's "*Voprosy Zhizni*" (Questions of Life), which appeared in 1856, created a great impression. Its central thesis, viz., that the object of education is to train men, and not to prepare young people for special callings, may now appear the tritest of commonplaces; but it was a new idea to many Russians of that time, accustomed as they were to look upon secondary and higher education almost exclusively as the avenues to employment by the State. The *Morskoi Vestnik* and other periodicals began to give a considerable portion of their space to the discussion of

pedagogical questions; special educational journals (such as the *Zhurnal dlia Vospitaniia*, the *Pedagogicheskiĭ Sbornik*, and the *Uchitel*) came into existence, and being conducted in the broad humanistic spirit advocated by Pirogov, had an important effect in educating public opinion in matters relating to the art and science of pedagogy. At the same time the desire of the Government to promote private initiative in the work of education led them to extend much favour to private schools; and the social enthusiasm which prevailed amongst all classes found practical expression in the establishment of a large number of Sunday Schools, staffed largely by voluntary teachers, among whom were many university students. The universities, freed from all hampering restrictions, threw open their lecture-rooms to all without distinction of sex; professors began to deliver public lectures; the education of girls made rapid strides.

The direct effect of the reforms themselves upon education was also very important. Including as they did not only the emancipation of the serfs, but the establishment of a measure of local government in town and country, and reforms in judicial procedure, such as the institution of trial by jury, they constituted in their entirety a social revolution of the first magnitude, which was felt from the first to involve as its natural result and complement a wide extension of popular education, as well as the breaking down of those artificial barriers by which in the last reign it had been sought to make of secondary and higher instruction an aristocratic monopoly. "Great heavens!" exclaims a contemporary writer (Ushinski)* in an article on the great act of emancipation, "what schools and schools will be needed for all this people, newborn to civic life! And not schools to teach the rudiments only, but schools where the people may learn to use their freedom with benefit to themselves and to others." These words simply echoed a sentiment which was almost universally prevalent in Russian society at the time. The possibility of introducing at once a system of compulsory universal instruction such as then existed in Germany was seriously discussed. Ivan Turgenev, responsive as ever to the passing moods of his countrymen, wrote early in the new reign an essay in favour of such a system. The necessity of some comprehensive scheme of popular education appealed to Slavophiles and Westernists alike; for the former this necessity resulted naturally from their idealisation of the peasantry; for their opponents it followed as a corollary to their respect for Western example. Moreover, the call to take a responsible part in public affairs was in itself an education to many of those to whom it was addressed. They were quick to feel their own need of such instruction as would fit them for the intelligent discharge of the duties to be laid upon them; and the appreciation of learning which had always existed among the Russian people was thus powerfully reinforced by a new motive. The influence of the emancipation of the negroes in the Southern States of America, or

*Collected Pedagogical Essays, p. 285.

of the successive extensions of the franchise in England, in increasing the demand for education among the classes affected, will furnish the English reader with illustrations, suggestive without being parallel, of the effect which the great social changes of the sixties had upon the educational problem in Russia.

Nor was it only, or even chiefly, the demand for popular education which was stimulated by the social revolution. The "great reforms" had economic results, which reacted directly upon higher general education on the one hand, and made necessary a wide development of technical instruction on the other. Numbers of the poorer gentry found their material position seriously affected for the worse by the emancipation of their serfs, and were confronted with the necessity of finding careers for their sons and daughters, by which they could earn their own livings; and to such careers education formed the only avenue. Hence arose an unprecedented demand on the part of the lesser nobility for opportunities of higher education for both men and women. At the same time, the reforms in the judicature and the institution of the zemstvos, and of the organs of municipal government, actually opened out careers in a number of new directions; careers, too, which were apparently open to noble and simple alike, provided only the aspirant for employment could obtain the necessary educational equipment. The result was a great influx of students from all ranks of the population into the gymnasia and the universities; and this influx speedily increased the supply of candidates for administrative posts to a point exceeding the demand. The fact that between the years 1854 and 1885 the number of university students rose from 3,551 to 12,939, and that of boys attending gymnasia or real-schools from 17,809 to 93,109, whilst the number of girls receiving secondary education had grown in even greater proportion, may serve as a measure of the increased desire for education in this reign. Finally, as soon as the abolition of serfdom made it easy to move labour from place to place in response to economic requirements, the great natural resources of Russia began to be exploited; an era of unprecedented industrial expansion set in; and this created a demand for special and professional instruction, which has continued to increase down to our own day.

Nevertheless the high hopes that were entertained for the future of Russian education during the early years of the reign were not destined to be fully realised. After 1862, public feeling underwent a change; optimism gave way to disillusion and disappointment; the former unanimity of sentiment disappeared. The Polish insurrection of 1861 awoke the slumbering conservatism of Russian society and prepared the way for a social reaction; and the movement in this direction was strengthened by disorders among the university students, many of whom were deeply imbued with radical ideas, sympathised with the Poles, and claimed more liberty in their university life than the Government thought wise to allow them. In consequence of the unrest among the students, the University

of St. Petersburg was temporarily closed in December, 1861. This, however, was but a symptom of a general tendency—a manifestation of that cleavage between “fathers” and “sons,” between the older generation and the new, which forms the theme of Turgenev’s famous novel. The rift of opinion grew wider and deeper year by year, and extended right through Russian society. Differences which had been lost sight of during the general enthusiasm for reform now began to reassert themselves; the party of revolution separated itself from the moderate reformers, many of whom, as for example Katkov, abjuring their earlier Liberalism, passed over to the opposite camp. The doctrines of Nihilism found ready acceptance among numbers of cultured young men and women who, failing to find a career corresponding to their degree of education, blamed the Government for their disappointment. Antagonism to the existing political system became more and more embittered as the State, obeying the instinct of self-preservation, became more and more conservative. The revolutionary party grasped the weapons of violence (attempts were made on the life of the Tsar in 1866 and 1867), and were met with the weapons of repression; and so began the long, internecine struggle between autocracy and anarchism which cost Russia so dear, and, ultimately, involved the sacrifice of the life of the great Tsar-Liberator himself. It is necessary to bear these circumstances in mind if we are to understand the successive phases of the educational movement in Alexander’s reign. It is a case in which dates are all-important. The emancipation of the serfs was accomplished when the tide of social enthusiasm was at its height. The educational legislation of 1863 and 1864 was carried when the tide was already beginning to ebb. All later changes, such as the law of 1871, relating to the gymnasia, were carried into effect under the full influence of the reaction.

The year 1866, in which Count Dmitri Tolstoi succeeded Golovnin as Minister of Public Instruction, may be fixed as the turning-point in the educational history of the reign. The policy of the men at the helm of educational affairs previously to this year had been to pay the utmost possible deference to the opinion of educated society, and to allow the widest practicable scope to local initiative and self-government. With the advent of Tolstoi to office this policy was completely reversed. Public opinion was henceforth taken into little account; government by expert advice, and the utmost possible centralisation of authority in the hands of the Ministry of Public Instruction now became the guiding principles of educational administration; and the policy thus initiated was adhered to with little deviation for a whole generation, and cannot be said even yet to have been essentially modified. We shall see, as we trace the history of the various grades of education in the succeeding paragraphs, how these vicissitudes of policy affected every sphere of educational activity during the reign. We begin with the history of the universities, as they were the first to be reorganised in the early sixties.

The educational statesmen of the new reign found themselves face to face with the fact that the standard of university teaching had fallen considerably in Russia since the forties. The reasons for this decay of learning are repeatedly dwelt upon in the official documents of the early sixties, and from one of these we quote the following succinct enumeration of them.*

“(a) The deficiency in the supply of good Professors. After the closing of the Professorial Institute at Dorpat, and the prohibition” (in the latter part of the late reign) “against inviting foreign servants to occupy university chairs, the difficulties in the way of sending young Russian students to complete their education abroad, the smallness of professors’ salaries, and, finally, the unnecessarily complex character of the examination for learned degrees, all combined to reduce greatly the number of persons capable of discharging with distinction the duties of a professorial chair. Not being able to invite learned men from abroad, the universities were necessarily confined to candidates of Russian birth; but the number of these could not be great, both because the standard of learning in the universities was not sufficiently high, and because the majority of public careers outside the educational profession offered a better prospect of an assured position, in life, with fewer special requirements, than the career of learning. The consequence of this was that chairs remained vacant, or that the professors who filled them devoted themselves to various additional occupations in order to better their financial position and often attached more importance to their outside work than to their official university duties.

“(b) The excessive variety of the obligatory subjects of study, which involved the necessity of sacrificing thoroughness of knowledge, and induced great leniency in examinations.

“(c) The defective preparation of those who enter the universities has often obliged professors to make their teaching more suited to the Secondary School than to the University. This refers especially to the teaching of the ancient and modern languages.” [This was, of course, the inevitable result of the decline in the efficiency of the Secondary Schools.]

“(d) The indifference of the learned corporations to the interests of their universities and of learning generally, which partly results from the fact that they are deprived of all share in the consideration and administration of matters relating to questions connected with university life, partly from the indifference of society itself to the interests of learning, partly from the material anxieties which weigh upon the professors, and finally from the not entirely

* *Sbornik Postanovlenii*, pp. 1040-2. See also *Obzor deiatelnosti Ministerstva Narodnogo Prosviestcheniia*, 1861-1864. S.P.B., 1865. We may perhaps be allowed to express a doubt whether these accounts of the defects of the universities are not somewhat over-coloured. Some of the most famous professors of the sixties began work in the preceding decade, and must have done much to keep the standard high, in spite of the depressing conditions of the time.

satisfactory composition of the learned bodies. Having no responsibility for the internal government of the universities, which is entrusted to the Curator, the Pravlenie, and the inspector of students, the University Council, instead of exerting a restraining moral influence and supplying an impulse to progress, has sometimes, on the contrary, suffered from intellectual stagnation and a rash enthusiasm.

“(e) The poverty of the universities in educational apparatus, which has not permitted them to rise to the level of similar institutions of Western Europe.

“As the result of all this, it now appears that the work which the universities are doing in the field of learning is not great; many chairs, in the absence of a systematic method of training future professors, remain vacant, or are occupied by persons who do not possess the statutory degree qualification; whilst the academic life of the students, standing as it does in an untrue relation to the university, contains in itself the elements of disorder, which have, unfortunately, revealed themselves of late in regrettable incidents in nearly every university.”

The passage just quoted will supply the key to the policy which dictated the main features of the university reform of 1863, which aimed (a) at raising the level of university teaching by improving the financial position of the professors, by increasing their authority and influence as a body, and by providing a recruiting ground from which their ranks could be efficiently filled as vacancies occurred; and (b) at placing teachers and taught in a more normal relation to each other by centring all responsibility, in respect both of discipline and instruction, in the University Council. Autonomy in the administrative domain, the advancement of learning in the educational, therefore became the two guiding principles of the reform.

The project for a new statute for the University of St. Petersburg was drawn up as early as 1858, and considered first of all by the Council of that University, and then by those of other Russian Universities. A Commission, consisting of the Curators, their assistants, and several professors from each University, was appointed in 1861 to consider the comments and criticisms thus obtained, with a view to drawing up a general statute for all the universities of the Empire. The draft statute thus prepared was printed and sent out afresh not only to all the universities, but—by an innovation thoroughly in accord with the principle then in favour of taking the educated public into the confidence of the Government—to many private individuals distinguished by their learning or experience and interest in educational matters, and to certain foreign savants. The observations of these persons were considered by the Scientific Committee, assisted for this purpose by many of the university professors, and a third draft of the Statute was prepared, which was revised by a special committee of high State officials, then sent up to the Imperial Council, and finally after some new corrections approved

by the Tsar on the 18th of June, 1863. The same policy of taking counsel with outside expert opinion was followed in the preparation of the Statutes of 1864 relating to Primary and Secondary Education; and all three enactments bear in their spirit and general aim evident traces of the circumstances attending their origin.

Under the Statute of 1863 the internal organisation of the universities underwent little change in form; but they were placed in an entirely different relation to the State. The centre of authority was shifted from the Curator to the University Council, the Curator retaining only a general control, and deciding questions of special importance referred to him by the Council and the Pravlenie, or submitting them when *ultra vires* to the Minister. The rector was elected by the Council for a term of three years. On the Inspector (or pro-rector), who was also elected by the Council, lay the immediate responsibility for maintaining order within the university; the investigation of breaches of order was the duty of the Pravlenie, but all important cases were transferred to a special University Court, consisting of three professors, one at least of whom must belong to the Faculty of Law. This court, however, had no jurisdiction over breaches of order committed by students outside the walls of the university, except in the case of offences against university professors and officials.* An important indirect means of control over the students was reserved to the Council by entrusting to it the duty of deciding awards of bursaries, remission of fees, and the like. The arrangement of all the details of instruction, the final decision in respect of degrees, and all matters affecting the internal organisation of the faculties were entrusted to the Council. As the powers with which the Council was then invested included the right, with the concurrence of the Minister, to sub-divide the faculties into sections,† to combine or divide professorships, or to replace one chair by another, and to decide which of the subjects of instruction should be considered

* It may be noted, in passing, that the University Court never had more than a nominal existence. See the interesting controversy between Professor Liubimov (in the *Russkii Vestnik* for February, 1873), and Professor Guerrier (in the *Vestnik Evropy* for April of the same year). Liubimov, in criticising the statute of 1863, had stated that the section relating to University Court was a dead letter. Guerrier retorts: "If this be so, Heaven be praised. It is very undesirable that the University Court, which takes cognisance of offences committed by students within the walls of the University and their collisions with the professors, should be constantly and uninterruptedly employed. The University Court exists for exceptional cases, and the little use that is made of it is only a testimony in favour of the statute of 1863."

† The liberty given to the University Councils to divide the Faculties into sections was intended mainly to prevent the superficiality which had resulted under the old statute from insisting on too great a number of obligatory subjects. The students in each section were now allowed to specialise in the subjects of that section, whilst the subjects comprised in other sections were regarded as of secondary importance for them.

obligatory or otherwise for students, it will be seen that university autonomy under the Statute of 1863 was intended to be no empty form. The position of the professorial body as an autonomous corporation was, in fact, fully restored, with the object, as the explanatory memorandum put it, "of awakening in them (the professors) a greater interest in the affairs of their university, and of binding them together by a common bond of moral responsibility for its welfare." Each university (with the exception of that of St. Petersburg) had four faculties: the Historico-Philological, the Physico-Mathematical, the Faculty of Law, and the Faculty of Medicine. The University of St. Petersburg had the three first-named faculties, and also a faculty of Oriental languages; but the existence of a special Medical School in the capital (*viz.*, the so-called Military Academy of Medicine) rendered a Faculty of Medicine in connection with the university unnecessary.

In the Historico-Philological Faculty at each university there were twelve professors and seven docents; in the Physico-Mathematical, sixteen professors and three docents; the Faculty of Law had thirteen professors and six docents; that of medicine, sixteen professors and seventeen docents; that of Oriental languages, nine professors, eight docents, and four lecturers. The Statute provided also for a professor of divinity, and four lecturers in foreign languages (German, French, English, and Italian). Subject to the general control of the Council, a certain measure of autonomy was also granted to the meetings of the respective faculties in regard to the purely educational interests which affected them; they also elected their own deans, whose term of office was fixed at three years.

An important innovation was the establishment of a class of Privat-Docents in connection with the universities. The object of this innovation was to supplement, and in some degree to replace, the old system of sending graduates of Russian universities abroad to prepare for professorships. In the explanatory memorandum accompanying the project as presented to the Imperial Council it is stated with reference to this matter, that "to permit outside persons to deliver lectures in the capacity of Privat-Docents is admitted to be the best possible means of creating a nursery of professors and of filling vacant chairs, and the most effective method of preventing stagnation and apathy. Privat-Docents are distinguished from Docents by the fact that they are under no obligation to serve the university, and receive no salary from the State, but are allotted at the discretion of the university a sum proportionate to their services from the fees charged for attendance at lectures. They are permitted to choose for themselves the subject of their lectures, to make use of the educational equipment of the university, and to take part in the examinations for degrees.

• The creation of Privat-Docents will infuse life into the universities
 • ensuring a constant influx of new and fresh vigour, and by
 Imper-duc- the element of competition will maintain the zeal

of the regular staff."* As the degree of doctor in his own faculty was required for a professor, and that of magister for a docent, so a Privat-Dozent was required to be at least a candidate who had publicly defended a thesis in the presence of his faculty. Another important measure adopted with the view of raising the standard of teaching at the universities was the provision for an increase in the salaries of professors and docents. During the thirty years that had elapsed since the salaries were last fixed the cost of living in Russia had increased threefold. This had had the effect of driving the best-qualified men out of the profession, or of forcing them to eke out their professional salaries by writing for the Press, or undertaking extra work of other kinds; in either case the interests of learning and science had suffered. The new Statute proposed to remedy this difficulty by doubling all salaries and adding to those of the professors a certain proportion of the lecture fees. The number of professorial chairs was at the same time increased, and a considerable sum of money, amounting in the aggregate to twice the former grant for this purpose, was placed at the disposal of the universities for the extension and replenishment of their libraries, museums, laboratories, and the like.

Another very important provision of the new Statute was the requirement for the first time of a leaving certificate (*attestat zrelosti*, a term equivalent in meaning to the German *Reife-Zeugnis*) from the gymnasium or other secondary school of equal rank as a condition of admission to the university. Hitherto admission to the university had been dependent on the passing of an examination held by the university itself. As regards the admission of "auditors" other than students to university lectures, each university was left free to frame its own regulations; but the proposal, supported by a majority of the universities, that the term "auditors" should be construed to mean persons of either sex, was finally rejected. It was not on these lines, as we shall see, that the question of university education for women was destined to be solved.

Apart from the full and frank recognition of the principle of autonomy, nothing is more characteristic of the University Statute of 1863, as compared with its predecessors of 1804 and 1835, than the emphasis laid by its authors of the principle of "learning for its own sake." The avowed object of the Statute of 1804, as set forth in its first section, was the preparation of young men for various branches of the State service; and this function of the universities, which had acquired increased relative importance as the result of the rights they bestowed in respect of rank in the civil hierarchy, had always tended to overshadow their significance as places for the disinterested pursuit of knowledge. It was the object of the framers of the new Statute to break with this tradition, and to make the universities before everything else seats of intellectual activity and scientific research. The words of the explanatory memorandum treating of the rights conferred by the

* The system of Privat-Dozenten had only a nominal existence under the Statute of 1863, but was further developed under its successor in 1884.

universities in respect of *chin*, or civic rank, are significant and interesting in relation to this point. "There is no doubt," say the authors of this document, "that the rights bestowed by the university in respect to civic rank serve to attract young men to the university, and that many of them seek there not education so much as the means of entering on a career in the public service; and that consequently the universities are converted to some extent into training grounds for civil servants. It is manifest, however, that this is not the proper aim of university education, that it is not for this purpose that the universities are divided into faculties, and that the instruction imparted in them should certainly not be given a practical direction such as will be useful to future officials of Departments and Chancelleries. Knowledge is pursued at the university for its own sake, and it is the intrinsic character of the various branches of human knowledge which serves as the basis for the division of the universities into faculties. University teaching is capable of conferring real benefit upon those who seek in the temple of science nothing but science, that is knowledge, and are not attracted thither by material and speculative motives. For this reason all artificial attractions are prejudicial to the university, for they fill its lecture halls with auditors who have no business there. All this gives reason for wishing that the universities should have the right of conferring only learned distinctions, which should mark a greater or lesser degree of intellectual attainments, and that they should exercise no rights in respect of civic ranks which according to the system in use among us are connected with the discharge of civic functions: while the examinations for posts in the public service should certainly not be the affair of the universities. Nevertheless, the present project does not abolish the right to civic rank which attaches to university degrees. The reason for this is that if the right were cancelled in respect to the universities, it would be necessary to do so at the same time in connection with other educational institutions, which give a less thorough education. Until the State recognises the necessity and expediency of a general revision of the regulations relating to the public service, the universities cannot form an exception to the general governmental system." For the reasons thus assigned the provisions of the Statute of 1835 as to the civic rank corresponding to university degrees remained unchanged; that is to say, a Doctor on entering the civil service received the eighth rank, a Magister the ninth, a Candidate the tenth: students who had successfully completed their university course were placed in the twelfth rank.

The university legislation of 1863 marks the beginning of a new period of intellectual advance, not perhaps of such striking historical significance as that which took place in the forties, but even wider than the latter in scope, and not less intimately related to contemporary movements of thought in Europe. The studies in history and law which had been so brilliantly begun in the preceding reign were continued with success by a younger generation of

scholars—pupils for the most part of the Moscow professors of the forties; but in addition the impetus towards the investigation of physical nature which was characteristic of the second half of the nineteenth century was nowhere more strongly felt than in the universities of Russia, where it fell in with a strong national bent towards the study of the positive sciences. The work done by Russians during this period in zoology, anthropology, geology, mineralogy, chemistry, and botany constitutes in its entirety a contribution to the advance of knowledge of which any nation might well be proud. It would be vain to attempt to single out names for special mention where the general level of achievement was so high; but it is important to note that the intellectual movement of the sixties and seventies was no longer confined to a single university, as had been the case twenty years earlier, but affected to a greater or less degree every centre of learning in Russia, the remote university of Kazan, for example, distinguishing itself in the work of chemical research. If the Moscow university still retained a certain primacy among its sister institutions it was mainly because its metropolitan position and historic prestige made its chairs the natural goal of the ambition of professors who had won fame for themselves by their work in the provincial universities.

Whilst thus the Russian universities were breaking new ground in the field of science and establishing for themselves a European position as centres of learning and research, the question of their administrative reorganisation had again begun to be raised by the State authorities. The Statute of 1863 had only been in force three years when the entry of Count D. Tolstoi upon office inaugurated a régime of centralisation which was in fundamental opposition to the principles of local autonomy underlying the reformed constitution of the universities. Henceforward the policy of the Government was directed towards the limitation of the self-governing powers of the universities, and the transfer of these powers; once more into the hands of the central authority. It began to be urged in bureaucratic circles that the autonomous organisation of the universities was in various ways incompatible with the interests of the State; that, in particular, the control of the University Councils over the students led to slackness of discipline, manifesting itself in such occurrences as the students' disorders of 1869; that the right of the professorial body to elect its own rector and to fill up vacancies in its own ranks tended to make of the Council a close and exclusive corporation within the State; and that the right of the universities to arrange all courses of study without reference to the requirements of the State resulted in these requirements being insufficiently attended to.

It was not however until 1872, the year in which the reorganisation of the secondary school system was completed, that the first definite steps were taken towards a revision of the Statute of 1863. Following the precedent he had himself created in relation to

the Secondary Schools, Tolstoi asked the opinion of the universities in that year as to what provisions of the University Statute needed modification. Many alterations in detail were suggested both by the Faculties and the Councils, but none of them touched the fundamental points at issue. In fact, the universities, as a whole, were, as the event proved, averse to any radical interference with the existing organisation.

Fresh disorders, however, broke out in the autumn of 1874 in the University and other places of higher education in St. Petersburg, and were made the occasion of a further step in the direction of change. In November of that year an Imperial Commission, consisting of all Ministers who had places of learning of university rank in their departments, was appointed under the presidency of Count P. A. Valuev, the Minister of the Interior, with the object of investigating the causes of these disorders, and suggesting measures for obviating them in future. This Commission went closely into the whole working of the existing University Statute, and decided in favour of a series of recommendations which really involved a radical reorganisation of the whole university system. Among other things, they recommended the limitation of university autonomy by withdrawing from the jurisdiction of the corporate body of Professors certain matters of administrative discipline, and by a change in the mode of appointment of professors and other university officers. They also advocated increased governmental control over the general trend of the instruction, not, however, by directly restricting its freedom, but by the establishment of special Examining Commissions to be nominated by the Minister, and to comprise members appointed from other Departments of State, which Commissions should conduct all the final examinations for the ordinary university diploma (but not those for learned degrees). In view of the large numbers of students crowding into the universities, they recommended increased strictness in the conditions of admission, and that greater care should be taken to exclude those who were insufficiently prepared for a university course, or who possessed insufficient means of support. With the same object, they also recommended that the existing system of bursaries, grants to poor students, remissions of fees, and the like, should be revised and limited.

The general principles of reform thus laid down were approved by the Emperor in December, 1874, and Count D. Tolstoi proceeded to take steps to embody them in a project of law. During the following year a Commission for the revision of the University Statute was formed under the presidency of M. (afterwards Count) Ivan Davydovich Delianov; and during the autumn and winter of 1875-6 a section of the Commission visited personally all the universities with the view of taking evidence from individual professors and making observations upon the spot. The attitude of the St. Petersburg University towards the proposed reorganisation was significantly shown by the refusal of the professors to give any opinion on the questions submitted to them otherwise than

in their collegiate capacity, *i.e.*, either in Faculty or in Council. The views of the majority of the Moscow professors were equally decided against change, though they were otherwise expressed. In Professor Guerrier, of Moscow, the defenders of the existing system found their most able and courageous champion. The articles from his pen, which appeared in the *Vestnik Evropy* during 1873 and the following years, did much to influence public opinion on the university question in a sense adverse to the Government proposals. The chief exponent of the bureaucratic view in the public Press was Professor Liubimov, of the same university, himself a member of Delianov's Commission. His articles may be read in the "Russkii Vestnik," the monthly journal edited by Katkov.

The Commission of Delianov sat from the 16th of September, to the 8th of December, 1876, and in the course of its twenty-five sessions, discussed very thoroughly all the fundamental questions of principle which had been submitted for its consideration. The main questions affecting external organisation related to the position of the Curator—whether he was to be, as under the Statute of 1863, a kind of mediator between the University and the State, or the embodiment of the State's authority as exercised over the University; to the position of the Rector—whether he was, as heretofore, to derive his authority from the free choice of his colleagues on the University Council, or whether he was to be imposed upon them from above as their superior officer appointed by the Crown; and to the mode of appointment and re-appointment of Professors—whether the vacancies in their ranks were to continue to be filled up by co-optation, or by the direct intervention of the State acting through the Minister, and again, whether a professor at the end of his normal term of service was to be continued in office, if at all, by the votes of his colleagues or by the Minister's appointment. In respect of all these matters, the proposals of the Government taken together involved a complete revolution in the existing organisation of the Universities, and a reversion to the system of State control which had obtained under the Statute of 1835. Another point of fundamental importance, which was also closely connected with the question of the relation of the State to the Universities, was the administration of discipline within the Universities. Here the question was whether discipline should be in the hands of an inspector or pro-rector appointed or elected by the professorial body, as under the existing statute, or should be placed in the hands of an inspector appointed by the Curator, and responsible directly to him, as had been the case under the Statute of 1835. On'y a dozen years previously, the occurrence of disturbances among the students had been confidently attributed by the Government to the absence of responsibility on the part of the professors for the maintenance of order, and these disturbances had been held to constitute the strongest reason for placing all jurisdiction in matters of discipline in their hands, as being the fittest persons to exercise that moral influence over the students which would afford

the best guarantee against disorder and insubordination. Other views now prevailed. The actual state of discipline in the Universities was held to be strong proof that the system inaugurated in 1863 had failed to justify itself; it was maintained that the professors were not a fit body to be entrusted with the exercise of discipline, since the existing state of unrest demanded a quickness in decision, and a promptness and resoluteness in action which the University authorities had failed to show; and it was furthermore held that the existence of a special University Court, however seldom it might meet, was undesirable, because it fostered in the minds of the students the idea that they were a kind of *status in statu*, specially privileged and exempt from the ordinary civil jurisdiction. For all these reasons, it was considered desirable to transfer the control of discipline from the University Council to officers directly appointed by the State authorities. Of no less importance were the changes proposed to be introduced in the organisation of University teaching. Here the criticism of the existing system aimed at showing that the result of entrusting the organisation of instruction to the faculties had been unsatisfactory, both from the point of view of educational efficiency, and also from the point of view of the interests of the State. It was urged that the tendency of the Faculties was to fall under the influence of specialists, and that the consequence of this had been that certain branches of learning had received more than their due share of attention, to the neglect of others, which the State regarded as of equal importance. Moreover, it was alleged that the standard required for the degree of Candidate had been unduly lowered, and generally that too great indulgence was shown to the students under examination. Under the system in vogue, students were examined at the end of their University course simply on the lectures delivered; but attendance at lectures, though nominally obligatory, had largely fallen off, since the students were accustomed to get up the necessary lectures from lithographed notes taken by a single student, and afterwards circulated. This was complained of as a fruitful source of superficiality and cram. To obviate these defects (which, it is important to note, were declared by the Rectors who sat on the Commission to be much exaggerated*), it was now proposed to transfer the conduct of the final examinations from the Universities to special Examination Commissions appointed by the Minister. Through the syllabuses of examination published by these Commissions, the State would secure for itself the ultimate control of all instruction given within the University, and would be able to check undue specialisation, by insisting upon attention to the essential portions of every branch of study. As a set-off against this increased control of instruction by the State, it was

* The President of the Commission himself observed that the complaints of slackness and want of interest in study on the part of the students had little application to the Faculties of Medicine and Mathematics, in which the students worked systematically and with diligence, and that they were specially applicable only to the Faculty of Law.

proposed by Professor Liubimov, and other members of the Commission, to introduce a modified form of the German principle of "*Lehr-und Lernfreiheit*," on the ground that such freedom would promote kindly relations between teachers and taught, and would, besides, allow scope for the cultivation of the special gifts of individual students. The president of the Commission, Delianov, opposed this proposal as being unnecessary (inasmuch as the present compulsory system had proved quite compatible with intellectual progress), and inapplicable to the conditions prevailing in Russia, where the students would have in practice little choice of lecturers, and where there was no settled tradition in favour of learning, such as made *Lernfreiheit* possible in Germany. He also pointed out that the proposed restrictions (which consisted in binding the students to follow a certain scheme of studies to be drawn up by the Faculties) would reduce their freedom to a nullity.

Into other details considered by the Commission, such as the method of allotting bursaries, and the like, it is hardly necessary to enter here. It must suffice to note the important fact, that on every essential point of the reform proposals, the Rectors of the Universities, all of whom were members of the Commission, voted solidly in favour of the maintenance of the existing system, and were able to carry a majority of the Commission with them. The views of the minority were nevertheless embodied in the project of law, which was drawn up in the Ministry of Public Instruction, and was presented to the Imperial Council on February 6th, 1880. In this project, all authority over the administration of the University was centralised in the Curator. With regard to the Rectorate the elective principle was affirmed, but it was proposed that the Minister should *for the present* retain the nomination of both Rectors and Deans in his own hands. The right of the professorial body to fill up its own vacancies was abrogated; professors were to be appointed and re-appointed solely by the Minister, though the right of recommendation was reserved to the Councils in the case of first appointments. Disciplinary functions were taken out of the hands of the Council, and entrusted to an Inspector (with his assistants), who was to be appointed by the Curator, subject to the confirmation of the Minister. Finally, the ultimate control of University instruction was secured to the State by the establishment of Examining Commissions, independent of the Universities. These Examining Commissions were to conduct the final examinations for the University diploma, but all intermediate examinations, as well as those for learned degrees, were to be left as heretofore to the Universities. The principle of *Lernfreiheit* was also admitted, but restricted by the condition that a student's plan of studies, though framed by himself on certain defined lines, should require the approval of a professor, and that the student's attendance at a certain minimum number of lectures should be necessary before he could count his term.

Meantime the students, affected by the increasing unrest in

society, had again got out of hand. During the session of 1878–9 there were frequent disturbances at the different Universities; and the Government, having come to the conclusion that matters had passed beyond the control of the University Councils, fell back upon a provision of the statute of 1863, which allowed the Curators to exercise extraordinary powers in cases of special emergency. In October, 1879, the Minister of Public Instruction issued instructions to the Curators to take temporary measures, which had the effect of setting aside completely the jurisdiction of the University Courts and the University Councils themselves over the students, and of entrusting all matters of discipline to inspectors acting directly under the control of the Curators, and owning no responsibility to any other University authority. These instructions were received by the Universities with great dissatisfaction, and were never fully carried into effect; for in April of the next year, two months after the project of the new University Statute was presented to the Imperial Council, Tolstoi himself was dismissed from office. His proposals for University reorganisation thereupon fell into abeyance. His successor, M. Saburov, a man of moderate views, who had been Curator of the Dorpat Educational District, maintained a negative attitude both towards the project of law and the new disciplinary rules. Liberal counsels were again in the ascendant in affairs of State. For a brief period it seemed as though the ideas of constitutionalism in general politics, which involved as their natural corollary the recognition of self-government in University affairs, were once more to control the policy of the Government, as they had done in the early years of Alexander's reign. All prospect of this, however, came to an end with the stupid crime of March, 1881, which changed the whole aspect of things in Russia, and indefinitely postponed all progress in a liberal direction.

The year 1864 saw the enactment of a measure of capital importance in relation to primary education. The enthusiasm in the cause of popular enlightenment which characterised the early years of the reign had by no means spent itself in mere empty discussion. Numbers of new schools were opened in the rural districts with the co-operation of the Ministry of the Interior: at the same time the clergy were honourably distinguished by their activity in opening parish schools, especially in the province of Kiev, where, owing partly to the zealous exertions of the Metropolitan Arsenius, there were as many as 200 schools in 1862. Private individuals also did their part: Tolstoi's school at Yasnaia Poliana, with the work of Count Leo Tolstoi's founder. In 1864 it was estimated that there were 30,000 schools with 630,000 scholars in the whole Russian Empire. As, according to the census of 1858, the total number of inhabitants of Russia was about 74 millions, it would appear that one out of every hundred was in 1864

receiving school instruction ; but it should be noted that the official memorandum from which these figures are taken expresses a doubt whether some of the 630,000 returned as attending school had any existence except on paper. In any case, these statistics cannot claim to give a precise notion of the number of persons who were actually being taught to read and write, as they do not profess to take account of the many so-called *shkoly gramotnosti*, or reading-and-writing schools, which are known to have led an irregular and unauthorised existence at this time in the villages and even in the towns. They were taught by persons who were unwilling or unable to satisfy the test of qualifications imposed by law on the teachers of private schools—poor ladies, ex-clerks, old soldiers, half-educated peasants and the like. Their existence as a class was no secret to anybody ; but individually they managed to evade official control and enumeration.

As early as 1858, at the instance of the then Minister, Kovalevski, the Scientific Committee of the Ministry of Public Instruction had taken in hand the framing of a general scheme of primary and secondary education : and in 1862 a special Committee, consisting of representatives of all the Ministries which maintained or controlled elementary schools, was appointed to consider means of co-ordinating all such schools under the control of the Ministry of Public Instruction. The projects framed by both these Committees were, after consideration by the Imperial Council, printed in English, French, and German, and circulated among foreign educational experts. Meantime the great interest taken by the clergy in the work of founding schools had raised for the first time a question which has since played an important part in the educational politics of Russia, and still divides Russian educationists into two opposing camps—the question of the control by the clergy of all primary education. For the moment, however, the weight of opinion both within the Government and in educational circles outside was against the advisability of handing over the schools to the Holy Synod. It was thought that all grades of education, primary, secondary and higher, should be under the control of a single department of State ; that, moreover, the country clergy had neither the time nor the requisite training, pedagogical or other, to undertake the supervision of primary instruction ; and that they were insufficient in number to exercise the requisite control over all schools. An Imperial order was therefore issued to the effect that, while all schools founded by the clergy should remain under their control, it should be the duty of the Ministry of Public Instruction to establish schools throughout the Empire which should remain under its own administration, and that the clergy and the Ministry should co-operate with each other as far as possible.

There were other questions to be decided, some of them of no less fundamental importance than that of clerical control, before the main features of the new system of primary education could be decided. Foremost among these stood the question whether,

or to what extent, primary instruction was to be made compulsory. In respect to this matter the discussion was much influenced by study of the respective systems in vogue at the time in the three great representative countries of Western Europe, Prussia, France and England. In Prussia education was compulsory for every child within certain limits of age, and was enforced by fine or imprisonment inflicted upon the parent in case of disobedience to the law. In France there was no personal obligation to attend school, but there was a communal obligation to provide schools. In England there was neither personal nor communal obligation in respect to primary instruction, which was provided entirely by private initiative, the Government merely making grants in aid of such schools as submitted themselves to inspection by the State. The Prussian system was decided to be impracticable in Russia, not only for financial reasons, but because it would involve the provision of a school within reasonable distance of every child's home, which was thought impossible in view of the scattered position of the Russian villages and the lack of the necessary teachers: moreover, unless education were made free, the poverty of the peasants, especially in the remoter districts, would make it impossible for them to pay the requisite fees. The French system of communal obligation found more support, and was actually incorporated in the project of the Special Committee, but it was ultimately rejected on the ground that, while the communal tax which would be necessary would fall equally upon all the local inhabitants, the scattered character of the population would prevent the majority from profiting by the education provided. The final decision was therefore in favour of a modification of the English system; that is to say, the compulsory principle was definitely rejected in every form, and the Government resolved to confine itself to the establishment of a few model schools at the expense of the State, while private societies and individuals were to be attracted to the work of popular education by encouragement and even assistance in cases of necessity from the Government. This decision, though arrived at mainly for administrative reasons, fell in with a sentiment strongly prevailing in Russian society at the time, according to which Government interference in the matter of education was deprecated as likely to check the action of personal initiative.* Critics of the law of 1864 on primary education, however, have not failed to point out how essentially different the conditions under which the system of primary education peculiar to England had grown up were from those existing in Russia. Personal initiative was not a tradition of Russian life, as it has always been of English: on the other hand, State interference in the form of administrative control by the central government was inevitable in Russia, where the first foundations of local self-government were laid only in this very year of

* This phase of Russian opinion was represented in a somewhat extreme form by Count Leo Tolstoi, who based his protest against compulsory State education largely on the ground that States everywhere gave an education which did not correspond to popular needs.

1864. It remains to be noted that the English example was followed at a time when even in England the system of relying on private initiative in the provision of primary instruction was recognised as having reached the limit of its usefulness, and was about to be supplemented by a system analogous to that prevailing in Prussia, while Russia herself stood on the threshold of a period in her history in which private initiative in social matters was to find itself more and more subordinated to the control of the bureaucracy.

Another point of prime importance was to define the relation of the *zemstvos*, or organs of local self-government created in 1864 in certain provinces and districts, to the work of primary education. It had been decided that these bodies were to have the power to provide schools, though not to determine curriculum. The question was now mooted of entrusting the immediate supervision and control of all primary education to the *zemstvos*; the alternative proposal being the creation *ad hoc* of School Councils in each province and district. The latter proposal was preferred by the Ministry of Public Instruction, apparently on the ground that such special bodies might be expected to have more expert knowledge of educational matters. On the other hand, the proposal to delegate the entire control to the *zemstvos* received the powerful support of such educational authorities as Baron Korf and the Ex-minister of Public Instruction, Kovalevski. The question was fully debated in the special committee formed to consider the final project before its presentation to the Council of the Empire. The latter, however, adopted the proposal of the Ministry, with the provision, however, that the Provincial and District *Zemstvos* respectively should be represented by two members on the corresponding local School Councils. Thus the role of the *zemstvos*, as such, was practically confined to the provision and maintenance of the schools, while the administration and control remained in the hands of the Ministry of Public Instruction acting through the local School Councils (for whose constitution see below) as its agents.

A third matter which received careful consideration, and with respect to which much difference of opinion was revealed, was the question of the language to be used in instruction in districts where Russian (i.e., Great Russian) was not the native language. There were, of course, considerable districts of the Empire where the Russian language was not used at all in instruction. The most important of these, however—the Baltic Provinces and Poland—were not affected by the educational legislation of 1864. The question, therefore, was of most importance in its relation to those districts of White and Little Russia where the native language was a dialect akin to Great Russia. Here the proposal of the Ministry of Public Instruction was in favour of a system of instruction similar to that actually now in use in the Welsh-speaking districts of Wales: that is to say, it was suggested that the local language should be used as the medium of instruction to begin with, and that the transition to the use of Great Russian should be made gradually during the school course. The proposal, however, failed to commend

itself to the judgment of the Special Committee : and in the law as finally confirmed no exception is admitted to the principle that "instruction in popular elementary schools shall be given in the Russian language."

The general provisions of the law of 1864 as to primary education were as follows : Primary Schools were defined—and incidentally a much needed relief was afforded to the keepers of small private elementary schools by the provision that nothing in the regulations laid down by the law should apply to mere instruction in reading and writing by persons of various callings in their own homes. The curriculum of Primary Schools was defined as consisting in religion, the three R's, and, where possible, Church singing. All children were to be admitted without distinction of faith or rank, or, where separate schools were impossible, of sex. The question of payment or non-payment of fees was left to the discretion of the promoters of schools, on whom was also laid the obligation of maintaining them. Religion was to be taught only by the parish priest, or by a special religious instructor appointed by the District School Council with the sanction of the episcopal authorities. The general moral and religious supervision of the schools was also entrusted to the local parish priest, who was to report in case of necessity to the District School Council. In addition to this communities or societies maintaining schools were to appoint special curators, whose duty it should be to exercise a general supervision over the affairs of the schools. The constitution of the School Councils need not be minutely described, as it underwent considerable modification in 1874 at the hands of Count Tolstoi. We need only mention that the Bishop of the diocese was by the law of 1864 made *ex-officio* president of the Provincial School Council.

We have already seen how far the law of 1864 was from meeting the views of those advocates of decentralisation and local initiative who would have preferred that the whole supervision of primary education should devolve upon the *zemstvos*. Count D. Tolstoi was dissatisfied with the law of 1864 for a very different reason. In entire disagreement with the Liberal principles of his predecessors, he maintained that the only body competent to supervise primary education was the Ministry of Public Instruction itself. His whole policy was therefore, directed towards the greatest possible concentration of control in the hands of the central administration. This principle supplies the key, not only to his attitude towards the law of 1864, but to all the positive measures adopted during his ministry with reference to primary instruction. Both of the two types of school created by him—namely, the "Ministerial" Model Schools established in 1869, and the Urban Schools founded under the law of 1872—were exempted from the jurisdiction of the School Councils and placed under the direct control of the Ministry. In 1869 the *Zemstvos*' Schools were also brought more immediately into relation with the central authority by the institution of a new body of Government

officials—the Inspectors of Primary Schools, who were to act under the Director in each province, and were entrusted with wide powers of control over all the schools administered by the Ministry of Public Instruction. Finally, the law of 1864 was revised ten years later, with the double object of defining more strictly the relations of the Ministry and its local officials to the School Councils, and of associating the local squires more intimately with the work of the Primary Schools.

According to this revised constitution, which in all its main features is still in force, the District School Council consists of the District Marshal of the Nobility, who is president; the Inspector of Primary Schools, who acts as president in the absence of the Marshal or his deputy; one representative of the Ministry of Public Instruction, appointed by the Curator of the District; one representative of the Ministry of the Interior, appointed by the Governor of the Province; one representative of the clergy, appointed by the Bishop of the Diocese; two members of the District Zemstvo; and one representative of any town authority maintaining schools at its own expense. The Provincial School Council is presided over by the Provincial Marshal of the Nobility, or in his absence, by the Director of Primary Schools; and also comprises representatives of the Ministries of Public Instruction and the Interior, and of the clergy, appointed severally as above; also two members of the Provincial Zemstvo.

Certain further steps were taken by the Ministry of Public Instruction during the reign of Alexander II., the effect of which was to round off the system of primary education under their administration, and to give it in all essentials the form which it has retained to the present day. In 1869, as above mentioned, Count Tolstoi carried through a project for the establishment of a certain number of model village schools of one and two classes. The organisation of primary education involved as one of its immediate consequences the establishment of training colleges for teachers. Golovnin had prepared and introduced into the Imperial Council a project for the establishment of fifteen teachers' seminaries. His successor was at first unfavourable to the idea of such a method of preparing teachers, preferring to rely on the output of the ecclesiastical seminaries. Later, however, he changed his mind and a considerable number of special teachers' seminaries were created. In the early seventies the Government turned its attention to the question of the re-organisation of the existing District Schools, which were still carried on under the law of 1828. The somewhat antiquated curriculum of these schools no longer met the requirements of the town and industrial population, who feeling the necessity for their children of a general education above the elementary level, were beginning to send them in considerable numbers to the gymnasia. The lower classes of the secondary schools were consequently overcrowded with scholars for whom they were not intended, and who had no hope of being able to complete the course. There was,

therefore, real danger of the creation of an intellectual proletariat, that is to say, of a class of persons who had received an education for which they could find no practical application. In order to obviate this evil, and to provide a kind of elementary education suitable to the needs of the urban population, the Government by the law of 1872 provided for the establishment of "Urban Schools" (*gorodskiiia uchilistcha*), and the gradual re-organisation of the existing district schools into schools of this new type. The course of the Urban Schools was to last six years, and to include instruction in religion, reading, writing, arithmetic, Russian (with Slavonic), practical geometry, history and geography (mainly of the Russian Empire), the elements of natural science and physics, drawing, singing, and gymnastics; with supplementary subjects in the higher classes, with the special permission of the Minister of Public Instruction. The curriculum, therefore, went very considerably beyond that of the ordinary primary schools, and even of the district schools, and thus involved the necessity for a class of specially prepared teachers. Provision was, therefore, concurrently made for the establishment of the requisite number of teachers' institutes, with a more advanced curriculum than that of the existing teachers' seminaries, which prepared only for the ordinary primary schools. Unlike the latter the Urban Schools were to be partially provided and maintained by the Government (as was the case with the district schools which they were intended to replace); but they might also be provided at the expense of local bodies, or (with the permission of the Curator) by private persons. One important difference between the Urban Schools and the District Schools was that the course of the former was not correlated with that of the ordinary primary school—that is to say, it neither presupposed the curriculum of the primary school as did that of the district school, nor was its first three years' course so arranged as to coincide with the three years' course of the primary school. In 1880 the number of Urban and District schools taken together was 476, with 42,873 pupils. Ten teachers' institutes had been established by 1879.

Primary education in the rural districts made considerable progress in the late sixties and the seventies under the fostering care of the zemstvos, in the qualitative as well as in the quantitative sense. After the definite decision of the Government not to place all primary education under the control of the clergy, the interest which had been shown in primary education by the latter in the early sixties was not maintained, and the number of schools under the administration of the Holy Synod decreased rather than otherwise during the latter part of the reign. In 1880 the number of parochial Church Schools was only 4,348. On the other hand those established by the zemstvos increased with considerable rapidity, and during the seventies many primary schools which had previously belonged to other Departments of State were transferred to the Ministry of Public Instruction, to be maintained by the zemstvos. By the end of the reign the number

of "zemstvos' schools" outnumbered all others in the proportion of about three to one. Notwithstanding the narrow limits assigned to their activity by the legislation of 1864 and 1874, and in spite of their generally slender financial resources, it is to the enterprise and initiative of the zemstvos, guided by such men as Baron Korf, that practically all the progress made in primary education during Alexander II.'s reign is due. The State, as we have seen, had rested satisfied with creating the machinery of control; it was left to the public spirit of educated society, acting through the organisation of the zemstvos, to bring into actual existence the schools which were needed to satisfy the growing popular demand for instruction. The zemstvos set about their task with a zeal and determination which no obstacle could discourage. Within the general limits indicated by the State regulations, they gradually worked out the details of a system of primary education specially adapted to the needs of the Russian population; and to them certainly belongs the credit of having been the chief agents in establishing primary education in Russia on a firm and permanent foundation. The educational work of the zemstvos marks an epoch in the social history of Russia, since it constitutes one of the most remarkable manifestations of that spirit of social initiative which the reforms of the sixties did so much to stimulate and the subsequent reaction so much to depress. Among the services they rendered to Russian education may be specially mentioned their insistence on the necessity of proper pedagogical training for teachers, and the employment in the schools maintained by them of a considerable proportion of women teachers, who in 1880 formed 27·5 per cent. of the total number of the teachers of primary schools in governments where local self-government had been introduced. Some further statistics collected by the Central Statistical Committee as to rural schools in European Russia in the year 1880 will, perhaps, help to give an idea of the position which primary education had reached by the end of Alexander's reign. In that year there were in the sixty governments of European Russia 22,770 primary schools (of which about two-thirds had been opened since 1864), with 1,140,915 pupils, and 24,389 teachers of both sexes. Of the pupils, about 20·6 per cent. were girls, but the proportion of girls varied very greatly in different parts of the Empire, rising to 46 per cent. in the Baltic Provinces, and falling as low as 10 per cent. in the governments without zemstvos. The whole cost of these schools was 6,229,160 R., of which 44·1 per cent. was contributed by the district zemstvos, 33·7 by the village communes, 12·1 per cent. by the Imperial Treasury, 1·9 per cent. came from fees, and the rest from private subscriptions or contributions by various societies. As the small amount derived from fees will show, primary education had been made practically free to all.

In connection with Primary Education, a word or two must be said also on the subject of Sunday Schools, which had a considerable vogue in the early years of this reign, though their development

was arrested by the conservative reaction. It should be explained that Russian Sunday Schools differ from those to which we are accustomed in England in being primarily concerned with secular education,* and thus correspond in function more closely to our evening schools, except that the Russian Sunday Schools are purely primary in character. What is usually supposed to have been the first school of this type in Russia was opened in 1859 by some students at Kiev under the patronage of Pirogov, the enlightened Curator of the Kiev Educational District ; but other Sunday Schools were established independently about the same time in other places, all owing their existence to the new-born enthusiasm of the educated classes for popular enlightenment. The Government were at first extremely favourable to the movement, and abstained as much as possible from any exercise of official control which would be likely to check their development. The then Minister of the Interior, Lanskoï, went so far as to commend them, in a circular dated March 22nd, 1860, to the favourable attention of the provincial governors. Anybody who wished was allowed to open these schools, and almost anybody, even students and gymnasists, could teach in them. They were open to all comers, the teachers gave their services gratuitously, and the expenses were met by means of voluntary subscriptions, concerts, and the like. Some hundreds of these schools had been established by 1862. But a large section of Russian society had looked from the first with considerable suspicion upon the movement, and by the middle of 1862 this suspicion had communicated itself to the Government authorities. In June of that year all Sunday Schools were closed " pending their reorganisation on a new basis." This measure was the result of a communication from the Minister of the Interior to the Minister of Public Instruction to the effect that the teaching in two of the schools was directed against religion, the rights of property and the State. Two years later the establishment of Sunday Schools was again made legal by the provisions of the law of 1864 relating to Primary Schools ; and this was confirmed by the law of 1874, in accordance with which the opening or closure of Sunday Schools was made dependent on the Inspector of National Schools, acting in concert with the President of the District School Council. But the work, so abruptly arrested in 1862, was never again during the reign resumed with the same energy and enthusiasm. Some Sunday Schools, of the work of which Baron Korf gives a favourable account, were opened in 1866 in connection with the Theological Feminiaries ; but they had only a short existence. Later on the municipal authorities of St. Petersburg and Moscow also opened some schools of this kind ; and at Kharkov the work was energetically carried out amid circumstances of much discouragement by Mme. Christina Danilovna Alchevskaia, who still remains intimately associated with the Sunday School movement, and during the last forty years has rendered services to it, which are now universally

* Sunday schools of the English type have existed in the Baltic Provinces since the time of Alexander I.

acknowledged. But it was not until the nineties that the zeal for this kind of work really revived in Russian society.

We now turn to the history of Secondary Education during the reign. The actual reforms in the gymnasia, which were carried out by the ministry of Golovnin in 1864, proved to be short lived, and served only as a stepping-stone to the much more permanent settlement which took place in 1871 and 1872. It is nevertheless necessary to describe them in some detail, as the very circumstances which prevented a lasting solution of the problems of Secondary Education from being reached in the sixties are of great importance for the further history of the Russian educational system. The effect of the changes in 1849 and 1851 had been to destroy the classical basis of the gymnasium, without, however, converting it into a "real" school in any generally recognised sense of the term. Consequently its existing curriculum satisfied nobody; the study of law was acknowledged to have yielded no fruitful results; the physical sciences, which had been taught under all the difficulties arising from a deficiency in properly qualified teachers, and in text books and apparatus, had also disappointed expectations; and the teaching in modern languages left much to be desired. Reorganisation of some kind was clearly inevitable, and the question was hotly debated among educational experts whether such reorganisation should proceed on classical or on "real" lines. On the question of the comparative merits of a classical or a modern education Russian society was at this time sharply divided, a small though influential minority holding to the classics, but the average opinion inclining very strongly against them. The views of both parties were strongly emphasised, and the tendency on both sides was to regard the two competing ideals of education as mutually exclusive. The idea of dualism in Secondary Education—the idea, that is to say, that there might be a two-fold path leading to general intellectual development—was not yet familiar to the minds of Russians, accustomed as they had always been to see a single type of Secondary School maintained by the State. The extreme difference of opinion existing between "Classicists" and "Realists" at this time was a factor in the situation which had an important bearing upon the course of events in the sequel.

The Ministry in power shared the extreme views of neither section, and were inclined to seek a solution of the difficulty in the creation of two types of Secondary Schools side by side. Their point of view has been recently defined with great clearness in an article by Professor Bilbasov, from which we extract the following passage:—

"The great educational value of a study of the ancient languages admits of no doubt. The experience of all the cultured lands of Europe through many centuries has proved that the classical tongues, Greek and Latin, afford the human mind a healthy gymnastic such as admirably prepares it for all other kinds of work, whether of a positive or of an abstract nature. Only classical education in the wide sense of the word, only what is meant in the west by *humaniora*, *human learning*, *humanities*, is fitted to form the statesmanlike mind, to produce the scholar, to develop the philosopher. The State stands in much need both of statesmen, and of pioneers in learning, and of great thinkers. They are the salt of the earth. For their training

classical courses are necessary, and these demand assured leisure for prolonged and persevering work.

"Besides salt, the State stands in no less need of simply educated people. In the army of the intelligent forces of the nation leaders and chiefs are necessary, but rank-and-file workers are no less necessary. They make up the great majority, and for classical education they have neither the capacity nor the time, nor the means. To classical learning the Scriptural saying is fully applicable, 'He that can apprehend, let him apprehend.' But what of him who cannot? For such an one our public opinion has long and insistently demanded 'real' instruction. With this disposition on the part of society, we have to reckon, for not only is it the result of the history of our development, which has proceeded until the most recent times solely along the path of realism; it arises out of the very nature of things; in other words, out of the requirements of actual life, the satisfaction of which must form the only justification of any and every school system. In point of fact, it is impossible to deny the educational value of mathematics, of the exact positions of physical science, of modern languages and the graphic arts, even if they be not combined with the study of the ancient languages. It is too late in the day to affirm that these subjects if taught with sufficient thoroughness cannot afford the mind the development which we associate with the idea of an educated man; but it is of course necessary for this purpose that they should be seriously studied, and that the labour spent upon them should be such as to discipline the mind and will, in the same way as the labour which is devoted to the study of the ancient languages.

"Social life is made up of manifold interests. The capacity to rightly appreciate and further any of these may be most readily and effectively exercised by persons with classical education; for others 'real' education is preferred. In order that society may develop in a proper and harmonious way it must comprise fully educated persons with both kinds of training.

"Such, in their general features, are the considerations, on the basis of which the Imperial Council, after long and exhaustive consideration, unanimously accepted the idea of Golovnin, that 'the object of the gymnasias is to afford their pupils a *general education*,' and that 'in accordance with the difference in the subjects which contribute to general education, the gymnasias should be of two kinds—classical and 'real.'"^{*}

The project as originally prepared by the Scientific Committee proposed to create two types of schools, one with a "normal" or "philological" course, which should include both Latin and Greek, the other with a "real" course, to include Latin, but not Greek. As in the case of the primary schools and the universities, the official proposals were submitted to the judgment of educational experts at home and abroad; and it is instructive to note that while the foreign advisers of the Government were on the side of the classics, Russian opinion leaned towards a more modern curriculum. In order to meet criticisms from one side or the other, the project of the Ministry was modified over and over again, and received Imperial sanction only in its fifth recension (14th Nov., 1864). In its final form, the educational scheme of 1864, though nominally providing for only two categories, viz., (classical) gymnasias and real-gymnasias, practically created three types of schools, viz., gymnasias with Latin (one-half of the whole number of schools were to be of this type), gymnasias with both Latin and Greek, and real-gymnasias, teaching no classics at all. The Ministry of Public Instruction was left free to establish either gymnasias or real-gymnasias, as

^{*} *Russkaja Shkola*, April, 1900. The article is entitled "The Secondary School in Russia Thirty Years Ago."²

local circumstances should require; but in view of the existing lack of qualified teachers of Greek, which was the natural result of the recent neglect of the subject, it was provided that "instruction in Greek should be introduced into the classical gymnasia gradually, and should be made dependent on the supply of properly prepared teachers."* Apart from the ancient languages, the following subjects also entered into the curriculum of 1864, in proportions varying according to the different types of schools: Russian (with Slavonic), French or German (in the fully classical schools), or both (in the rest), mathematics, history, geography, natural history, physics and cosmography, writing and drawing. An important provision of the statute was that completion of a course of study in the gymnasia (whether with or without Greek) should carry with it the right of access to the universities, while those who had passed through the "real" schools could be admitted to the higher technical schools only. The disability thus imposed upon the "real" schools was so severely felt that, in spite of the indifference to classical learning which was characteristic of average educated Russian society at the time, more than two-thirds of the schools which took the "real" course in 1864 shortly petitioned to be transformed into classical gymnasia, merely in order to fulfil the legal condition attached to the right of access to the Universities. By the year 1871 Greek had been introduced into 37 gymnasia out of a total of 90.

The reform of 1864 was more or less in the nature of a compromise. It proceeded on the principle of disturbing as little as possible the existing order of things, and leaving future developments to be decided by the teaching of experience. Such a solution of the question might have had a fair chance of success in illogical and compromise-loving England. In Russia it had none. Russia is not a land of compromise, and does not understand how a system which is logically open to criticism may be accepted because of its practical expediency and gradually improved as opportunity serves. The statute of 1864 settled nothing, because it gave the victory neither to the classicists nor to the realists, but assigned the most favoured position to a type of school for which neither of the contending parties had a good word to say. Golovnin himself, as appears from an article in the *Journal of the Ministry of Public Instruction*, regarded the gymnasia with Latin only as a mere temporary expedient. It was not therefore to be expected that less responsible persons should accept the situation created by the legislation of 1864 as permanent. Moreover the principle of dualism, which was now admitted for the first time into the school system of Russia, was not one for which Russian opinion was yet ripe. Hence the compromise of 1864 did not even bring about a truce between the contending parties, who continued the controversy

* The yearly output of the historico-philological faculties of all the Russian universities (which faculties supplied nine out of eleven of the teachers of the gymnasia) did not exceed thirty or forty at this time; and of these only a small proportion had studied Greek as a special subject.

with unabated vigour until 1871, when the question was finally decided, though not set at rest, for a whole generation by the triumph of classicism.

In order to understand how this result came about, it is necessary at this point to consider somewhat more closely the phase which the classical controversy had assumed in Russia at the period we have now reached, and in doing so we shall have to take account of some influences not of a purely pedagogical nature, which more or less directly affected the attitude both of the Government and of society in general towards questions of public education.

We have to note at the outset the unquestionable and admitted fact that the average Russian is by tradition and intellectual habit indifferent to the classics. The historical reasons for this mental attitude are more fully discussed in a succeeding chapter; here it will suffice to say that, as it reveals itself in history, in literature, in the ordinary affairs of life, and in the domain of purely intellectual interests, the bent of the Russian mind is distinctly positivist, finding its affinities in the modern spirit of scientific investigation rather than in the striving after literary perfection or in the speculations of abstract philosophy. Such an intellectual temper does not predispose its possessor in favour of the purely formal discipline of a classical education. On the other hand the real humanising and liberating influences which come from contact with the mind of classical, and especially of Greek, antiquity, were recognised as within the reach only of the select few who might be able to enter deeply into the life of ancient Greece and Rome, and, so to speak, to saturate themselves with its spirit. Special justification might therefore be claimed for the classics as the central subject of an education which aimed only, or chiefly, at the preparation of a governing class. Such predominance of the classics suited well with the avowedly aristocratic character of Russian education in the middle of the century, and it is largely from this point of view that we must explain the acquiescence of Russian society in the classical system introduced and maintained by Uvarov during the greater part of the reign of Nicholas. But it is important to remember also that classicism had been accepted in the forties as part of the Westernist creed, which naturally included in the admiration for western culture a belief in its historical foundations.

But since 1850 many things had happened. It was not only that the classical tradition in education had been dethroned, and that the changes introduced, however unsatisfactory in themselves, had accustomed the public mind to the idea of an alternative system of general education. The social, economic, and intellectual conditions of Russia were undergoing a profound change. The exclusiveness of the old social order had been broken through. The period of industrial expansion was beginning. Increased commercial contact with Western Europe made the need of a solid foundation of actual knowledge more widely and deeply felt. The beginning of the second half of the century was a time of great advance in those

forms of scientific activity for which the Russian mind has always shown most aptitude. Owing to all these causes it was felt that the very aims of public education had fundamentally altered. It was no longer possible to confine the function of the school to the education of officials for the State service, or even of an independent professional class. Hence it was maintained that the time had gone by in Russia, as in the rest of Europe, for the decisive preponderance of classics in education, and that a more modern type of school was necessary to meet the requirements of the time.

Meantime the party of progress had outgrown many of the articles of the earlier Westernist creed. A certain disillusionment with Western ideas is in fact a characteristic of the sixties in Russia. Slavophiles and Nihilists, agreeing in nothing else, were united in their antagonism to the "rotten West." The same movement of ideas carried the middle party of anti-revolutionary Liberals beyond their earlier position of admiration for the classics, and made them the upholders of a liberal education of a more modern type. Henceforth Russian opinion on educational subjects becomes predominantly "realist," or at any rate anti-classical. The older Westernist attitude towards the classics in education is represented almost exclusively by Conservatives of the type of Katkov. To convince oneself of this one has only to read the educational articles written by Katkov about 1870 alongside the well-known essay of Granovski on the "Decline of Classical Teaching," the date of which is fifteen years earlier.

While tendencies unfavourable to classicism were thus gaining ground in Russian society, the educational policy of the State had been impelled by circumstances to take an opposite direction. The alarming growth of Nihilism and revolutionary opinions generally among young people made the Government anxious to find a corrective in education. The classics seemed to offer such a corrective, partly by their remoteness from modern life, and partly by their restraint and simplicity. The ferment of the new ideas had, in fact, produced a kind of intellectual intoxication; classicism, it was held, would "sober" the minds of the young generation, or, as it was sometimes put, would "restore them to sanity." During the times of unsettlement and social unrest, young people had grown impatient of intellectual effort; the antidote was to be *concentration* in their studies, and the theory was advanced and found official acceptance that the classics alone, along with mathematics, were suitable objects for such concentration during the whole period of school life.

With the entry of Count D. Tolstoi into office the reaction in favour of classics became a settled principle of Government policy. As early as January, 1867, an article appeared in the official Journal of the Ministry which foreshadowed all the principles of the classical reform of 1871. Outside official circles the protagonists of classicism were Katkov, editor of the *Russkii Vestnik* and the *Moskovskii Vedomosti*, and his coadjutor, Professor Leontiev, of Moscow. The cause of modern education was equally well defended by such

papers as the *Peterburgskia Vidomosti* and the *Golos*. Both sides appealed to the example of modern Germany, and both found in German precedent and in German pedagogical literature a veritable armoury of facts and arguments with which to sustain their respective positions. Space does not permit of any attempt to follow the controversy in detail; it will suffice if we succeed in making reasonably clear the general principles which found expression in the legislation of 1871. Both sides started with the assumption that secondary education should be general, *i.e.*, not special or merely utilitarian. The realists, however, maintained that the classical languages had no monopoly of the fundamental requisites of a liberal education, and that a general mental training which would be more suited to the genius of the Russian people could be obtained from a curriculum constructed on a non-philological basis. At the base of the official position was a certain theory of the relation of the "European school," by which was meant the classical school in the various forms which it had assumed in France, Germany, and England since the Renaissance, to the whole product of Western civilisation. It was in the exposition of this theory that the great journalistic ability of Katkov was most conspicuously shown. "You tell us," he says in effect to his opponents, "of the intellectual and scientific progress of Western Europe, of its advance in the technical and industrial arts, of its material prosperity, and you say that it is important for Russia to appropriate the results of all this material and intellectual progress. Granted; but what is the fundamental condition of our doing so? You maintain that we must have a modern form of education. What a superficial view is this! Do you not see that the countries where all this expansion has taken place are precisely those in which the classical school is at home, and that where there is no classical school there is no material or intellectual progress? The two things are obviously related as cause and effect. By all means let us appropriate the results of European civilisation; not, however, its results only, but its principles; not alone the flowers and the fruits of modern culture, but its roots." This conception of the causes underlying European progress was of course naïve in its incompleteness, for however great may have been the moulding influence of classical letters upon the thought of Europe, it would need more than the ingenuity and literary skill even of a Katkov to obscure the part which other influences, social, religious, political, and economic, have played in weaving the complex web of our modern civilisation.*

* The following extract from an article by Katkov in the *Moskovskia Vidomosti* of 11th May, 1871, will show pretty clearly the standpoint of the authors of the curriculum of 1871:—"The study of the history of the civilization of peoples leads us to the conviction that the fundamental, deep-lying cause of the phenomena revealed on the surface is nothing else than the position of the school which trains, from childhood to maturity, the intellectual faculties for scientific pursuits. With this school lies the secret of the rise or fall of the intellectual level of nations. Decay, disorganisation, and inefficiency in this school reveal themselves in actual life with astonishing rapidity, much

Side by side with the disposition to attach an importance to the classics, which will now seem to most people disproportionate, there was exhibited a tendency not only to depreciate the educational value of purely scientific subjects, but even to attribute to them a positively harmful influence. The "true fathers of Nihilism," according to Katkov, were the authors of the educational changes of 1849 and 1851. A similar view is expressed in the carefully-prepared explanatory document which accompanied the educational proposals of 1871 on their presentation to the Imperial Council. "In the almost complete banishment of the ancient languages, and especially of Greek, from our schools, in the adaptation of the gymnasium course to practical ends. . . . is to be found one of the chief reasons, if not the only one, for the materialism which has taken so strong a hold on our young students, for their nihilism, and their ruinous self-conceit. For the question between the ancient languages, as the basis of all further scientific culture, and every other method of instruction is a question not only as between serious and superficial learning, but also as between moral and material tendencies in instruction and education, and consequently in society as a whole. In fact, the material of instruction may be such as either to act on all sides of the human spirit, ennobling and exalting it (such is the study of the ancient classical languages and their literatures), or to develop the pupils in a one-sided manner, to exercise no influence either on their moral or on their æsthetic education, and to attract their attention exclusively and prematurely to political and social questions (such was

more quickly and profoundly than we can imagine. But in what consists the secret of the training afforded by the school which prepares for the higher (i.e., University) education ? . . . "

"The first condition of a school which leads to scientific knowledge is what is called concentration. To develop the intellect means to collect and concentrate it. If there were no subject on which the mind of the pupil could be seriously exercised daily during a succession of years, then a school of this kind would be out of the question. Such a subject must afford scope for serious scientific study to children equally with adults ; it must grow with the growth of the pupil ; it must call forth all the faculties of the human mind in their natural order of succession ; in the course of the study of it there must be a strict gradation from the lower to the higher, from the external to the essential ; and while developing the mind, it must at the same time instruct and enrich it. Why for this purpose cannot some other science or group of sciences be used ? Because in the school of which we speak no science in the specialised sense of this word can be a subject of instruction. The very object of this school is to prepare its pupils for the study of special sciences. If sciences could be taught in the school, then why should Universities be needed ? The sciences may enter into the schools for boys only as a supplementary element, only in respect to some of their results, but scarcely as a subject of serious, continued, and concentrated study. Mathematics alone form an exception, but only as regards their general or elementary portions. The pupils may be made acquainted with the results of science in certain branches of knowledge, certain subjects may be discussed with them in the light of science, but it would be madness to suppose that any special science could form a subject of instruction in a school where the boy is simply being prepared to be a man, where his intellectual faculties are only in the germ from which they must be developed. This is why

undoubtedly the influence of the courses of law in our gymnasia), or to questions of the material world (the courses of natural science).”^{*} It is curious to observe how completely the views of the Government with regard to the classics had changed since 1850, when it was the ancient languages which were suspected of fostering disaffection to the existing order of things. It was now proposed to sacrifice not only natural science, but also in some degree such humanistic subjects as history, Russian and modern foreign languages. It was stated that the lessons in the two first-named subjects were frequently made the vehicles of personal opinions not corresponding to the views of the Government.† As to modern languages, they were depreciated because of the ease with which they were learnt, and for reasons of a politico-moral character. What, asked Katkov, will our children gain from a school in which modern languages are a speciality? “Good success will give them the habit of speaking foreign languages: the highest success will turn them morally into foreigners.”[‡]

The events leading up to the legislation of 1871 were as follows. Soon after his entry on office in 1866, Tolstoi issued a circular asking the opinion of Curators, Pedagogical Councils, and certain other educationists as to the working of the system of instruction inaugurated in 1864. The replies were, for the most part, in favour of a system of gymnasia and real-gymnasia, both giving a general education; the gymnasia, however, to include schools teaching both ancient languages, and schools teaching Latin only. The

the object of concentrated study in a school which aims at education is not any science whatever, but languages. . . . Grammar and the reading of authors—that is all which the school does, using the ancient languages as its instrument for the training of the young minds entrusted to its care. In this there is nothing transcendental, nothing extraordinary, nothing unnatural to the age of the pupils, but within the limits of this study they develop all their capabilities, acquire all the habits of thought required for the independent pursuit of science, and become accustomed to intellectual effort. In this respect the study of the classics is usually called a mental gymnastic, but this insufficiently defines their importance in the sphere of training. They not only formally develop the intellectual faculties, but they fertilise and enrich them. By means of the study of these languages young people are made acquainted, not through the statements of others, but by their own feeling and thought, with the great foundation facts of the intellectual life of the whole of educated mankind. Every word of these languages is in itself an historic fact. But in limiting themselves to the language, the students enter into the very life of which the language was the expression. They acquire the content of the great productions which form the heritage of all civilised peoples, and which knit them together. By actual personal study they gain a knowledge of all the forms of man’s intellectual activity in their simplest, purest, and clearest outlines. Accustoming themselves to the labour of thought and developing in all their mental capacities, they, day by day, and year by year, enter more and more intimately into the history of universal civilisation.”

^{*} Storn. Post. V., pp. 269, 270.

† Ibid, pp. 340 and 342. The importance of the study of the mother-tongue and of history was nevertheless strongly insisted upon by many classicists standing outside official circles.

views of the Government, however, went beyond this. Between 1869 and 1871 an Imperial Commission, presided over by Count Strogonov, was engaged in preparing a project for gymnasia (with progymnasia) and real-schools. The most important of their proposals were as follows:—

(1) The course of the gymnasia (not of the real-schools) was extended from seven to eight years; and a preparatory class was also added to ensure better preparation for those entering the gymnasia. The existing course provided for an aggregate of 184 hours a week, as compared with the Uvarovskian schools, in which 240 hours had been the rule. The diminution in the aggregate had been brought about by shortening the individual lessons. The addition of an extra year to the course was intended to bring up the aggregate number of hours available for instruction to its former level; and also to delay by a year the minimum age of entry to the universities, which, under the existing system, was seventeen. It was hoped that the effect of this change would be that students would enter the universities better prepared intellectually, whilst the addition of a year to their average age would diminish the chances of disturbances and other infractions of order.

(2) The proportion of school-time given to classics in the gymnasia was very considerably increased at the expense of other subjects. Eighty-five lessons per week in the aggregate, or over 41 per cent. of the total number in all subjects, fell to the share of the two ancient languages; of these eighty-five lessons, forty-nine were assigned to Latin, and thirty-six to Greek, the latter language being begun in the third class. The aggregate proportion of school-time allotted to classics was thus rather smaller than in the Prussian gymnasia of the time; on the other hand, the Russian curriculum assigned a relatively greater importance to Greek as compared with Latin than the Prussian. The reasons given for this preference of Greek to Latin are interesting. "Religion," says the official document already quoted, "the historic development of our language, the monuments of our ancient architecture and painting, the close connection of our history with that of Byzantium, and in general the constant interaction between the Greek world and the Slavo-Russian, all point us to the necessity of an intimate study of the Greek world; and it is only in this direction, through the medium of the Greek language, that it is possible for our learned men to enrich historical science with very important and at the same time entirely independent work, since it is almost impossible for Western scholars to rise completely above prejudice in regard to the Orthodox East; and the history of the Byzantine Empire, so closely connected with that of our native land, still awaits the investigation which our scholars are fitted to supply. Our higher schools would certainly not fulfil their historic vocation if they turned aside from the Greek language and the Greek world, so rich in the fruits of spiritual life, not only in ancient pagan, but in modern Christian times, or if to their study were not assigned a very conspicuous place in our gymnasia. . . . Whilst the nations

of Western Europe, not connected with the Greeks by the ties of spiritual kindred, nor by feelings of deep mutual friendship, and far less interested than we are in the future destinies of the Orthodox East. . . . study with all possible zeal the Greek language, found societies for encouraging the study of it in schools, etc. . . . we Russians have so far shown ourselves indifferent to this means (more available to us than to anyone else) of raising the level of our own intellectual culture and of strengthening the mutual sympathies that unite us with the Greeks.”*

(3) With a view to securing greater unity of aim and method in the teaching, and a closer connection between the moral and intellectual aspects of education, directors and inspectors were henceforth required to take part in the teaching, and class-tutors in special charge of order and discipline were to be appointed from the ordinary staff.

(4) The right of admission to the universities was to belong only to those who had completed the course of the gymnasium. The course of the real-school was to serve the double purpose of preparing directly for practical life, and also for a further course of study at the higher technical schools.

Before the proposals of the Commission were laid before the Imperial Council, they were considered by a special Committee (*prisutstvie*), in which the Tsezarevich Constantine took part. On this Committee opinion was divided, the minority being in favour of converting half the gymnasia into real-schools with an eight-years' course, of including Latin as an optional subject in the curriculum of the real-school, and of giving students from the real-schools with Latin access to the physico-mathematical faculty and to that of medicine. In the meeting of the whole body of the Imperial Council a majority took the same view, only nineteen members out of forty-eight voting for the proposals of the Ministry. The Emperor nevertheless confirmed the opinion of the minority, and the law relating to gymnasia and progymnasia was finally promulgated in July, 1871. It was followed by a supplementary law relating to real-schools in May, 1872.

The curricula of both types of schools are given below. With respect to that of the real-school, it should be observed that the object in view was to provide a general education suited to the needs of the mercantile and industrial classes. General subjects were taught in the first four classes; in the fifth specialisation began, the fifth and sixth having two sides, the “fundamental” and the “commercial.” The course on the commercial side ended with the sixth class; but on the “fundamental” side there was a seventh or supplementary class, which was sub-divided into three sections: (i.) general, for those preparing for the higher technical schools; (ii.) chemico-technical, and (iii.) mechanico-technical; both the latter being designed for those who were completing their technical education in the Secondary School.

* *Sbern. Post.* V., pp. 354-8.

CURRICULUM OF THE GYMNASIA ACCORDING TO THE LAW OF 1871.

SUBJECTS.	Classes.									Total, exclusive of preparatory class.
	Preparatory.	i.	ii.	iii.	iv.	v.	vi.	vii.	viii.	
Religion	4	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	13
Russian language and literature, with Slavonic	6	4	4	4	3	3	2	2	2	24
Latin	—	8	7	5	5	6	6	6	6	49
Greek	—	—	—	5	6	6	6	6	7	36
Logic	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	1
Mathematics: Arithmetic	6	5	4	1	—	—	—	—	—	—
Algebra	—	—	—	2	2	2	1	1	—	—
Geometry	—	—	—	—	2	2	1	—	—	—
Trigonometry	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—
Mathematical Geography	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—
Revision	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	29
Physics	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	2	2	6
Natural Science	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	2
History	—	—	—	2	2	2	2	2	2	12
Geography	—	2	2	2	2	—	—	1	1	10
German or French	—	—	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	19
Handwriting	6	3	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	5
Total for pupils taking one foreign language	22	24	24	26	26	26	26	27	27	203
Total for those taking two foreign languages	22	24	27	29	29	29	29	29	29	225

N.R.—The progymnasia, which included four to six classes only, had a curriculum identical with that of the corresponding classes of the gymnasias.

CURRICULUM OF THE REAL-SCHOOLS ACCORDING TO THE LAW OF 187

SUBJECTS.	Classes.				Fundamental Division.			Supplementary Class.			Commercial Division.		
	i.	ii.	iii.	iv.	v.	vi.	Total in 6 classes.	General.	Mechanics-Technical.	Chemistry-Technical.	v.	vi.	Total in 6 classes.
Religion -	2	2	2	2	1	1	10	2	2	2	1	1	10
Russian -	6	4	4	4	2	2	22	4	-	-	2	2	22
1st Modern Language -	-	6	5	5	3	3	22	5	-	-	6	6	28
2nd Modern Language*	-	-	6	6	3	3	18	-	-	-	6	6	24
Geography -	2	2	2	2	-	-	8	2	-	-	-	2	10
History -	-	-	2	2	2	2	8	4	-	-	2	2	8
Writing -	4	2	-	-	-	-	6	-	-	-	-	-	6
Drawing -	6	4	4	4	6	6	30	5	-	-	2	-	20
Mathematics -	4	4	4	4	8	4	28	3	3	3	2	2	20
Natural History -	-	-	-	-	4	2	6	2	2	2	4	-	4
Physics -	-	-	-	-	4	2	6	2	2	2	-	4	4
Chemistry -	-	-	-	-	-	4	4	2	2	2	-	-	-
Mechanics -	-	-	-	-	-	4	4	-	3	-	-	-	-
Bookkeeping and Commercial Correspondence -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	5	10
Machine designing -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	-	-	-	-
Modelling -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
Land Surveying and Levelling -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
Construction (general principles of) -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-
Account-keeping -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-
Chemical Technology -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	5	-	-	-
Laboratory work -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12	-	-	-
Totals -	24	24	29	29	33	33	172	29	30	30	30	30	166

* For those who proposed to continue their studies in the Commercial Division, two foreign languages were obligatory. The languages taught were French, German, English, and in certain districts Italian, and Modern Greek.

The long struggle between classicism and realism had thus been decided in favour of the former by the personal intervention of the Emperor. By the conservative Press his act was extolled as the necessary complement of the abolition of serfdom, which likewise been due in an eminent degree to his personal initiative. The "Moscow Gazette" described the reform as involving "the renascence of Russian nationality by placing it on terms of educational equality with the most civilised nations of the world." But the mass of educated opinion remained unconvinced, though a revulsion in favour of classicism was confidently foretold by the victorious minority. "The consequences of this reform," wrote Katkov, "will not be long in revealing themselves; before ten years have passed our country will have felt its beneficent results, and generations already born will bless the present reign for it." The experience of thirty years has hardly justified the optimism of this prophecy.

Meanwhile the work of extending Secondary Education was energetically pushed forward. Within ten years of Tolstoi's entry upon office the number of pupils in the gymnasia and real-schools had more than doubled; the number of schools had increased from 96 to 255 (133 gymnasia, 69 progymnasia, and 53 real-schools). The sudden increase in classical instruction laid an impossible strain on the resources of the Russian Universities, which had even before only been barely able to supply the necessary number of classical teachers. In this difficulty the Government fell back on the expedient of inviting teachers of Slavonic race from the neighbouring countries of Western Europe—Germany, Bohemia, Moravia, Galicia, etc. Much advantage to Russian education was expected to result from the importation of teachers trained in the schools and universities of Germany, and accustomed to German methods of instruction, while their acquaintance with a kindred Slavic tongue would, it was believed, much facilitate for them the acquisition of a tolerable command of Russian. These were undoubtedly real advantages; but there is a considerable weight of testimony to the effect that they were largely counter-balanced by the essential disadvantages under which all foreigners must labour in teaching such a subject as classics, in which a subtle appreciation of the pupil's idiom—what the Germans call *Sprachgefühl*—is at least as important as an accurate acquaintance with the language taught. It must be evident that a system so largely dependent for its success on foreign teachers started on its course heavily handicapped.* In order to increase the supply of native teachers of classics the Government also founded several special institutes, including one at Leipzig.

* Professor Modestov (Shkolnyi Vopros, p. 45), writing in 1890, tells us that "perhaps a good half" of the persons then teaching classics in the Russian schools did not speak Russian as their mother-tongue. Dostoevski, though he maintained that the "whole future of Russia" was bound up with the classical reform of 1871, nevertheless protested strongly against the policy of importing classical teachers from abroad, as well as against the comparative neglect of the mother-tongue and of history, which was one of the results of the reform.

It remains to note briefly the steps taken in the late sixties and early seventies to extend the Russian educational system to Poland. First came (1869) an Imperial order that Russian should henceforth be the exclusive language of instruction in boys' and girls' gymnasia, the German gymnasia being temporarily excepted, but only for two years. After the lapse of one year, all private schools were to use Russian as the language of instruction in physico-mathematical and historical subjects; and notice was given that the regulation might ultimately be extended to all subjects. In the same year the so-called High School (*Glavnaya Shkola*), at Warsaw, which had been founded in 1862 with many of the functions and privileges of a University, though without the name, was raised to full University status. It was organised on the general lines of the Russian Universities, but with many limitations of autonomy (in respect, for instance, of the appointment of Professors, Rector, and Inspector) which approximated its position to that of the Russian Universities under the Statute of 1835. Two years later, instruction in Russian reading and writing was made obligatory in all Polish Primary Schools; and in 1872 and 1874 respectively, the operation of the Russian Statutes relating to gymnasia and real-schools, was extended, with a few minor alterations, to Poland.

The reign of Alexander II. witnessed a remarkable development in the education of girls and women. It will be remembered that so far as the higher classes and the clergy were concerned, the education of girls was already well organised; in fact, the "institutes" which provided for the daughters of the nobility and the official class, and the schools for the daughters of priests, constituted together a public provision for girls' education which might challenge comparison with that made by any other country in Europe in the middle of last century. Nevertheless, the requirements of the middle class in the towns, a class which was rapidly growing in numbers and importance, remained unprovided for. It was one of Alexander's first objects after his accession to supply this want. His efforts in this direction were warmly seconded by his Imperial Consort, the Empress Maria Alexandrovna; and the actual measures decided on were taken in consequence of a report drawn up by Professor N. Vyshnegradski, who had been sent by command of the Empress to study the question of girls' education in Germany. Provision was made in 1858 for the creation of two grades of girls' day schools, under the administration of the Ministry of Public Instruction, the first grade having a six years' course of study, and the second one of three years. This enactment was revised and supplemented in certain details in 1860, and during the next ten years, thirty-seven schools of the first grade, and ninety-four of the second, were established in different parts of the Empire by private individuals and public bodies without, however, receiving any assistance from the Imperial Treasury. There were two essential differences between these girls' schools and the previously existing institutes; they were day schools, and they were open to all classes. The organisation of these schools

reached its final (*i.e.*, its present) form in 1870, when the first and second grades of schools were converted respectively into gymnasia with a seven years' course and progymnasia with a course of three years or more, and provision was made for State aid to supplement the work of private initiative. The course of the gymnasia also included an eighth year with a supplementary pedagogical course in the case of girls intending to devote themselves to teaching. The seven years' course included as obligatory subjects: Religion, the Russian language and literature, arithmetic, geography and history, the elements of natural history, domestic economy and hygiene, writing, needlework and gymnastics; and as optional subjects (for which a special fee was charged) French, German, drawing, music, singing, and dancing. Similar gymnasia (day schools) were at the same time established by the Department of the Institutions of the Empress Maria, alongside the older institutes (boarding schools). The first of these gymnasia was opened in 1858, and their definitive Statute was promulgated in 1862. About thirty Diocesan Girls' Schools were opened during the sixties. The Statute under which these schools are still administered was published in 1868, and the schools for the daughters of the clergy established during the preceding reign have since been brought under its operation.

The progress of secondary education for girls could not but give rise to a demand for higher education for women. We have already seen (p. 95) how the question of providing University teaching for women was tentatively raised in the early sixties in the form of a proposal to admit them as "auditors" to the lecture-rooms of the Universities. By some professors at St. Petersburg they had actually been so admitted. This, however, came to an end in 1863; and it became manifest that the goal was not to be reached in that way. But the goal itself was not lost sight of. Every year the necessity of providing some kind of higher education for women became more and more pressing, as an ever increasing number of women belonging to the poorer gentry were driven by the effects of the emancipation to seek education as providing a means of self-support. Failing to obtain what they wanted in their native country, many Russian women began to drift off to foreign, especially Swiss, Universities.* This resource, however, was not open to all; and the idea of a Russian University for Women gained ground steadily. The realisation of this idea a few years later, as the result of private initiative, was an achievement unique in the annals of Russian higher education.

In December, 1867, Madame E. I. Konradi, who then edited the *Nedelia*, raised the question of systematic university instruction for women, by addressing a memorial on the subject to the Science Congress, then sitting in St. Petersburg. The Congress expressed their approval of the idea, but found themselves unable to take steps to further its realisation, since the matter lay outside their programme. Meanwhile public attention had been drawn to the

* The Swiss Universities had recently been opened to women.

subject, and a few months later a memorial to the same effect, numerously signed by women, was presented to the Rector of the St. Petersburg University. A Commission of Professors was appointed to consider the question, and on the report of this Commission the University Council expressed itself in favour of the organisation of higher instruction for women, though not within the walls of the existing University itself. The attitude of the individual professors was one of warm sympathy and readiness to co-operate so soon as the project should be brought by its promoters into practical shape. The latter, encouraged in their undertaking on all sides—among others, John Stuart Mill wrote them a letter of congratulation—now approached Count D. Tolstoi with a draft proposal for the establishment of Women's Higher Courses. Meanwhile, as it was thought that the existing secondary schools for girls afforded inadequate preparation for the serious prosecution of university studies, preliminary courses of lectures for women in mathematics, the natural sciences and literature, were organised both by the Government and by certain private persons.

In 1869 the Minister authorised advanced courses of lectures at St. Petersburg in physico-mathematical and historico-philological subjects, to be open to both sexes. This was scarcely what the friends of women's education had hoped for, but it was accepted *faute de mieux*. Many difficulties still remained, since the promoters of the movement were not allowed to appeal for funds through the public press, but the self-denying co-operation of the University professors enabled them to overcome these difficulties, and the lectures were finally started in January, 1870. They took place in the evenings, as both the professors and many of the students were occupied with their own teaching duties during the day-time. Practical work was done in the University laboratories on Sundays and holy days when the men students were absent. The number of persons attending the lectures reached 900 in the very first year. The subjects treated included Russian history and literature, universal history, law, botany, zoology, geology, human anatomy and physiology, mineral and organic chemistry. The rule by which men as well as women were admitted to the lectures continued in force until M. Ossinin, Director of the Institutions of the Empress Maria, offered to allow the use of one of the gymnasias under his charge for the purpose of the lectures, on condition that they were confined to women only. The Ministry of Public Instruction assented to this condition, and thus the original intention of the promoters of the courses was *de facto* reached.

The example of St. Petersburg was followed by other University towns, such as Kiev and Kazan, and notably by Moscow, where the movement owed much to the public-spirited exertions of Professor Guerrier, who is now an Emeritus Professor of the University, but whose interest in women's education, as in every other worthy social movement, continues active and unabated. These first tentative efforts were, however, somewhat lacking in system. The ages and intellectual attainments of the women attending the lectures were naturally very diverse, since no evidence of previous

study was required as a condition of admission. The audiences must, therefore, have approximated in character very closely to those of our own Extension Lectures. There was no fixed curriculum or programme of studies, and considerable inconvenience and delay were sometimes caused by the necessity of submitting each course of lectures separately to the Minister of Public Instruction for approval. Moreover, the whole movement rested on a very precarious financial basis. All these considerations decided the leaders of the movement to discontinue in 1875 the lectures at St. Petersburg, pending the preparation of a new and more carefully thought-out scheme.

Meantime the attention of the Government had been drawn to the necessity of taking some steps to check the growing tendency of young Russian women to seek education at foreign universities. In 1872, no less than 108 Russian women were studying in Zürich alone. But Zürich was then the headquarters of the revolutionary propaganda carried on by Lavrov, Bakunin, and others; and it was said that the Russian women-students at the university were becoming infected by the subversive doctrines preached by these men, and that they afterwards helped to spread them in Russia. A circular was therefore issued by the Russian Government, bidding all women-students to return to Russia within the year on pain of exclusion from all appointments or other privileges at the disposal of the State; at the same time the Government undertook to organise University instruction for women in Russia. By order of the Emperor, a special Commission consisting of the Minister of Public Instruction, the Minister of the Interior, and the Director of the Institutions of the Empress Maria, was appointed to consider the whole question. The final result of their deliberations appeared in the issue of an Imperial Decree, on April 9th, 1876, authorising the provision of courses of higher instruction for women in University towns, such courses being recognised as useful and indispensable not only in order that Russian women might no longer be under the necessity of seeking University education abroad, but also in order to provide the higher classes of the secondary girls' schools (institutes and gymnasia) with properly qualified women teachers, in view of the fact that the supply of men teachers was no longer adequate even to the requirements of the secondary schools for boys. In consequence of this Decree the women's courses at St. Petersburg were reopened in 1878, in three sections or faculties: the literary-historical section, the physico-mathematical section, and the section of pure mathematics. The students were now obliged to present a certificate of having completed a full course of instruction in a secondary school, or of having attained the rank of "domestic teacher" (certificated governess). Other hearers might be admitted only with the special permission of the Curator. In order to obtain a certificate of having successfully completed a course, students were obliged to undergo examination at the end of each year, and also to present a thesis. The course was at first fixed at

three years, but afterwards (in 1881) extended to four. The new institution was placed under the presidency of the well-known St. Petersburg professor, M. Bestuzhev-Riumin, who, however, held office only until 1881. By that time, however, the success of the courses appeared to be assured.

A particular interest attaches to the movement which began in the sixties for providing women with an advanced medical education. It was, of course, only one phase of the movement in favour of higher education for women generally, but it was especially justified by the necessity of having lady doctors to attend on the women of the Mussulman population of the eastern provinces of the Empire, who are forbidden by their religion to have recourse to the assistance of a male doctor. The question was first raised in 1861 in the form of a request by a Russian lady to be admitted to the medical courses at one of the provincial universities. The Faculty of Medicine referred the matter to the Minister, who in turn consulted the Medical Council. The opinion of the latter body was favourable to the granting of the request, but the Ministry, nevertheless, took the opposite view. As we have already mentioned, the lecture halls of the universities were definitely closed to women in the session of 1863-4, and among the Russian women who thereupon sought admission to Swiss and other Universities were many who took up the study of medicine. Meantime an exception to their own rule was made by the Russian Government in favour of Madame Koshevarova Rudneva, a lady of unusual abilities, who was allowed to study for the Diploma of Doctor of Medicine at the Academy of St. Petersburg, in order to practice among the Bashkirs. She obtained her diploma in 1868, and her example did much to encourage the friends of the movement in favour of medical instruction for women in Russia. Count Tolstoi, however, remained deaf to all appeals to organise such instruction; and the goal was finally reached through the instrumentality of General Milutin, who was then Minister of War, and in that capacity had control of the Military Academy of Medicine at St. Petersburg. A timely gift of 50,000 roubles by Mdlle. Lydia Rodstvennaia made it possible for him to suggest to the Emperor that the medical courses of the Military Academy might be utilised for the instruction of women without any extra charge upon the State Treasury. His plan was approved by the Emperor tentatively for a period of four years. The courses were started with ninety students, and during the period between 1878 and 1881 the number of admissions amounted to 959.

At the end of the four probationary years, the courses were transferred to the Nicholas Military Hospital, continuing as before to be conducted by the professors of the Academy. A fifth year was now added to the course of instruction, which thus became practically equivalent to, though not in all respects identical with, that pursued by men students. The Russo-Turkish War broke out just before the students of the fifth year had finally completed their studies: some thirty of them volunteered to go to the front, and their services were accepted as doctors' assistants. In the military

hospitals they acquitted themselves with such skill, and displayed such self-devotion, as to win the highest praise not only from the medical and military authorities of Russia, but also from the Turks themselves.* The following winter sixty of the students of the Women's Medical Courses passed their final examination, and received the degree of "Woman Doctor."

We have finally to cast a glance at the history of private schools during the reign of Alexander II. The result of the warfare waged by the State against these schools in the preceding reign had been twofold. First of all, it had established the State gymnasia in a position of unchallenged superiority with respect to their rivals. By the middle of the century there were comparatively few private schools able to compete with those supported by the State: the great majority were either confining themselves to elementary instruction, or were serving as preparatory schools for pupils intending to enter the gymnasia. Secondly, the State had finally succeeded in transferring the whole business of private school-keeping out of the hands of foreigners into those of persons who were Russian by nationality, if not always by origin. But the State had won its battle at some cost to the intellectual resources of the nation. The policy of the Government had naturally discouraged private initiative in the work of education in the country generally, whilst in the two capitals the existence of a fixed limit to the number of private schools permitted by the State had created a monopoly in favour of the proprietors of the privileged schools, which these persons were not slow to turn to their own advantage by raising their fees, but which was not to the advantage of educational efficiency. This state of things told with especial force against the interests of girls' education, since up to 1857 there were no State schools which were open to girls of all classes, and those who found the doors of the institutes closed against them had no resource but to seek admission into a private school.

The whole position of private schools had, in fact, undergone a change which made the maintenance of the old attitude of suspicion towards them no longer reasonable, especially on the part of statesmen so much disposed on general grounds to look favourably on the action of private initiative as were Alexander and his advisers in the early years of his reign. The policy adopted by the new Government with reference to private schools therefore involved a complete reversal of all the principles which had guided the action of Nicholas. Instead of discouraging these schools in the interests of the State gymnasia, the Government were now disposed to welcome the best private schools as providing an element of healthy competition, to see in those which merely prepared their pupils for admission to the gymnasia a very valuable means of supplying a want which was not met by the ordinary primary

* See a brochure entitled "Apport sur l'Instruction Médicale des Femmes on Russie," prepared for the Paris Exhibition.

schools, and to encourage all kinds of private schools, but especially those for girls, because they filled up *lacunæ* in school supply where the establishment of State schools was not feasible.

It was these considerations which formed the motive of the Imperial order of the 12th January, 1857, by which the limitation of the number of private schools in the capitals was abolished. The disposition thus shown by the Government to encourage the world of private schools quickly had its effect in the establishment of new schools, not only in St. Petersburg and Moscow, where the number of private schools increased by fifty per cent. in eight years, but throughout the country generally. The opening of such schools was further facilitated in 1858 by transferring the right to permit their establishment from the Minister to the Curators of the respective educational districts; and more effective supervision of their work was provided for by transferring the duty of inspecting them from the officials who had hitherto combined this duty with other official functions, first of all to special inspectors of private schools, and then (in 1861) to the ordinary District Inspectors acting under the instructions of the Curators.

Having thus committed itself to the policy of encouraging the establishment of private schools, the Government was bound, in its own interests and in the interests of the public, to go a step further. If private schools were to be allowed to supply the place of State institutions where it was impossible for any reason to establish the latter, there must be sufficient guarantees that the private schools were educationally efficient. Under the existing regulations such guarantees were practically absent. The principal of a private school must be a Russian subject, and a person of good reputation, both from a political and a moral point of view; but he need possess no academical qualification whatever. None of the teachers were required to have a University degree, no matter what classes they might take; they must simply possess the title of "domestic teacher." Whilst thus a considerable degree of freedom was permitted to the private schools in directions which did not tend to educational efficiency, they were hampered in directions where increased liberty was desirable; that is to say, they were bound to teach according to curricula conforming as nearly as possible to those of the gymnasia, the district-schools or the primary schools. The Government resolved to reverse these conditions by allowing greater freedom of curriculum, but at the same time taking fresh guarantees for the efficiency of the teaching. The measures adopted to this end, which received Imperial sanction in 1868, were sufficiently radical.

In the first place, the method of classifying private schools was changed. Instead of being loosely classified according to the degree in which their various curricula approximated to those of the various types of State schools, they were now divided into three grades, according to the number of classes they contained, or in other words, according to the length of their course. The first grade comprised schools with not less than six classes (or a

six years' course), the second was made up of schools with not less than three classes, while schools with one or two classes were assigned to the third grade. The choice of subjects entering into the curriculum was left to the principal under two restrictions—(1) the curriculum must include religion and Russian in all schools, and where history and geography were taught, the course in these subjects must include Russian history and Russian geography; and (2) the scheme of work must be approved by the Curator of the Educational District. Inasmuch as it was the policy of the Government to give every encouragement to the establishment of private schools with curricula approximating to that of the classical gymnasium, it was provided that such schools should have the title of "private classical gymnasium," and that their pupils should, after completing their course, obtain the right of admission to the University on passing an examination conducted by the staff of their respective schools with the co-operation and under the supervision of the State educational authorities. The standard of academical qualification both for principals and teachers of private schools was considerably raised. The principal of a private boys' school of the first grade must now be a university man, and if he was a foreigner who had graduated at a University abroad, he must also, on assuming Russian nationality, pass a special examination according to a syllabus sanctioned by the Minister of Public Instruction. Principals of schools of the second grade, and also of those of the third grade with two classes, need only possess the status of "domestic teacher." For women principals of schools either of the first or second grade, or of the third grade with two classes, the status of "domestic governess" (*nastavnitsa*) or "domestic teacher" (*uchitel'nitsa*) was sufficient. Both men and women principals of schools with one class required only the same qualification as the teacher of an ordinary primary school. The qualifications requisite for teachers of private schools were as follows. In the three highest classes in schools of the first grade the teacher must have a University qualification; for the lower classes in these schools and for schools of the second grade the status of "domestic teacher" was sufficient. Exceptions to these rules were, however, admitted in the case of clergymen employed as teachers of religion, art teachers, and teachers of modern languages.

The regulations just described have remained in force up to the present time. In presenting them for consideration by the Imperial Council, Count Tolstoi expressed the belief that they would not only have the effect of improving the private schools themselves, but that they would relieve the Treasury of the burden which would otherwise fall upon it of maintaining a greatly-increased number of State Schools, and would also give rise to a healthy rivalry between State and private schools, which could only turn to the advantage of education in general. Subsequent experience has, it is believed, fully confirmed the accuracy of this forecast.

In the same year (1868) some important supplementary regulations on the subject of private teachers received Imperial

sanction. These regulations provided, among other things, that the status of private tutor (*nastavnik*) should be obtained not only by persons who had graduated in a university or theological academy, but also by those who had completed a course in any educational institution of the highest (or University) rank, or who had passed a special examination for the purpose; defined still further the rights and privileges of private tutors and teachers; and left it within the competence of the Minister of Public Instruction to frame rules as to the employment of students and gymnasists in private tuition.

VII.—THE REIGN OF ALEXANDER III. (1881-1894).

The reign of the third Alexander may be briefly described as a period of counter-reform. The tragic circumstances in which the new Emperor was called to the throne, and the necessity of dealing strongly with the revolutionary crisis, combined with his own conservative temper and nationalist leanings to bring about the definite abandonment, and in some respects the complete reversal, of the policy of the reform period. Hence the leading principles of Alexander's internal policy were the resumption by the central power of some of the authority with which it had voluntarily parted, the strengthening of the principle of autocracy, and the steadily-pursued aim of Russification and national consolidation. Perhaps the most marked examples of the application of these principles to general local administration were the imposition of a system of checks on the rural organs of self-government, the limitation of the municipal franchise, the abolition of the elective magistracy, and the Russification of the frontier provinces. But all these measures had their counterparts in the sphere of educational administration; and it is from this point of view that we must regard the important legislative changes which affected education during the reign.

One of the main aims of the educational policy of the new reign was to strengthen still further the principle of centralisation and State control, of which Count D. Tolstoi had been the zealous exponent during the seventies. This policy was most strikingly exemplified in the reorganisation of the universities in 1884 on the lines already laid down by the project of Count Tolstoi. Another step in the same direction, but involving principles of still more profound and far-reaching consequence, was the call to the Church, acting as an independent State organisation, to take an increased part in the work of primary education side by side with the *zemstvos*. The introduction of the Russian language as the obligatory medium of instruction in the Baltic provinces, and the provisions for limiting the access of Jews to places of secondary and higher education, may also be mentioned as typical examples of the general policy of the Government. Other important measures which involved no absolutely new departure, but aimed chiefly at the extension or modification of the existing system of public instruction, were the enlarged provision for technical and professional education rendered necessary

by the industrial development of Russia, the modification of the curricula of the gymnasia and real-schools, and the like.

The new Minister of Public Instruction, Baron Nikolai, who succeeded Saburov a fortnight after the assassination of Alexander II., entered upon his duties at a difficult moment, when the minds of men were profoundly agitated by recent events and the universities in particular were in a state of great unrest and disorder. During his brief period of office he conducted the affairs of his Department with tact and skill, and without having recourse to extraordinary measures. He resigned office in March, 1882, and was succeeded by Delianov, Count Tolstoi's former assistant Minister, whom we have already met as President of the Commission of 1874, and who deserves notice as the first Russian Minister of Public Instruction who had himself received a University education (most of his predecessors having been alumni of special schools, such as the Alexander Lyceum). With his accession to office the policy of centralisation, which had been more or less in abeyance during the administrations of Saburov and Nikolai, again became predominant. One of the first acts of Delianov as Minister was to reintroduce into the Imperial Council the project of Tolstoi for the reorganisation of the universities.

Since the question of University reform had been first mooted by Tolstoi, the dissatisfaction felt by the Government with the existing régime had been steadily growing. Whilst Tolstoi, in his official report for 1874, had been able to express "a generally favourable opinion of the work done in the universities for the advancement of learning and of the intellectual and moral level of the students," the picture drawn ten years later by Delianov before the Imperial Council of the condition of the universities, and in particular of the quality of their intellectual product, was sombre indeed. It is difficult to believe that the output of the universities could have deteriorated so much in so short a time; and Delianov's description was not found convincing, even by the majority of those to whom it was addressed. But the dominant motive for the proposed reorganisation was undoubtedly the wish to place the universities under a more effective form of State control. Rightly or wrongly, it had become an axiom in bureaucratic circles to attribute the spread of "anti-governmental" ideas among the educated youth of Russia to the lack of State control over the great centres of learning. "The root of the evil," said Delianov on this point, "lies in the fact that the Government has held itself aloof from university instruction, and has left it to the individual discretion of the professors, to the equally arbitrary decision of Faculty meetings and the University Council, and to the purely nominal oversight of the rector and the deans, who, as functionaries elected from amongst the professors, could not possibly supervise their work with anything like superior authority. As the result of the Government's failure to concern itself with university instruction, the unrestrained freedom of the professors was inevitably bound to produce similar unrestraint on the part of the students."

Whether or not this view of the causes of the prevailing unrest is regarded as having been well founded, it must be taken account of as the accepted official view of the time.

The project of University reform was first of all considered by two combined sections of the Imperial Council, that of Laws and Imperial Economy, with the assistance of Baron Nikolai, M.M. Golovnin, Delianov, Pobedonostsev, Bunge, and others, who were specially invited to take part in the deliberations. On this body, which sat from October, 1883, to May, 1884, and devoted nineteen sittings to the discussion of the project, opinion was strongly opposed to the proposals of the Ministry, save only as regarded those which had reference to matters of discipline. On this point it was generally felt that the disturbances of 1881 had greatly strengthened the case in favour of increased State control, but the voting on every other important section of the project gave a majority of three or four to one against the ministerial proposals. This result was largely due to the powerful reasoning of Baron Nikolai, who was a convinced opponent of the proposed scheme of reorganisation, and spoke with all the authority of one who had recently borne the weight of ministerial responsibility in reference to the matters under debate. The opposition also included such influential persons as M. N. P. Pobedonostsev, who had been since 1880 High Procurator of the Holy Synod, and as a former Moscow Professor had a very intimate knowledge of University affairs.

The project was next submitted to the Imperial Council in full session. Here also it failed to command the support of a majority. But even whilst it was being considered by the Council, the provisions of the project were made still more stringent in one important respect affecting the question of State control than those of the original project of Count Tolstoi. The latter had retained the elective character of the Rectorate, which had remained intact through all the vicissitudes of University history since the time of Alexander I., except under the modifications introduced in 1849 into the Statute of 1835. The Imperial Council proposed to reconcile the two principles of election and ministerial appointment by the provision that the Minister should choose one of two candidates proposed by the University Council, or if neither of these were acceptable to him, that he should have the right to appoint a third candidate of his own choosing. The majority of the Imperial Council were, however, not prepared to get rid of the principle of election by the University Council altogether, and their unwillingness to do this drew forth a special memorandum from Delianov, in which he pointed out the necessity, in the interests of unity of administration, that not only the Rector, but also the Deans of Faculties should be appointed by the Minister, so that there should be no danger of the Universities being split into two factions, gathering round the State-appointed Curator and Inspector on the one hand, and the elected Rector on the other. The arguments of this memorandum failed to convince the majority of the Imperial Council, but the views of the minority

on this, as on other points of the Government proposals, were nevertheless embodied in the final draft of the project. This was approved by the Tsar on the 23rd of August, 1884, after having been further discussed in his presence by a small committee or "conference" (*sovestchanie*), in which the opposition was represented by the High Procurator of the Holy Synod, and the official view was stated by Delianov, Tolstoi, and Ostrovski.

The general effect of the Statute of 1884 may be described as the bureaucratisation of the University system. At no time in the history of the Russian Universities, not even in the closing years of the reign of Nicholas I., had the principle of State control over every department of University life been carried out with such logical consistency. Instead of the University Council, the Curator became the centre of authority. Rector, Deans of Faculties, Professors and Inspector all now became State-appointed officials, the Rector being appointed by the Crown on the nomination of the Minister, the Inspector and the Deans of Faculties being appointed by the Minister on the recommendation of the Curator, and the Professors being appointed by the Minister, who was, however, bound to choose a person with the degree of Doctor in the Faculty concerned, and might also give opportunity to the Faculty and the Council to recommend candidates. By this means the entire administration of the University was made ultimately to depend on the Minister of Public Instruction, acting as regards each University through the Curator of the Educational District. The University Court was abolished, and the State secured control of the discipline by taking it out of the hands of the Council, and entrusting it to the Inspector, who was responsible to the Curator, though he was also subordinate to the Rector, and bound to fulfil all the lawful demands of the latter. Finally, the control of the State over the instruction was secured by a system of Examining Commissions, the functions of which may be described in the following words of the minority of the Imperial Council: "The persons composing the Commissions, from the president to the last of their members, would be entirely dependant on the Government. In contrast to the Statute of 1863, which took the whole duty of supervising the work of the students out of the hands of the Government and handed it over to the University Corporations, the new Statute would place this duty from beginning to end in the hands of the Government, leaving the latter to settle at the beginning the examination requirements and at the end to ascertain by means of the Commissions established by itself whether the students had acquired the knowledge necessary to fulfil the stated requirements." By means of the examination syllabuses issued by these Commissions it was proposed not only to control the instruction in the interest of the State, but to secure that the subjects of study should be taught in their full range and scope. The freedom of specialisation which the faculties had hitherto enjoyed was thus considerably limited; and a further restriction upon the full liberty of the professors was contained in the provision that the Faculties

should submit their schemes and syllabuses of instruction for the sanction of the Ministry of Public Instruction. The conduct of the intermediate examinations, and also of those for learned degrees, was left entirely with the Faculties. The much-discussed "liberty of learning" found expression in the new Statute in the permission granted to any student to attend lectures in other Faculties than his own, and also to exercise his choice in cases where more than one person lectured on the same subject. But in the study of the subjects of his faculty he was bound to take as his guide one of the duly authorised schemes of instruction, and his liberty was still further restricted by the provision that he should not be able to count any term in which he had not attended the required number of lectures, or passed the required intermediate test examinations.* When it is added that in only a few instances was there any real choice of lecturers available in the same subject, it will be seen that of *Lernfreiheit*, in the German sense of the word, there remained to the Russian student only the merest shadow.

With regard to the Faculties into which each University was divided, the general arrangement remained the same as under the Statute of 1863, but in respect to the professorships constituting the different Faculties, changes were made the nature of which will best be seen from the following table, extracted from an article in *Pravo*, October 17th, 1899 :—

	No. of Chairs according to Statute of 1863.	No. of Chairs according to Statute of 1884.
Historico-Philological Faculty - -	11	11
Physico-Mathematical " - -	12	10
Faculty of Law - - - -	13	12
" Medicine - - - -	17	23
" Oriental Languages - -	9	9

It is, however, important to observe that while the number of professorships was slightly increased under the Statute of 1884, the number of recognised teachers of all kinds was considerably diminished. According to the article above quoted, the average number of such teachers in each University was 88, whereas after 1884 it fell to 67.

One of the earliest acts of the new reign was the transfer (with a few exceptions), to the Ministry of Public Instruction, of the technical and professional schools which had hitherto been administered by the Ministry of Finance. The establishment of intermediate and primary technical schools can hardly be said to date further back than the year 1865 or thereabouts. Certain special schools of various grades had certainly existed earlier under the control of different Departments of State, with curricula adapted to the special requirements of these Ministries. But of technical and professional education in the wide and liberal sense

* Students were obliged to have completed ten half-yearly terms for admission to the final examination in medicine, and eight for admission to that in the other Faculties.

of the term, there was little until the reign of Alexander II. was well advanced. During the late sixties and the seventies, the number of technical schools, both intermediate and primary, which were established in every part of the Empire by the efforts of the Government in co-operation with local authorities and private individuals, was very considerable, and of these the greater portion were under the control of the Ministry of Finance. The constant increase in the number of these schools, and the great variety of the regulations under which they were carried on, suggested the advisability of the preparation of a general scheme of technical and professional instruction, and the first steps towards the accomplishment of this end had been taken during the latter years of the reign of Alexander II. The Ministry of Public Instruction was already concerned with technical instruction in virtue of the regulations of 1872, which permitted the establishment of supplementary industrial classes in connection with the primary schools both in town and country. It was now determined to concentrate the control of primary and intermediate technical instruction in the hands of this Ministry. This was done by a decree of the Imperial Council in April, 1881; and two years later a special Department was established in connection with the Scientific Committee of the Ministry of Public Instruction to deal with such instruction, and the duty was imposed upon this Department of framing a general scheme for the organisation of technical instruction throughout the Empire. The general principles of organisation proposed by the section received Imperial sanction on March 7th, 1888; and a special Commission consisting of representatives from the Ministries of Public Instruction, Finance, the Interior, and the Imperial Domains, was appointed under the presidency of M. Ilin to determine the localities where industrial or technical schools should be opened at the Government expense, and what special branches of study should be pursued in them.

The *ukaz* of the 7th March, 1888, provided for two grades of technical schools, intermediate and lower, and also for trade schools, that is, schools intended to prepare for a particular trade. After stating that "industrial Schools for the male inhabitants of the Empire exist for the purpose of diffusing among them technical education of the secondary and primary types, and also instruction in handicrafts," the document proceeds to define the function of each grade of school. The intermediate technical schools "impart the instruction and skill necessary to artificers, who will act as the immediate assistants of engineers and other managers of industrial undertakings." The lower technical schools, "in addition to instruction in the methods of some one definite form of production, impart the knowledge and skill needed by those who will be the actual and immediate overseers of the work of artizans in industrial establishments." Finally the trade schools are intended "to give practical instruction in the methods of some one form of industry, and to impart the knowledge and skill required for

intelligent work in connection with such industry." Detailed regulations for each of these grades and kinds of schools were issued in 1889 by the Ministry of Public Instruction. These regulations embodied the recommendations of the Special Commission above referred to, according to which the intermediate technical schools were subdivided into five categories, viz., schools of mechanics, chemistry, architecture, agriculture, and mining (or metallurgy); and the lower technical schools into three categories, viz., schools of mechanics, chemistry, and architecture. In the trade schools the technical subjects studied were confined to mechanics, and the art of working in wood or metal. The curricula of each of these types of school, with the hours per week, devoted to the several subjects of study, will be found in the Appendix to the sixth chapter of this Report.

The Commission recommended that forty technical schools (viz., seven intermediate, and fifteen primary schools, and eighteen trade schools) should be established at the Government expense in various parts of the Empire, thirty-one different localities being named for the purpose. Other recommendations of the Commission with regard to preparation of the suitable text-books for the different types of schools, the creation of a special section within the Ministry of Public Instruction to deal with matters affecting technical instruction, and the appointment of special inspectors of technical schools, have all since been carried out. Two supplementary enactments deserve mention here, namely, the law of the 20th December, 1893, relating to schools of apprentices, and that of the 24th April, 1895, relating to lower trade-schools. The former type of school has a course of three years, and is intended to prepare its pupils for following their trade under a master in a private workshop; the latter, with a course of four years, and a purely practical curriculum, is intended to encourage and develop petty industries among the peasants in the villages and small towns. Apart from the general work of organisation, very considerable activity has been shown since 1888 in the actual establishment of technical schools of various types and grades. Out of 190 of these schools existing in 1900, no less than 117 had been founded during the preceding twelve years.

The reform of the real-schools was undertaken in close connection with the organisation of technical instruction. The number of real-schools founded in accordance with the law of 1872 had now risen to 104, which were mainly supported by the local organs of self-government, assisted by grants from the State Treasury. The provisions of 1872, by which it had been sought to combine with the general education given in these schools special instruction in mechanics and chemistry, had not worked satisfactorily, and it was now felt that the organisation of special technical schools of mechanics and chemistry had rendered it unnecessary to maintain any longer the "chemico-technical" and "mechanico-technical" divisions of the supplementary class. The Minister of Public Instruction at first proposed to convert all the real-schools into

five-class schools, which should prepare for admission into the projected secondary technical schools, the right of admission into the higher technical schools being withdrawn from them. This proposal was, however, rejected, and measures were taken instead with a view of making the real-school into a place of general, rather than special, education, not only by suppressing the technical divisions of the highest class, but also by increasing the number of hours given to such subjects as mathematics, modern languages, Russian, history, physics and nature-lore. These changes came into operation in 1888, and the statute as then revised is still in force. The revised curriculum is given herewith.

Two years later, the curriculum of the classical gymnasia also underwent modification. The classical system of instruction, introduced, as we have seen, twenty years before in opposition to the wishes of the majority of educated people in Russia, had never been a success, and as years went on, had to contend against an ever-increasing current of popular dissatisfaction. With a view of making such concessions to the general demand for reform as were possible, Count Delianov in 1890 appointed a Commission presided over by his assistant Minister to revise the existing programmes of study. As the result of the recommendations made by this Commission certain changes were introduced in points of detail. The number of hours devoted to classics were reduced from eighty-five to seventy-five, the study of grammar was deposed from its pride of place, composition (*i.e.*, the so-called *extemporalia*, or translation from the classical languages into Russian) was made an ancillary study, and the reading of authors now took the first place. At the same time the teaching of Russian was strengthened in the higher classes, and Russian and religion were recognised as "principal subjects," alongside of classics and mathematics. The revised curriculum of 1890 is given herewith. These changes, however, failed to satisfy the party of opposition to the classics, while they were loudly bemoaned by the classicists as a serious blow to Russian culture.

The measures above noted in relation to secondary and technical instruction are overshadowed in importance by the developments in Primary Education which took place in the eighties. Great as had been the services rendered to Primary Education by the *zemstvos* since their creation in 1864, it had become obvious that at the rate of progress hitherto maintained, the ideal which most of the friends of Russian education set before themselves of making Primary Education accessible to all subjects of the Tsar was not being brought within measurable distance of attainment. The question of the ways and means of attaining this ideal had more than once been seriously discussed both in official circles and in the public Press, but even such an enthusiastic champion of popular enlightenment as Baron Korf had declared his belief that the possibility of providing the 200,000 or so additional schools which appeared to be necessary in order to make primary instruction universal was for the moment outside the range of practical politics.

REVISED CURRICULUM OF THE REAL-SCHOOL, 1888.

SUBJECTS.	Classes.				Fundamental Division.			Supplementary Class.	Commercial Division.		
	i.	ii.	iii.	iv.	v.	vi.	Total in 6 Classes.		v.	vi.	Total in 6 Classes.
Religion -	2	2	2	2	2	2	12	2	2	2	12
Russian -	6	5	4	3	3	3	24	4	3	3	24
German -	6	6	4	3	4	4	27	5	6	6	31
2nd Foreign Language*	—	4	4	4	3	3	18	—	5	5	23
Geography -	2	2	2	2	—	2	10	2	—	2	10
History -	—	—	2	2	2	4	10	4	2	2	8
Mathematics -	4	5	5	5	5	4	28	3	2	3	24
Physics -	—	—	—	2	3	3	8	2	3	3	8
Nat. History -	—	—	2	2	3	—	7	2	3	—	7
Drawing -	3	3	3	3	3	3	26	3	—	—	16
Geometrical Drawing	—	—	2	2	2	2					
Writing -	2	2	—	—	—	—	4	—	—	—	4
Commercial Correspondence & Book-keeping -	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	4	8
Total	25	29	30	30	30	30	174	29	30	30	174

* In addition to German, the following languages might be taught in real-schools: French, English, and, in certain districts, Italian and modern Greek.

REVISED CURRICULUM OF THE GYMNASIA, 1890.

Subjects.	Classes.								Total.
	i.	ii.	iii.	iv.	v.	vi.	vii.	viii.	
Religion-	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16
Russian, with Church Slavonic, Literature and Logic. }	5	4	4	3	3	3	3	4	29
Latin	6	6	5	5	5	5	5	5	42
Greek	—	—	4	5	6	6	6	6	33
Mathematics	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	29
Physica	—	—	—	—	—	2	3	2	7
History	—	—	2	2	3	2	2	2	13
Geography	2	2	2	2	—	—	—	—	8
French	—	3	2	3	3	2	3	3	19
German	—	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	19
Writing and Drawing	4	4	2	—	—	—	—	—	10
Total for those who take both French and German. }	23	23	29	29	29	29	29	29	225
Total for those who take only German. }	23	25	22	26	26	27	26	26	206
Total for those who take only French. }	23	25	26	26	26	26	27	27	206

(Hours and Subjects of Preparatory Class as in the curriculum of 1871).

The question then arose whether the bare rudiments of learning might not be placed within reach of the masses by other and less expensive means than through the regularly organised and State-controlled schools. In this way attention was directed anew to the reading-and-writing schools (*shkoly gramotnosti*) to which we have before referred as leading an unrecognised, underground kind of existence, which evaded all official cognisance and control. It had become obvious that nothing was gained by this refusal of official recognition, as the schools existed in spite of it, and, moreover, it was admitted that the teachers, although inadequately equipped for their work, were for that very reason free from all suspicion of spreading revolutionary propaganda. In view of these considerations Baron Nikolai, in 1881, took the decisive step of issuing a circular declaring that the teachers of schools in which instruction was given in the rudiments only need not possess any official status. The effect of this circular was at once to legalise the teaching in the *shkoly gramotnosti*. Doctrinaires objected to the measure as a lowering of the ideal of popular education. Practical educationists, however, saw in it a great opportunity, of which they were not slow to take advantage. The zemstvos encouraged the growth of these schools by grants from their funds. The *shkoly gramotnosti*, thus rescued from their obscurity, suddenly sprang into great vogue; the Nationalist party, in particular, accustomed to idealise the peasant and all that belonged to him, acclaimed them as a genuine growth of Russian soil, the only thing in Russian education that was native and not borrowed. Henceforth they become a factor of increasing importance in the spread of elementary instruction in Russia.

In 1884 a step of still greater importance was taken, which had the effect of handing over a very considerable share of the work of Primary Education to the clergy, and placing its control to a greatly increased extent in the hands of the Holy Synod. Even before the end of the last reign the question of giving the Church greater control over the primary schools had been raised afresh; but nothing had been done to give practical effect to this idea. It was reserved for M. K. P. Pobedonostsev, who had been the tutor of the new Emperor, and had now succeeded to the office of High Procurator of the Holy Synod, to devise and carry out a scheme which marked a new departure in the history of popular education in Russia, and so far as it has yet been carried out has had the effect of greatly modifying its character and aims. M. Pobedonostsev's views on education are better known in England than those of any other Russian statesman or thinker. His distrust of ready-made formulæ and general propositions, whether borrowed from Germany or elsewhere; his impatience with education when divorced from life; his preference of skill to knowledge, of action to thought, of the training of the will to the cultivation of the mind; his insistence on the supremacy of the moral motive in education, and his protest against all education that is merely intellectual; his firm conviction that no school can be firmly rooted amongst a

people whose affection it does not command, and whose special national needs it does not satisfy; finally, his faith in Orthodoxy as an essential element in the national basis of Russian education—have all been made familiar in this country by the recent translation into English of his “Moscow Collection of Essays.”* If these pedagogical views be taken in connexion with the general confession of political faith contained in the same volume—the scorn of modern democratic institutions, the arraignment of representative government as “the great lie of our time,” the exaltation of direct personal rule—they will furnish the key to the policy which underlay the new educational departure.† That policy implied in effect a return to the old ideals of Orthodoxy, autocracy, and nationality which had dominated Russian education in the days of Nicholas I.

The question has now to be answered; In what respect were the schools of the *zemstvos*, in spite of the strict control over them which was reserved to the State by the legislation of 1874, considered unsatisfactory from the point of view just indicated? The reply to this question will suggest some interesting, though superficial, analogies with the problems of English elementary education. The two issues mainly involved were in fact the appointment of teachers and the religious “atmosphere” of the school. The nomination of the teacher in a school provided by the *zemstvo* rested with the latter, though he was “admitted” to the exercise of his duties by the Government Inspector, and “confirmed” in them by the District School Council. The teaching of religion was obligatory in every school, and was entrusted to a *zakonouchitel*, or clergyman appointed for the purpose; but the religious lesson once over, the priest had practically no further influence over the teaching. Moreover, there had been constant difficulty in many schools in getting regular clerical teachers to give the religious lessons, and in practice the lay teachers had frequently undertaken this duty, though for their competency to do so there were no guarantees which were considered satisfactory by strict Orthodox Churchmen. The Church Party contended that the effect of these circumstances was to secularise the atmosphere of the *zemstvos*’ schools, or, at any rate, to deprive them of that definitely religious character which should distinguish the Russian primary school. But considerations of a more political kind also came into play. The general trend towards centralisation, which was now part of the fixed policy of the State, inevitably expressed itself in attempts to limit the competence of the *zemstvos* in every direction. As regarded the primary

* Reflections of a Russian Statesman: London, 1898.

† A further example of the application of M. Pobedonostsev’s principles to education is to be found in the reorganisation of the ecclesiastical seminaries and schools in 1884. The main feature of this reorganisation was the abolition of the elective principle which had been acknowledged since 1867 in the choice of the rector and the constitution of the governing body of the seminary. See the criticism on the elective principle on pp. 4 and 5 of the Explanatory Memorandum accompanying the Statute of reorganisation.

schools, this tendency had been strongly reinforced by recent events, for which the zemstvos had no responsibility, but for which the Government blamed the system under which the zemstvo schools were administered. It was well known that the programme of the Nihilist propaganda had included an attempt to reach the people through the schools. Soloviev, for example, who attempted the life of Alexander II. in 1879, had been a school teacher. Though this "going to the people" (*iti v narod*) had notoriously ended in fiasco, the Government were determined to take every precaution against dangers which might arise from a similar source in the future. To men possessing the political and religious convictions of Pobedonostsev and the Emperor, it appeared obvious that the only way to maintain such a control over primary education as was necessary in the interests of Church and State, was to bring the whole teaching of the school, as far as possible under the direct influence of the Church. It might not be possible for the present to go back upon the decision come to in the early sixties, and to transfer the existing schools of the zemstvos to the control of the clergy. But it was at least possible to create side by side with them a new type of school, in which the appointment of teachers should rest solely with the Holy Synod, and the clergyman should be in the position not of a mere clerical helper to the lay head of the school, but should have the supreme control in all matters of instruction, secular as well as religious.

It was such a type of school that was created by the Regulations of 1884 as to Church parochial schools. These were defined as being schools opened by the Orthodox clergy, with the object "of strengthening among the people the Orthodox teaching of faith and Christian morals, and of imparting useful elementary knowledge." They might consist either of one class with a two years' course, or of two classes with a four years' course. Their curriculum included religion, Church singing, reading both of the Church Slavonic and the ordinary Russian character, writing, and elementary arithmetic; and in schools with two classes, elementary Church and Russian history also. The instruction was to be given either by the local clergy or, under their supervision, by teachers of either sex appointed with the sanction of the bishop of the diocese (*eparkhialnyi arkhierai*), but candidates for such posts who had received their education in ecclesiastical schools under the administration of the Holy Synod were preferred to others. The general supervision of the Church schools in each eparchy was entrusted to the bishop, who was to be assisted in matters affecting the schools by a specially-constituted School Council, on which the local director of primary schools was to have a seat. Later on District Sections or Committees of the Eparchial School Councils were appointed, somewhat on the analogy of the existing District School Councils controlling the schools of the zemstvos. Finally the supreme control of the whole system was vested in the Holy Synod itself. For the provision and maintenance of the new schools the Holy Synod depended very largely upon

private contributions and grants from local authorities; but they were also able to count from the first on a considerable amount of financial aid from the Imperial Treasury. Beginning in 1884 with the comparatively modest sum of 350,000 roubles, the grants from the State in aid of the Church parochial schools steadily increased in amount until in a single year (1895) they reached the very considerable figure of 3,279,145 roubles, which was some ten times greater than the annual sum disbursed by the Treasury in aid of the schools of the zemstvos. In addition to this, the Church Schools have made constant appeals for assistance from the funds at the disposal of the zemstvos, basing their claims on grounds which sometimes sound very familiar in English ears.*

In this way, side by side with the system of Primary Education controlled by the Ministry of Public Instruction, there was set up a rival and separate organisation, the only formal link of connection between the two being the presence of the Director of Primary Schools *ex officio* at the sittings of the Eparchial School Council. The appearance of this competing system on the field was by no means welcome to the friends of the zemstvos' schools, nor to liberals generally. The former, pointing to the poverty of the clergy, their already burdensome clerical duties, and their want of special preparation for the work of teaching, deplored the new departure as a blow to the efficiency of primary education: the latter resented the system adopted for the administration of the Church Schools as a restriction of the principle of local government, the application of which to Primary Education had seemed assured. Of the controversy between the adherents of the two types of schools we shall have more to say in a subsequent chapter; but it may here be mentioned as characteristic of the peculiar conditions of Russian life that the cry of clerical ascendancy, that bugbear of all public education in the West, is in Russia

* For example, the Eparchial School Council of Kursk and its District Committees passed a resolution affirming "the urgent necessity that decisive steps should be taken to place Church Schools on an equal footing in respect of their right to financial support, with those maintained by the Ministry of Public Instruction and the zemstvos," and demanding that "the funds collected by the zemstvos for the education of the people should be expended on all elementary schools, those of the Church included, and moreover that a due proportion of such funds should be handed over by the zemstvos not as an act of grace, but should be placed at the disposal of the Eparchial School Council and its District Committees as their lawful share for distribution among necessitous schools at their own discretion." It was also pointed out by some of the District Committees that the fact of the education rate being under the control of the zemstvos, "placed insuperable difficulties in the way of the raising of funds by the clergy for the support of Church Schools; the peasants refuse a second contribution for school purposes, generally replying that the money contributed by them should go to their schools, and not to other people's." (Report on the condition of the Church parochial schools of the Kursk Eparchy for the year 1892-3, quoted by Falbork and Charnoluski, p. 68.) On the whole the appeal to the zemstvos for financial aid to the Church Schools has met with a very slight response. In 1902, for example, no grants at all were made by any of the zemstvos to these Schools.

never seriously raised. Clericalism, as an historical phenomenon, is the product of conditions which have no existence in the Orthodox East.

Favoured by the State authorities, however, the Church parochial school system has not only established itself as a permanent part of the provision for Primary Instruction in Russia, but has constantly widened its boundaries. Two notable extensions of its sphere of operations took place in 1891, when the *shkoly gramoty* were placed under the exclusive control of the Holy Synod, and it was also decided by agreement between the Minister of Public Instruction and the High Procurator that all Sunday Schools henceforward started as independent institutions, that is, not in connection with elementary day schools, should belong to the department of the Holy Synod and be subject to its regulations. As a matter of fact, the great majority of Sunday Schools opened since 1891 have been administered by the Holy Synod under this agreement, which, however, ceased to operate in 1904.*

While thus the principle of dual control over primary education was making headway in one particular direction, the work of concentration and unification was proceeding apace in every other. This process, which had begun with the transfer of the technical schools from the Ministry of Finance to the Ministry of Public Instruction, in 1881, was extended until, with the exception of the Church parochial schools, practically all primary and secondary instruction of a general character was concentrated in the hands of the latter ministry. Of the individual measures adopted to bring about this result we need mention only one, viz., the transfer in 1886 of the Lutheran schools in the Baltic Provinces from the control of the consistories to that of the central administration in St. Petersburg. This step was taken as part of the general policy of Russification which was being adopted by the Government to counteract the influence of the nobility and educated minority of these provinces. The latter being German by birth, language, religion, and intellectual sympathies, and regarding themselves as the standard-bearers of German culture within the Russian Empire, had founded and maintained large numbers of schools, in which the native population of Finns, Letts, and Esthonians, who outnumbered the Germans by thirteen to one, were being educated under German influences and to a certain extent, in the German language. Secondary and higher instruction had always been carried on almost exclusively in German in all three provinces. The Russian Government, after having long acquiesced in this state

* During the years 1887-1897 the old claim of the Church to control all Primary Education was again revived. In the former year, in accordance with a resolution of the Ruling Senate, confirmed by the Emperor, the High Procurator of the Holy Synod, and the Minister of Public Instruction were commissioned to prepare a joint report on the advisability of concentrating the whole control of Primary Education within a single State department. But in 1897 this commission was annulled, on the ground that the work of Primary Education was too great to be undertaken by any single "class, institution or Department of State."

of things now determined to put a stop to it. By a series of measures extending from 1884 to 1894, which are described in more detail in the Appendix to this chapter, the teaching of Russian was made obligatory in all the primary schools of the Dorpat Educational District, and Russian took the place of German as the language of instruction in the secondary schools and the University. The process of Russifying Polish education, which had been begun in the sixties, was completed in 1885 by a regulation making Russian the language of instruction in Polish primary schools in all subjects except religion and the mother tongue. We must not omit to note the restrictions placed in 1886 upon the admission of Jews to the Universities. Henceforth the proportion of Jews in the Universities within the so-called Jewish Pale (that is, roughly speaking, Poland and South-Western Russia) was limited to 10 per cent. ; in other provincial Universities to 5 per cent. ; in the two Russian capitals to 2 per cent. One result of this legislation has been to increase greatly the number of Russian Jews seeking education in foreign Universities, especially in those of Germany and Switzerland. Similar restrictions were placed in 1887 on the admission of Jews to secondary schools.

The right of admission to the gymnasia and progymnasia was also restricted in the case even of persons who were not Jews by the Ministerial circular of June 18th, 1887. "Anxious to reform the personnel of the students of the gymnasia and progymnasia," so runs this document, "I find it absolutely necessary to admit into such establishments only such children as are under the care of persons who offer guarantees satisfactory that they will be subject to regular domestic supervision and will be furnished with all necessary conveniences for study. Thus, in strict accordance with this regulation, gymnasia and progymnasia are dispensed from receiving the children of coachmen, lacqueys, cooks, washerwomen, small tradespeople, and the like, whose children, with the exception, perhaps, of those who are gifted with extraordinary capacities, ought by no means to be transferred from the sphere to which they belong, and thus brought, as many years' experience has shown, to slight their parents, to feel dissatisfied with their lot, and to conceive an aversion to the existing inequality of fortune which is in the nature of things unavoidable." Directors were accordingly enjoined to make full inquiry respecting each child applying for admission ; when admitted, the director was held responsible for his conduct, was bound to see that he did not join any society without express permission from the authorities, and the like. Societies for the assistance of poor scholars were directed to make grants only to those children whose parents had themselves received their education in the gymnasia, but were unable without assistance to give their children the same advantages. The school fees were at the same time nearly doubled. The effect of these measures was to reduce the number of pupils attending the gymnasia and progymnasia from 65,751 in 1882 to 62,863 in 1895, while the proportion of pupils belonging to the noble class rose

from 49·2 per cent. to 56·2 per cent., during the eight years following 1884.

In respect of women's education the reign of Alexander III. was a period of much vicissitude. During the first five years of the reign, the work of the Higher Courses went steadily and successfully forward, being much facilitated by the disinterested assistance of University Professors and the generous pecuniary help of the public. The municipality of St. Petersburg came in 1882 to the help of the Courses in that city with a considerable annual grant; and three years later the promoters of the movement found themselves in a position to erect, at a cost of 230,000 roubles, the spacious, permanent building on the Vasili Ostrov, in which the Courses are still conducted. But with the year 1886 began a time of much trouble. As early as 1884 Delianov had in his official report as Minister expressed dissatisfaction with the Courses on the ground that they fostered in young women a disinclination towards home and family duties. In May, 1886, apparently in consequence of the part taken by some of the students in political propaganda, the admission of new students was everywhere suspended by order of the Minister of Public Instruction, pending the report of a special Commission which was to consider the whole question of women's education in Russia.* The three years which followed were years of great trial and discouragement for all the friends of University education for women. Meanwhile, the history of twenty years earlier repeated itself: Russian women flocked to the Swiss, French, and Belgian Universities to obtain the education for which there was no longer any provision in their own country. Nevertheless, it was not till 1889, just before the last of the students admitted before 1886 were due to complete their course, that the Government consented to the admission of new students to the Higher Courses of St. Petersburg, conditionally on the acceptance of a new constitution by the Society which supported the Courses. The principles of the new constitution were formulated by the Minister of Public Instruction in accordance with the recommendations of the Commission on Women's Education as follows:—

"(1) The direction of the courses shall be concentrated in the person of a single director, in whose hands shall lie the choice of lecturers, whilst matters of discipline shall be entrusted to a lady inspector and her assistants, who shall be appointed by the Ministry of Public Instruction.

"(2) There may be a special Council in connection with the courses to superintend matters of financial administration. The expenses of the courses shall be met from the funds of the Society and from lecture fees, and shall be subject to the control of the Curator of the Educational District.

"(3) There shall be a fixed limit to the number of students.

"(4) The instruction shall be given in accordance with a scheme of studies settled by the Ministry, and shall comprise two sections, historico-philological and physico-mathematical. The instruction shall not include human

* It is stated that the steps taken with regard to the Courses in 1886 were largely due to the influence exerted on the mind of the Empress by the conservative view of women's education advocated in Countess E. O. Radep's Memorandum on the subject.

and animal physiology, natural history and histology, since these subjects form part of the physical and medical sciences which will be taught in the contemplated Women's Institute of Medicine.

"(5) A hostel intended specially for those whose homes are not in St. Petersburg shall be provided in connection with the courses. Students must live either in the hostel or with their parents, or near relatives, but not in private lodgings."

This new constitution, which bears the evident impress of the same tendencies as had produced the University Statute of 1884, had the effect of transferring the effective control of the Courses out of the hands of the Society into those of the Ministry, whilst leaving the former responsible as before for all matters of financial administration.* It was nevertheless accepted by the Society, and the Courses were reopened in September, 1889, with 144 students. The lecture fees were fixed at 100 roubles a year, and the charge for board and lodging in the hostel at 300 roubles. The total expense of education in connexion with these Courses therefore compares favourably with the cost incurred by a woman student at a University College like Aberystwyth, where also residence in a hostel or with friends is obligatory. The number of students was at first limited to 400, of whom not more than three per cent. were to be non-Christian, but the number of applications for admission was so great that in 1895 the limit was raised to 600. This number again was soon exceeded with the sanction of the Emperor Nicholas, under whom the fixed limit has been practically abolished. Between 1896 and 1900 the average number admitted was over 800. Even so, an examination of the statistics of admission shows that for every hundred admitted during the ten years which followed the re-opening of the Courses, sixty applicants had to be refused. It should be noted that it was only in St. Petersburg that the Higher Courses for women were resumed in 1889. Those at Moscow remained closed until the next reign, and those at Kiev and Kazan have not yet been re-opened.

Medical education for women had a still more unfortunate history during this reign. In 1881 General Vannovski succeeded Milutin as Minister of War, and it was soon afterwards decided that the medical courses for women could no longer take place in a military hospital, nor remain under the supervision of the Minister of War. In consequence of this decision no new women students were admitted to the Courses after 1882. Those already admitted were permitted to complete their course, which they did in 1886, when lectures definitely ceased, not to be resumed until 1897. Meantime a Commission, presided over by Prince Volkhonski, assistant Minister of Public Instruction, was appointed in 1883 to draw up a scheme of studies for a new Women's Institute of Medicine. Differing from a previous Commission which had sat the year before, and

* The State contributes 3,000 roubles a year to the funds of the Society, the Municipality of St. Petersburg an equal amount. In 1888-89 lecture fees amounted to 80,150 roubles, and voluntary subscriptions to 24,674 roubles, and in the previous year to 61,091 roubles. The average annual expenditure of the Society during the years 1895-99 was nearly 140,000 roubles.

had pronounced for a limited course of study, at the end of which successful students should receive the title of "learned midwife" (*uchenaia akusherka*), a majority of Prince Volkhonski's Commission reported in favour of a course of five years' duration, comprising practically all the subjects which entered into the course taken by men students, on completing which the students should receive the title of "Woman Doctor," with the right to attend on women and children. This project was approved in principle by the Imperial Council, and it was decided that the new Women's Institute of Medicine should be established at St. Petersburg as soon as the necessary funds could be collected. General Shaniavski and his wife (the same lady who, as *Mdlle. Lydia Rodstvennaia*, had by her generosity made medical instruction possible for women in Russia in 1872) again came forward to help, but it was not until 1895 that the necessary capital was subscribed and the building of the Institute commenced. Lectures began two years later, and in 1900 some 500 women students were attending the Courses at the Institute.

VIII.—REIGN OF NICHOLAS II. (1894—PRESENT TIME).

The nineties were distinguished by a general revival of interest in educational matters, the outward and visible signs of which were the increased activity of the educational press, and the freer discussion of projects of reform in society generally. Almost all the pedagogical journals which are now exerting most influence upon Russian opinion have been started since 1890; and the general press has also begun to devote more space to educational questions than has been usual since the seventies.

The position of primary education first claimed attention. The terrible famine of 1891-2 with its consequences helped in no inconsiderable degree to impress upon the public mind the conviction that the most effectual remedy for the wretched social and economical condition of the mass of the peasantry was to be found in the spread of education. Humanitarian and economic motives combined to create a desire, now so widespread as to be almost universal, to bring at least the rudiments of learning as far as possible within the reach of all; and the question of the best means of attaining this end was again vigorously discussed in the press and in society, and with much greater faith in a successful issue than had been shown at any time since the beginning of the reign of the late Emperor Alexander. Whereas in the early eighties the prevalent subject of discussion had been, "We are poor, and therefore we are not fit for schools," the general drift of the discussion ten years later (3) The instruction with equal aptness be summarised in the words, "We are poor, and therefore we must have schools."

But besides those relating to primary education, the public mind has also been drawn to the subject of technical schools, and the increase in the provision of technical schools has also a widespread feeling of dissatisfaction with the present state of the subject of secondary education, and the necessity of re-organising it.

especially with the preponderance given to classical studies in the schools which afforded access to the Universities. The slight readjustments of the curriculum and the concessions in minor details which had been made by Count Delianov in 1890 did not go far enough to satisfy popular sentiment; and it was becoming increasingly manifest that the dislike of the public to the present balance of studies stood in the way of that sympathy between school and home, upon which the highest success of any educational system must ultimately depend. Finally, there were many questions affecting University education which were fast ripening for solution. The Statute of 1884 had centralised authority in the hands of the Ministry of Public Instruction and of officials directly appointed by it: but the improvement in instruction and in the general conditions of University life, which was predicted as the result of that Statute by its responsible authors, had failed to show itself, and there was a strong and growing conviction of the necessity for some radical modification of the existing system.

Thus, when the present Emperor ascended the throne in November, 1894, he found a number of difficult questions more or less urgently calling for solution in almost every branch of education, higher, secondary and primary. The question of extending the means of primary instruction seemed for the moment to be the most pressing: and the Emperor's interest in the matter is sufficiently shown by his remarks in the early years of his reign upon the reports of the Provincial Governors as to the state of education within their respective spheres of administration.* We shall notice further on the steps which have been taken to increase the supply of primary schools in accordance with the Emperor's wish. Questions of primary education, however, have not been allowed to occupy the whole attention of the Government: during the most recent years the reform of the secondary schools and the reorganisation of the Universities have tended to take precedence of every other question of school politics.

Before describing, however, the measures taken with reference to schools giving a general education, it will be convenient to notice here certain legislative enactments of the reign, the effect of which has been greatly to further the development of commercial education. By the law of 1894 all newly-established commercial schools were to be under the control of the Ministry

* For example, with reference to the explanation of the Governor of Kherson that all the existing schools were overcrowded, and that the number of schools was insufficient to satisfy the demand for primary education, the Emperor remarks, "I direct the most serious attention of the Minister of Public Instruction to this." On the statement of the Governor of Astrakhan that the rural population showed an increasing desire for instruction of their children, the Emperor notes, "We must come to the help of the people in this vital matter." The Governor of Tula draws attention to the fact that four-fifths of the children in the schools are boys, and that it is very important to attract girls to school, as the education of the people depends on the literacy of the mothers. The Emperor's note is, "I entirely agree. The question is of extreme importance."

of Finance. By the Ordinance of 15th April, 1896, four types of commercial schools were created, viz. (1) Commercial Schools (2) Business Schools, (3) Business Classes, and (4) Courses in Commercial Knowledge. The first of these four types of school may be of two kinds; it may either contain seven classes, giving combined general and commercial education, or it may contain three classes, giving a purely commercial education. In either case the instruction given is of the secondary grade, and is intended to afford training for the more responsible in commercial and industrial undertakings. The Business Schools, which have either three classes or one with a course of corresponding length (*i.e.*, either three years or one), train their pupils for inferior posts in such undertakings. Finally, the Business Classes and Commercial Courses are intended to impart to persons of all ages above twelve, but especially to those actually employed in industrial or commercial concerns, such knowledge as will be practically useful to them in their work. A most successful forward movement in commercial education has followed the legislation of 1896. For every commercial school existing previously to that year, there are now (1904) no less than sixteen schools of one or other of the types above described.

Count Delianov retired from the Ministry of Public Instruction in 1896. For a brief period the affairs of the Ministry were temporarily directed by M. Anitchkov, who was succeeded in February, 1898, by M. N. P. Bogolepov, first as "administrator" (*upravliaiustchi*), and then (December, 1898) as Minister. Since 1895 M. Bogolepov had held the post of Curator of the Moscow Educational District, and before that he had been a professor of law in the University of Moscow for nearly a quarter of a century, and had during that period twice served in the office of rector. He, therefore, brought to the duties of his new post a varied and practical knowledge of educational conditions, such as, perhaps, no former Minister of Public Instruction had possessed. He initiated no new policy, but his tenure of office was marked by great activity, especially in the field of Secondary Education. His death at the hand of an assassin in March, 1901, however, cut short his career before his plans for the reform of the secondary schools were fully matured.

The measures taken during Bogolepov's ministry for the improvement of Primary Education may be first briefly summarised. In view of the fact that the existing Primary Schools were everywhere very much overcrowded, and that refusals to admit children applying for places in the schools were matters of constant occurrence all over the Empire, it was clear that a large increase in the number of available schools was urgently called for. On the other hand, it was an essential part of the Government policy to increase so far as possible the control exercised by the State over primary education. Bogolepov therefore sought to supply the demand for new schools in two ways: firstly, by encouraging the establishment of parish schools of the type created by the law of 1828,

which were directly under the control of the Government, neither the zemstvos nor the local School Councils having anything to do with them; and, secondly, by facilitating the opening of so-called "Ministerial Schools," the curriculum of which was somewhat wider than that of the ordinary Primary Schools. Hitherto schools of the "Ministerial" type could only be opened with the consent of the Ministry, which gave a grant to each of 1,000 roubles in the case of schools with two classes and of 226 roubles in the case of those with one class only. The former grant was sufficient to pay the salaries of two teachers and the clergyman who gave the religious instruction, but the lower grant did not suffice to cover the expenses of the one-class school. These difficulties were now met by the law of the 5th June, 1901, which permitted Curators to open Ministerial Schools on their own authority, and raised the grant to one-class schools to 500 roubles, or, with the consent of the Minister, to 700 roubles, while the grant to schools with two classes might be, with the consent of the Minister, as much as 1,400 roubles. The number of Primary Schools of all kinds increased during the three years of Bogolepov's ministry by more than 25 per cent.

This increase in the number of schools naturally involved a corresponding increase in the number of teachers required. Teachers are very difficult to obtain in Russia, even under ordinary circumstances, largely owing to the small amount of the salary and the impossibility of making adequate provision for a rainy day; and the same cause results in a constant leakage from the ranks of the profession. With a view of making the material position of the State teachers more secure, Bogolepov carried through in 1900 a scheme for the creation of a pension fund. In order to provide for the training of the new teachers required, he established a temporary system of pedagogical courses at different points of the Empire. Finally, teachers' conferences, which had been suppressed since 1883, were again permitted to assemble under the presidency of the inspectors of Primary Schools.

With regard to the Primary Schools under the Holy Synod the most important event of the present reign has been the development of a system of training-schools for teachers. These training schools, which are of two kinds in correspondence with the two types of Primary School administered by the Holy Synod, have greatly increased in number since 1896, when a Treasury grant was first allotted for their support.

The progress of higher education during the ministry of Bogolepov is indicated by the institution of a new Faculty of Law at Tomsk, and of a new Faculty of Medicine at Odessa; the establishment of an Oriental Institute at Vladivostok; and the re-opening of the Higher Women's Courses at Moscow (again, as in the seventies, with the co-operation of Professor Guerrier). Special importance attaches to the students' disorders of 1899, and to the measures taken by the Ministry in consequence of them. These disorders had unfortunately become, during the last forty years, almost a normal incident of Russian University

life, and of late they had greatly increased in frequency and gravity. But the year 1899 marks a culminating point in the history of these disturbances. Not only was the actual conflict between the students and the authorities more stubborn and long-continued than had ever been the case before, but the course of the struggle revealed the existence in almost every place of higher education of strong and compact organisations, working in intelligence and sympathy with each other, with a common programme, common methods, and common aims; and furthermore, the method of protest everywhere adopted took the entirely new form of a "strike" (*zabastovka*) against lectures, and deliberate obstruction as a means of rendering the academic machinery ineffective until the demands of the students were complied with. For nearly three months—from the 8th February to the end of April—the situation was critical. Ultimately, all the higher educational institutions were closed, and the students were sent down; some of them were taken back at once, others at intervals varying from half a year to a year.

As a consequence of these disorders the Government summoned in June, 1899, a conference of Curators and heads of higher educational institutions to consider "means for the restoration of order and the improvement of the conditions of student life." The recommendations of this Commission served as a basis for the measures adopted by the Ministry, which were communicated to the public in a series of circulars issued during June and July. They may be summarised as follows.

(a.) The staff of the University inspectors was increased; henceforth there was to be one assistant inspector to every 150 students. The effect of this at St. Petersburg was to treble the number of assistant inspectors employed.

(b.) With a view to promote a more even distribution of students among the various Universities, students were in future bound to enter the University of the Educational District where they had received their leaving certificate; students from Districts with no Universities of their own, were assigned to that of a neighbouring District, e.g., those from Vilna were assigned to Dorpat; those from the Caucasus to Kharkov, Odessa, or Kiev; those from Orenburg to Kazan or Tomsk.

(c.) Various means of promoting closer relations between professors and students were recommended, such as the organisation of literary and scientific circles (*kruzhki*) under the direction of a professor, and the fuller development of the Seminar system in the Universities.*

(d.) Hostels were established in connection with the Universities for the special benefit of those students who had no friends or relations living in the University towns, and who were therefore exposed by their poverty to the influence of unhealthy physical and moral surroundings.

During the next year these measures were carried out on a wide scale in all the higher educational institutions of Russia. They have, however, met with only moderate success. The two first named measures had little effect on the general condition of dis-

* It may be explained that the State authorities had long desired to see Seminar methods more widely used in the Russian Universities, but the degree to which they had been introduced varied much as between different Faculties being least in use in the Faculties of Law.

cipline at the Universities. The *kruzhki* started in some cases extremely well, but it was found impossible to prevent them from discussing political subjects, and they were therefore closed in 1904. The hostel system has also been discouraged of late on the ground that it promotes the aggregation of students.

The disciplinary measures to be adopted in the event of a renewal of the disturbances were also considered by a special Conference consisting of six ministers having places of higher learning in their departments, and the "temporary rules" drawn up by this Conference received Imperial sanction in July. According to these rules students who took part in disturbances or conspired to absent themselves from lectures were not only to be liable to expulsion, but might also be drafted into the army to fulfil their term of military service irrespective either of their age or of any privileges which might belong to them in virtue of their education or family position, and notwithstanding that they might have drawn the lottery number entitling them to total exemption from military service. These rules were severely criticised on the ground that military service, being a patriotic duty incumbent on all citizens, should not be degraded to the level of a punishment for wrongdoing; and the keen resentment which they evoked was one of the main causes of the assassination of Bogolepov, who was—quite wrongly, as it now appears—held to be principally responsible for their enactment. Shortly after his death the rules were withdrawn.

The provision of new technical schools of all grades went steadily forward during the ministry of Bogolepov, and just before his death he had prepared a scheme for the better organisation of the Intermediate Technical Schools. His most important work, however, was done in connection with the reform of the Secondary Schools of general education. Recognising that the time had arrived for some reform of secondary education, he determined as a preliminary measure to call together at St. Petersburg a conference of educational experts to consider the whole question of the changes that were desirable in the present system. The Circular by which this Conference was summoned is here translated in its entirety, not only in view of its intrinsic importance, but also because it contains a very convenient summary of the main problems which still remain to be solved in connection with Russian secondary education. The Circular is addressed to the Curators of Educational districts.

CIRCULAR OF THE MINISTER OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

July 8th, 1899.

Among educationists and the parents of pupils attending our gymnasias and real-schools, complaints have long been made as to various defects in these educational institutions. Among the subjects of complaint may be instanced the alienation of the secondary school from the family, and the bureaucratic character of the former, whereby an arid and lifeless formalism is imported into living educational work, and teachers and taught are placed in a false relation to each other; the lack of attention to the individual peculiarities of the pupils and the neglect of moral and physical training; the undesirability of allowing specialisation of the school course to begin

with the lowest classes, since this binds the children to follow a certain line of study before their natural capacities and inclinations have declared themselves; the excessive amount of the daily intellectual toil imposed upon the pupils, especially in the lower classes; the incompatibility of the various parts of the curricula with one another, and with the time available for study and the crowding of the time-table with subjects which are of secondary importance, if not actually superfluous; the insufficiency of the instruction given in the language, history, and literature of Russia, and the defect of acquaintance of the children with the physical world around them, all when taken together, deprives the school of its living national character; the excessive predominance of the ancient languages and the faulty methods of teaching them, in consequence of which the aim of classical education is not attained, notwithstanding the considerable number of hours assigned to the languages; the defective intellectual equipment of those who complete the course in the gymnasium, which is an impediment to their success in university studies, and the unsatisfactory way in which the scholars turned out by the real-schools are prepared for the course of study in the higher technical colleges. Complaint is made in general that the education given in the real-schools is inferior, and many other weak points are noted, which it would be superfluous to enumerate in detail.

Although there is much in these complaints that is exaggerated, and much that is due to a mistaken idea of the school's omnipotence, and to the fulfilment of the complex conditions of life among which it exists, I feel bound nevertheless to admit that they are not without a certain measure of justification. However, before taking any steps for the removal of existing defects in our Secondary Schools, I think it necessary to acquaint myself with the views of our most experienced educationists on the question under consideration. With this object in view I propose in the winter of the present year to summon a special Commission to meet in St. Petersburg. As I wish this Commission to comprise representatives from the Educational District under your Excellency's charge, I request you, at your earliest convenience to select two to four persons from the most experienced, cultured, and gifted directors and teachers of the secondary schools, endeavouring to secure, far as possible, that they shall be exponents of the requirements of the various types of Russian schools which provide a general education, viz., the gymnasium and the real-schools, and of the various currents of thought which prevail in educational circles in your district. As a guide to these select persons in their labours of preparation, I request your Excellency to be good enough to communicate to them the following instructions, which, along with others, will be given to the proposed Commission:—

1. The work of the Commission will be as follows: (a) To investigate thoroughly the existing organisation of Secondary Education with a view to ascertain its defects, and to indicate the steps that should be taken for their removal, consistently with the maintenance of the classical gymnasium and the real-school as the main types of Secondary Schools in Russia; and (b) if in the consideration of the foregoing questions proposals shall be made for the alteration of the existing types of schools or for the creation of a new type, to subject these proposals to examination, but apart from the question proposed in (a).

2. The conclusions of the Commission shall not only be expressed in the form of general propositions with the reasons therefor adequately set forth, but these propositions shall also be worked out in detail, as to give a clear idea of their possible realisation in practice. It will thus be necessary that these conclusions should be based not so much upon abstract judgments as upon observations made by trained and experienced educationists of the actual life of our Secondary Schools.

3. In considering what changes are desirable in the existing organisation of our gymnasiums and real-schools, the Commission should be guided by the consideration that the goal in view must be approached gradually and cautiously, since the continuity of our educational work

must not be violently broken. Whilst observing this point of view, it is necessary to bear in mind that the modern conditions of Russian life imperatively demand the increase of those professional schools of various kinds which prepare their pupils directly for practical life. By thus gradually improving the classical and real-schools, and giving the greatest possible extension to professional training in our fatherland, it will become possible to distribute pupils freely and regularly, and with due regard to their natural vocation, state of preparation, and circumstances in life, among the different kinds of educational establishments, and a natural direction will thus be given to those youthful forces which at present, finding any other outlet impossible or difficult, are artificially attracted to the Secondary Schools of general education and the Universities, without having any natural inclination thereto.

4. Among other matters, special attention should be devoted by the Commission to the question of physical training. In view of this the Commission will have to consider what measures should be taken to attain the desired end, and in particular, how such a distribution of school work may be effected as will make it possible for the pupils, according to their age, to devote more time than is at present found possible to recreation between lessons, and to physical exercise and games. I regard the thorough elucidation of this question of the physical training of the young as one of the most important problems before the Commission. If it should appear that this problem cannot be solved without curtailing the curriculum, I think this latter course a lesser evil than the neglect of the physical side of education, especially as in the curricula now in use there will be found not a few points of secondary importance, which may be sacrificed for the sake of preserving the health of the pupils, without prejudice to the main object, which is to attain a certain degree of mental culture, whilst at the same time laying a solid foundation of knowledge in the subjects taught. It is, however, necessary that this question of curtailment should be decided not by specialists only, who are naturally disposed to attribute prime importance to kinds of knowledge which from the pedagogical point of view not seldom seem to occupy a subordinate place.

5. The question of moral training in the wide sense deserves still greater attention. Though it is precisely in regard to this side of its life that the school finds itself most dependent on the moral standard of the family and society in general, it is nevertheless bound to do all that lies in its power to develop in those who come under its influence a will directed by moral and religious principle. The Commission will therefore have to consider what means can be adopted to assist the development in the scholars of genuine religious feeling, of sincere attachment and devotion to their Emperor and country, of the sense of duty, honour, truthfulness, respect for authority, and the like, having in view not a mere system of formal precepts, but also measures which shall permeate the every-day life of the school.

The main questions raised in this Circular will be discussed more fully in a subsequent chapter of this report. The Commission of Enquiry thus summoned sat from January 7th to March 6th, 1900, holding during that time thirty-two sessions, exclusive of meetings of sub-committees. They considered not only the subjects directly indicated in the Circular, with many subsidiary questions incidental thereto, but also such matters as the pedagogical training of secondary teachers, and the best means of improving their financial position. The result of the labours of the Commission of Enquiry was then submitted to the consideration of a smaller Commission, presided over by M. Cyril P. Yanovski, formerly Curator of the

Caucasus Educational District. Meantime, some important changes in detail were introduced into the curricula of the gymnasia, involving, among other things, the abolition of written tests in the examinations in classics, greater insistence on the study of authors as compared with prose composition, the abolition of compulsory holiday tasks, and the like. The Yanovski Commission, which was charged with the duty of drawing up new statutes for gymnasia and real-schools, and of making proposals as to the training of secondary teachers, sat from the autumn of 1900 to February, 1901. It is understood that the project of new statutes which they prepared involved no essential modification of the dual system of gymnasia and real-schools, but provided for important changes in the curricula of both. Before, however, these projects could be presented to the Imperial Council, M. Bogolepov was assassinated, and his proposals for reform thereupon fell into abeyance.

His successor was General Vannovski, who had recently come prominently before the educational world as the Commissioner appointed to inquire into the causes of the students' disorders of February, 1899. The new minister promptly took up the question of the reorganisation of secondary education *de novo*. In the spring of the same year he summoned a new Commission to advise with him as to the measures to be adopted. This Commission came to very different conclusions from those reached by that of which M. Yanovski had been president. In many respects their recommendations involved a complete revolution of the existing system. They broke, for instance, with the principle of dualism which had prevailed in Russian education for more than a generation, by substituting a single "common" school for the existing gymnasium and real-school; they banished classics entirely from the lower classes of this common school, and admitted them as a rule in the higher classes only as optional subjects, at the same time reducing their importance very considerably in respect of admission to the universities; finally, they divided the school into two sections, each with a course complete in itself, and provided greater facilities for the passage of scholars from the Primary to the Secondary School.

General Vannovski's proposals, based on these recommendations, were confirmed by the Emperor experimentally for a single year. It was fully expected that the new system would be finally adopted at the end of the year's trial, and would come gradually into operation in the course of the next few years. During the year, however, other counsels prevailed. In the spring of 1902 General Vannovski resigned his post, and was succeeded by M. G. E. Sānger, a former Professor of the University of Warsaw.

The Imperial Rescript addressed to the new Minister under date of the 10th of June, 1902, laid upon him the special duty of preparing and submitting for approval plans for the reorganisation both of the secondary schools and the Universities. Since that date the Ministry of Public Instruction has been occupied with the consideration of the details of the legislative measures necessary to give effect to the commands of the Emperor. Pending the production

of a final scheme of reform for the secondary schools certain temporary measures have been adopted in accordance with an Imperial Order of the 20th July, 1902. The main features of this temporary arrangement are as follows. A certain number of gymnasia adhere to the curriculum of 1890 without change. In the rest of the gymnasia and the real-schools the work of the lowest two classes has been made identical. In those gymnasia which take both classical languages Latin is begun in the third class, Greek in the fourth; but most of the gymnasia take Latin only. In the real-schools more attention is given to foreign languages and the graphic arts. On the 15th March, 1903, a further Imperial Order was issued laying down in greater detail the general lines on which the reform of secondary education should proceed. The following is a summary of the most important passages of this Order.

(1.) The number of classes in the gymnasia to be eight, as before; both ancient languages to be taught in them, but Greek to be optional in the majority. Completion of the course of the gymnasium to give admission to the University.

(2.) Real schools to have, as before, six fundamental classes with a seventh supplementary class. Completion of the course of the seventh class to give access to the higher technical schools.

(3.) In addition to the two existing types of school, secondary schools with six classes to be established, completion of whose course shall give the right of admission to the provincial civil service.

(4.) A wide development to be given to secondary technical and professional education of a kind adapted to satisfy the practical needs of life.

(5.) Special care to be taken to devise means for increasing the moral and religious influence of schools of all kinds upon their pupils and for strengthening their attachment to the Russian State and nation.

(6.) In order to serve the interests of moral training, boarding houses to be established where the pupils of a particular group of schools in a given town can have the advantage of proper guidance.

(7.) Measures to be taken without delay to secure a supply of properly trained teachers to meet the requirements of the reformed secondary schools.

With a view to the preparation of a scheme for the reorganisation of the Universities and higher technical colleges steps had already been taken by M. Sanger's predecessor to collect the opinions of the Councils of these bodies as to the changes which they judged to be necessary. These opinions, which are understood to include a unanimous recommendation in favour of a return to the principles of University autonomy and the legalisation of students' associations, have been submitted for the consideration of a special Commission of experts including representatives of the Universities. The result of the deliberations of this Commission has not yet been made known. Meantime some of the special temporary measures which have been adopted for the administration of the Universities may be regarded as significant of the probable direction of reform. Such are the establishment of a temporary disciplinary court of professors; the issue of regulations for the organisation of students' circles for literary, scientific and other purposes, and the like. It is true that these particular measures have been attended with little success, and that the disciplinary court was even abolished

in 1904 after existing only a couple of years. This proves nothing, however, except that reforms of this kind cannot be carried out in isolation, but must form part of a general scheme of University reorganisation. Perhaps the most significant indication of the trend of events is the fact that the Government has since 1899 made little use of its right to appoint professors, but has allowed the Universities in most cases to fill up their vacant chairs by election.

M. Sānger resigned office early in 1904, and has been succeeded by General Glazov.

APPENDIX TO CHAPTER I.

THE HISTORY OF EDUCATION IN THE WESTERN FRONTIER PROVINCES.

In the foregoing pages we have referred only incidentally to the educational history of the Baltic Provinces and Poland. Down to very recent times the history of education in both these regions has followed an independent course, and as a consequence of these historical differences the conditions of public instruction in both are even now very dissimilar to those prevailing in Central Russia. It appeared, therefore, desirable to deal with the history of education in these frontier provinces separately in an Appendix, and so to avoid the necessity of interrupting repeatedly the thread of the general narrative.

A.—THE BALTIC PROVINCES.

The Baltic Provinces occupy a unique position within the Russian Empire. Their population is predominantly Lutheran in religion, and only an insignificant portion of it is Russian in origin. The landed proprietors, the clergy, and the trading classes in the towns, are almost entirely German by race and language, the rural population is either Lettish or Esthonian, the former element preponderating in Kurland and South Livonia, the latter in North Livonia and Esthonia. In the thirteenth century the Lettish and Esthonian inhabitants were reduced to subjection and forced to accept Christianity by the German knights of the Order of the Sword, which became in 1236 a branch of the Teutonic Order. The region thus subdued was made by Frederick II. in 1225 a margraviate of the Empire. The present Baltic gentry, who are still known in their corporate capacity as *Ritterschaften* in their respective provinces, are descendants of the sword-bearing knights and the vassals of the Order, or of the vassals of the bishops, between whom and the Order there went on throughout the Middle Ages a contest for supremacy, which finally ended in the triumph of the Order. The towns have a somewhat different history, but their origin is equally German. Founded for the most part* by colonics from Lubeck and other Hanseatic towns they early obtained rights and privileges independently of the *Ritterschaften*, and from 1435 onwards their representatives were admitted to the Livonian Landtag on equal terms with the other orders.

The contact of the provinces with Russia began early. Lying as they did athwart the path of the Russians to the sea they began in the latter part of the fifteenth century to feel the pressure of the growing power of Moscow. The Livonian knights joined Alexander, Grand-duke of Lithuania, and afterwards king of Poland, against Ivan the Great, and under the leadership of Wolter von Plettenberg, Grand Master of their Order, inflicted a notable defeat upon the Russian forces in the battle of the Sirtsas (1502). This success assured peace to the provinces for a period of half a century, during which the most important event in their history was the rapid advance made among their population by the principles of the Reformation. But Ivan the Terrible refused to renew the peace with the provinces, and invaded the country in 1558, and the following years. The distress to which the provinces were thus reduced led to their disruption. Esthonia, with Reval, threw herself into the arms of Sweden in June, 1561. A few months later, Livonia became a part of the dominions of Sigismund Augustus, King of Poland (1548-1572). Kurland at the same time became a Polish fief

* Reval was of Danish origin.

under Gottfried Kettler, who, in accordance with the so-called *Pacta Subjectionis* concluded with Poland, assumed the ducal title, which remained hereditary in his family until 1737. By the *Pacta Subjectionis*, often referred to also as the *Privilegium Sigismundi Augusti*, the provinces subject to Poland retained their local autonomy, and were permitted the free exercise of the Protestant religion, and the use of the German language in Church and State. Livonia remained Polish until 1623, when as the result of the politico-religious war waged between Poland and Gustavus Adolphus, Livonia was ceded to Sweden by the provisions of the Treaty of Marienburg. Kurland still remained a separate duchy, but Esthonia and Livonia continued to be Swedish, until trouble arose owing to the violation by Charles XI. of the constitutional privileges of the provinces. This led directly to war between Sweden and Russia. The patriot Patkul, who had been condemned to death by Charles because of his protest against the breach of the privileges of the provinces, but had escaped, induced Poland, Russia and Denmark to unite against Sweden, and thus began the long historic struggle between Sweden under Charles XII. and Russia under Peter the Great. The war was at first disastrous to Russia (defeat of Narva, 1700), but the victory of Poltava in 1709 left Peter in virtual possession of Esthonia and Livonia, which were formally recognised as Russian territory by the Treaty of Nystadt (1721). But meanwhile the Capitulations of 1710 had been signed between Peter and the two provinces, with which were associated the towns of Riga and Reval. By these Capitulations Peter confirmed the provinces in the enjoyment of all their former rights and privileges, promised to maintain the Lutheran form of worship, and all formerly existing laws and statutes, acknowledged German as the official language of the provinces, and undertook to re-found the University of Dorpat. The feudatory relation of Kurland to Poland continued to be nominally maintained, but from 1710 onward this province also was in reality completely dependent on Russia. In that year Anne, the daughter of Ivan, Peter's brother, married Duke Frederick William of Kurland. He died next year, and the influence of Peter caused his brother to be excluded from the succession in Anne's favour. Anne became Empress of Russia in 1730, and when in 1737 Kettler's line died out, her favourite, Biren, was elected Duke at her instance. Henceforth the province became to all intents and purposes a part of Russia. In 1795, the year of the final partition of Poland, the Landtag of Kurland formally renounced the Polish suzerainty, Biren's son abdicated, and Catherine took possession of the province, having confirmed the inhabitants in all their ancient privileges.

Let us now cast a glance at the history of education in the Baltic Provinces during the period treated of above. As might be expected from the German origin of the governing classes, schools began to be founded in the provinces from a very early time; the Ritter und Domschule of Reval, for example, had a history reaching back as far as 1319. But the political vicissitudes through which the country had passed had caused the schools to fall into decay by the time the Swedes took possession of Livonia, and it was one of the first cares of Gustavus Adolphus, always a lover of learning, to restore them to their former position. In 1631 he founded gymnasia at Reval and Dorpat, and the latter institution was next year converted into a university on the model of that of Upsala. It received the name of *Academia Gustaviana*, and had four faculties, viz., theology, medicine, law and philosophy. In 1656 the taking of Dorpat by the Russians caused the University to be closed; the library and printing-press were concealed in the crypt of the Church of St. Mary, where they remained till 1688. Dorpat was again ceded to Sweden in 1661, but the University nevertheless remained closed until 1690, when it was restored by Charles XI., under the name of *Academia Gustavo-Carolina*. Its second period of existence, however, lasted no more than twenty years, of which only nine were passed at Dorpat. On the outbreak of war between Russia and Sweden, Charles XII. removed the University in 1699 to Pernau for greater safety. At Pernau it dragged out a somewhat miserable existence, and was closed when the Russian Army approached the town in 1710.

Although the Capitulations contained an undertaking on the part of Peter to restore the University, no great anxiety was shown by the Livonian nobility, either in his time or throughout the greater part of the eighteenth century, for the redemption of the promise. The question of the restoration of the University was raised several times in a half-hearted way, but no decisive step was taken until the reign of Paul, when an ukaz was issued ordering the nobles to choose a site for the University. Arrangements were proceeding to carry out this command when the Emperor died, and it was left for his son, Alexander I., to complete the scheme as part of the general educational reorganisation carried out in his reign.

Education of a grade below that of the University made good progress during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. At the date of the Capitulations there existed in the provinces, in addition to the three schools already mentioned, two other important schools of the same type, viz., the Domschule at Riga, founded at the Reformation, and maintained by the town, and the Riga Lyceum, founded in 1675 by Charles XI, and maintained at the cost of the State. The Ritter und Domschule at Reval had fallen into decay by the end of the seventeenth century, but under Oberpastor Mickwitz (an old pupil of Franke of Halle), who became its Director in 1724, it started on a new career of usefulness. The Riga Domschule is interesting as having had Herder as one of its teachers. The Academic Gymnasium of Mitau was founded by Duke Peter of Kurland in 1775. So long as the University of Dorpat remained closed the instruction at all these schools partook of a higher as well as a secondary character; the Academic Gymnasium of Mitau, for example, taught theology and law in addition to ordinary gymnasium subjects. Those of the youth of the Provinces who desired University instruction in the proper sense of the word, found it at German Universities, such as Königsberg and Göttingen.

The first steps towards the provision of a system of primary schools in the Baltic Provinces were taken by Livonia and Esthonia in the latter half of the eighteenth century. In 1765 the Landtag of Livonia laid upon its members the duty of providing *Hofschulen* on their estates, to which the peasants should send their children from Martinmas to Easter. In every parish there were also to be established Parish Schools, from the pupils of which the teachers of the Hofschulen were to be drawn. The oversight of the parish schools was entrusted to the pastors, whose duty it was to inspect them monthly. Esthonia followed suit with a similar system; and the organisations thus created were confirmed by Catherine in two ukazes dated 1765 and 1785. By 1787 there had been established thirty-five parish and 223 communal schools in Esthonia alone. Little was done in Kurland owing to the internal disorganisation which preceded its incorporation in the Russian Empire.

All three provinces were included in the general scheme of educational reorganisation which was carried through at the beginning of Alexander I.'s reign. The Baltic Provinces, along with Viborg in Finland, were formed into a separate Educational District. The University of Dorpat was re-established in 1802, and like the purely Russian Universities, received an autonomous constitution, in which only a general oversight was reserved to the Minister or Curator. In respect of its administrative provisions, the Statute of Dorpat differed from those of other Russian Universities in certain details of financial management. On the educational side, where the Government were guided largely by the advice of G. F. Parrot (afterwards Professor of Physics and Rector) and Professor Glinka, several important special features were introduced into the Statute, in correspondence with the special conditions, religious and constitutional, of the Baltic Provinces. There were four faculties—Theology, Law, Medicine and Philosophy. Of these the first was intended for the training of the Lutheran clergy of the Provinces. In the Faculty of Law three chairs were assigned to local provincial law. The philosophical faculty was subdivided into four sections, viz., physics and mathematics, natural sciences, philology and history, technics and economics. The Statute was recast in 1820, but the changes then made affected only the

financial and judicial sides of the University's functions, and these only in a minor degree. In all essential features both of administration and educational organisation, the University of Dorpat continued unchanged until the later years of the reign of Nicholas I.

In other respects, too, the educational system of Alexander I. was made to apply to the Baltic Provinces. The existing schools of mixed secondary and higher type were converted into ordinary gymnasia, not in all cases without protest from those locally interested in them. New gymnasia and district schools were created, and all grades of schools were placed in the same kind of hierarchical relation to each other and to the University as was the case in the other Educational Districts of Russia. The first statute laying down the lines on which the schools of the provinces were to be organised was issued in 1804; this was recast in the same year as the University Statute, mainly with a view to increasing the importance of the ancient languages in the curriculum of the gymnasia. Under the Statute of 1820 the schools of the Baltic Provinces continued to be administered until the changes of the eighties.

Very little was done for primary education in the Baltic Provinces during the reign of Alexander I., at any rate before 1817, when serfdom was abolished there. The zeal which was displayed by the nobles during the reign of Catherine for the education of their serfs had proved to be very short-lived, and of the schools noted above as existing in Esthonia in 1787 only three parish and seventeen communal schools were reported as surviving in 1817. The liberation of the serfs* had the effect of directing attention anew to the need of primary instruction for the rural population. Between 1817 and 1821 a series of legislative steps were taken, the general effect of which was to transfer the control of rural schools in all these provinces from the Ministry to the Lutheran consistories and the assemblies of the noblesse. Attendance at school was now made compulsory for every child from the age of ten until such time as the pastor should pronounce him proficient in his studies, and was enforced by the imposition of a fine. The proper proportion of schools to population was also fixed by statute; in Livonia the proportion was one communal school for every 500 male inhabitants, a parish school being also declared necessary in every parish containing over 2,000 souls. The general school statute of 1820 laid down that the curriculum should consist of religion, the three R's, and elementary instruction in German. No great forward movement was made, however, until the forties, when the Government began to establish a number of Orthodox schools in the provinces, and the squire and pastor threw themselves with greatly increased zeal into the work of establishing and maintaining Lutheran schools for the rural population. By 1850 the number of Lutheran schools had reached 1,500. About the same time (the date for Livonia is 1849) the *Oberlandeschulbehörden* with the district boards subordinate to them were established.

Throughout the reign of the first Alexander the whole system of education in the Baltic Provinces was German in language and spirit, and Russian was treated purely as a foreign language both in the schools and the University. Toward the end of the reign, the Curators of the District began, it is true, to call the attention of the University Council to the necessity of insisting on a good knowledge of Russian. But their representations had not much effect, and the chair of Russian at the University even remained vacant from 1829 to 1835. But with the entry of Uvarov, the champion and exponent of official nationalism, upon office as Minister of Public Instruction, a change in the attitude of the Government became immediately manifest. The time was not yet ripe for the application of those drastic measures of Russification which marked the reign of Alexander III., but the policy and action of Uvarov are nevertheless worthy of attentive study as having initiated the process which was afterwards carried out to its logical issue. He has left his views on the

* No distribution of land was made to the serfs at the emancipation, and they were consequently left in many respects as dependent on the nobles as they had hitherto been.

matter on record in the *Desiatletie*, the report on the first ten years of his administration, to which we have more than once referred already. In this document he discusses the possibility of Russifying the educational system of the Baltic Provinces, and states his opinion that cautious procedure is necessary in view of the deeply-rooted prejudices of the Baltic people. He complains that the latter made the mistake of ignoring the fact that the relative positions of the Germans and Russians had been modified. "Germany is no longer what she was, and Russia has grown to manhood. The spirit of the Baltic Provinces vainly imagines itself to be the representative of German culture in Russia. We understand and appreciate that culture better than they do." Then follows an interesting contrast between the measures respectively required in dealing with the Germans and the Poles of the western provinces. In the case of the latter, in spite of all the existing animosity, you could reckon on the quick, impressionable, excitable, Slavonic nature; the Germans, on the contrary, were not to be caught by a single adroit movement, a few emotional words; you must, so to speak, sit down and besiege them; they would surrender in the end, but not all at once.

When Uvarov wrote these words, he had already gained some experience of the difficulty of conducting such siege operations, and of the stubborn defence which the beleaguered could make. He had at first had the idea of reorganising the University of Dorpat on the lines of the general University Statute of 1835, and had instructed the Curator, Craffström, to prepare a report on the subject. The report was presented in 1836, but the result was that the Emperor decided to leave the organisation of the University and schools as it was for the present. The policy of gradual measures had in fact been now decided on. On the very day on which the Emperor's decision was taken, Uvarov presented to him a memorandum in which he discussed alternative methods of dealing with the Baltic Provinces. Rejecting as premature, and indeed impossible, the plan of replacing all the German professors at Dorpat by Russians, and making Russian the language of instruction, he declared himself in favour of beginning with the schools rather than with the University. His proposals were as follows:—

- (1) To take the schools out of the jurisdiction of the University.
- (2) To increase in every possible way the teaching of Russian, and gradually to introduce Russian as the language of instruction in one or more subjects.
- (3) To make it a rule that after the lapse of three years, no native of the Baltic Provinces should be appointed a teacher in a gymnasium or school, unless he were able to teach his subject in Russian.
- (4) To appoint to vacant headships of schools principally Russians, exceptions being made only in favour of such natives of the Baltic Provinces as added to all other necessary qualifications a good knowledge of Russian.
- (5) Gradually to introduce Russian as the language of official correspondence, the Curator's bureau to set the example.
- (6) The Minister of Public Instruction to appoint special visitors to see that all these measures were carried out, independently of the ordinary supervision of the Curator and his assistant.
- (7) An adequate knowledge of Russian to be henceforth a necessary qualification for the degree of Actual Student, Candidate or Doctor of Medicine at the University.
- (8) To extend to Dorpat the provision of the general University Statute which gave the Minister power to fill vacancies in the University staff. Uvarov proposed to use this power in order to appoint as professors Russian scholars who should be bound to lecture in Russian.

The Emperor approved of this plan of campaign, but gave instructions that it should be kept an administrative secret for the present. However, the secret leaked out; the educated public of the Baltic Provinces took alarm, and their apprehensions found expression in articles published in the papers of Germany. Meanwhile, Uvarov proceeded to carry out his programme.

An Imperial order was immediately issued embodying the provision of (7) above, and providing in addition that at the expiration of five years a thorough knowledge of Russian should be required from every candidate for admission to the University. In the following month, January, 1837, the schools were transferred from the supervision of the University to that of the curator. The policy of appointing Russian headmasters was shortly applied in the case of the Mitau gymnasium, a certain Chastnikov being nominated for the post. In addressing a request to the Emperor for a distinction for his nominee, Uvarov took occasion to make some remarks about the slow progress which the Russian language was making in the Baltic Provinces. This memorandum also somehow became public property, and added to the alarm already felt. The Ritterschaft of Livonia petitioned that the school system might be left as it was, suggesting, however, that the number of competent teachers of Russian might be increased. The Tsar sent Prince Volkonski to the Provinces to make enquiries; and at his request Ullmann, the Rector of the University, drew up a memorandum in strong opposition to Uvarov's views. The Emeritus Professor and former Rector, G. F. Parrot, now residing in St. Petersburg as a member of the Academy of Sciences, also entered the lists. In a letter addressed to the Emperor, he boldly went to the root of the matter by declaring that Russification in the sense desired by Uvarov would mean the degradation of a higher culture to the level of a lower, and that the true policy should be the opposite one of endeavouring to lift the rest of Russia to the intellectual level of the Baltic Provinces.

In the face of the strong opposition locally aroused and supported in high bureaucratic circles in St. Petersburg, where the influence of Baltic Germans was then, as always, very considerable, the net result of Uvarov's policy was not great, and his plan was never fully carried out. In deciding on promotions and in the examinations for leaving certificates, Uvarov ordered that the highest marks should be assigned to Russian; but the provision by which a competent knowledge of Russian was required from every candidate for admission to the Dorpat University, and also as a condition of a University diploma, was not put into force until 1845. The experiment was tried of teaching certain subjects in Russian both in the gymnasia and the Kreisschulen; but finally Russian was retained as the language of instruction only for the history and geography of Russia.

The position of Russian at the University was not stronger than in the schools. The only subjects in which Russian was used as the medium of instruction were Orthodox Theology, Russian Law and the Russian Language and Literature: an attempt made in 1845 to make Russian the language of instruction in State Medicine was met by the University with an absolute *non possumus*, and had to be abandoned. Even Professors who were Russian by birth, such as Pirogov, the well-known writer on education, lectured in German, and correspondence between the University and the Minister and Curator continued to be carried on in that language. When in 1841 Craffström, the Curator, proposed in accordance with Uvarov's plan of gradual Russification to make Russian the language of official communication between the University and the Ministry of Public Instruction, his proposal was referred to the Faculty of Law, which had no difficulty in proving by an appeal to charters and other legal documents from the time of the *Facta Subjectionis* downwards that the obligatory use of Russian was contrary to the privileges of the Baltic Provinces; they suggested, however, that all official communications with the Ministry might be accompanied by a Russian translation, and this suggestion was acted on henceforth. There can be little doubt, from all the available evidence, that speaking generally, the measures adopted during the reign of Nicholas I. to further the spread of Russian in the provinces were carried out in a merely formal and perfunctory manner, and that their success was quite superficial and illusory. The optimistic statements made by Uvarov as to the progress of the Russian language, which occur in the report of his visitation of the provinces in 1848, are probably to be attributed to his desire to justify his own policy in face of certain strictures of the recently appointed Governor-General, Suworov,

who had called attention to the great ignorance of Russian prevailing in the provinces under his charge.

The steps taken by the Government in 1849 to limit the autonomous powers of the Russian Universities affected Dorpat also, save that the restriction of the number of students to 300 did not apply in the case of the latter to the Faculties of Medicine or Theology. All these restrictions were removed by Alexander II., and in 1865 the University received a new Statute based on the same general principles of autonomy as the Statute of 1863 for the purely Russian Universities. Apart from the Faculty of Theology, the chief special features of the new Statute were the provision of Lectorships in Esthonian and Lettish. In contra-distinction to the Russian Universities, the associations of students, which had existed since the foundation of the University, but had never been openly recognised, now received legal recognition. These students' associations have always played an extremely important part in the University life of Dorpat, and in fact in the life of the educated society of the Baltic Provinces generally. Their influence reached out into the after-life of their members, forming a bond of union among them which can only be compared to that which exists among the old boys of a particular public school in England. Thus they very materially aided in binding together the educated classes of the Baltic Provinces as a society, in keeping up their German traditions, and serving as foci of the German spirit.*

The Liberal and pro-German tendencies which guided the policy of Alexander II. throughout the greater part of his reign, gave a complete check to the process of Russification in the Baltic Provinces in the sixties and seventies. In spite of the growing influence of the Slavophiles in Russian society, and the zealous propaganda on behalf of the Russian language which was conducted in the provinces themselves by the Orthodox Archbishop Platon of Riga, the measures actually adopted during this reign in the interests of the study of Russian were comparatively unimportant. German continued to be the language of the University, the gymnasia, and the District Schools; and the Slavophil party had to rest content with the establishment of separate Russian gymnasia, two for boys at Riga and Reval (1868-1871), and one for girls at Riga (1871). The rule which made a knowledge of Russian an essential qualification for the headships of gymnasia and District Schools was also confirmed, it was ordered that business correspondence between educational institutions maintained or aided by the Treasury and State authorities was to be conducted in Russian, and a Commission* was appointed to consider further measures for advancing the interests of the Russian language in the provinces. In 1871 the Orthodox Primary Schools of the provinces, which had hitherto been under the direct control of the local Orthodox clergy, were placed under the supervision of a special provincial council, which was three years later, at its own request, subordinated to the Ministry of Public Instruction. But proposals for subjecting the Lutheran schools to similar control by the Ministry had to be dropped owing to the

* A good account of the Dorpat Korporationen, as they existed in 1868, is to be found in a brochure on the Baltic question, published at Leipzig in that year, and entitled "Ein verlassener Bruderstamm." They had a local basis like the Russian *Zemliachestva*; the oldest of them were Curonia, Esthonia, Livonia, and Fraturnitas Rigensis; at least one-half of the whole body of students belonged to one or other of the Korporationen. They had their own code of law and morals in the *Allgemeiner Comment*, which could be enlarged or modified only by decision of the *Consentum*—the legislative body and highest court of appeal for the students belonging to the corporations. The *Consentum* consisted of three representatives (*chargierten*) from each corporation. Distinct from the *Consentum*, but also consisting of three members from each corporation, was the *Burschengericht*, which decided, subject to confirmation by the *Consentum*, on all matters of *Honorigkeit*. Duelling was not compulsory. The author of this brochure claims that the corporations kept up and enforced a certain democratic standard of plain living, all luxury and ease being condemned as *unburschikos* and *unfrei*.

determined opposition of the Baltic squires, who threatened to cease maintenance of the schools, if they were taken out of their control.

The reign of Alexander II. was, in fact, a period of Germanisation, rather than of Russification, since from the beginning of the sixties onward we have to take into account the existence of a conscious and consistent effort on the part of the educated classes of the provinces to spread German culture among the Lettish and Esthonian peasantry. This policy was openly avowed by Bishop Walter, who in a sermon delivered at the opening of the Livonian Landtag in 1864, declared that the Germanisation of the Letts and Esths was a sacred duty, and the most important task of the Livonian nobility. He was removed from his office in consequence of this deliverance, but the work went on nevertheless. Apart from the Primary Schools, the Baltic nobility had an excellent instrument of Germanisation at their disposal in the District Schools. The University and the gymnasias were chiefly attended by the sons of the gentry and clergy; but the *Kreisschulen*, of which there was, at least, one in every town, were frequented for the most part by peasants' children, who desired a more advanced education than could be given by the ordinary Elementary Schools. The language of instruction in these schools was German, and the young Letts and Esths who had been taught in them, afterwards adopted German as the language of their every-day life, and frequently became thoroughly Germanised in sentiment and manner of life. It now became the aim of the educated classes of the provinces to extend these Germanising influences so far as possible to the rural Primary Schools, which, as already mentioned, had been founded in great numbers by the Baltic gentry since the forties.

The interest of this Germanising movement lies in the fact that it involved an entire change of attitude on the part of the German-speaking upper classes towards the Lettish and Esthonian peasantry. During the days of serfdom and for long afterwards, the linguistic separation between German and Lett or Esth had been jealously guarded by the squires and clergy as a class distinction. The squires had learnt the local language in order to communicate by means of it with their tenantry. The pastors both spoke and wrote it in the fulfilment of their spiritual duties; and in fact, until the rise of the Young-Lettish and Young-Esthonian movements, the literary cultivation of the local languages was entirely in their hands. But the use of German was regarded as a kind of hall-mark of aristocracy, the outward sign of social privilege; and its acquisition by the peasantry had therefore been discouraged as much as possible.* This feeling, however, was fast passing away. If it still lingered among the older generation, which remembered the days of serfdom, with the younger nobles and clergy it had given way before the conviction that German culture in the provinces could no longer rest upon the support of a small upper class, that it was needful to place it on a broader and more democratic basis, and secure for it a rallying ground among the peasant population. Some sort of cultural unity, resting on the possession of a common religion, already bound the Esths and Letts to the German upper classes. From the moment that Protestantism drove a wedge between the Letts and their neighbours and kinsmen, the Lithuanians, who remained faithful to the Roman confession, the foundation was laid for a culture in the Baltic Provinces, which marked off their population from their Eastern neighbours, whether of the Greek or Latin rite, and brought them into closer relations with the intellectual life of Northern Europe. It was the aim of the Germanising movement which took its rise in the sixties to give to this unity of culture a secular as well as a religious basis.

* Cf. "Zustände und Eigenthümlichkeiten in den Baltischen Provinzen Russlands" (Bautzen, 1864), pp. 20, 21. "In reference to the common people, the German language was looked upon as a crest or ensign, which the common folk had no right to bear. Even at the present time not a few of the squires are extremely displeased if their tenants acquire the German language or adopt German ways of life." It should be said that this brochure is written with an obvious anti-German bias, and that its anonymous author is probably a Lett.

The conditions were in many respects very favourable to the success of such a plan. Local control of elementary education was very highly developed in the Baltic Provinces. By a series of special regulations, the first of which dated from the time of the emancipation of the serfs, the duty of administering and supervising the rural schools in the Baltic Provinces had been laid upon the local assemblies of nobles and clergy, the Landtage and the Consistories. A nominal control was retained by the Ministry of the Interior, an arrangement which is explained by the close connection between the schools and the Lutheran Church, which was also under the supervision of the same Ministry. Under these conditions there had grown up a peculiar local system of school administration. The highest authority was vested in the Supreme Board for Rural Schools (*Oberlandeschulbehörde*), consisting of Chief Church Curators (*Oberkirchenvorsteher*, persons appointed by the Landtag with the primary duty of administering Church property), the general superintendent or president of the Lutheran Consistory, and a special counsellor (*Schulrat*), appointed by the nobility. Under this general authority acted the District School Boards (*Kreisschulbehörden*), composed of members elected partly by the Consistory, partly by the nobility, and partly by the representatives of the peasant communities. In each parish there was a Parochial Governing Body (*Kirchspielschulverwaltung*), composed of the *Kirchenvorsteher* of the parish, the parish school master, and a peasant school "elder." Individual schools were supervised by the parish *Kirchenvorsteher*, the pastor, and the school "elder." The rural Primary Schools were of two grades, the communal schools (*Gemeindeschulen*, called *Winterschulen* in Kurland), with a course of three years, or rather three winters, since, like the Russian schools proper, they were open only during five or six months in the year; and the Parish Schools (called *Jahreschulen* in Kurland), which were open all the year round. In the parish school, which formed a kind of continuation school for those who required more than was given by the *Gemeindeschule*, instruction in German was given to all, and German was the language of instruction in the upper classes. In the *Gemeindeschulen*, German was optional throughout, and instruction was in the mother-tongue. Russian was here taught to all. Attendance was compulsory at the Communal Schools, not at the Parish School. At the former, education was also free. The Primary Schools in the towns were controlled, not by the *Oberlandeschulbehörde*, but by the municipalities concerned; and by a curious arrangement, which is noteworthy as a relic of the Alexandrine system, the immediate oversight over them was entrusted to the directors of the local gymnasia, acting under the Curator.

When the organisation of elementary instruction, above described, had reached its full development, the Baltic system of education, taken as a whole, was exclusive and self-contained to a degree unparalleled elsewhere in the Russian Empire. The higher institutions, from the University down to the District-schools, were indeed under the direct control of the Ministry of Public Instruction, but their peculiar local character was preserved by the use of German as the language of instruction, which practically confined the choice of teachers and head-masters, even in State-supported gymnasia, to graduates of the University of Dorpat. In the case of the lower schools German influence was equally well secured by the highly-developed system of local control. It was no wonder, therefore, that the educated classes of the provinces, proud as they were of their German descent and their traditions of Western culture, should have conceived the idea of preserving the Baltic Provinces by means of their educational system as an independent cultural unit within the Empire. It has always been maintained, and doubtless with sincerity, by the Baltic Germans themselves, that these aims contained no element of political disaffection. Certainly, the history of two centuries had given ample proof that the Tsars had no more loyal subjects, and no more zealous servants, than the Germans of the Baltic Provinces. Their intellectual training and their administrative talent had always won for them an influential position in the Russian bureaucracy; and they professed themselves not prouder of their German lineage than they were of the

long succession of famous men which the Baltic land had given to the service of the Russian State. Their ideal of cultural independence was not perhaps in its nature incompatible with political subjection. Nevertheless it was natural that the Russians should look with jealousy on the divided sympathies which such ideals involved, especially in view of the recent unification of Germany and the growth of race feeling among the German-speaking peoples. Even apart from political considerations, the ideal of cultural independence came into direct conflict with the principles of Slavophilism, the starting-point and *raison d'être* of which was the challenge it flung out to the claims of German culture. In proportion as the Slavophil doctrines found acceptance in Russian society, the antagonism which existed between them and the educational aims of the Baltic gentry became more and more manifest, and when, under Alexander III., Slavophilism became a controlling element in the policy of the State, the issue of the struggle between the two opposing ideals of culture could no longer be doubtful.

Moreover, it may well be doubted whether, under the most favourable conditions, it was still possible, in the latter half of the nineteenth century, to win over the Lettish and Esthonian peasantry to German ideals. To have been successful, such a task should have been commenced centuries earlier, and we have seen how far the Baltic gentry, down to the most recent times, were from undertaking it. When at last they awoke to the necessity of this work, their opportunities had passed. The wave of national self-consciousness which had spread over Europe during the nineteenth century had reached the populations of the Baltic Provinces, and had awakened a feeling of local patriotism, which centred in the vernacular tongues, and the local folklore and traditions of the Esths and Letts. The sixties saw the rise of the Young Lettish and Young Esthonian movements, both under the leadership of young men of peasant origin, who had received a University education, and both strongly hostile to German influence. The exclusiveness of 700 years now bore its natural fruits; the German-speaking classes of the Baltic Provinces reaped what their forefathers had sown. They were caught between two fires, the policy of Russification on the one hand, and the popular Lettish and Esthonian movements on the other.

So long, however, as Alexander II. lived, the German language remained firmly entrenched in its traditional position in the schools. Even as late as 1880, when, at the instance of Saburov, real-schools were for the first time established in the Baltic Provinces, it was definitely stated, in the Regulation under which they were created, that the German language was to be used in them. But with the accession of Alexander III. there came a change. No part of the Russian Empire was more deeply affected by Alexander's nationalist policy than the Baltic Provinces. In contrast to his father, Alexander II. had a decided anti-German bias, which affected his action in more than one direction. The policy of Russification, which had been in abeyance for more than a quarter of a century, was now taken up afresh and carried out with a thoroughness and logical consistency which stood in marked contrast with the cautious and tentative methods of Uvarov's administration, and which, in the course of ten years (1884-1894), resulted in the dethronement of the German language and the almost complete extinction of German influence in the University and schools of the Baltic Provinces.

One of the first indications of the coming change was the refusal of the Tsar to confirm the privileges of the Provinces, granted by Peter and Catherine II., and ratified by all their successors. The significance of this will be appreciated if it be remembered that the acknowledgment of German as the official language of the Provinces was one of the conditions embodied in the Capitulations. The definite announcement that these privileges would not be ratified came in 1885. Meanwhile, the campaign of Russification had already been opened, and, significantly enough, the first blow was aimed at the *Kreisschulen*, which, as we have seen, were the chief means by which the young Letts and Esths acquired a literary knowledge of German, and therefore the most effective instruments of the Germanizing policy. In accordance with a circular issued by the Curator, Kapustin, an old Professor

of Kazan, these schools were converted into Urban Schools of the ordinary Russian type, with Russian as the language of instruction. They were thus, by a single stroke of the pen, turned into instruments of Russification. The full execution of the plan was deferred for three years; but a beginning was made at the Kreisschule of Mitau, with the result that the numbers in the school promptly fell from 400 to nineteen, only Jews and Poles being left in the school. A similar result followed similar measures at Riga next year.

A still more important step was the issue by Imperial authority in 1885 of the "Regulations as to the use of the Russian language in the business and correspondence of public bodies in the Baltic provinces." The gist of these Regulations, which formulated for the first time the Government policy of Russification, was as follows. All Government authorities and institutions, with certain specified exceptions, were henceforth to conduct their business and correspondence entirely in Russian. This rule was made to apply to bodies which consisted partly of elected persons, and partly of persons appointed by the Government; *a fortiori*, therefore, it applied to the University, in which every member of the staff was a State official. Purely local bodies, such as the Landtage and the municipalities, were still permitted to use German or other local language in their public business and "internal" correspondence, but all communications between such bodies and State authorities and institutions must be in Russian, though they might be accompanied by a German, Lettish, or Esthonian translation. The full application of the Regulations to the University was postponed for the present, but it was stated by Kapustin, in a circular dated December, 1885, that while the internal business of the University might continue to be transacted in Latin or German, all papers relating thereto which might be sent in to the State authorities must be accompanied by a *résumé* in Russian; also that all communications of the University with outside bodies or persons, and all diplomas, certificates, etc., issued by the University, were to be in Russian, permission being given, in the case of the latter kind of documents, to add to the Russian text a translation into "Latin, or any other language." No further steps were taken in relation to the University until 1889, except that the Government adopted the policy from 1885 onwards of making appointments to vacant chairs conditional on the accepted candidate's undertaking to lecture in Russian, whenever called upon to do so.

Meanwhile the work of Russifying the secondary and primary schools was energetically taken in hand. Already in 1885 a curatorial circular had greatly strung up the requirements in respect of knowledge of Russian in the gymnasias, especially at the completion of the course. Full mastery of the language was now required from *Abiturienten*, and the highest success in other subjects was no longer to atone for failure to get the highest mark in Russian. Moreover, all teachers of the classical languages had henceforth to be graduates of a Russian University, teachers from Germany being thus practically excluded. Two years later, at the instance of Manassein, who had recently completed a special visitation of the provinces, the decision was taken by the Committee of Ministers to make Russian the language of instruction in all boys' schools having the rights and privileges of State schools. The Imperial ukaz to this effect was issued in April, 1887, but the regulation was modified in November of the same year to the extent of allowing the use of the native language of the pupils in religious instruction, the decision as to what was the native language in any given case being left to the Government officials on the spot. A beginning was made in August in the secondary schools maintained by the Crown by introducing Russian as the language of instruction, either in certain subjects, such as history and geography, or in the whole range of instruction in certain classes. In five years, however, the use of the language was to have been extended to all subjects and all classes. This measure was next year applied also to the schools maintained by the towns and the noblesse. Vainly the Landtage and the Municipalities petitioned to be allowed to retain the schools as German-speaking institutions on the footing of private schools, i.e., without the right of entry to the Universities and other State privileges, or on condition of establishing special

classes in Russian when the school course was over. Their petitions to this effect being refused, they declined any longer to maintain the schools, and, in the course of the next few years, the gymnasia of Birkenruhe (founded as lately as 1882), of Fellin and of Holdingen, with the Ritter-und Domschule of Reval, were gradually closed.

The same measure was meted out to girls' schools as to those for boys. Apart, on the one hand, from the two purely Russian gymnasia at Reval and Riga, which were State institutions, and, on the other, from private schools, there were in the Baltic Provinces some twenty girls' schools with over 3,300 pupils, which were maintained by municipalities or by endowments. The first step in the direction of subjecting these schools to more effective State control was taken in July, 1888, when schools with more than four classes were placed under the supervision of the Curator of the District, those with less than four under that of the directors and inspectors of primary schools. On 17th April, 1890, the measures of Russification which had already been applied to boys' schools were extended to those for girls, the Minister being directed gradually to introduce Russian as the language of instruction in all such schools, except for religious teaching, beginning with the lower classes or with individual subjects. Finally, by the law of 23rd May, 1889, Russian was made obligatory for all schools, public or private, the Minister being entrusted by the Committee of Ministers with the duty of carrying the law into effect gradually. The intention of this enactment was to prevent the evasion of the law of April, 1887, above referred to. As a matter of fact, after the refusal of the Government to allow the noblesse and the municipalities to turn the schools maintained by them into private schools, these bodies had begun to subscribe liberally to existing private schools, with the view of improving their efficiency, and thus enabling these schools, which were still taught in German, to take the place of the schools which had been closed. By the law of May, 1889, which affected no less than 335 private schools with 13,660 pupils, the German language was cut off from its last refuge in the secondary education of the Baltic Provinces.

In dealing with the primary schools a somewhat different line of action was necessary. Here there could be no question of introducing Russian universally as the language of instruction, since even the German squires and pastors had not attempted to supersede the use of the local languages for this purpose. The object of the Government was to break the connection of the schools with the Lutheran Church, to remove the gentry, and especially the pastors, from their former position of authority and control, and to place the Russian language in at least as favourable a position in the schools as German had formerly occupied. In February, 1886, the schools and teachers' seminaries were transferred from the control and administration of the Ministry of the Interior to that of the Ministry of Public Instruction. In January of the following year, Directors of Primary Schools—at first one, but afterwards three—with a corresponding number of inspectors, were appointed to supervise primary instruction, together with private schools and private teaching. The way having been thus prepared, the final step was taken in May, 1887, by the issue of temporary Regulations for the administration of the Primary Schools of the three provinces. According thereto, the Livonian Supreme Board and its district boards (or the corresponding bodies in the two other provinces), with the bodies subordinate to them, and the school commissions of the towns, were placed in dependence upon the Ministry of Public Instruction; the Director of Primary Schools was made a member of the supreme body in each province, and the inspectors members of the district boards in the areas under their inspection. All matters of difference arising in the boards were to be referred for decision to the Ministry. The pastors were confined to the oversight of the religious instruction. For all subjects except religion, Russian was to have paramount importance; the local language was to be used as an aid to teaching during the first period (the first two years) of instruction; but in the third year Russian was to be introduced. All rules and instructions issued by the Supreme Boards were to be subject to confirmation by the Minister. The Curator's Council at Dorpat (acting under

the advice of a special Committee of Experts) was to decide all matters affecting text-books in the local languages.

The general effect of these changes was to subordinate the provincial boards, whose control of primary education had hitherto been virtually supreme, to the authority of the Ministry of Public Instruction. The nobles and clergy were furious at the changes, and the inevitable result followed. The nobles retaliated by withdrawing support from the schools, over which they no longer possessed an effective control, and by closing the seminaries for teachers. To replace the Dorpat Seminary, which was closed in 1889, a new seminary was established at Balk in 1894; and in 1891 the seminaries at Gatchina and Pskov were thrown open to Lutheran candidates of Finnish, Lettish or Esthonian nationality. It was not so easy to supply the deficiency arising from the withdrawal by the squires of financial support from the schools. The sums assigned by the State Treasury for this purpose proved entirely inadequate, and primary education, especially in the rural districts, entered upon a prolonged period of depression, which can hardly yet be said to have completely passed by.

We now return to the history of the steps taken to Russify the University. In 1889 it became necessary, owing to the introduction into the Baltic Provinces of the judicial reforms of Alexander II., to reorganise the Faculty of Law in the University of Dorpat. The change consisted in the suppression of certain chairs in local and international law, and the provision of new chairs for the teaching of various branches of Russian law. It therefore involved a very considerable change in the personnel of the teaching staff of the Faculty; and it was resolved, in pursuance of the policy already adopted, to introduce Russian as the language of instruction for all the newly created professorships. Here, however, the autonomous constitution of the University stood in the way, and as Delianov declared it was useless to expect the University Council, consisting, as it did, mainly of German professors, to appoint Russian-speaking persons to the new posts, power was given to him by an ukaz dated February 4th, 1889, to fill up the vacant chairs on his own initiative. The obligation to use Russian as the language of instruction was soon extended to all subjects in the Law Faculty, one of the reasons of special urgency assigned being the fact that Russian was now being made the language of official business throughout the provinces. From October, 1891, onwards, all the internal business of the Law Faculty had to be transacted in Russian.

As a necessary preliminary to further measures for the Russification of the University, its autonomous constitution was finally abolished in November, 1889, the University Statute being assimilated in all essential points to the general Statute of 1884. Next month the Curator asked the University to supply him with information as to which of the Russian subjects on the staff at present lecturing in German would be able, either immediately, or in the course of the next educational year, to substitute Russian for German in their lectures, and which would require a further period of grace. On receipt of the information asked for, Delianov fixed the limit of time during which the change was to be completed at two years. It is to be observed that this decision did not affect teachers of foreign nationality, who at the beginning of the reign of Alexander III. numbered no less than nineteen (all Germans) out of a total of forty-four. No rule has even yet been laid down prescribing the language to be used by professors of foreign nationality.

During 1891 and 1892 the temporary regulations made in 1885 with reference to the use of Russian in the official business of the University were all modified in the direction of greater stringency. From October 1891, the diplomas were no longer accompanied by a German translation and prospectuses of lectures, lists of professors, matriculation lists, &c., had all to be drawn up in Russian. In October, 1892, it was ordered that the minutes of the Council and the Pravlenie should be kept in Russian, though the concession was made a little later that a German translation might be added, which was, however, to possess no official value. In November, 1892, Russian was made the language of official business in all faculties and in all societies and other

similar institutions connected with the University. A supplementary series of circulars completed the process of Russification by prescribing Russian as the language to be used in examinations for teachers' certificates in all examinations and "disputations" conducted by professors who lectured in Russian in dissertations for learned degrees, presented by candidates who had completed their gymnasium course in Russian; and in the addresses delivered at the anniversary celebrations. Finally, by the examination regulations issued in September, 1893, the standard of knowledge of Russian required from students of Russian nationality (with certain exceptions) was very considerably raised.

By the end of 1894, therefore, the process of Russification, so far as Government measures were concerned, was complete. The effect of the process has undoubtedly been to modify profoundly the whole character of education in the Provinces, and the strongest advocates of the Russifying policy would not maintain that this result has been attained without some sacrifice of educational efficiency. The determining factor in the situation has been the stubborn opposition offered by the educated German-speaking classes to the measures of the Government. The withdrawal of the financial support formerly given by the squires to the rural primary schools has thrown the maintenance of these schools entirely upon the local communities aided to a very small extent by the State, and has thus greatly crippled their usefulness and impeded their progress. Recent accounts, however, appear to show that the primary schools are beginning to recover lost ground.* Secondary education has suffered still more severely, partly owing to the closure of a great number of schools, both public and private, partly owing to the use of foreign language for purposes of instruction and partly because the change of system caused the retirement of a considerable number of experienced teachers and headmasters, many of whom found employment in Germany. The results of the change are perhaps most strikingly manifest in the University of Dorpat. There has been an increasing tendency on the part of the German gentry and intellectual classes to seek university education for their sons at German Universities. The number of students at Dorpat has nevertheless, not been allowed to decrease, since the places formerly occupied by the sons of the Baltic gentry have been filled by Russian youths, many of whom for one reason or another, have been unable to find admission into a purely Russian University, or have been excluded therefrom.† For example, Dorpat now shares with Warsaw and Tomsk the right to admit candidates holding the leaving certificate of the Russian Ecclesiastical Seminary. The regulation of 1899 (see p. 154) by which students from the Vilna District cannot proceed to any other university than Dorpat has also increased the proportion of Russians studying there. At the same time the number of German-speaking professors at Dorpat has tended constantly

* The total number of primary schools in the three provinces in 1904 was 2,971 (Livonia, 1,769; Esthonia, 645; Kurland, 563) as compared with 3,007 in 1886 (Livonia, 1,804; Esthonia, 662; Kurland, 541). The increase in the number of scholars attending these schools has been, roughly speaking, proportionate to the increase in the population, viz., 19 per cent. in eighteen years. Statistics show, however, that Orthodox schools have increased since 1886 at the expense of Lutheran schools, e.g., the number of Lutheran schools in Livonia fell between 1886 and 1904 from 1,242 to 1,081, while other schools increased from 568 to 681.

† The statements in the text are borne out by the following statistics of students attending the Dorpat University:—

Year.	Students.	Number of students from Baltic schools.	Percentage of Baltic student
1881	- - - - 1,065	881	83 per cent.
1891	- - - - 1,694	1,241	73 "
1897	- - - - 1,098	450	41 "
1898	- - - - 1,373	431	31 "
1899	- - - - 1,455	399	28 "

The latest available statistics (those for 1901) show the following distribution of students by religious belief:—Orthodox, 1,069; Roman Catholic, 58; Lutheran, 477; Jews, 133; other creeds, 9; total, 1,766.

to diminish, all vacancies being of course filled up by Russian-speaking candidates. The University is rapidly becoming, therefore, a thoroughly Russian institution, not only in respect of the language used in instruction, but in respect of the *personnel* both of teachers and taught. And thus the function which its history and geographical position seemed alike to point out to the University of Dorpat—that of serving as a connecting link between Russia and Western culture—is one which it is no longer capable of performing.

B.—POLAND AND THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

The history of education in the provinces which formerly constituted the Republic of Poland has also continued down to our own time to present certain peculiar features which merit special description. This statement, though applying especially to Poland proper, i.e., the kingdom of Poland as reconstituted by Alexander I., in which the bulk of the native population was Polish in race and language, is also true to a great extent of those north-western provinces which remained part of Poland up to the time of the first partition, but in which only the aristocracy was Polish, the lower orders being either White Russian or Lithuanian. It is important, for the understanding of the educational history of the north-west provinces, to realise that at least until the suppression of the insurrection of 1863 these provinces were a kind of debateable land, as to which the views of Poles and Russians were irreconcilably opposed. The Poles regarded them as a kind of "Polonia irredenta," severed politically from Poland, but indissolubly united with her by historical, racial and intellectual interests. The Russians, on the contrary, looked upon them as essentially Russian provinces, in which by an accident of history, (the Tatar invasion) a Russian population had fallen under the temporary domination of Poland, never acknowledged the Polish claim to them, and habitually referred to them in official phraseology as the "provinces regained from Poland." The following sketch will deal with the history of education in both regions from the time of their definite incorporation with Russia, i.e., in the case of the north-west provinces from the time of the final partition, and in the case of the kingdom of Poland from the suppression of the insurrection of 1830.

We must, however, begin by noting a few of the outstanding facts in the educational history of independent Poland, which are important for their bearing on the subsequent course of events. In 1364 the University of Cracow was founded by Casimir III. Its real history, as a centre of learning, begins in 1400, when it was re-established by Queen Jadwiga, and her husband, Stanislaus Jagello. By the end of the fifteenth century it had attained considerable repute, and became the object of the special care of Sigismund I., who in 1535 ennobled all its professors and doctors. In 1564 the Jesuits first made their appearance in Poland. Their schools and colleges greatly increased in the reign of Stephen Batory (1576-1586), who also founded the University of Vilna. From this time onwards to the first partition (1772) secondary and higher education was almost entirely in the hands of the Jesuits. But in 1773 their order was suppressed by the brief *Dominus ac Redemptor*, and their property was nationalised and devoted to educational purposes. The same year the Polish Diet appointed a Commission of National Education, and entrusted it with the task of framing a national system of education. The remarkable work done by this Commission during the twenty years which preceded the final partition in 1795 has been fully described for English readers by M. Kazimierz Lutoslawski, in *St. George*, July, 1905. The system framed by them was sanctioned by the Diet in 1778. In several of its features, such as the division of the country into educational districts, the institution of three grades of schools standing in hierarchical relation to each other and to the universities, the provision of teachers' seminaries in connection with the universities, etc., the Polish system was the model and prototype for the Russian system of Alexander I.

By the final partition of 1795 Cracow passed to Austria and Vilna to Russia.

The portion of Poland which became Prussian, and which included Warsaw and the territory as far as the Niemen, contained no University. Out of this territory was formed the Grand-Duchy of Warsaw by Napoleon. Under the resettlement of 1814 the Grand-Duchy of Warsaw passed to Russia, and Alexander now formed Poland into a constitutional monarchy, with himself as hereditary king. As we have seen above, the newly constituted kingdom did not include any of the provinces of Lithuania or White Russia, which were not acknowledged by the Russians to be Polish. The administration of the kingdom was in the hands of Poles, and Polish was the official language. In 1816 the University of Warsaw was founded and was formally opened in 1818. It continued to exist until the insurrection of 1830, when it was suppressed along with the older University of Vilna. During the whole period of its existence it was entirely Polish in spirit, administration and language. Education in general during this period owed much to Stanislaus Staszic (born 1755) who had been a prominent educational worker and writer in the Republic of Poland before the partition.

That the educational system of the Kingdom of Poland should up to 1830 have been so entirely Polish, both in spirit and language, was, under existing conditions, quite in the natural order of things. It is, however, a more remarkable fact that for the greater portion of that period the educational system of the north-west provinces was *de facto* as Polish as in Poland itself. This was due to entirely personal causes, namely the personal sympathies of the men at the head of affairs. Alexander's friendship for Poland is well known; it dated from the time of the final partition, was sincere, openly avowed and consistently expressed in action. Zavadovski, the first Russian Minister of Public Instruction, was also an admirer of Poland; he had been educated at a Jesuit school in that country, spoke its language, and retained a predilection for its literature throughout his life. But the influence which directly shaped the course of affairs was that of Prince Adam Czartoryski, the patriotic Polish noble who afterwards became famous throughout Europe by his share in the Polish insurrection of 1830. As a boy Czartoryski had been sent as a kind of hostage to the court of Catherine II. and had there gained the friendship of the Grand-Duke Alexander, afterwards Emperor. On Alexander's accession to the throne, Czartoryski became one of his most intimate advisers. He was consulted by the Emperor in everything that concerned Poland, and had a large share in the drafting of the constitution of the Kingdom of Poland after the Treaty of Vienna. It was a signal mark of the Emperor's confidence in him that he was appointed Curator of the Educational District of Vilna, which comprised all the western provinces in which Polish was spoken by the upper classes. In the administration of his District, Czartoryski had practically a free hand, and used the liberty accorded to him, apparently with the full knowledge and concurrence of the Emperor, for the advancement of purely Polish ideas of culture. As to the extent to which under his régime the University and schools became centres of Polonising influences, we have the testimony of Czartoryski himself in his Memoirs. He says (p. 326): "L'Université de Vilna fut toute polonaise, et pour les provinces de cette nation, j'aurai l'occasion d'en parler plus tard; néanmoins, il me semble utile de faire remarquer ici que, durant les années qui suivirent, toute la surface de la Pologne se couvrit d'écoles, dans lesquelles le sentiment polonais eut pleine liberté de se développer. L'Université où j'appelai les savants les plus distingués de la nation, et quelques hommes éminents de l'étranger, dirigea ce mouvement avec un zèle et une intelligence qui ne laissaient rien à désirer: il ne surprit personne, et ses véritables conséquences, contre lesquelles les Russes se récrièrent plus tard, semblèrent alors découler naturellement des intentions généreuses de l'Empereur."

That the Polish tendencies of Czartoryski's administration were looked upon with favour by the Ministry of Public Instruction, at any rate during the early years of the reign, there is abundant evidence to show. There is extant, for example, a memorial addressed to Zavadovski by Thaddeus Czacki, who was Czartoryski's great coadjutor in the provinces of Little Russia, then reckoned in the Vilna District, with reference to the projected

establishment of a University at Kiev, which had been foreshadowed in the Preliminary Rules. Czacki opposed this project on the express ground, amongst others, that the wishes of the persons who would contribute towards the establishment of the University would be for instruction in Polish, and that this would be impossible in an ancient centre of Russian influence like Kiev. The Minister agreed, and the result was that the project for a University at Kiev was indefinitely postponed, and that in its place a kind of higher gymnasium, afterwards called the Volhynian Lyceum, was founded at Kremenetz (Krzemenic), in which the staff, the language of instruction, and the text-books used were exclusively Polish.

The administration of Razumovski was by no means so favourable to Czartoryski's plans as that of Zavadovski had been. Razumovski had little sympathy with Polonism, and the special indulgence shown during his administration to the Jesuits, with whom the interests of the Roman Church were always placed before those of the Polish national party, was not at all to the taste of Czartoryski. The establishment of the Polotsk Academy, as a kind of *enclave* of educational autonomy in the Vilna District, must have been particularly galling to him, since all the Jesuit Schools in the District were thus removed from his control and placed under that of the Academy. Czartoryski was abroad from 1810 to 1816. He continued in his office for eight years after his return; but his influence with Alexander was already on the wane. To this result both political and personal causes contributed; but the occasion of the final breach between them was given by the occurrence of disturbances in the University and schools of the District, which, as appears from Czartoryski's own correspondence with the Emperor, were caused by "l'esprit turbulent qui s'était réveillé dans diverses universités allemandes et la funeste manie des sociétés secrètes parmi les étudiants de ces universités." This spirit of unrest had spread from Germany to the Universities of Cracow and Warsaw, and thence had infected the sister University of Vilna. In 1823 M. N. Novosiltsev was sent on a special mission of enquiry to the Vilna District, and as the result of his report, energetic measures were taken in 1824, involving the dismissal of four professors of the University, the appointment of a Director as at St. Petersburg, the severe punishment of students who had belonged to secret societies, the exclusion of civic and political subjects from the course of the gymnasium, and lastly, the enforced resignation of Czartoryski himself. Novosiltsev was appointed Curator in 1824, and immediately set himself to reverse in many important respects his predecessor's policy. During the next six years the Vilna District, which had originally comprised all the provinces formerly belonging to Poland and which it had been Czartoryski's aim to keep intact as an administrative unit for educational purposes, was broken up by the transfer of some of the most important governments composing it to other Educational Districts. The administration of the University was reorganised: and the conversion of the schools of the Roman Catholic clergy into secular schools was resolved upon. This process of secularisation had already begun when the insurrection of 1830-1831 broke out. After the insurrection was put down it proceeded still more rapidly, and steps were at once taken to introduce Russian as the language of instruction in all the schools of Little and White Russia. The Universities of Vilna and Warsaw, which had served as foci of the revolutionary spirit, were both suppressed, and the administration of the schools of Poland passed into the hands of the Russian Ministry of Public Instruction.

The policy adopted during the administration of Uvarov in relation to Poland and the Polish-speaking provinces is more than once explicitly stated in his official reports, particularly in the *Desiatiletie*. The "provinces regained from Poland" were treated quite differently from Poland proper. With regard to the former, Uvarov's action, though described by himself as being too moderate to satisfy the extreme Russian party, amounted to a complete reversal of the Polonising policy of Czartoryski. As late as 1829 special provision had been made for the training of teachers of Polish for the western provinces; but this arrangement was brought to an end

in 1836, the reason officially given being that the Russian language had made unexpected progress even in the primary schools of the western governments. All Polish teaching ceased in Little Russia in 1835, in Vitebsk and Mohilev in 1836, and in Vilna, Grodno and Kovno in 1838. The teaching of Russian was correspondingly encouraged, and a thorough knowledge of it was made an indispensable qualification for admission to the fourteenth rank of *chin*. That many of the Polish nobility of the western provinces were far from acquiescing in this suppression of their language in the schools is evident from the fact that in 1846 it became necessary to forbid natives of the western provinces to attend the schools of Poland, where the instruction was still given in Polish. The Polish University of Vilna was not restored, but its place was supplied by the new University of St. Vladimir, a thoroughly Russian institution planted at Kiev, "the mother of Russian cities," whose history had been entwined with that of the Russian nation since the earliest dawn of civilisation.

The policy of establishing State gymnasia with boarding-houses in connection with them was specially favoured by Uvarov in the west, since supervision over such establishments was so much more easily exercised than over the private boarding-schools which they were intended to replace. Similar motives led him to establish a number of girls' schools, which were intended to compete with the Catholic convent schools, to which the nobles had long been accustomed to send their daughters. These convent-schools were also subjected to increased supervision, and in the forties many of them were closed altogether, their funds being devoted to the secular education of girls. Uvarov also continued the policy initiated by his predecessors of closing gradually the boys' schools kept by the Catholic clergy. Generally speaking, the policy of the Government was to substitute State schools for private schools in the education of the upper classes, and to assimilate in every way the educational system of the western provinces to that prevailing in the rest of Russia.

In Poland proper the measures taken were different. Though the Polish provinces were administered from St. Petersburg, and from 1839 formed a separate Educational District under the Ministry of Public Instruction, the system of education in Poland continued throughout the reign of Nicholas to exhibit some important distinctive features. Side by side, for example, with the classical gymnasia, the School Statute of 1840 made provision for real-schools, which were to have a technical, commercial, or agricultural bias in accordance with local requirements, and a system of craft-schools was also established in the manufacturing towns. The encouragement of real and technical education, which was reasonable in view of the more advanced industrial development of Poland, as compared with Russia, became still more marked as time went on. All the schools were taught in Polish, and the Polish language was a subject of instruction both in the gymnasia and the district-schools. The policy of leaving Polish in practically its former position in the schools of Poland is repeatedly defended by Uvarov in his reports on the ground that greater circumspection was needed in dealing with Poland than with the western governments, or even the Baltic Provinces. "There has been," he says in the *Desiatiletie*, "no oppressive order for the introduction of the Russian language in schools; instead of this, I have endeavoured, while meeting all reasonable local demands, to instil into the minds of the Poles respect for Russian culture, confidence in the aims of the Government, and a clear, if not openly avowed, consciousness of the good intentions of the Ministry." Of this conciliatory policy, however, the restoration of a Polish University formed no part. The suppression of the University of Warsaw continued throughout the reign of Nicholas, with the twofold object of compelling the Polish youth to seek higher education at the Universities of Russia, and of ensuring that the teachers required for the Polish schools should have received their academical training in a Russian atmosphere.

The general policy of Uvarov was continued by his immediate successors during the reign of Nicholas. The accession of Alexander II. inaugurated

a still more liberal *régime*, both in relation to the western provinces and to Poland. In 1858 the teaching of Polish, which during the reign of Nicholas had ceased throughout the western provinces, except in a few private schools, was reintroduced in the schools of the Vilna District, and two years later Polish was even made an optional subject of instruction in the Educational District of Kiev. These concessions were withdrawn only after the insurrection of 1863.

The educational measures taken by the Government after the suppression of the insurrection were due to the initiative of Muraviev, who in 1863, as Dictator of the North-Western District, criticised very severely the results of the educational policy of Uvarov and his successors. He asserted that the system of encouraging the increase of State secondary schools, which the Ministry had adopted as a means of drawing off the children of the Polish-speaking nobles from the private schools, had been a complete mistake, inasmuch as these State schools had simply been used as the avenue to influential posts in the public service, which had thus become crowded with persons disaffected to Russian rule. He maintained that the efforts of the Government should rather have been concentrated on the instruction of the Orthodox peasant population, and he therefore advocated the closing of as many as possible of the existing secondary schools, replacing them in the towns by two-class schools in which no Polish should be taught, and taking energetic steps to cover the whole of the western provinces with a number of Russian primary schools for the rural population. A project of law introduced by Muraviev in 1864 into the Western Committee in order to give effect to these views was approved by the Emperor; and the policy embodied in it was carried into effect during the next few years. The necessity of having Russian teachers for the primary schools of the western provinces led to the establishment of the first Russian Teachers' Seminary. From this time forward all recognition of the Polish language ceased outside the boundaries of Poland proper. In 1892 Russian even replaced Lithuanian and other local languages in the religious teaching given in primary schools throughout the Vilna District, except during the first year of instruction. It appears, however, from official statements on the subject, that schools with Polonising and Catholicising aims continued to exist secretly in the west at least as lately as 1892, as is attested by the issue in that year of "Temporary Regulations as to penalties for secret teaching in the North-West and South-West governments."

We return to the history of education in the Kingdom of Poland. In 1861 the educational administration of the country passed from the Ministry of Public Instruction to the newly created "Government Commission for Public Worship and Popular Instruction" in Poland. A Polish noble, the Marquis Wisłopolski, was appointed Director of Public Instruction, and in 1862 the educational system of the country was remodelled. The Statute of the 8th May of that year fully preserved the Polish character of the secondary schools, and in addition proposed to create a system of lower schools of various types, both special and general, which should be supervised by local governing bodies mainly composed of the nobles and the clergy. Higher education was also provided for by the institution of the *Główna Szkoła*, or High School, at Warsaw, which was organised on the model of a university, with four Faculties, viz., of Medicine, of Law, of Physics and Mathematics, and of History and Philology.

The system of education established by the Statute of 1862 had hardly got into working order when the insurrection broke out. The attitude of the Government towards Polish education after the suppression of the insurrection was at first a liberal and sympathetic one. The Imperial Rescript to Berg on his appointment as Dictator in August, 1864, laid down that the general features of the system of 1862 were to be preserved, though precautions should be taken against the possibility of the schools being used for the furtherance of political aims, and against the danger of the non-Polish elements in the population falling under Polish influence. Each nationality represented in Poland—whether Polish, Russian, German, or

Lithuanian—should have its own schools, especially of the elementary grade, which should be taught in the mother-tongue of the children attending them, and the attitude of the State towards these schools should be one of strict impartiality. The Rescript laid down the guiding principles of the system of secondary and higher education, and foreshadowed the conversion of the Warsaw High School into a University. Steps were at once taken to re-establish the primary schools, which were entrusted to the immediate care of the village communes, oversight on behalf of the State being exercised by ten Directors, each of whom had a district of his own. A number of girls' schools were founded on the model of those recently started in Russia. Two years later, in 1866, a Statute for Secondary Schools was issued; and in 1867 steps were taken to reconstitute the Warsaw High School as the Warsaw University.

But by this time the policy of the Government had undergone a change, and the actual course of events during the next five years stands in marked contrast with the liberal spirit of the Rescript to Berg. The first indication of the change of standpoint was afforded by the University Statute. As first introduced into the Council of Administration for Poland, the project was for a *Polish* University. This met with strong opposition from Cherkasski and other members of the Council. Meanwhile, Witte, who had succeeded Wielopolski as Director of Public Instruction in Poland, had presented a report to the Emperor, in which he declared the continued existence of the Warsaw High School as a Polish institution to be positively harmful. This report was approved by the Emperor, and the fate of the project for a Polish University was thenceforth sealed. The Ministry of Public Instruction shortly afterwards resumed control over Polish education; and under the influence of Count D. Tolstoi, not only did the Statute in its final form make provision for the creation of a purely Russian University, but the principle of direct control by the State was as strongly affirmed as in the case of the Russian Universities under the Statute of 1835. The Rector and Inspector must be Russians, and were appointed directly by the Government. The University Council at first shared with the Minister (or the Curator, in the case of minor posts) the right to fill up vacant chairs; but in 1872 this right was withdrawn from the Council and vested in the representatives of the Government alone. Discipline was placed in the hands of the Inspector and a special court of professors. Russian was made obligatory as the language of instruction in all subjects, and also as the language of University business, of dissertations, speeches, and students' prize compositions. In order to attract Russians to occupy posts in the University, special privileges were attached to the service of the State in Poland. Tolstoi now proceeded to apply the same policy to the secondary schools, which in point of language were of four varieties, Polish, German, Russian, and mixed schools. In 1868 the process began with the introduction of Russian as the language of instruction in physico-mathematical and historical subjects in Polish schools, and in universal history and geography in German schools. Next year the use of Russian was made universally obligatory for all public schools alike, though private schools were for the present allowed to continue the use of Polish in certain subjects. In extending the operation of the Statutes of 1871 and 1872 to Poland (see p. 124), a significant omission was made by the Government. No "honorary Curators" were to be appointed in Poland, since the Ministry of Public Instruction considered that "to permit the smallest share in the administration to the Polish gentry or clergy would awake in frivolous minds the hope of a return to the old system of control over the schools by the squires and priests, which during the time of its supremacy," *i.e.*, under the Statute of 1862, "had caused the education of the country to take a direction incompatible with the principles of Imperial unity, which form the basis of the present system of education of the local population."

The Russification of the primary schools proceeded somewhat more slowly. In 1871 it was ordered that the instruction in these schools should "so far as possible" be given in Russian; but it was not until 1885 that Russian was definitely made compulsory as the language of instruction in all subjects,

except religion and Polish. The teaching of Russian reading and writing was made obligatory from 1872 onwards. A step which had important and far-reaching consequences was taken in 1871 with regard to the appointment of teachers in primary schools. By the Law of 1864 the choice of teachers rested with the *gminy* and village communities. Tolstoi complained that the effect of this was to place the appointments practically in the hands of the local gentry and clergy; and in 1871 the right of appointment was transferred to the Directors of Primary Schools. In 1879 a further step was taken. The then Curator, Apuktin, received instructions not to admit Catholic priests to teach religion in the schools, or to do so only with great caution, on the ground that whenever admitted they exercised undue influence over the whole conduct of the school.

The total effect of these modifications of the Law of 1864 has been unfortunate for Polish primary education. The withdrawal from the village communities of the right to appoint the teachers has led to a great slackening of local interest in education; the absence of religious instruction in the Catholic faith by persons qualified to give it has caused distrust and dislike of the schools among the poorer classes; and finally the exclusion of the nobles and clergy from all active part in the work of primary education has caused the educated classes of Poland to assume a hostile attitude to the schools, and has cut off an important source of income from them. It is for these reasons that primary education has made less progress in Poland than in Russia during the last thirty years. Attention was repeatedly drawn by Governors-General (*e.g.*, by Albedinski in 1881, by Gourko in 1889) to the decline of popular education in Poland, but the influence of Delianov was steadily exerted against any change in the existing system. The question of the exclusion of the clergy from the schools was raised by Gourko in 1889, and after long debate in the Committee of Ministers—in the course of which Delianov declared that “it was better not to have schools than to have them guided by the Catholic clergy”—a compromise was arrived at according to which:—

- (1) Petitions from local communities, asking that the parish priests should be allowed to teach in the schools should be submitted for decision to local educational [State] officials acting in conference with the provincial authorities, and that in case of any difference of opinion, the matter should be decided by the Governor-General.
- (2) In no case should the teaching of the Roman Catholic religion be entrusted to persons of other communions. (Complaints had been made that in default of priests to teach religion, this duty had been undertaken by Lutheran or Orthodox head teachers.)

This arrangement was confirmed by the Emperor on March 16th, 1892. Unfortunately, however, the effect of the regulation was very largely destroyed by a subsequent circular, placing religious teaching by Catholic priests under very close supervision by the provincial authorities and the police. The result was that very few petitions were sent in by the local communities, and even now the teaching of religion by Catholic priests in Polish primary schools remains exceptional.

During the last few years there have not been wanting signs that the Government is disposed to modify its Russifying policy in Poland. It is now known that the first impulse in this direction was given by a report made in 1898 by Prince Imeretinski, who was Governor-General of Poland from 1897 to 1900. This report dealt with the social dangers likely to arise from the growing impoverishment of the Polish peasants, and pointed out that an improvement of their economic position could only be expected as the result of better education, both general and technical. But as things were, the existing schools being Russian in language and non-Catholic in spirit, failed to attract the Polish peasant, whose confidence would only be won by schools which recognised his own language and religion. The report further pointed out that compulsory use of Russian in teaching prevented the increase of technical schools, which were essential to the development of industries;

and here again, the recommendation was made that the policy of Russification should be relaxed so as to permit of the foundation of Polish schools.

The considerations advanced in this report have caused the educational authorities to modify somewhat their attitude towards the use of Polish in schools. Since the administration of D. Tolstoi the teaching of Polish in secondary schools had been permitted only as a non-obligatory subject for an average of three hours a week ; but all instruction in the subject had to be given in Russian. In 1899, in accordance with a decision of the Committee of Ministers, the use of Polish was permitted in the gymnasia for the teaching of Polish. The effect of this permission was, however, much weakened by some ministerial instructions issued in 1901, which hedged about the use of Polish with many restrictions. In 1900 the program of studies for real-schools in Poland gave a place in the ordinary curriculum to the Polish language and literature. In June, 1905, a still more important resolution of the Committee of Ministers allowed Polish to be used in primary schools in the teaching of Arithmetic, Polish and Religion. In other words, all subjects except Russian could under this resolution be taught in primary schools in the mother-tongue of the scholars.

CHAPTER II.

THE PRESENT POSITION AND ORGANISATION OF EDUCATION IN RUSSIA.

PRELIMINARY OBSERVATIONS.

The task of describing the existing organisation of education in the Russian Empire is much complicated by the fact that many of the great Departments of Government, in addition to the Ministry of Public Instruction, are concerned in the administration of public education, and that therefore a great variety of methods of organisation and control are to be found existing side by side. The difficulty of obtaining a general idea of this somewhat complicated machinery is, however, considerably reduced if we adhere to the accepted division of educational institutions into "general" and "special," and bear in mind that as a rule the Ministry of Public Instruction is entrusted with the control of the places of general education, while the schools and colleges with specialised curricula are under the supervision of other Departments of State specially interested in their efficiency. Thus the Universities, gymnasia, progymnasia, real-schools, and an important part of the primary schools are administered by the Ministry of Public Instruction; but the theological academies and seminaries are under the control of the Holy Synod, commercial schools under that of the Ministry of Finance, agricultural schools under that of the Ministry of Agriculture and Imperial Domains, certain Engineering Institutes are maintained by the Ministry of Ways of Communication, and so on.

To this general rule, however, there are some important exceptions. The Ministry of Public Instruction is by no means wholly restricted to the supervision of places of general education, since the great majority of intermediate and primary technical and trade schools are also under its control. On the other hand, a considerable number of places of general education are under the administration of other Departments. In the field of primary instruction, the schools of the Holy Synod outnumber somewhat those belonging to the Ministry of Public Instruction, while the soldiers' schools under the Ministry of War, and the orphan schools (*privately*) under the Ministry of the Interior contribute a not inconsiderable quota to the total provision for primary instruction. Again, among secondary schools giving a general education should certainly be classed the schools for the daughters of the clergy, administered by the Holy Synod, and to a large extent also the ecclesiastical seminaries. An important part in the secondary education of girls is also borne by the institutes and gymnasia under the Department of

the Institutions of the Empress Maria. Finally, certain aristocratic boarding-schools, of which the Alexander Lyceum may serve as the type, and which give a general education partly of the secondary and partly of the University type, are attached to various Departments of State other than the Ministry of Public Instruction.

It may be necessary at this point to remind the English reader that when we speak of particular educational institutions as belonging to such and such a Department of State in Russia, it must not be assumed that these institutions are necessarily supported, wholly or in part, by the State. Certain kinds of schools and colleges, as for example the Universities and most of the classical gymnasia, are in fact so supported; others, *e.g.*, some of the higher technical colleges, real-schools and primary schools, are maintained partly by State subventions and partly by funds locally contributed; others again, including nearly half of the primary schools and some of the most important places of technical and commercial instruction, depend almost wholly on local funds, with little or no aid from the Imperial Treasury; and finally, many are private venture schools, pure and simple. These distinctions, however, make practically no difference to the kind and degree of control exercised by the State. The State in Russia assumes control of all educational institutions, however provided and maintained, dictates their curricula, and assures itself by exactly the same means in private as in State-provided schools that its requirements have been complied with. Private schools are officially recognised as existing in order to co-operate with the views of the Government, and the English idea of a school as having rights in the shape of freedom from Government inspection and the like which it can barter away to the State in exchange for Treasury grants or other privileges is one which is entirely foreign to Russian habits of thought.

In the following account of Russian educational institutions we shall endeavour to state in each case the Department of State to which the particular school or college referred to belongs; but where this information is not afforded, it may be taken for granted that the institution is under the control of the Ministry of Public Instruction. In the first section of this chapter a general survey is taken of the educational provision existing in the Russian Empire. For this purpose we observe the usual classification of places of education as *general* and *special*, the difference between them consisting partly in their curricula, but mainly in the fact that while institutions of the latter kind prepare their students for some definite career in life, those placed in the former category pursue the aim of general culture. This general survey is followed by a description of the organisation of education in the chief Government Departments concerned; the succeeding section of the chapter gives a summary account of the instruction given in the more important and typical places of education, both general and special; and the fourth and last section is devoted to the consideration of some of the general features of the Russian educational system.

Much of the statistical information given in this chapter is based upon the official accounts of Russian education prepared for the Paris Exhibition of 1900, among which we ought especially to mention the chapter on education incorporated in the excellent publication of the Ministry of Finance entitled "Russia at the end of the XIXth Century" (*Rossia v kontsie XIX vieka*). In regard to primary education much use has been made of the official publication of the Ministry of Public Instruction entitled "Statistics of Primary Instruction for the Year 1898"; (*Statisticheskie Svedeniia po nachal'nomu obrazovaniiu v Rossiiskoi Imperii, Danniia 1898 goda*). But later sources of information have, wherever possible, been consulted, and statistics corrected in accordance therewith.

I.—GENERAL SURVEY OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS.

I.—PLACES OF GENERAL EDUCATION:

Among these the most important are the Universities, of which there are nine, viz., those of Moscow, St. Petersburg, Kharkov, Kazan, Kiev (University of St. Vladimir), Odessa (the New-Russian University), Warsaw, Dorpat (Yuriev), and Tomsk. The total number of students at all nine Universities amounted in 1899 to 16,497, besides 1,109 "auditors" unattached to the Universities. The corresponding numbers were on the 1st January, 1905: students, 22,082, auditors, 1,167; and the following were the numbers of students attending each University: Moscow, 5,489; St. Petersburg, 4,508; Kiev, 3,003; Kharkov, 1,660; Dorpat, 1,766; Warsaw, 1,556; Kazan, 1,255; Odessa, 2,066; Tomsk, 779. The University of Tomsk is not yet fully organised, and at present consists of two Faculties only, Medicine and Law. The normal number of Faculties in the other Universities is four, viz., the Historico-Philological and the Physico-Mathematical Faculties, and those of Medicine and Law. At St. Petersburg, however, there is a Faculty of Oriental Languages, but no Faculty of Medicine, the place of the latter being taken by an independent institution under the War Office, viz., the Military Academy of Medicine. The Faculty of Medicine was organised at Odessa only in 1896. At Dorpat there is a Faculty of Lutheran Theology in addition to the four faculties existing at the sister Universities. The following statistics show the distribution of University students among the various Faculties on the 1st January, 1905. In the Faculty of Law there were 9,063 students; in that of Medicine (in eight Universities), 5,144; in the Physico-Mathematical Faculty (in eight Universities), 5,842; in the Historico-Philological Faculty (in eight Universities), 1,619; in the Faculty of Oriental Languages (St. Petersburg only), 267; in the Faculty of Lutheran Theology (Dorpat only), 147.

In addition to the Universities there are several institutions giving instruction up to University standard in particular branches

of learning, and thus corresponding in some measure to University Faculties. Such are :—

(1) The Historico-Philological Institute at St. Petersburg, which was founded in 1867 with the special object of supplying teachers for the gymnasia in history, literature, and the classical languages. Since 1870 a gymnasium, in which the students give lessons under the supervision of professors, has been attached to the Institute. The course of instruction corresponds generally to that of the Historico-Philological Faculty in the Universities. The staff includes a director, a professor of theology, five ordinary and five extraordinary professors, and five secondary teachers. On the 1st January, 1905, the number of students amounted to 103. The Institute is a residential college, of which the entire cost (including the maintenance of the students) is borne by the State.

(2) The Bezborodko Historico-Philological Institute at Nezhin is an institute with precisely similar objects. It was founded in 1806 by Prince Bezborodko as a kind of high school, but converted to its present purpose in 1875. On the 1st January, 1905, the number of students was eighty-five, and the staff consisted of a director, a teacher of theology, four ordinary and five extraordinary professors, with five other teachers.

(3) The Demidov Lyceum for the Study of Law at Jaroslav dates as a "school of military studies" from Alexander I.'s reign, but was re-organised as a School of Law in 1868. It has a course of four years. Its staff consists of a director, four extraordinary and two ordinary professors, assisted by several docents and other teachers. In 1904, the Lyceum was attended by 644 students.

(4) The Lazarev Institute of Oriental Languages at Moscow was founded in 1815, and consists of two divisions. The lower or gymnasium division, with eight ordinary classes and a preparatory class, has a course equivalent to that of the gymnasium. The special division has a course corresponding to that of the Faculty of Oriental Languages at St. Petersburg, its staff consisting of a director, four professors, a docent, and other teachers. The number of students in 1904 was eighty-seven, with thirteen unattached auditors.

(5) The Institute of Oriental Languages, established at Vladivostok in 1899, had 125 students in attendance in January, 1904. It has a four years' course, and its curriculum includes Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Manchurian, Mongolian, and English, with law, political economy, and other general subjects.

(6) The Imperial Lyceum of the Tsarevich Nicholas at Moscow, privately founded in 1869, has two divisions, the lower, which provides secondary instruction such as is given in the ordinary gymnasia and the higher, or University division. The lower division has a course of eight years, exclusive of the year spent in the preparatory class. The University division has a three years' course, during which the students attend lectures given by the professors of the University of Moscow in the various faculties. Twenty-four students attended the Lyceum in 1899.

(7) The Archæological Institute of St. Petersburg, founded mainly for purposes of post-graduate study, is specially concerned with Russian archæology. Its staff is largely composed of professors of the University of St. Petersburg. On the 1st January, 1899, the number of students was sixty-five, together with 130 unattached auditors.

(8) The Imperial Alexander Lyceum, which, like some of the institutions already mentioned, combines the functions of a secondary school with those of a place of higher learning, will be described more fully in the third section of this chapter.

(9) The Imperial School of Law is an institution of the same type as the Alexander Lyceum, *i.e.*, it is a boarding school and at the same time a residential college. It consists of two divisions in four classes with a curriculum corresponding to that of the gymnasias; the higher division contains three classes taking a specialised course in Law. The staff includes a director, a professor of ecclesiastical law, four ordinary and six extraordinary professors, with a considerable number of other teachers. The institution is under the control of the Ministry of Justice; and its special aim is to prepare officials for service under that Ministry, though its alumni are also free to enter the public service in other Departments. The number of its pupils at the beginning of 1899 was 107.

University Extension.—Since 1895 a movement has been on foot in Russia, which like the University Extension movement in this country, aims at the spread of higher education among persons who find a course at the University out of their reach. The peculiar conditions prevailing in Russia have, however, caused the movement to develop there on somewhat different lines from those which it has followed in England or America. In a country where the right of public assembly is so severely restricted as in Russia, it is obvious that a system of University Extension based chiefly on lectures would stand but a poor chance of success; and in point of fact an attempt made by some St. Petersburg Professors a few years ago to start a course of extension lectures in the capital with the avowed object of supplementing the defects of secondary instruction was stopped at the outset by the Ministry of Public Instruction on the ground that such lectures were not provided for by the existing law. Moreover, the immense distances which often separate the larger centres of population in Russia from each other and the comparative slowness of locomotion would also prove serious obstacles in the way of the travelling lecturer. The Russian system therefore aims chiefly at the direction of private study, whilst to public lectures is assigned only a subordinate and unessential position. The scheme has been admirably planned and carried out by the "Commission for the Organisation of Home Reading," which has its head-quarters at Moscow and is a kind of offshoot of the Society for the Spread of Technical Knowledge. The Commission issues programs of systematic study, each comprising a course of four years, in the following branches of knowledge: (1) Mathematics; (2) Physics and

Chemistry ; (3) Biology ; (4) Philosophy ; (5) Law and Social Sciences ; (6) History ; and (7) History of Literature. These programs, which are very carefully written and, judging by the number of copies sold, must be used by large numbers of persons who do not enrol themselves as regular readers, indicate the best books for the study of each subject, give much valuable guidance to the reader as to the lines on which his study should proceed, and in particular supply a series of questions by which the student can test his own grip of the subject. Answers to these questions may also be sent up to the Commission for revision ; and the Commission undertakes in addition to this to afford help in difficulties met with by the students in the course of their work, and to look over and mark independent compositions written by the students. The annual fee charged to students taking the whole course in one of the seven branches of knowledge mentioned above is three roubles ; but a course in a single subject (*e.g.*, Astronomy, Russian History, Civil Law) may be taken for an annual fee of one rouble. The Commission arranges for the sale or loan to its readers on specially favourable terms of all books recommended in its programs.*

Secondary Schools.—Of secondary schools giving a general education the most important are the gymnasia, progymnasia

*As we shall not again refer to the work of the Home Reading Commission in this chapter, we add here in a footnote the general heads of the course in Law and Social Sciences, as an illustration of the general aim and scope of the studies directed by the Home Reading Commission.

First Year :— 1. General ideas of society, its elementary forms and the laws governing social phenomena.

2. The Theory of Political Economy

Second Year :—1. General Study of Law.

2. History of the Philosophy of Law.

3. State Law.

4. Economic History of England.

5. Economic History of Russia.

Third Year :— 1. Economic History of Russia.

2. Agricultural Economy.

3. Industrial Economy.

4. Commercial Economy.

5. Civil Law.

6. Criminal Law.

Fourth Year :—1. International Law.

2. Comparative History of Institutions.

3. Social Politics, (a) The Labour Question ; (b) Popular Education ; (c) The care of the Poor ; (d) Public Health.

4. Finance.

It will be seen that the object of the Commission is not so much to serve the interests of general culture as to enable its students, by a course of connected study, to gain a clear outlook over some one great field of human science. But it should be added that, in view of the small number of persons who are able to complete a full course of study, such as that above outlined, the Commission is now making arrangements for the episodic treatment of certain branches of knowledge, much on the lines of the detached courses of lectures given in connection with our own system of University Extension.

and real-schools under the Ministry of Public Instruction. The course of instruction in these schools is more fully described in the third section of this chapter. Here we will only add that on the 1st January, 1905, there were in Russia 220 gymnasia and 26 progymnasia (incomplete gymnasia with four or six classes), giving instruction in the aggregate to 101,815 pupils ; and 147 real-schools with 49,443 pupils.

To the category of schools giving a general education must also, on the whole, be referred two grades of schools administered by the Holy Synod, viz., the ecclesiastical schools (*dukhoynia uchilistcha*) and the ecclesiastical seminaries (*dukhoynia seminari*). Both are primarily designed for the children of the clergy, who are educated in them without charge ; but others are also admitted on payment of a fee. The funds for the support of the ecclesiastical schools are collected by the clergy of the diocese in which they are situated and the schools themselves are under the special supervision of the bishop of the diocese. They consist of four classes and have a course practically equivalent (as far as secular subjects are concerned) to that of the first four classes of the gymnasia. The seminaries are maintained directly by the Holy Synod aided by grants from the Imperial Treasury. These seminaries are the great source from which are recruited the lower ranks of the parish clergy and they also furnish a large contingent of teachers of primary schools, especially of those belonging to the Holy Synod ; but the pick of the seminary pupils enter the Ecclesiastical Academies and are there prepared for the more important clerical offices. The seminaries contain six classes. In the two highest classes much attention is for obvious reasons devoted to Theology, Church History and other subjects necessary to those about to take holy Orders. Moreover instruction in pedagogy is given in the highest classes, and the pupils have also teaching practice in the primary school attached to each seminary. In the four lower classes general subjects predominate : the course in these classes (which pre-supposes that of the ecclesiastical schools) is equivalent in general scope to that of the higher classes of the gymnasia. In 1902 the number of ecclesiastical schools was 185 with 29,601 pupils, and of seminaries 58, with 19,386 pupils.

The Cadet Corps, which are more fully described below under the heading " Military and Naval Colleges and Schools," should also be mentioned here as secondary schools giving a general education. Of these there are 25, giving instruction to nearly 9,000 pupils.

Primary schools, as has been already indicated, exist under several Ministries. The most important categories are the Urban and District schools, the primary schools maintained by the Ministry of Public Instruction or the zemstvos, the Church parochial schools and the lower elementary (" reading-and-writing ") schools of the Holy Synod, the schools of the Ministry of War, those under the Department of the Institutions of the Empress Maria, those of the Imperial Philanthropic Society, the orphan schools of the Ministry

of the Interior, etc., etc. The curricula of the primary schools are dealt with further on in this chapter. Statistics for the year 1898 relating to all such schools were collected by the Ministry of Public Instruction in the official publication previously referred to. The following table is compiled from the data there given :—

	Number of Schools.	Number of Teachers.	Number of Scholars.
Ministry of Public Instruction	37,046	84,121	*2,650,068
Holy Synod	40,028	67,907	*1,476,124
Ministry of War	848	1,058	46,420
Ministry of the Interior	553	1,102	20,510
Department of the Institutions of the Em- press Maria	153	210	5,097
Imperial Philanthropic Society	40	179	2,822
Ministry of the Court and Domains	23	63	1,599
Ministry of Finance	4	12	237
Ministry of Marine	4	7	379
Total	78,699	154,652	4,203,246

Of the total number of schools given in this table, 1,785 or 2·3 per cent. were schools for adults which were attended by a total of 89,045 persons of both sexes.

A study of the above table reveals some interesting facts. It will be observed that though the schools under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Public Instruction are less numerous than those under the Holy Synod, the number, both of teachers and scholars, in the former is greater, not only than those in the latter, but than those in all other kinds of primary schools put together. Expressed in percentages, the statistics we have already given may be exhibited as follows :—

	Schools. per cent.	Teachers. per cent.	Scholars. per cent.
Ministry of Public Instruction	47·1	54·4	63·0
Holy Synod	50·9	43·9	35·1
All other Ministries	2·0	1·7	1·9
	100·	100·	100·

It also appears that taking all the Russian primary schools together there is one teacher for every 27·2 scholars ; in the schools of the Ministry of Public Instruction there is an average of one teacher for every 31·5 scholars ; in those of the Holy Synod one teacher for every 22 scholars ; and in those of other Departments, taken together, one teacher for every 29·4 scholars. The average number of scholars in each primary school in Russia is 53·4 ; the average under the Ministry of Public Instruction is 71·5 ; under the Holy Synod, 36·9 ; and under all other Ministries, 47·4.

Of the 4,203,246 pupils who attended the primary schools of Russia during the year 1898, 75 per cent. (3,136,163) were males and 25 per cent. (1,057,431) were females. With respect to 9,652 scholars

* According to the latest official reports, the number of children taught (in 1904) in schools under the Ministry of Public Instruction was 3,200,835, and the number of those taught (in 1902) in the schools of the Holy Synod was 1,782,883.

no information as to sex was obtained. Of the 76,914 schools attended by children, 90 per cent. were situated in the country and 10 per cent. in the towns. As according to the census of 23rd January, 1897, the urban population of Russia was 13 per cent. of the population of the whole country, it would appear at first sight as though the towns of Russia were less well provided with primary schools than the country. It is probable, however, that if statistics were available showing the average attendance in town and country schools respectively, the larger numbers attending the town schools would be found to more than compensate for the smaller number of separate schools.

Reckoning the superficial area of the Russian Empire at 18,704,735.5 square versts and the population at the beginning of 1899 at 130,000,000 souls, the official publication which we are now following calculates that there was in that year one primary school to an area of 237 square versts and 1,652 inhabitants. These ratios will, however, give an entirely false idea of the actual distribution of schools if it is not borne in mind that the Russian Empire includes vast tracts of territory, especially in Asia, which, owing to climatic conditions, are either entirely unsuitable for human habitation or can only support a very scanty population. If we look at the returns for the more thickly populated districts of European Russia the statistics assume a much more favourable aspect. For instance, in the Government of Tula there is a school to every 14 square versts; in that of Moscow one to every 18 square versts, and in those of Kiev and Mohilev one to every 21 square versts. As regards the supply of schools in proportion to the population the following Governments appear to be the best provided: Olonets (one to 638 inhabitants); Esthonia (one to 665); Tula (one to 760); Livonia (one to 790); Archangel (one to 1,897); Novgorod (one to 983); Grodno (one to 1,025); Iaroslav (one to 1,038); Kurland (one to 1,176); Tver (one to 1,178).

Sunday and evening schools, especially the former, constitute an increasingly important part of the provision for primary instruction in Russia. These schools are under the control either of the Ministry of Public Instruction or of the Holy Synod; but, as already explained, by virtue of an agreement entered into in 1891 between the Minister of Public Instruction and the High Procurator of the Holy Synod, all Sunday schools opened since that date, with the exception of those opened in connection with the day schools of the Ministry of Public Instruction, are under the supervision of the Holy Synod.* The curriculum of the Sunday schools is in any case the same as that of the ordinary primary day schools; but the course is of no specified length, the pupils, who are of all ages, staying as long as they choose and leaving when they choose. Mixed schools are rare, and schools for girls and women

* This arrangement came to an end in 1904.

greatly preponderate over those for men and boys.* The teachers are always voluntary workers, and are often unpaid. It is a remarkable fact, and one which deserves to be recorded to the honour of the teaching profession of Russia, that though all girls who have completed a course in the secondary day schools have the right to teach in primary schools, and though many Russian young ladies belonging to the professional and leisured classes do take advantage of this right to help in Sunday school work, the great bulk of the teaching in the Russian Sunday schools is done by men and women who are engaged throughout the week as teachers in the secondary and primary day schools, and give up their only day of rest to work in the Sunday schools. In some cases they not only give their time and labour, but their money also, for in some of the Moscow schools it is the teachers who pay for the pupils' refreshments! It is difficult to obtain an accurate idea of the total number of Sunday schools existing in Russia: but they must amount to many thousands. For the year 1902, the Holy Synod returned the number of such schools under its own control as 343, giving instruction to 14,341 persons (7,216 males and 14,341 females).

No precise official statistics are available as to the number of army schools in which illiterate conscripts are taught to read and write; nor as to the number of soldiers under instruction in them.† Yet these schools are a most important addition to the educational provision of the country, and are of the greatest possible assistance in spreading the rudiments of knowledge among the adult population of Russia. It is stated to be a rare thing for a soldier to leave the army at the end of his term of obligatory service without being able to read and write. The number of military detachments in which there were soldiers' schools in 1898 is officially stated as about 7,500.

Schools belonging to non-Orthodox Christian Confessions: Jewish and Mohammedan Schools.—Among the primary schools described above are included many which are established among non-Russian and non-Orthodox populations and in which, though the secular instruction follows in all respects the programs in use in Orthodox Russian schools, religious teaching is given according to the doctrines of the form of Christianity locally predominant. Such are the Lutheran Schools of the Baltic Provinces, the Roman Catholic Schools of Poland, the Arminian Gregorian Schools of the Caucasus district. Statistics relating to all regularly organised Jewish primary schools are also included in the above account. Of these there are several categories, differing little from each other except in respect

* I found that in Moscow the proportion of women's Sunday Schools to those for men was thirteen to one. Those which I visited were attended principally by girls who had come originally from the country, but not very largely by Moscow's girls, who have generally received a good primary education in the excellent day schools maintained by the Moscow municipality.

† In 1898 the proportion of conscripts who could read and write was 44·5 per cent. of the whole number called up. Twenty years earlier the proportion was only 21 per cent.

of the statute under which they are administered. The most important are the schools administered under the special ordinance of the 16th March, 1873. These are State schools maintained out of the proceeds of a special tax levied on the Jewish population (the so-called "candle tax," *svetchnoi sbor*). They exist only in the Educational Districts of Kiev, Odessa, and Vilna; their teachers are those trained in the special Jewish Teachers' Institute of Vilna; they have one or two classes, according to circumstances, and their curriculum does not materially differ from that of other primary schools of corresponding grade, except that the Hebrew language and the Jewish religion are taught in them. Primary schools for Jewish children also exist in Poland, where they are administered under the general law of 1864 relating to Polish primary schools.

The schools already mentioned are not only assimilated to the ordinary Russian primary schools in respect of secular teaching, but also use the Russian language as the medium of instruction. In both these points they are distinguished from such schools as the Jewish *hedery* and the Mohammedan *medresse* and *mektebe*, of which no account has been taken in the statistics given above, but the aggregate number of which throughout the Empire is put at about 30,000. All these schools are strictly confessional in character. The *heder** has from time immemorial played an important part in the moral and religious training of the poorer Jewish population. It is a small private school of ten to fifteen pupils kept by a single teacher, called a *medamed*, who teaches as a rule in his own house. The children attend the *heder* from four or five years of age to about thirteen, or until they have mastered a certain course of religious instruction, which includes the chief portions of the Talmud. Since the early forties of last century repeated attempts have been made by the Russian Government to bring the *hedery* under control or to limit their number by the imposition of an educational test upon the *medameds*; but, in spite of all such restrictions, many of them managed to evade police control, and in 1893 the policy of the Government with regard to them underwent modification. By the law of that year they were legalised on condition that the *medameds* obtained a certificate—granted for a year at a time and dependent not on educational attainments, but on general trustworthiness of character—from the local Director or Inspector of Primary Schools, a general responsibility for the supervision of the *heders* being also laid on the local rabbis. Subsequent regulations framed by the Ministry of Public Instruction aim at the improvement of the physical conditions under which these schools are carried on, by requiring that the room in which the teaching is given shall not be used by the *medamed* or his family for any other purpose. The result of the law of 1893 was greatly to increase the number of recognised *hedery*; and it is now reported in the Russian educational

* The latest published official statistics (those for 1904) state the number of *hedery* in the Educational District of Odessa as 1,242, in that of Kiev as 2,355, in that of Vilna as 2,797. The number of *hedery* existing in Poland is not given, though it must be very great.

press that the Ministry of Public Instruction is once more contemplating steps towards increasing its control over these schools by fixing an educational test for their teachers, and making the teaching of Russian and arithmetic obligatory in them.* The *hedery*, which are private schools, must be distinguished from the *Talmud-tory* and the *eshiboty*, which are charitable institutions maintained by the Jewish community and giving board and education to poor Jewish children. Since 1894 the teachers of the *Talmud-tory* have been required to possess the same qualifications as are demanded from private elementary teachers.

The *medresse* and the *mektebe* are taught by Mohammedan priests or mullahs. The curriculum of these schools is extremely narrow and rudimentary, the children being merely taught to read and write the local Tatar language in the Arabic character and made to learn by heart certain prayers and passages from the Koran. Nevertheless, children are stated to remain as long as ten years in these schools with very little profit to themselves. The course of the *medresse*, however, is of a more advanced character than that of the *mektebe*. The Government has hitherto shown itself extremely chary of interfering with these schools, being anxious not to offend

* A very important recent development in the history of the Jewish *hedery* is the establishment of model *hedery* in many of the towns, particularly in those of West and South-west Russia, which possess a large Jewish population. So far as can be judged from notices which have appeared in the public press, the movement for the establishment of these model schools is one of the manifestations of that general quickening of the Jewish national sentiment which has taken shape in Zionism. The object of this movement is to create out of the existing *hedery* a new type of schools which, while remaining purely Jewish in character and spirit, shall be in no way inferior to any primary school in Russia in respect of equipment or general educational efficiency. The curriculum of these model schools therefore comprises not only the religious subjects taught in the ordinary *heder*, but all the secular subjects of the one-class Russian primary school. The teachers employed are well paid according to Russian standards; and a system exists of training them in practical teaching under the guidance of competent educational experts before placing them in charge of schools of their own. The organisation of these reformed *hedery* is said to be making rapid strides, and the Society for the Spread of Enlightenment among Russian Jews has adopted the policy of refusing aid to any *hedery* which do not give instruction in general secular subjects. Thus out of a purely confessional school is being created a regularly organised primary school of general education, differing, however, from other primary schools in Russia by the use of Yiddish as the language of instruction and the place accorded to the Jewish religion in the curriculum. Obviously the rise of these model schools creates a new situation. Existing regulations for the control of the *hedery* contemplate them only as religious schools. The introduction of secular subjects into the curriculum puts them in an entirely different category, and also raises the important question of language, since these schools will hardly be allowed to form an exception to the general rule that the language of instruction in all Russian primary schools shall be Russian. The contemplated assumption of increased control over the *hedery* by the State to which reference is made in the text seems to be closely connected with the rise of the model *hedery*. (The foregoing details as to the model *hedery* are based on an article by M. Uspenski in the May-June number of *Russ Kasa Shkola* for 1904. See also a pamphlet prepared for the Paris Exhibition, entitled "A Short Sketch of the Work of the Society for the Spread of Enlightenment among the Russian Jews, 1863-1896.")

unnecessarily the religious susceptibilities of the Mohammedan population. Nevertheless it looks with great suspicion upon them, since the spirit of the teaching is supposed to be often anti-Russian, and in any case the Mohammedan priests are eager proselytisers, finding their most promising field of operations among the heathen tribes of Russia and among recent converts from heathenism to Christianity.* So far, however, the Government has rested satisfied with requiring a certain minimum of educational attainment on the part of the Mussulman priests of the eastern parts of the Empire, and with organising Russian classes under experienced teachers in connexion with a considerable number of the *medresse*.

Education of Women and Girls.—An education corresponding in grade to that of the Universities is supplied by the Higher Women's Courses at St. Petersburg and Moscow, the history and constitution of which have already been fully described. On the 1st of January, 1899, there were attending the St. Petersburg Courses, 916 regular students and 44 unattached "hearers." (The number of students entered for the year 1903-4 is stated as nearly 1,500). In contrast with the men's Universities, the historico-philological section of the Women's Courses is very much better attended than the physico-mathematical, the number in the former being as a rule about twice as great as those in the latter. No precise statistics have been obtained with reference to the Moscow Courses: but judging from the impressions received at a personal visit paid in 1900, historico-philological studies are equally popular in the older Metropolis.† Medical education for women is provided by the "Women's Higher Institute of Medicine" at St. Petersburg, which is attended by some 500 students studying for the degree of Woman Doctor (*Zhenstchina Vrach*). Secondary education for girls is provided for in Russia by four different kinds of schools: (a) the *institutes* of the Department of the Empress Maria; (b) the *gymnasia* under the same Department; (c) the *gymnasia* under the Ministry of Public Instruction; (d) and the *diocesan (eparchial) schools for girls* which have been established in most dioceses, together with thirteen other girls' schools directly administered by the Holy Synod. The schools of the first-mentioned class are boarding-schools open only to the daughters of the nobility; the *gymnasia*, whether belonging to

* Cases occurred during the eighties in which whole villages of pagan Chermises and Votiaks in the Government of Ufimsk turned Mohammedan and established Mohammedan schools.

† At the twenty-fifth anniversary of the founding of the Women's Higher Courses at St. Petersburg, held in November, 1903, it was stated that 16,910 women from first to last had received their education in connection with such higher courses. Statistics furnished in connection with the St. Petersburg Courses show that of the 2,227 students who have obtained their diploma there, 826 or more than one-third are now engaged in teaching work of various kinds, 167 are continuing their education at home or abroad, eighty-six have adopted the medical profession or are occupied as nurses, many are engaged in literature, and a considerable number have found employment in railway offices, banks, laboratories, observatories. The demand on the part of factories and technical institutions for women specialists in chemistry holding the diploma of the Higher Courses is said greatly to exceed the supply.

the Department of the Institutions of the Empress Maria or to the Ministry of Public Instruction are day schools open to all classes. The diocesan schools, though primarily intended for the daughters of the clergy, also admit girls belonging to other classes. Both kinds of gymnasia as well as the diocesan schools act as training-schools for female teachers. A girl who has passed successfully through seven classes of the gymnasium receives the title of "elementary teacher and teacher of primary schools." Those who have passed through the eighth or supplementary class, and obtained the ordinary *attestat* or certificate receive the title of "domestic teacher" (*domashniaia uchitel'nitsa*); those who have done so and received the special medal of distinction, receive the higher title of *domashniaia nastavnitsa*: either title carries with it the right to teach in secondary schools. In like manner, the girls who have passed successfully through the course of the diocesan schools, the normal length of which is six years, receive the title of *domashniaia uchitel'nitsa*, which confers the right to be employed as teacher in a primary school; and in point of fact, the female teachers of the Church parochial schools are largely drawn from the ex-pupils of the diocesan schools for girls. Taking all kinds of secondary girls' schools together, on the 1st January, 1899, there were in Russia 477 schools with 129,462 pupils, distributed as follows: institutes under the Department of the Institutions of the Empress Maria, 32; gymnasia under the same Department, 30; total number of girls attending both kinds of schools, 20,246; gymnasia and progymnasia under the Ministry of Public Instruction, 346 with 94,078 pupils; diocesan schools, 69 with 15,138 pupils. By 1902 the number of diocesan schools had increased to 73 with 23,202 pupils: and the number of girls' schools under the Ministry of Public Instruction was returned in 1904 as 520 with 164,668 pupils.

The number of separate primary schools for girls is small. Such schools hardly exist outside the towns. As a rule girls receive primary instruction in the same schools as boys.

II.—PLACES OF SPECIAL EDUCATION.

So far we have been concerned with educational institutions which aim, on the whole, at general culture, though the education obtained in them may also fit its recipient for certain special careers or walks in life. We have now to treat of educational institutions whose main purpose is to train directly for a special profession or calling, though the course pursued in many of them may also serve the purposes of general culture. Such are the Theological Academies, the training colleges for teachers, medical schools and commercial and technical schools and colleges of various kinds.

THEOLOGICAL EDUCATION.

Of Ecclesiastical Academies there are four. In addition to those of Kiev and Moscow, the circumstances of whose foundation have

already been described in the preceding chapter (see p. 9), there is also one at St. Petersburg, founded in 1797, and one at Kazan, established in 1842. The course of instruction in these institutions is described in the third section of this chapter. The number of students at all four Academies taken together was 867 in 1902. The Academies have the right of conferring degrees in Theology (Doctor, Magister and Candidate). The ecclesiastical seminaries, which are also places of theological training, have already been referred to, and their curriculum will be further described later on.

INSTITUTIONS FOR THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

These are of several kinds in correspondence with the different kinds of schools in which the students under training will respectively teach. The training of men teachers for the gymnasia is to some extent undertaken by the Historico-Philological Institutes at St. Petersburg and Nezhin, inasmuch as the students of the higher course at these institutions teach in the gymnasia attached to them under the supervision of the professors. Provision is made for the training of women teachers for the secondary day-schools under the Department of the Institutions of the Empress Maria by the Higher Courses in Pedagogy maintained by that Department. These Courses are held in a special institution at St. Petersburg, to which is attached a pro-gymnasium used by the students for their teaching practice. Some 300 students attend these Courses, which are divided into two sections, literature and mathematics.

With regard to the training of primary teachers, those who are intended for the Urban Schools are trained in the Teachers' Institutes (*Uchitel'skie Instituty*), of which there are ten, with some 720 students. Of these the one in the Caucasus prepares primary teachers for schools of all kinds, and the one at Vilna has the special function of training teachers for Jewish schools. For the training of teachers of the ordinary primary schools maintained by the Zemstvos there were in 1904 sixty-five Teachers' Seminaries (*Uchitel'skiiia Seminarii*);* with 6,310 students. Of the sixty-five Seminaries two only are for women, the female teachers serving in the primary schools of all kinds having as a rule received their pedagogical training in the secondary schools for girls. The teachers of non-Russian schools (*inorodcheskiiia uchilistcha*) receive special preparation for this work in the so-called "teachers' schools" (*uchitel'skiiia shkoly*), of which there were six in 1904. The teachers in the Church parochial schools are largely drawn either from the ecclesiastical seminaries or from the corresponding secondary schools for girls; but the Holy Synod has also established two kinds of training institutions, viz., the *uchitel'skiiia shkoly* (in 1902, there were fourteen of these, eleven for men and three for women) for teachers of the ordinary parochial schools, and *vtoroklassnyiia uchilistcha, lit.*, schools with a second class, which provide training

* These include six seminaries wholly maintained by the zemstvos (*zemskiiia uchitel'skiiia shkoly*).

for teachers who have charge of the *shkoly gramotnosti* (reading-and-writing schools), or are employed as assistants in the ordinary parochial schools. Of these *vtoroklasnyia shkoly* there were at the same date 385 (fifty-six of them for girls.) In addition to these permanent institutions for the training of teachers there have been organised, both by the Ministry of Public Instruction and the Holy Synod, a number of Special Pedagogical Courses in various places, with the view of giving some general training in pedagogy and school method to candidates for the office of teacher who have not been through the ordinary training institutions. Those under the Ministry of Public Instruction are organised in connection either with Urban Schools or primary schools with two classes, and have a course of one or two years. Summer courses in pedagogy are also organised.

MEDICAL EDUCATION.

Medical Instruction for a total of 5,144 men students is provided for by the Medical Faculties existing in connection with the eight out of the nine Russian Universities. In addition to these University Faculties, the Military Academy of Medicine (founded 1798) at St. Petersburg was attended on the 1st January, 1899, by 750 students and eighteen unattached "auditors." The Women's Higher Institute of Medicine at St. Petersburg, which was opened only in 1897, had at the same time 386 regular students, and this number has since been considerably exceeded. In addition to the above-mentioned Schools of Medicine there also exist a number of institutions for the purpose of giving a supplementary medical education to doctors already in practice. Such are the Clinical Institute of the Grand Duchess Helena Pavlovna at St. Petersburg (founded 1835), with the midwifery courses established in connection with this Institute; the Institute of Gynæcology, and the Institute of Bacteriology at Moscow; the Courses for Medical Men established in connection with the bacteriological station of the Medical Society of Kharkov. There are four Veterinary Institutes in Russia, educating in all 1,702 persons, viz., at Kharkov (504 students), at Kazan (582 students), at Dorpat (325 students), and at Warsaw (291 students). To each of these Institutes, except that of Warsaw, is attached a school for the training of veterinary surgeons' assistants. Finally, there are eight schools for midwives, and six schools for surgeons' assistants of both sexes.

MILITARY AND NAVAL COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS.

The educational institutions of the Ministry of War are both numerous and important. For the advanced study of military science there are four Military Academies, viz., the Nicholas Academy of the General Staff, which has a special section for the study of Oriental Languages; the Michael Academy of Artillery, the Nicholas Academy of Engineering, and the Alexander Academy of Military Law. In addition to these are several Military Schools:—

the Nicholas School of Cavalry, the Nicholas School of Engineering, the Michael School of Artillery, the Paul Military School, the Constantine Military School, the Alexander Military School. The Corps of Pages at St. Petersburg, and the Military Pedagogical Seminary at Moscow are also under the control of the Ministry of War. The former is a school of general education preparing for the military profession ; and the same description applies to the twenty-five Corps of Cadets, which admit boys from ten to seventeen, and have a seven years' course of instruction. In addition to the Corps of Cadets there are also eleven schools for non-commissioned officers (seven for infantry, two for cavalry, and two for cossacks). The Ministry of War has recently (1903) obtained imperial sanction for the creation of a new type of Military Schools called "Cadet Schools," which are to be established by the noblesse with the aid of a substantial Treasury Grant. These schools are intended for the instruction of sons of poor hereditary nobles destined for a military career.

Advanced instruction in naval science is given by two places of higher education under the Ministry of Marine, viz., the Nicholas Naval Academy, and the Cronstadt Naval Engineering School. The former of these is divided into four sections (hydrographic, mechanical, naval construction and military navigation), and the latter into two (the section of naval construction and the technical section). In addition to these there are also officers' classes for the study of mining and artillery. The secondary education of future naval officers is obtained in the Naval Cadet Corps, a boarding-school organised on the general model adopted by other special schools, such as the School of Law and the Alexander Lyceum, with three general and three special classes.

Besides the educational institutions under the control of the Ministry of Marine there are thirty-five "navigation classes," which are designed to supply the requirements of the merchant marine, and since 1898 have been administered by the Ministry of Finance. These classes are of three grades. Those of the third or highest grade train captains of ocean-going vessels, those of the second train either captains of coasting vessels or pilots of ocean-going vessels, those of the first or lowest grade train pilots of coasting vessels. Of the first grade there are ten classes, of the second fourteen, and of the third eleven. The training requisite for captains of ocean-going vessels belonging to the merchant service is also given by the "classes of mercantile navigation" with a three years' course, which are held in connection with the Commercial School of Odessa, by the Archangel School of Mercantile Navigation (which has a navigation section with a five years' course), and by the "courses for sea captains," which are held during the winter months at Archangel and at Kem, and the normal length of which is two years.

TECHNICAL COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS.

Higher technical instruction of various kinds is given in the following institutions :—

(1) The Practical Technological Institute of the Emperor Nicholas I. at St. Petersburg was founded in 1828, and opened three years later. Its curriculum, which covers five years, comprises a general course, as well as special sections in mechanics and chemistry. The general course occupies one year, after which the students specialise in one or other of the above-named sections for an additional period of four years. The staff consists of a director, fourteen professors, six adjuncts, forty-six other teachers, and a considerable number of assistants of various kinds. On the 1st January, 1905, there were 1,190 students attached to the mechanical, and 256 to the chemical sections, making a total of 1,446 in all.

(2) The Practical Technological Institute of the Emperor Alexander III. at Kharkov, founded 1885, has also a course of five years, and in other respects its curriculum is arranged on the model of that of the St. Petersburg Technological Institute. The staff consists of the director, ten professors, one adjunct, and thirty-seven other teachers of various kinds. On the 1st January, 1905, the general course at Kharkov was attended by 216 students, while in the mechanical and chemical sections there were respectively 662 and 98 students—total 976.

(3) The Imperial Technical School of Moscow, founded in 1868 (or rather then re-organised as a place of higher technical instruction), provides a five years' course, and like the sister institutions at St. Petersburg and Kharkov comprises two sections, mechanical and chemical. It has, however, no general course; the students specialise in one section or the other from the first. The staff includes a director, twelve professors, six adjuncts, and a large number of subordinate teachers. At the beginning of 1905 there were in the mechanical section 991 students, and in the chemical 262, making a total of 1,253 in all.

(4) The Polytechnic Institute at Riga, founded in 1861, and re-organised in 1896, is almost wholly supported by local funds, with the addition of a yearly grant of 10,000R. from the State. It comprises six sections, dealing respectively with mechanics, chemistry, engineering, building, agronomy, and commerce. In the four first-named sections the course lasts five years, in the agricultural section four, and in the commercial section three and a half. The staff consists of a director, fourteen professors, eleven adjuncts, a librarian, and six subordinate officers. On the 1st January, 1905, there were attending the Institute 1,665 students, distributed as follows among the various sections: mechanics, 372; chemistry 296; commerce, 309; engineering, 395; agriculture, 143; building, 150. It will be observed that the proportion of students specialising in chemistry, as compared with those in the mechanical section, is greater at Riga than at any other technical college.

(5) The Technological Institute at Tomsk was opened in 1900. At the end of 1904 the number of students attending its courses was 954, distributed as follows: mechanics, 437; chemistry, 172; mining, 203; engineering construction, 142.

During the past few years the Ministry of Finance has opened three Polytechnic Institutes at Kiev, Warsaw, and St. Petersburg respectively.

(6) The Polytechnic Institute of the Emperor Alexander II. at Kiev, founded in 1898, is divided into four departments, chemical, mechanical, engineering and agricultural, the course in each covering four years. The staff consists of a director, seven ordinary professors, one extraordinary professor, fifteen other teachers and about fifty subordinate employes of various kinds. About 360 students were attending lectures at this Institute in the academical year 1899-1900.

(7) The Polytechnic Institute of the Emperor Nicholas II. at Warsaw, founded in the same year, has three departments, chemical, mechanical and engineering: and it is proposed also to establish a Department of Mining. The course lasts four years. The staff consists of a director, seventeen ordinary professors, eight extraordinary professors and a large number of assistants. At the beginning of the educational year 1899-1900 the Institute was attended by 271 students and seven unattached auditors.

(8) The Polytechnic Institute at St. Petersburg, opened in 1902, has four sections (commerce, naval construction, metallurgy, and electro-technics) and makes provision for 1,800 students.

(9) The Ministry of Agriculture and Imperial Domains controls the Mining Institute of the Empress Catherine II., the foundation of which dates back to 1775. This institution has a staff of sixty-nine persons and was attended by 480 students at the beginning of 1899. Its course lasts five years.

(10) The Higher School of Mines at Ekaterinoslav was founded in 1899 with two sections, mining and metallurgy.

Two Engineering Institutes are under the control of the Ministry of Ways of Communication.

(11) The Institute of Engineers of Ways of Communication of the Emperor Alexander I. at St. Petersburg has a history reaching back to 1809, but was reorganised as a higher school of road and railway engineers in 1890. It has a course of five years, and at the beginning of 1899 had 886 students on its books. Its staff consists of fifty-five persons.

(12) The Moscow Imperial Engineering School, founded in 1896, is under the same Ministry. Its course lasts three years: it has a staff of forty-eight persons, and on the 1st January, 1899, it was attended by 300 students.

Two higher technical schools are under the control of the Ministry of the Interior. These are:—

(13) The Institute of Civil Engineers of the Emperor Nicholas I. at St. Petersburg, was founded in 1842, as a "School of Construction." It has a course of five years, its staff numbered sixty-four on the 1st January, 1900, and it was attended by 353 students.

(14) The Electro-technical Institute of the Emperor Alexander III. has a course of five years. Its staff consists of fifty-six persons and on the 1st January, 1899, it was attended by 195 students and five unattached auditors.

Besides the agricultural sections of the Polytechnic Institutes at Riga and Kiev, there are several independent places of higher instruction in various branches of agriculture, forestry and rural economy. The three institutions mentioned below are under the Ministry of Agriculture and Imperial Domains.

(15) The Institute of Rural Economy at Moscow, reorganised in 1894 from a previously existing School of Agriculture and Forestry, with two departments, one of agriculture, and the other of agricultural engineering, has a course of four years. Its staff consists of sixty persons, including a Director, twelve professors, nine adjuncts, and other teachers and assistants. The number of students at the end of 1902 was 223.

(16) The Institute of Forestry at St. Petersburg has a staff of thirty-eight persons, and at the beginning of 1899 gave instruction to 501 students, of whom more than a quarter resided in the Institute.

(17) The Higher Courses in Vine-culture have existed since 1888 in connection with the Imperial Nikitski Garden near Yalta in the Crimea.

(18) The Institute of Rural Economy and Forestry at New Alexandria in the government of Lublin is in the department of the Ministry of Public Instruction. This Institute was reorganised in 1893 from a previously existing institution founded twenty-four years earlier. The course lasts four years; during the first year the instruction is general; the last three years are devoted to special study in two separate sections, agriculture and forestry. The staff consists of forty-seven persons including a Director, ten professors, and eight adjuncts. Three hundred and twenty-four students were receiving instruction here on the 1st January, 1905.

Finally among places of higher technical instruction must be mentioned one institution which is under the control of the Ministry of Justice, viz. :—

(18) The Constantine Institute of Land Surveying at Moscow. This institution, however, combines secondary with higher instruction, having four classes with a curriculum corresponding to that of the four highest classes (III. to VI. inclusive) of the real-schools, and special courses with two departments, viz., of land-measuring with a three years' course, and of engineering with a course of two years. The normal number of students at the Constantine Institute is fixed at 300.

The general aim of the places of higher technical education which we have enumerated is two-fold : first, to supply the different departments of Government by which the several institutions are administered with officials possessing the equipment of technical knowledge which is necessary for efficiency of administration; and secondly, to provide the skilled engineers, chemists, and pro-

professional men of various kinds who are needed to fill responsible positions in the industrial world of Russia. But alongside these higher institutions which supply the directing element in the industrial army, there exists a number of intermediate technical schools, whose special function it is to supply intelligent and trained assistants to the leaders of industry, and also lower technical schools, which aim at the production of artisans and skilled workmen.

Of intermediate technical schools there were eighteen in 1900 and twenty-three in 1904. In the latter year the number of pupils was 5,528. Of these four, viz., the Industrial School (agriculture and mining) at Krasno-Ufimsk, in the Government of Perm, the Kommissarov Technical School (mechanical arts and productions) at Moscow, the School of Manufacturing Industries (dyeing and weaving) at Lodz, and the Industrial School at Irkutsk, deserve especial notice as having been in existence a comparatively long time and being therefore of established reputation. All four combine technical with general instruction. M. Anopov, who is the greatest living authority upon technical education in Russia, in the course of an interesting pamphlet on secondary school reform, mentions the school of Lodz and the Kommissarov School at Moscow as having been eminently successful in turning out well-trained students of good general intelligence, and attributes this result chiefly to the mixed character of their curricula. Equally emphatic testimony is borne by others to the excellence of the instruction given at Krasno-Ufimsk.* We may therefore regard this type of school as likely to grow in favour in the future, and in fact the Ministry of Public Instruction has recently established several other schools with a similar curriculum, e.g., at Kasimov (1896) at Taganrog and Briansk (1899) and Alexandrovsk (1900). Other schools which deserve special notice are the Industrial School at Kazan founded in 1897 with two sections, one of mechanics and the other of chemistry, and the Mechanico-Technical School at Kostroma founded in the same year at the cost of the late M. Th. V. Chizhov.

Of intermediate schools dealing with subjects of Rural Economy there were at the end of 1902 eleven with 1,830 pupils; among these are reckoned nine schools of general agriculture with a course of six years each; a school of vine-culture in Bessarabia and classes in land surveying, etc., at Gor'ki (Government of Mohilev). A special section for instruction in sheep breeding is attached to the Kharkov Agricultural School; and pedagogical courses have been established in connection with the same school for the training of teachers for the elementary agricultural schools. All these schools, as well as the elementary schools of agriculture to be presently mentioned, are in the department of the Minister of Agriculture

* Prince Kropotkin, in "Fields, Factories, and Workshops," p. 14, attributes the rise of the manufacture of agricultural machinery in the Southern Urals to the influence of this school.

and Imperial Domains. Under the control of the Ministry of Justice are five intermediate schools of land surveying, with about 300 pupils, at Pskov, Penza, Kursk, Ufa and Tiflis.

There are a considerable number of elementary technical schools of the industrial type. The following are enumerated in "Russia at the end of the sixteenth Century"—twenty lower technical schools; twenty-two trade schools of the normal type; fifteen apprentice schools; thirty-five lower trade schools*; sixty-six industrial schools of various denominations existing under special statutes; 158 railway technical schools; forty-four naval classes for the training of pilots and captains of coasting and ocean-going vessels; six mining schools; the technical divisions and classes in connection with primary schools, especially in the towns; and finally, the rural workshops (15 in number) for technical instruction under the Ministry of Finance. The following description of these "rural workshops" is quoted from the same source: "The aim of these workshops is to prepare farm workmen capable of attending to agricultural instruments and machines, and able to repair them, as well as workmen who can make farm implements and the simpler parts of machines and other things used in agriculture for the manufacture of which a knowledge of carpentering, of joinery, and of smith's and locksmith's work is necessary. Boys of not less than fourteen years of age, with a general education such as is given in the primary schools, are admitted into these workshops, which have the right to take private orders and apply the proceeds to the special needs of the establishment."

Among lower technical schools the School of Brewing at St. Petersburg, and the School of Spinning and Weaving at Moscow deserve special notice.

The number of lower agricultural schools has greatly increased within the last few years. In 1902 there were 145 of these schools, attended by a total of over 6,000 pupils. Of these schools, eighty-four were concerned with general agriculture; nineteen (*i.e.* three maintained by the State and sixteen supported from private sources) were schools of gardening and fruit and vegetable growing; and there were also fourteen dairy schools; seven girls' schools of rural economy and housewifery; and twenty-one practical schools for workmen.

In addition to the above there were twenty-eight lower schools of forestry for the training of foremen and surveyors' assistants.

The study of gardening, bee keeping, silkworm culture, and other rural occupations has also been greatly stimulated in the ordinary primary schools by the encouragement and assistance given by the Ministry of Agriculture.

* On the 1st January, 1905, the number of these schools was as follows: 21 lower technical schools; 26 trade schools; 26 apprentice schools, and 98 lower trade schools.

COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS.

We have already described in the Historical Sketch the provisions of the law of 15th April, 1896, by which all schools and other establishments giving a commercial training are divided into four classes: Commercial Schools, Business Schools, Business Classes and Courses in Commercial Knowledge. Since 1896 all commercial schools (with the exception of the two old foundations, the Commercial School of St. Petersburg, and that of Moscow, which remain in the Department of the Institutions of the Empress Maria) have passed under the control of the Ministry of Finance, and by the law of 1894 all newly created commercial schools of whatever type must belong to that Ministry. The following were the statistics relating to commercial schools under the Ministry of Finance at the beginning of the educational year 1899-1900; nineteen Commercial Schools, sixteen Business Schools, nine Business Classes and twelve Courses in Commercial Knowledge; total, fifty-six commercial schools of all kinds. The total number of pupils receiving instruction in these fifty-six establishments was 10,950, viz., 6,013 in the commercial schools, 2,284 in the business schools, 1,946 in the business classes, and 707 in the courses of commercial knowledge. By the beginning of the year 1903 these fifty-six schools had grown to 139, and by the beginning of 1905 to 191 (viz., sixty-eight commercial schools, sixty-three business schools, thirty-two business classes and twenty-eight courses in commercial knowledge).

Besides the independent educational establishments mentioned above, the ordinary real-schools under the Ministry of Public Instruction also have commercial sections, with a course lasting two years. The number of real-schools with such commercial sections appears to be about thirty-two or thirty-three.

SCHOOLS OF THE FINE ARTS.

Among schools of Fine Art should be specially mentioned two which are under the Ministry of the Imperial Court, viz., the Higher School of Art attached to the Imperial Academy of Fine Arts at St. Petersburg; and the School of Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture at Moscow. The former, which has a staff of twenty-five persons, comprises two departments, viz., that of painting and sculpture, and that of architecture. At the end of 1899 the school was attended by 330 students, of whom 206 were studying painting and sculpture, and 124 were studying architecture. Pedagogical courses for drawing masters are also established in connection with the Imperial Academy. Two important institutions of a similar kind are also attached to the Ministry of Finance, viz., the Strogonov School of Technical Drawing at Moscow, and the Baron Stieglitz Central School of Technical Drawing in St. Petersburg. The latter has a normal school attached to it and drawing classes attended by 2,000 pupils. Another important centre of artistic training is the

School of Drawing of the Imperial Society for the Encouragement of the Fine Arts at St. Petersburg; and at Mirgorod there is an Industrial Art School attended by 700 students, which was founded in memory of N. V. Gogol, and has a section of ceramic art. There are also ten schools of art and design in various important provincial towns; most of these schools have been started in quite recent years. There are evening and Sunday classes for instruction in art in St. Petersburg, Moscow and other places.

We must not omit to mention two Theatrical Schools at St. Petersburg and Moscow, under the control of the Ministry of the Imperial Court.

Musical education is provided at the two Conservatoria in St. Petersburg and Moscow (Ministry of the Interior): the Chapel of Singers of the Court at St. Petersburg (Ministry of the Imperial Court), the Synodal School of Church Singing at Moscow, the Warsaw Musical Institute, the Schools of Music of the Imperial Russian Musical Society (at Odessa, Kiev, Kharkov and Tiflis), and by a large number of private institutions, numbering 155 in all.

II.—ORGANISATION AND ADMINISTRATION.

In the preceding section we have endeavoured to take a general survey of the provision existing in Russia for education of all kinds and grades. The present section will be devoted to describing, so far as possible, the administrative machinery by which the State maintains its control over education. In order to do this exhaustively, of course, we should have to enter minutely into the details of the different arrangements made by each of the many Departments of State which have educational institutions under their control. This is, however, not practically necessary for the purpose which this Report has in view. The general method of educational administration in Russia will be sufficiently clear to the reader, if we confine ourselves to describing the organisation adopted by (a) the Ministry of Public Instruction (b) the Holy Synod (c) the Department of the Institutions of the Empress Maria and (d) the Ministry of Finance. The administration of education in other Departments of State does not, so far as the writer is aware, present any peculiar features which would call for special notice.

(a) We begin with the Ministry of Public Instruction.

Central Administration.—At the head of the Ministry of Public Instruction stands the Minister, holding his office by the appointment and at the pleasure of the Emperor. He is assisted in the duties of his position by a subordinate official of high rank, bearing the untranslatable title of *Tovaristch*, who also acts as his deputy during his absence. The administration of the educational institutions under the control of the Ministry is carried on by means of several standing Boards or Commissions within the Ministry, among which the most important are: the Council of the Ministry; the Department of Public Instruction; and the Scientific Committee.

The Council of the Minister is presided over by himself, and is composed of his assistant-minister (*Tovaristch*), the Director of the Department of Public Instruction, the President of the Scientific Committee, the Curators of Educational Districts when in St. Petersburg, with other members directly appointed by the Emperor. Certain high officials, such as the rectors of Universities, and others, may also be invited by the Minister to attend the meetings of the Council when matters on which they are specially qualified to advise are under discussion. To the Council of the Minister are submitted all matters and proposals involving new departures or important changes, either in legislation or administration; the financial estimate for the cost of administration of the Department and the places of education in connection with it, and other matters of finance which exceed the authority of the Curators; all questions relating to the internal organisation of schools, Universities, and other places of instruction, on the administrative as well as on the educational side, and generally, all such matters as in the judgment of the Minister should receive the consideration of the Council.

The Department of Public Instruction plays an important part in the actual administration of the educational system. It is subdivided for administrative purposes into nine sections, dealing respectively with inspection, higher education, boys' schools, girls' schools and training of teachers, primary schools, technical and professional schools, scientific institutions, private schools and Jewish schools, pensions and accounts.

The Scientific Committee (*Uchenyi Komitet*) is specially concerned with the consideration of purely educational matters and proposals, and with the examination of schemes of instruction, and of books and periodicals proposed for use or circulation in educational institutions. Plans for scientific expeditions and commissions, and reports thereon, also fall within its purview. The President of the Scientific Committee is appointed directly by the Emperor; its ordinary members are nominated by the Minister, but its President has the right of inviting other persons of special competency in educational matters to attend the meetings of the Committee and take part in its deliberations. The Committee is divided into three sections, one of which is concerned with matters of a general character, another deals specially with primary education, and a third with technical instruction. Books intended for use in schools or other places of education are sent in by their authors or publishers to the Scientific Committee for examination; but any educational specialist may also call the attention of the Ministry or Scientific Committee to text-books which, in his opinion, are deserving of special attention. A list of the books passed by the Scientific Committee is published. Until recently this list was arranged under three heads, some books being "recommended," others "approved," whilst a third category consisted of those which were merely "permitted"; but this distinction has now been discarded in favour of a simple list of "permitted."

books. Under no circumstances is any book not contained in this list allowed to be used in any place of education, not even the Curator of the Educational District having any independent discretion in this matter, save in certain exceptional cases to be presently mentioned.

The Ministry of Public Instruction, in common with other Russian Departments of State, possesses its own official organ (the *Zhurnal Ministerstva Narodnago Prosvestcheniia*) which is published monthly, and besides recording all important official notifications, circulars and regulations relating to education, frequently contains articles on subjects of general scientific value and interest.

Local Administration.—For purposes of local administration the Russian Empire, exclusive of certain regions of Asia to be presently mentioned, is divided into twelve Educational Districts (*Uchebnye Okrugi*), each consisting of several adjoining "governments" (*gubernii*) or provinces, and generally taking its name from the chief town comprised within it. The Districts are as follows: St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kiev, Kazan, Kharkov, Vilna, Odessa, Orenburg, Warsaw, Dorpat, Caucasus, Western Siberia. Eastern Siberia, the region of the Amur, and Turkestan, have not yet been organised into Educational Districts; all education in these outlying provinces is under the immediate control of the General Governors of each. Of the Educational Districts of European Russia that of St. Petersburg is the largest in area (extending over some 636,860 square miles), but that of Moscow, though less than one-third the size of the St. Petersburg District, has the largest population (about 17,000,000 or 18,000,000).* The Dorpat District, which consists of the three Baltic Provinces, Livonia, Kurland, and Esthonia, is the smallest both in area and population (area, 36,929 square miles; population, 2,400,000 in 1897).

The administration of each Educational District is entrusted to a high official bearing the title of Curator (*popechitel*), who is the local representative of the Ministry of Public Instruction, and, as such, has under his charge all grades of educational institutions, from the Universities downwards. He holds his office by direct appointment of the Tsar, though he is nominated by the Minister of Public Instruction. The powers exercised by the Curator within his own District are very wide, including not only a general supervision over the work of the schools and their teachers, and of the Universities and their professors, but also the filling up of all vacancies in the ordinary staff of the schools, and the nominating for confirmation by the Minister of persons fitted to discharge the functions of Directors of secondary schools, and of Inspectors or Deans of Faculties in the Universities. But extensive as the authority of the Curator is, his competence is strictly limited in certain directions.

* The figures given in an official brochure entitled "The Russian Ministry of Public Education at the World's Columbian Exposition" in 1893 were 16,685,393; but the population of the Moscow District which occupies much of the industrial region of Russia must have considerably increased since then.

He cannot, for example, modify in any way the ordinary-course of instruction approved for primary and secondary schools, though he may sanction supplementary courses ; nor can he on his own authority approve or disapprove any book for use in any school in his District. It is part of his duty to prepare an annual report on the condition of education in his District. He resides in his District, and is assisted in his administrative duties by a staff of secretaries and inspectors, and by a so-called "Curator's Council." This Council is constituted very much on the analogy of the Council of the Minister, which has been already described. It is presided over by the Curator, and consists of his assistant, the district inspectors, and the directors of gymnasia, real-schools, technical schools, and training colleges. Where there is a University or other place of higher education within the District, the head of this institution also has a seat on the Council ; whilst on purely educational questions the deans of the historico-philological and mathematical faculties, along with six professors appointed by the University, also have a voice in the deliberations of the Council. The Director of Primary Schools may also be present at discussions affecting such schools, if he happens to be in the town where the Council sits, and other persons may also be invited to take part. Its functions comprise the consideration of measures for the improvement of education, and of financial and business questions arising in connection with the purchase, sale, renting or construction of school premises, the opening and closing of schools, the collection of statistical data as to educational progress and the like, and the examination of text-books with regard to their suitability for use in schools. The conclusions of the Curator's Council on the last-named subject, however, require the confirmation of the Minister, except in the case of books written in certain local languages. For example, in respect to Polish books the decisions of the Warsaw Curator's Council may be finally confirmed by the Curator ; and with respect to books written in the local languages of the Baltic Provinces the final decision rests with the Curator's Council itself.

For the actual inspection of secondary schools the Curator has at his disposal one or more District Inspectors, according to the size of his district and the number of schools to be visited. These District Inspectors are, of course, important and responsible officials who are chosen from the ranks of the secondary teachers for their abilities and educational experience. The supervision of primary instruction is entrusted to a different set of officials, viz., the Directors of Primary Schools and their subordinates, the Inspectors of Primary Schools. As a rule, each Director has under his charge the primary schools of a single government ; to each Inspector are assigned one or more *wiezdy*, or districts, the average number of *wiezdy* under each inspector being about two and a half. Through these various local officials representing the central administration, all grades of education, higher, secondary, and primary, are brought into direct relation with the Ministry of Public Instruction. But in the case of primary education we have also to take account of

certain local organisations for educational purposes, as well as of the provincial and district zemstvos, which in various ways stand in close relation to the work of primary education. The great variety of these local administrative arrangements makes the task of describing the organisation of primary education a somewhat complicated one.

The first important distinction to be borne in mind is between the governments affected by the law of January 5th, 1864, establishing local government by the zemstvos, and those to which this ordinance does not apply. In the former category are included all the eleven governments in the Moscow Educational District, all the five governments comprising the Educational District of Kharkov, all the four contained in that of Odessa, with five each in those of St. Petersburg and Kazan, four in that of Orenburg, and two in that of Kiev—thirty-four governments in all. The duties of self-government imposed upon the zemstvos by the legislation of 1864 include the organisation of the local medical and veterinary services, the care of roads, the relief of the poor, and other economic arrangements (including insurance against fire and the like), and the provision of primary education. These functions were, however, always exercised subject to the control and supervision of the local governor, who had also to confirm the zemstvo's decisions; and by the legislation of Alexander III.'s reign the work and competence of the zemstvos has been subjected to still further restrictions.

The precise relation of the provincial and district zemstvos to the work of primary education was finally determined by the law of the 25th May, 1874, which is still in force. The effect of it was to create in all the governments with zemstvos a system of Provincial and District School Councils, on which the zemstvos are represented, to associate these Councils with the officials of the central department in the administration of primary schools, and at the same time to assign an important rôle to the local nobility by making the Provincial and District Marshals of the Nobility *ex-officio* presidents of the local Provincial and District School Councils, respectively.* The constitution of these School Councils has been already described on p. 107; we need only add to the account there given that the land-captains (*zemskie nachalniki*), who have existed only since 1889, have a right to take part in the deliberations of the District School Councils on questions affecting their spheres of jurisdiction; that the same right is also accorded to local curators of schools on matters concerning their schools, and that the Minister may also authorise the presence of the doctors of the zemstvo, when questions affecting sanitation and health are under discussion. The heads of the local training colleges also have the right to sit and vote at meetings of both Provincial and District School Councils. The more important part of the actual

* There are some parts of the country in which there are no provincial or district marshals of the nobility. Here the school councils are presided over by the directors and inspectors of primary schools.

work of administration is done by the District School Council, which appoints teachers on the recommendation of the inspector, decides questions relating to the opening and closing of schools, sees that they are equipped with books and necessary educational apparatus, and receives from the inspector an annual report on the condition of education in the district. The Provincial School Council has a more general authority, acts as a kind of court of appeal for the decision of questions referred to it from the various District School Councils within the government, undertakes the distribution of the State subsidy in aid of primary education, and receives from the Director an annual report on the condition of education within the government. The actual work of inspection is done by the Director and his subordinates, the inspectors, who are directly responsible to the central government, and have the supervision, not only of the schools maintained by the zemstvos and towns, but of other primary schools, such as the so-called "schools of the Ministry."

It will thus be seen that the local administration of education is wholly in the hands of the representatives of the central government on the one hand, and, on the other, of local bodies constituted *ad hoc*, on which the zemstvos or towns providing the schools have only an insignificant minority representation. The rôle of the zemstvos and towns is, however, not entirely confined to the provision and maintenance of the schools. They have also the right of supervising the instruction in their own schools,* and for this purpose many of them have appointed special commissions of supervision, and have organised a system of inspection by experts. Private founders of schools have also the right to appoint, with the sanction of the Provincial School Council, special curators (of either sex) for the immediate supervision of their schools.

The provinces in which local government by the zemstvos has not been introduced present many varieties of educational administration, the only constant element being the Director or Inspectors of Primary Schools as representatives of the central department. In many distant provinces the sole control of education is in the hands of these officials. It should be noted, however, that in some sparsely-populated districts, where the number of schools is small, the office of Director does not exist, and also that in Asiatic Russia the place of both Director and Inspector of Primary Schools is sometimes taken by the Director of the local secondary school.

In the governments nearer the centre of the Empire, however, some kind of local school council is generally established to assist the officials of the central administration. In the province of the Don Cossacks there are provincial and district school councils of the type created by the law of 1874, but each of these councils contains one representative from the *voisko*. In the governments of Kiev,

* This right, after having been frequently disputed by the central authorities, was finally secured to the organs of local self-government by a decision of the Senate in 1893.

Podolia, and Volhynia there is no Director of primary schools, but primary education is under the control of a council of fourteen inspectors presided over by the Curator of the Educational District. The Educational District of Vilna, comprising the governments of Vilna, Grodno, and Kovno, which are predominantly Lithuanian, and those of Minsk, Mohilev, and Vitebsk, which are White Russian, has a peculiar organisation. In each government there is a provincial school council, over which the Director of Primary Schools presides, the members including one representative (who must be an Orthodox Russian) of the provincial Commission dealing with affairs of the peasantry, one representative of the diocesan clergy, and an inspector of primary schools. In matters affecting Roman Catholic schools representatives of that Church attend the meetings of the Council on the invitation of the President. The duties of the Council comprise the giving of sanction for the opening of new schools by local authorities, the appointment of teachers in Ministerial model schools, and the confirmation of such appointments in schools provided by towns or village communities. One peculiarity of the administrative system in this district is that the Directors and Inspectors of primary schools may be clergymen.

The administration of primary education in Poland is in several respects peculiar. The Directors of Primary Schools here possess rather more extensive powers than their colleagues in other Educational Districts. The Warsaw schools are also placed under a special inspector with the same authority as the Directors. As no local self-government exists in the Polish towns, all local administrative control of the town schools is vested in the Directors and Inspectors of primary schools; and in town and country alike, the appointment and dismissal of teachers rests entirely with these officials. As regards village schools, a certain share in the supervision is assigned to the organs of local self-government, the *gmina** and the village community. A distinction is made between "village schools," established for a single village community, and "schools of the *gmina*," established for the benefit of one or more *gminy*. The latter are administered directly by the *voit* of the *gmina* and the *lawniki*, while the former are managed by the local *soltysy* under the direction of the *voit*. Special supervisors of schools may be chosen by the *gmina* or the village community, their appointment being confirmed by the local representative of the central administration. These supervisors act under the immediate direction of the *voit* of the *gmina*. It is the duty of the *voit* and the *soltysy* to see that the teachers in the schools under their management perform their duties, to collect, and provide for the due expenditure of, the funds necessary for the maintenance of the schools, and to bring the needs of the school before the meetings of the *gmina* and the village com-

* The *gmina* is a special Polish institution corresponding to some extent to the Russian *mir*, but, unlike the *mir*, it is composed of representatives of all classes. It elects its own *voit* or president, who is at the same time its chief executive officer. The *soltysy* are his assistants, chosen by the meetings of the peasant communes. The *lawniki* are local magistrates.

munity. The teachers in Polish schools may be of any religion, save that members of monastic orders or societies are excluded from the profession, and that in Russian parishes Russians only are permitted to exercise the office of teacher.

The organisation of primary education in the Baltic Provinces (Livonia, Esthonia and Kurland) also presents many striking features. Educationally these provinces occupy a unique position in Russia. They form the only part of the Empire where the provision and maintenance of schools are recognised as obligatory upon the community, and as a consequence of this the general educational level of the population is very much higher than it is elsewhere in Russia. The credit for this state of things belongs ultimately to the Lutheran Church, which from an early period insisted on the ability to read and write as a necessary qualification for confirmation.

In describing the organisation of primary instruction in these provinces, we have to distinguish between town and country schools on the one hand, and Lutheran and Orthodox Schools on the other. The schools of the towns are under the control of the Directors and Inspectors of Primary Schools ; but their financial administration is in the hands of special boards, each of which includes two members of the municipality, two representatives of the Ministry of Public Instruction, and a Lutheran pastor. Where non-Lutheran schools are concerned a clergyman of the church providing the schools also sits upon the board.

The village primary schools established for the Orthodox population are under the control of a Council appointed *ad hoc*, and consisting of the bishop of the diocese, the rector of the local ecclesiastical seminary, the Curator of the Educational District and his District Inspector, the Directors of primary schools, and the Director of the Riga gymnasium.

It is, however, in the administration of the Lutheran village schools that the most characteristic features of the local organisation are exhibited. In spite of some variation in detail, the system in use is in principle the same for all the three provinces, presenting the same mixture of lay and clerical elements, and the same balance of local and Imperial factors, in the composition of the administrative bodies concerned. We shall therefore confine ourselves to describing the details of the system in the form it assumes in Livonia, as being sufficiently typical of the other two provinces. The schools are divided into two categories, communal and parish schools, the latter having a somewhat more advanced course than the former. Each commune (or group of communes, provided that the aggregate male population of such groups does not exceed 500) is bound to maintain a communal school ; each parish containing at least 2,000 male inhabitants has to provide a parish school. " The supervision of Lutheran parish and communal schools belongs to a Supreme Committee of Land Schools (*Oberlandschulbehörde*), constituted as follows : the Director of primary schools, one representative of the Ministry of Education, four chief Church curators

(*Kirchenvorsteher*), the General Superintendent of Livonia, and one counsellor (*Schulrat*) elected by the nobility. The duties of the Supreme Committee are the establishment, supervision and improvement of the schools under their control. For the more immediate supervision of the Lutheran schools of the province of Livonia there have been created District Committees of Land Schools (*Kreisschulbehörden*) consisting of the Inspector of primary schools, one representative of the Ministry, a chief Church curator, two visitor-members elected by the nobility, two clerical visitor-members appointed by the Lutheran Consistory of the province, and two peasant members chosen by the parochial school 'elders' (*Schulältesten*), from among themselves." [For these elders see below.] "The actual management of the schools is in the hands of local Governing Bodies of Parish Schools (*Kirchspielschulverwaltung*); each such governing body is under the presidency of a Church curator appointed from the parish; its members are the local pastor, the teacher of the parish school, and one parochial school elder, chosen by all the church wardens and school elders of the parish. The oversight of the instruction given in the communal schools and in private houses in the province of Livonia is entrusted to the Church curator and the local pastor, who are assisted in this duty by the lower clergy, by the churchwardens, and by school elders chosen by the local Governing Body from among the officials and elected persons of the commune. The head of the commune and his assistants are bound to look after the general order of the schools, if they are maintained at the cost of the community. In each parish there are special school 'conventions,' consisting of deputies from each commune within the parish, of representatives of the *volchinas* of the nobility, and of the local pastor. The duty of these conventions is to deliberate on and decide all financial matters in connection with the local schools; they have also to choose one of the two Church curators of the parish, and likewise his substitute."*

Internal Administration—Universities and Higher Technical Colleges.—The nine Universities of the Russian Empire (with the exception of those of Warsaw and Dorpat, which have special statutes of their own) are administered under identical regulations. At the head of each stands a Rector selected by the Minister of Public Instruction from amongst the ordinary Professors and appointed by Imperial order for a term of four years. He is immediately responsible to the Curator of the District for the general administration of the University; at the expiration of his term he may be continued in office with the Emperor's sanction for an additional period of four years. The charge of discipline is specially entrusted to an Inspector, appointed by the Minister

* The passage within quotation marks is translated verbatim from the account of primary education in the Baltic Provinces contained in Falloik and Charnoluski's admirable book "Narodnoe Obrazovanie v Rossii" (pp. 98, 99). The German equivalents for the Russian terms used have, however, been added from other sources of information.

on the recommendation of the Curator, but acting under the Rector. For the discharge of his duties the Inspector is supplied with a certain number of assistants. The Professors are appointed by the Minister, who is, however, at liberty to invite the University to nominate a candidate. In this case, the choice is made in the first instance by the Faculty concerned; their recommendation must then be confirmed by the Council and presented through the Curator, but if the person thus recommended be not approved, the Minister may still make the appointment on his own initiative.* Privat-Doctents are admitted to teach by the Curator on the recommendation of the Faculty concerned, presented through the Rector. Lectors (in modern and oriental languages) are selected by the Faculty concerned and presented through the Council for confirmation by the Curator. The Deans of Faculties are chosen from the professors of their respective faculties by the Curator, their appointment being confirmed for four years by the Minister by whom they may also be reappointed for a further term. The Rector, Deans of Faculties, and the Inspector form together an executive body called the *Pravlenie*, by which all the important administrative and financial business of the University is conducted. The University Council consists of all the University Professors under the presidency of the Rector; its functions are almost purely educational; the only matters left for its final decision are the award of degrees and medals; other questions submitted for its consideration, such as the filling up of vacant chairs, the framing of schemes of study and syllabuses of lectures, are referred for final decision to the Minister or (in the case of the appointment of lectors, and other matters falling within his special competence) to the Curator. Meetings of the Faculties are also held under the presidency of the Deans to arrange for examinations, to present persons for degrees, to decide on the merits of candidates for professorships within the respective Faculties, and to consider other matters directly affecting instruction within the Faculties.

The internal organisation of the higher technical colleges under the Ministry of Public Instruction follows the same general lines as that of the Universities. The particulars which follow apply specially to the two Institutes at St. Petersburg and Kharkov, and to the Moscow Technical School; the organisation of the Institute of Rural Economy and Forestry at New Alexandria has special features.† The head of each Institution has the title of Director; he is appointed by the Emperor on the nomination of the Minister, and must be a person of academic distinction and educational

* In each University there is established a special Chair of Divinity for the benefit of students of the Orthodox faith. The Professor of Divinity is attached to no Faculty, but is a member of the University Council.

† At New Alexandria the Council of the Institute corresponds in function to the Educational Committee of the three sister colleges; its *Pravlenie* corresponds in some degree to their Economical Committee; and there is in addition an Agricultural Committee charged with the administration of the estate of the Institute and with the management of the Experimental Farm.

experience. He may combine the duties of a Professor with those of Director, in which case a corresponding addition is made to his salary. In the management of the Institute he is assisted by two Committees, viz., the Educational Committee, consisting of himself as president, the lecturer on religion, and the professors; and the Economical [Finance] Committee, also presided over by himself, and consisting besides of three members of the teaching staff appointed upon the Committee by the Curator of the District for three years, and also of persons having the oversight of separate departments within the Institute. The Educational Committee decides on its own authority all matters relating to the admission of students to the intermediate examinations, the half-yearly reports of the Institute, and other documents issued by the Institute; but other matters of educational organisation which are submitted to its consideration have to be referred for final decision either to the Minister (such are the forming of schemes and programs of instruction, the distribution of theoretical and practical studies, the consideration of the qualifications of candidates for vacant professorships, etc.), or to the Curator (such are the award of bursaries and remission of fees, the consideration of the qualifications of candidates for the minor teaching parts, etc.). The Economical Committee administers the financial affairs of the Institute. The responsibility for discipline among the students and the preservation of order within the walls of the Institute is entrusted to an Inspector who is provided with four assistants. The Inspector, the Professors, and the Adjunct Professors are all appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction. The lecturer on religion is also appointed by the Minister, acting with the concurrence of the ecclesiastical authorities. The Director's Assistant and the Secretary (both of whom must be professors) are appointed by the Minister on the nomination of the Director, conveyed through the Curator. All members of the staff of lower rank than an Adjunct Professor and other officials of the Institute who are in the service of the State are appointed by the Curator; other employés by the Director.

Secondary Schools.—The internal organisation of secondary schools for boys, under the Ministry of Public Instruction, whether giving a general or a technical education, is also in all essential respects uniform throughout the Empire. At the head of each secondary school is placed a Director, who is chosen by the Curator of the Educational District, and confirmed in his appointment by the Minister of Public Instruction. He has a general responsibility for the educational efficiency and good order of the school entrusted to his charge, presides over the Pedagogical Council and the Economical Committee, proposes the appointment and recommends the dismissal of members of the staff to the Curator of the District, with whom the actual decision in these matters rests, and has a certain right of disposition over the special funds of the institution. He is assisted in the discharge of these functions by an Inspector, and has special oversight of discipline. Both the Director and Inspector take part in the teaching. In progymnasia the duties have been added to the Inspector and are combined in a single person.

The rest of the teachers employed in the secondary schools under the Ministry of Public Instruction are appointed by the Curator from persons who hold a diploma in the subjects they profess either from one of the Universities or from some other institution recognised as of equal rank. In its collective capacity the whole staff forms a Pedagogical Council, meeting once a month at least under the presidency of the Director, and deciding such matters as the admission and promotion of pupils, the allocation of bursaries and exemption from fees, the choice of books and educational apparatus, the arrangement of the time table, and the award of leaving certificates. The Pedagogical Council elects from among its own members three persons (in the secondary technical schools four, in the progymnasia, two only) who, with the Director and Inspector, form an Economical Committee dealing with all questions of finance which arise in connection with the administration of the school.

A feature of the internal organisation of the Russian gymnasia and real-schools which calls for special mention is the tutorial system. This system differs in some important details from that which is known by the same name in some English public schools. The class tutor (*klassnyi nastavnik*) in Russia exercises many functions which in England are undertaken by the form master. One such tutor is attached to each class, the person appointed to the office being generally chosen from among the masters who give the largest number of lessons to the class. While the duties of a teacher in a Russian school are confined to watching over the progress made by his pupils in the particular subject or subjects for which he is responsible, the class tutor is supposed to supervise the instruction of the class as a whole, to take an interest in the general intellectual and moral development of each pupil, and with this object to enter into relations with the class masters on the one hand, and with the parents of the pupils on the other. The class tutors have in particular to see that the pupils of their class attend the lessons regularly in all subjects, and to keep a day book in which are entered notes of their progress and conduct. Two assistants are assigned to the class tutors in a gymnasium or real-school, one in a progymnasium. The Government has always attached special importance to the tutorial system (which has existed in its present form only since the seventies) seeing in it not only a valuable means of moral influence, but also a guarantee for the wise co-ordination of the work of a particular class, and against the imposition of excessive demands on the time and energy of the pupils, which is the special danger of the subject system of instruction and frequently results in overstrain and nervous breakdown. The practice of the higher authorities has therefore always been to give the preference in the matter of promotion or honorary rewards to those teachers who have most distinguished themselves by their success as class tutors.

In the secondary technical schools the tutorial system is not so fully developed, but in all such schools there are in addition to the ordinary teaching staff one or more officials with the title of *nadzir-*

atel, or supervisor, whose duty it is to watch over the conduct of the pupils, and to supply the place of class teachers who chance to be absent for any reason.

The internal administration of the girls' day schools (gymnasia and progymnasia) under the control of the Ministry of Public Instruction differs in some important respects from that of the boys' schools under the same Department on the one hand, and from that of the girls' schools under other Departments on the other. The general control of each girls' gymnasium is in the hands of a Directress, but the instruction is supervised by a Pedagogical Council, which is presided over, not by the Directress, but by the Director of the local gymnasium, or failing such an official, by some other person representing the Ministry. The Economical [Finance] Committee consists of the president of the Pedagogical Council, the Directress, and members elected by the municipalities or other public bodies which support the school either entirely or jointly with the Government.

The internal organisation of the primary schools under the Ministry of Public Instruction calls for little remark. In the upper primary schools of general education (especially the Urban Schools) where there are several teachers, these form a Pedagogical Council which discusses and decides all matters of organisation, discipline, promotion, award of certificates, choice of books for the library, and the like. Certain persons bearing the title of "honorary supervisors" (*pochetnye smotriteli*), who are appointed by the Curator in State-provided schools, and by the founders in other schools, also have a right to attend the sittings of the Pedagogical Councils of Urban Schools. The Trade Schools under the Ministry of Public Instruction have a similar organisation to that of the Urban Schools. The organisation of the lower technical schools follows the lines of that of the secondary technical schools which has already been described. In the ordinary primary school with one class all responsibility for the general conduct of the school rests with the single teacher.

The details given above refer especially to schools under the control of the Ministry of Public Instruction which are not conducted with a view to private profit. As regards private adventure schools, certain peculiarities of organisation remain to be noted. These schools are officially divided into three grades in accordance with the length of their courses. Generally speaking, the schools of the first grade have courses corresponding to those of the State secondary schools (gymnasia or real-schools), the schools of the second grade have courses corresponding either to those of the progymnasia, or to those of the Urban or District Schools; the curricula of the schools of the third grade, which form the great majority, are purely primary in character. There are besides a number of private schools which are classified by the same method, but pursue special aims, such as the preparation of clerks, book-keepers, or copyists. The higher grades of private schools are always separate for the two sexes; those of the primary type are

frequently mixed. As regards their external administration, all private schools are under the control of the Ministry of Public Instruction, which exercises the same kind of oversight over them as over the State Schools. In the two capitals, the supervision of private schools is entrusted to the District Inspectors; in the provinces, to the Directors and Inspectors of Primary Schools. The internal organisation of private schools follows generally the lines of that of the corresponding public institutions, though variations in detail occur. Questions of finance and the appointment of teachers are, of course, left in the hands of the principals, the State, however, intervening to fix the standard of academical qualification both for principals and assistants (for particulars see p. 131).

(b) The educational organisation of the Holy Synod* is analogous in its general character to that of the Ministry of Public Instruction, though differing from it in some important points of detail. The supreme control over all grades of ecclesiastical schools and colleges is of course vested in the Holy Synod, but in respect of actual supervision and administration much the same position is assigned to the Bishop of the diocese as is occupied under the Ministry of Public Instruction by the Curator; and the local organisation of primary education under the Holy Synod follows closely the system adopted for the schools of the zemstvos by the legislation of 1874.

* The Holy Synod is the organ of the autocracy in relation to ecclesiastical affairs. It was created by Peter the Great to take the place, and exercise the functions, of the patriarchate which he abolished. Its members, consisting of Metropolitans, Archbishops, and Bishops (with the Exarch of Georgia) are all appointed by the Emperor, some permanently, others for a fixed period. It holds its sessions in St. Petersburg, and the Metropolitan of St. Petersburg generally acts as its president; the provincial members sit by rota. The Holy Synod differs from the secular Ministries in that its decisions are not subject to revision by the Senate, nor have its projects of law to be submitted to the Council of the Empire; it has, in fact, the same competence in regard to ecclesiastical affairs as belongs to the Senate in the civil sphere. In relation to the Holy Synod the High Procurator, who is always a layman, acts as the Emperor's representative and intermediary; his duty is to see that the acts of the Holy Synod are in accordance with the civil law, to submit its legislative projects for Imperial sanction, and to communicate to the Synod all Imperial commands affecting the sphere of its administration. He also presents to the Emperor a periodical report on ecclesiastical affairs. He has a seat on the Council of Ministers, and in other respects possesses the rights of a minister for legislative and administrative purposes. Certain matters of ecclesiastical administration are expressly reserved to him, and current administration is largely in his hands. The same dualism is reproduced in local diocesan administration. The affairs of each diocese (eparchy) are in the hands of Eparchial Consistories, composed of the Bishop of the diocese and four or five members appointed by the Holy Synod on his nomination, and chosen both from the Black and the White clergy. The administrative business of each consistory is discharged by a lay secretary, who is appointed by the Holy Synod on the recommendation of the High Procurator, and stands in much the same position in relation to the Consistory as the High Procurator, to whom he is directly responsible, occupies with reference to the Holy Synod.

The internal organisation of the Ecclesiastical Academies is in many respects similar to that of the Universities, the only essential difference being that the latter institutions consist of several faculties, the former of one only. The Rector of the Academy is a clergyman of learning and eminence appointed by the Holy Synod on the recommendation of the Bishop. He is responsible for the good order and well-being of the institution, and for the general course and tendency of the instruction, in which he himself must take a certain part; he also presides over the meetings of the Council and *Pravlenie* and reports to the Bishop monthly, or more frequently in case of necessity, on the condition of the institution under his charge. The Inspector is appointed in the same way as the Rector, and is preferably a clergyman, but, contrary to the system prevailing in the Universities under the statute of 1884, he must be a member of the staff of ordinary Professors, and he is also more directly and exclusively subordinate to the Rector than are the University inspectors. All members of the teaching staff, including ordinary and extraordinary Professors, Docents and Lectors must (with the exception of the teachers of modern languages) be members of the Orthodox Church. Ordinary Professors must have the degree of Doctor of Theology (or the equivalent degree in Church History or Canon Law); extraordinary Professors and Docents must have at least the degree of Master of Theology. An exception to this rule is admitted in the case of professorships in subjects common to the Academies and the Russian Universities; for these chairs persons holding the requisite degree from one of the Russian Universities are eligible. Appointments on the teaching staff are made by the Holy Synod in the case of Professors, by the Bishop in the case of Docents and Lectors, the Council of the Academy having in all cases the statutory right to nominate candidates. The Council consists of the Rector, Inspector, and all ordinary and extraordinary Professors, the Rector having also the right to invite other members of the teaching staff to sit and vote on questions on which their opinion is considered valuable. All questions relating to the instruction given in the Academy come within the purview of the Council; but its decisions in the more important matters require confirmation either by the Bishop (*e.g.*, the conferring of the title of Actual Student or the degree of Candidate, the choice of Docents and Lectors) or by the Holy Synod (*e.g.*, the conferring of the higher degrees, and the choice of professors). Finance and general administration are in the hands of the *Pravlenie*, consisting of the Rector as President, the Inspector, three ordinary Professors elected by their colleagues, and (for financial matters only) a lay "honorary warden" (*bliustitel*) and the bursar of the Academy.

The secondary schools administered by the Holy Synod are of three kinds; ecclesiastical seminaries and schools (for boys), and diocesan girls' schools. The internal organisation of the seminaries follows closely that of the Academies. The Rector and Inspector are appointed in the same manner as the corresponding officers of the Academies; at the commencement of the school year the members

of the teaching staff are also appointed by the Holy Synod on the recommendation of the Councils of the Academies, but vacancies occurring during the school year are filled up by the High Procurator personally. In the case both of the Rector and the Inspector and also (as a rule) of the ordinary members of staff the degree of Magister or Candidate of Theology is required ; but for teachers of the physical or mathematical sciences a certificate qualifying its holder to teach these subjects in the gymnasia is sufficient. The seminaries differ from the Academies in having no Council, the functions of that body being discharged by the *Pravlenie*, which is divided into two sections, dealing respectively with educational and administrative matters. Besides the Rector and Inspectors three members of the teaching staff sit on the *Pravlenie*, holding their office by appointment of the Bishop. The local diocesan clergy are also represented by three members on the educational section of the *Pravlenie*, and by one member of the administrative section. These clerical representatives are elected by Diocesan Conferences, consisting of certain of the clergy called together by the Bishop for this purpose as well as for the consideration of the financial needs of the seminaries. The number of the clergy so summoned, and the method of their selection, are left to the discretion of the Bishop.

The Academies are kept in close touch with the seminaries by the requirement that the Councils of the former shall nominate teachers for the vacant posts in the latter at the beginning of each school year, shall appoint members of their own body as visitors (*revizory*) of the seminaries, and generally shall consider measures for improving the character of the instruction given in the seminaries. The *Pravlenie* of each seminary has a still more direct responsibility for the teaching and general conduct of the ecclesiastical schools established within the same eparchy, supervising their curricula, selecting the text-books and educational apparatus to be used in them, deciding matters referred to them by the *Pravleniia* of the schools, considering the reports of their head-teachers and communicating their conclusions thereupon to the Bishop, and finally, at the instance of the Bishop, appointing visitors to inspect the schools and reporting to him on the results of such inspection.

While the Academies and seminaries are supported in the main by funds at the disposal of the Holy Synod, supplemented in the case of the seminaries by a direct Treasury grant, the ecclesiastical schools are largely dependent for their support upon funds locally raised by the clergy. Hence has arisen a peculiar local organisation for the supply of the financial needs of the schools. Each diocese is divided into several "school districts," according to the number of ecclesiastical schools it contains, and conferences of clergy arranged by the Bishop, after the manner of the Diocesan Conferences described above, are held from time to time within each school district to consider the financial circumstances of the District school, to elect members of the School *Pravlenie* and for similar purposes. The internal organisation of the ecclesiastical school calls for no special remark. The head teacher (*smotritel*), his assistant, and the whole

of the staff of the ecclesiastical school, are appointed in precisely the same way as the corresponding officers of the seminaries, and *Pravlenie* is similarly constituted, consisting of the head teacher, an assistant, one teacher appointed by the Bishop, and two clerics elected at the conference of the diocesan district served by the school.

The diocesan girls' schools are wholly supported by funds raised from the local clergy, who are represented on the school council by members appointed by the Diocesan Conferences called together to deal with matters affecting the seminaries. At the head of the diocesan girls' schools is placed a "mistress" (*nachal'nitsa*) whose special duty it is to care for the moral and religious training of the pupils. In the discharge of this duty she is assisted by a number of governesses (*vospitateknitsy*) who, in addition to their duties of the health, conduct and deportment of the girls committed to their charge, teach them sewing and embroidery, and assist them in the preparation of their other lessons. The supervision of the instruction is entrusted to an "inspector of classes," who is always a layman with the degree of Magister or Candidate, and who also takes the religious teaching in the school. The teachers, whether clerical or lay persons possessing satisfactory certificates of education passed through a course of instruction in higher and secondary educational institutions. The Council of the school is presided over by a clergyman appointed by the Bishop, and consists, in addition to the mistress, of two clerical members appointed by the Diocesan Conference, the mistress, and the inspector. The mistress is selected by the Council, but her appointment has to be confirmed by the Holy Synod, to which the name of the chosen candidate is sent up by the Council, but the latter may, if he dissents from the choice of the Council, propose an alternative name to the Holy Synod. All other members of the staff are actually appointed by the Bishop, the inspector is selected by the Council, and the *vospitateknitsy* by the mistress.

We now proceed to describe the organisation by means of which the Holy Synod administers the 40,000 primary schools under its control. The supreme control of the system is vested in a School Council in St. Petersburg, consisting of a president (who is always a bishop) appointed by the Holy Synod, the Chief Inspector with his assistants, and nine permanent members (lay or clerical) appointed by the Synod. A physician and an architect also take part in the deliberations of the Council in matters on which their advice is needed; and persons who have rendered special services to the Church schools may also be elected honorary members of the Council. Extraordinary sittings of the Council held for the consideration of general questions affecting the progress of the primary schools may be attended by any of the following persons, if specially invited: presidents and members of the Eparchial School Councils and their sections, eparchial and district inspectors, clerical inspectors of schools, honorary curators and other persons engaged in educational work in connection with the Church schools. The School Council of the Holy Synod is not only charged with the

administration, both financial and educational, of the schools belonging to the Holy Synod, but it also takes cognisance of the work of the clergy in all primary schools. Among other duties, it decides the curricula of the Church schools, supervises the publication of cheap school books and books of general literature, suitable for popular use, and organises the training-schools and the model schools in connection with the ecclesiastical seminaries and diocesan girls' schools. Within each eparchy * (or diocese) the administration of the schools is entrusted to the Eparchial School Council, which is presided over by a clergyman of academic status appointed by the Bishop, and consists besides of the eparchial inspector of Church schools, a representative of the Ministry of Public Instruction (generally the Director of primary schools), and nine permanent members (laymen or clergymen) appointed by the Bishop. Honorary membership of the Eparchial School Council is also conferred in return for special ser-

~~vice.~~ The Eparchial School Council is specially charged with the Diocesan Cment within the eparchy of Church parochial schools, gether by t and readings, Sunday schools, and popular readings in the of the finann Sundays and festival days, and also with the develop- so summer Church singing. The District Sections of the Eparchial tion of the councils are specially entrusted with the care and supervision

The *Acaikoly gramoty*. Each District Section consists of a president requiremeed by the Bishop, the district inspector of Church schools, for the vaca clergyman), certain of the higher local clergy, and eight lay shall appoal members appointed by the Bishop, who may also invite a seminarientative of the district zemstvo or local municipality to take character the deliberations of the section. The local Inspector of of each sem schools (or other representative of the Ministry of Public and generaion, nominated by the Curator) is *ex officio* a member of the the same as are also the local land-captains, if of the Orthodox Catholic books and finally, the management of, and responsibility for, the Church matters real schools and the *shkoly gramoty* existing within each parish the reported to the parish priest. Thus at every point the organisa- sions therthe Church schools is closely connected with that of the Church Bishop, and the whole administration is practically in the hands of the him on tl. The parish is the unit of administration : within the parish

While anagement of the schools is in the hands of the local priest ; the funds atchial School Councils and their District Sections again derive the sr authority entirely from the Bishop of the diocese, by whom their schoolabers are appointed ; finally, the supreme authority resides raisedh the Central School Council nominated by the Holy Synod itself. for thic) The general administration of the educational institutions of divide Empress Maria is vested in the central " Council of Guardians " eccle.pekunskii Sovet) and in the Chief Administrator (*glavnouprav-* by *miustchi*) of the Department. The immediate supervision of these scribstitutions is entrusted to a special Curator, appointed by the to cemperor from among the members of the Council. The *gymnasia*

mer
int * The Eparchy is as a rule coterminous with the Government (*gubernia*)
rer 10 province.

within a particular district (*e.g.*, those of St. Petersburg) are placed under the control of a chief of gymnasia (*Nachalnik gimanzii*) who is nominated by the Council of Guardians and presented by the Curator for approval to the Empress. The function of the Chief of Gymnasia, who acts under the direction of the Curator, includes financial and general administration; he has a general control over the gymnasia, selects teachers for appointment by the Curator, assigns them their work, fixes examinations, and in other ways supervises the course of the instruction. For the discharge of the duties of his post he has an assistant who, like himself, is nominated by the Council of Guardians and approved by the Empress. Such matters as the choice of books for the schools are decided by a special Scientific Committee within the Department, consisting of the Curator, the Chiefs of Gymnasia, and the Inspectors of Studies.

For the internal administration of each gymnasium there exists the same kind of dual organisation which we have already noted in the case of the diocesan girls' schools, the moral and intellectual sides of education being to some extent separately provided for, the former by the Directress (*glavnaiia nadziratel'nitsa*) and the *dames de classe*, the latter by the inspector of studies (*inspektor klassov*) assisted by a staff of teachers of both sexes. The Directress has general charge of the girls whilst at the school, and watches particularly over their health, deportment and conduct; in all these matters she is assisted by the *klassnaia dama* attached to each class. The inspector, who must be an experienced teacher of academic status, has the direction of the girls' studies, and is also immediately responsible for the financial management of the school. In his educational functions he is assisted by a Pedagogical Conference, and in his administrative duties he has the support of a Finance Committee (*khoziaistvennyi komitet*). The Pedagogical Conference, which has much the same functions as the Pedagogical Councils of the boys' schools, is presided over by the Chief of Gymnasia, or his assistant; or, in the absence of either of these, by the inspector, the Directress, or other member. The Finance Committee is presided over by the inspector, and consists besides of the Directress and two other masters. In addition to the ordinary staff of masters and mistresses, a lady doctor is attached to each gymnasium, and in St. Petersburg this lady also gives the lessons in hygiene and first aid, which there form part of the curriculum.

The Pedagogical Courses maintained by the Department of the Institutions of the Empress Maria are not under the control of the ordinary Curator. Their honorary Curator is H.I.H. the Grand Duke Constantine Constantinovich. They fall, however, within the sphere of administration of the Chief of Gymnasia; and their organisation is in other respects analogous to that of the gymnasia. At their head is placed a Senior Directress (*starshaiia nadziratel'nitsa*) with two assistants, and an inspector.

(d) The Commercial Schools of the Ministry of Finance are attached to the Department of Trade and Manufactures within

that Ministry, and oversight on behalf of the central Government is maintained over them by an Educational Committee (*Uchebnyĭ Komitet*) the President of which is appointed to his post by the Minister of Finance. The Committee includes several members nominated by the Minister of Finance, one member nominated by the Ministry of Public Instruction, and other persons who sit at the invitation of the President and have the right to vote on equal terms with the nominated members. To this Committee are submitted in general all questions touching the work of the schools, and in particular statutes proposed for individual schools, programmes of work, circulars and instructions issued to the schools. The choice of text-books also comes within their purview, the range of choice being in practice confined to books approved by the Ministry of Public Instruction and the Holy Synod. Local supervision of the schools is maintained by means of a body of Government inspectors attached to the Ministry. The oversight of the individual schools is entrusted to local Councils of Curators. Each of these Councils consists of a president, the director or other person in charge of the school, and of ordinary members whose number is fixed by the Statute of the school. The president and the ordinary members are selected by the societies or other bodies founding the schools, but in all cases, except that of the president of the Council of a Commercial School proper, the appointment is subject to confirmation by the Minister of Finance, who has also the right to add a member to any Council at his own discretion. The heads of all grades of schools are appointed by these Councils subject to confirmation by the Minister. In Commercial Schools the subordinate members of the staff are appointed by the director, in the schools of lower grade by the Councils: in either case confirmation by the Department of Trade and Manufactures is required. Approval of the appointment of religious teachers must, however, be given by the local eparchial authorities.

III.—INSTRUCTION IN THE VARIOUS TYPES OF INSTITUTION.

Under this head it is intended to supplement with further details the general information contained in the Historical Sketch and in the first section of this chapter on the subject of the instruction provided by the various educational institutions there referred to. It is obviously impossible within the limits of a report like this to deal with this part of the subject in anything like an exhaustive manner; and the difficulty increases as we go higher and higher in the educational scale. Higher education is necessarily specialised; secondary and elementary instruction may be either general or special. If we reckon the different faculties in each University as being for our present purpose separate institutions, a complete survey of higher instruction in Russia would involve the description of perhaps a hundred varieties of organised academic teaching (some of them, it is true, only slightly differentiated from one another). With regard to higher instruction, therefore, we shall content our-

selves with presenting some particulars as to the courses of study in the Russian Universities and the Ecclesiastical Academies, together with a conspectus of the plans of study in eleven of the higher technical colleges of Russia. This conspectus is borrowed from an extremely interesting and valuable paper read before the Congress of the Imperial Russian Technical Society in 1897 by M. Anopov, who has for many years been the chief Russian authority on all subjects connected with industrial and technical education.*

No account of higher instruction in Russia would be adequate which did not include some information as to organisation of studies in those institutions of the boarding-school type which combine secondary and higher instruction. The Alexander Lyceum has, therefore, been selected for special notice as a representative institution of this class.

Secondary instruction presents a much smaller variety of type than higher, but here also selection is inevitable. The particulars given will, it is hoped, give a good general idea of the scope of instruction in the chief types of secondary schools giving either a general or a technical education. These particulars include a summary account of the course of studies pursued in the two kinds of schools of general education (gymnasias and real-schools) under the Ministry of Public Instruction, in the ecclesiastical seminaries and schools and in the Cadet Corps; a similar account of the course of the girls' day schools under the Department of the Institutions of the Empress Maria, and of that of the diocesan girls' schools; some particulars as to the curricula of two selected Commercial Schools; the scheme of studies of a school combining general and technical education (the Kommissarov Technical School at Moscow); and the general schemes of studies sanctioned for intermediate technical schools under the Ministry of Public Instruction.

The instruction given in the various primary schools of general education being almost homogeneous throughout the Empire, it has been thought sufficient to describe in detail the curriculum of the schools administered by the Ministry of Public Instruction.

Finally, some details are added as to the curricula in use at the various training institutions for secondary and primary teachers.

L.—HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

(a) *Universities.*—The following are the subjects of instruction in the respective Faculties in the seven Universities to which the provisions of the statute of 1884 apply. It should be borne in mind that there is no Faculty of Medicine in the University of St. Petersburg; that the Faculty of Oriental Languages exists in that University alone; and that the University of Tomsk contains only Faculties in Medicine and Law. Apart from the Faculty subjects, instruction in Divinity is provided for the Orthodox students in each University.

* Po voprosu o merakh k naibolee bystromu, s naimenshimi zatratami, rasprostraneniin v nashem otechestvie vyshago spetsialnogo obrazovaniia: S.P.B., 1897.

Historico-Philological Faculty.—Philosophy; Classical Philology; Comparative Philology and Sanskrit; Russian Language and Literature; Slavonic Philology; Geography and Ethnography; Universal History; Russian History; History of Western European Literature; Church History; Theory and History of the Fine Arts. (Twenty ordinary and five extraordinary professors; there are also four lectors in Modern Languages, viz., German, French, English, and Italian.)

Physico-Mathematical Faculty.—Pure Mathematics; Theoretical and Practical Mechanics; Astronomy and Geodesy; Physics and Physical Geography; Chemistry; Mineralogy and Geology; Botany; Zoology, Comparative Anatomy and Physiology; Technology and Technical Chemistry; Agronomy. (Twenty ordinary and five extraordinary professors.)

Faculty of Law.—Roman Law; Civil Law and Procedure; Mercantile Law and Procedure; Criminal Law and Procedure; History of Russian Law; State Law; International Law; Administrative Law; Financial Law; Ecclesiastical Law; Political Economy and Statistics; Encyclopædia of Law and History of the Philosophy of Law. (Eleven ordinary and four extraordinary professors.)

Faculty of Medicine.—Anatomy; Physiology; Histology and Embryology; Medical Chemistry; Pharmacognosis and Pharmacy; Pharmacology with Composition of Medicines, Toxicology and Study of Mineral Waters; General Pathology; Pathological Anatomy; Medical Diagnosis with introduction to Clinic; Private Pathology and Therapeutics; Systematic and Clinical Study of Nervous and Mental Diseases; Systematic and Clinical Study of Cutaneous and Syphilitic Diseases; Therapeutic Faculty Clinic; Therapeutic Hospital Clinic; Operative Surgery with Topographic Anatomy and practice in operations; Surgical Pathology, with desmurgy and study of dislocations and fractures; Surgical Faculty Clinic; Surgical Hospital Clinic; Ophthalmology with Clinic; Midwifery, Women's and Children's Diseases with Clinic; Medical Law; Hygiene, and, in connection therewith, Epidemiology and Public Health, Medical Statistics, Study of Epizootic Diseases and Veterinary Police. (Fourteen ordinary and nine extraordinary professors.)

Faculty of Oriental Languages.—Sanskrit; Arabic; Persian; Turco-Tatar; Chinese and Manchurian; Oriental History; Mongol and Kalmuk; Hebrew; Syriac, and Chaldaic; Armenian and Georgian. (Six ordinary and three extraordinary professors; there are also lectors—not exceeding eight—in special languages or dialects.)

Admission to the Universities takes place once a year, before the 20th of August, and is confined to those who have obtained the certificate of maturity (*attestat zrelosti*) from the gymnasium, or hold a similar leaving certificate from some other institution whose curriculum is recognised by the Minister of Public Instruction as equivalent to that of the gymnasium; e.g., the curriculum of the ecclesiastical seminaries was formerly so recognised, but this recognition is now confined to three Universities.* Besides students the University lectures are also open on certain conditions to persons unconnected with the University.

On admission, each student must attach himself to some particular Faculty, though he is at liberty also to attend lectures in any other Faculty. Each Faculty is required by Statute to frame one or more schemes of study for the guidance of the students attached to that Faculty. These schemes, which are sanctioned by the Minister after consideration by the University Council, must set

* Viz., Warsaw, Dorpat and Tomsk. The great majority of students in the University of Tomsk are drawn from the ecclesiastical seminaries.

forth the subjects which the student is required to take up, and the general lines on which they should be studied. Each student is required to take one of these schemes as a guide, and no deviation from the selected scheme is permitted without the sanction of the Dean of the Faculty. During his University course he must also attend a fixed number of lectures each term, present himself for such intermediate examinations as are appointed by his Faculty, and must also fulfil the requirements of the Faculty in respect of practical work in the laboratories and the like. Detailed regulations on all these points are published by the central authorities, and no student is allowed to count any term in which he has failed to comply with the requirements laid down in these regulations. Two terms (*polugodnia*) are reckoned in each year, and for admission to the final examination held by the State Commission a student is required to have kept ten terms in the Faculty of Medicine, and eight terms in each of the other Faculties. For the purpose of these final examinations five different Commissions corresponding to the five Faculties are appointed by the Minister in connection with each University. The examinations conducted by these Commissions are both written and oral. The candidates who satisfy the examiners receive a diploma either of the first or the second grade, according to the marks they have received. Those who fail to pass are allowed to sit again for examination within two University terms from the date of their first examination, and meanwhile may, with the consent of the Curator, attend lectures as "auditors." Under the same conditions a student who has received a diploma of the second grade may be re-examined for a diploma of the first grade. A student may not be re-examined more than twice in the same Faculty.

The diploma conferred by the State Examining Commission is not technically a degree, though it is fully equivalent in value to the B.A. degree conferred by our British Universities. It opens the doors of the public service, it confers a definite status in the hierarchy of ranks, and it gives the right of entry into the learned professions. With the diploma, therefore, the great majority of Russian students rest satisfied. Only a select few remain at the University to read for a degree, and most of these do so with the view of ultimately obtaining a professorial chair. In all Faculties except that of Medicine there are two degrees—Magister and Doctor; in the Faculty of Medicine there is only one—that of Doctor. The period that elapses between the State examination and the first examination for a degree varies with different students. In some cases it is a year; it cannot be more than four years. If a student needs assistance during the period of preparation for a degree, he can obtain through his Faculty a bursary for two years, renewable for an additional year. In view of the high standard of attainment required for either of the two learned degrees, these bursaries constitute a real endowment of research. They are, however, only granted to those who need them; and many students prosecute their studies without them, either at the University or elsewhere.

The degree regulations vary in certain details in different Universities, but the following requirements are fixed by Statute. As a rule, the degree of Magister must be obtained before that of Doctor, but the University Council, with the sanction of the Minister, may waive this condition in the case of persons distinguished by their scientific labours. To the examination for the degree of Magister (or of Doctor in the Faculty of Medicine) only persons are admitted who have obtained a diploma from a Russian University,* but in exceptional cases Doctors of foreign Universities may be admitted by the Faculty to the examination without satisfying this condition. The candidate for the degree of Magister, or in the Faculty of Medicine for that of Doctor, is required to submit to an oral examination before the whole Faculty, and publicly to defend a dissertation approved by the Faculty. Candidates for the degree of Doctor, in all Faculties save that of Medicine, are required only to defend publicly a dissertation approved by the Faculty. The degree of Doctor may also be conferred on distinguished persons without examination, but for this purpose the vote of a majority of two-thirds of the members of the University Council is required, and their decision must be confirmed by the Minister of Public Instruction.

(b) *Ecclesiastical Academies*.—The course of the Academies occupies four years, and consists partly of obligatory subjects taken by all students, and partly of alternative subjects selected by the individual students.

Obligatory subjects taken by all students are the following :—

1. Introduction to the theological sciences.
2. Holy Scripture and Biblical History.
3. Dogmatic Theology.
4. Moral Theology.
5. Homiletics and the History of Christian Preaching.
6. Pastoral Theology and Pedagogica.
7. Ecclesiastical Law.
8. History of the Church, i.e., of the Universal Church until the separation; afterwards of the Orthodox Eastern and of the Russian Church.
9. Patristica.
10. Ecclesiastical archæology and Liturgica.
11. Philosophy (a) logic, psychology, metaphysics; (b) history of philosophy.

The other subjects of instruction are divided into two groups, one or other of which may be taken at the option of the individual student.

The first group comprises :—

- (1) Theory of literature and history of foreign literatures.
- (2) The Russian and Slavonic languages (with palæography) and the history of Russian literature.
- (3) Hebrew and Biblical Archæology.
- (4) One ancient and one modern language.

* Some Universities (e.g. Moscow) confine admission to the Examination for the degree of Magister to those students who have obtained a diploma of the first grade. Others, as for example St. Petersburg, make no such restriction. The diploma of the first grade corresponds to the older degree of Candidate, which was abolished under the Statute of 1884.

The second group comprises :—

- (1) History and criticism of Western religious beliefs.
- (2) History and confutation of Russian Dissent.
- (3) General secular history.
- (4) Russian secular history.
- (5) One ancient and one modern language.

In the Academy of Kazan which, from its geographical position, is largely attended by students destined to labour as clergymen among non-Russian and non-Orthodox populations, there have been established, parallel with the two above-mentioned groups of special subjects, two sections of so-called "missionary subjects," called respectively the Tatar and the Mongol section. Either of these sections may be taken in lieu of one of the groups of special subjects, except that a student choosing either the Tatar or the Mongol section is bound in addition to take one ancient and one modern language.

The Tatar section comprises :—

- (1) History and confutation of Mohammedanism.
- (2) Ethnology of the Tatar, Kirghiz, Bashkir, Chuvash, Cheremiss, Votjak and Mordvinian tribes.
- (3) History of the spread of Christianity among the above tribes.
- (4) The Arabic and Tatar languages with general philological survey of the languages and dialects of the above-mentioned tribes.

The Mongol section comprises :—

- (1) History and confutation of Lamaism.
- (2) Ethnology of the Mongol, Buriat, Kalmuk, Ostiak, Samoyed, Yakut, Chukch, Tunguz, Manchurian, Koreits, Gold, Giliak, Koriak, and other tribes.
- (3) History of the spread of Christianity among the above tribes.
- (4) The Mongol language with its dialects (Buriat and Kalmuk), and general philological survey of the languages and dialects of the other tribes above mentioned.

For admission to an Ecclesiastical Academy it is necessary to have completed the course either of the ecclesiastical seminary or of the classical gymnasium, and to pass in addition an entrance examination. Those who acquit themselves with special distinction in the entrance examination are educated in the Academy at the expense of the State, the rest are admitted as pensioner-students at their own charges. An examination is held at the end of each academical year, and the students are classed according to the way in which they acquit themselves in this annual examination, the essays written by them on given themes during the year, and their general conduct being also taken into consideration. Those who successfully complete the full academic course receive either the degree of Candidate in Theology or the title of Actual Student, according to the degree of success with which they have passed through the course ; and a distinction is also made between Candidates according as they have been marked as "excellent" or as "good" during the four years of their course. Students who have been classed as "excellent" throughout the course, and who have also presented a dissertation pronounced by the Council of the Academy to be satisfactory for the degree of Master, receive the degree of Candidate with the right to proceed to that of Magister without further oral examination ; but

the latter degree is not actually conferred upon them until the dissertation has been published, and they have satisfactorily defended it in presence of the Council and other persons specially invited by the Council to be present (*colloquium*). Those, on the other hand, who have been classed as "very good" or "good" during their course and present a satisfactory dissertation at the conclusion thereof receive the degree of Candidate, but for the degree of Magister are subjected to a further oral examination, and present a new dissertation. Students classed as "fair" during their course and presenting no dissertation or one considered unworthy of the degree of Candidate receive the title of Actual Student. A Candidate who has failed to fulfil all the requirements for the Master's degree at the conclusion of his course may obtain it later by presenting a new dissertation, and (in the case of those not classed as excellent during their course) by passing another oral examination; and the same rule applies, *mutatis mutandis*, to Actual Students seeking the degree of Candidate. The Doctor's degree, which is open only to those who have already taken the degree of Master in Theology, is conferred either on the strength of a dissertation or on the ground of general scholarship, in either case without oral examination. In contradistinction to the lower degrees, which are in Theology only, the Doctor's degree may be taken either in Theology, Church History, or Ecclesiastical Law, according to the nature of the dissertation or of the independent contribution to the advance of learning on the ground of which the degree is granted.

(c) *Higher Technical Colleges*.—It is impossible, without entering into disproportionate detail, to give anything like a full account of the curricula of the higher technical institutions, as each of them is necessarily pursuing a special aim, with a correspondingly specialised program of studies. We shall, therefore, content ourselves with giving the general conspectus of subjects of study, prepared by M. Anopov (see Appendix II. to this chapter, p. 271), adding here a few words of explanation as to some general features of the organisation of instruction in these institutions.

The students of a higher technical college are drawn from three classes, corresponding to their previous intellectual training. They may be either (a) students who have completed a course at some other place of higher education; (b) those who have completed the course of a secondary school of general education, whether gymnasium or real-school; or (c) those who have completed the course of some other place of education recognised as affording an adequate preparation for admission to the technical institution in question. The first class of students are admitted without examination; all others have to submit to a competitive examination, if, as usually happens, the number of applications for admission exceeds the number of vacancies.

Each of the technical colleges is intended to prepare for a particular profession; and the student who successfully completes the course, and passes the final examination in any one of them, receives

a title (*zvanie*) corresponding to the profession he is about to enter. Thus the Technological Institutes of Kharkov and St. Petersburg confer the title of "engineer-technologist" or "technologist" according as the candidate passes his final examination with distinction or otherwise. The Moscow Technical School confers in addition the title of "engineer-mechanician" or "mechanician." Under similar conditions the Institute of Rural Economy and Forestry at New Alexandria confers the title of "agronom" or "forester" of the first or second grade.

II.—HIGHER AND SECONDARY INSTRUCTION COMBINED.

THE ALEXANDER LYCEUM AT ST. PETERSBURG.

We have selected the Alexander Lyceum as representing a small but highly important class of Russian educational institutions where the sons of the higher Russian nobility receive both secondary and higher education. The Alexander Lyceum (which until the forties was situated at Tsarskoe Selo, and known as the Tsarskoe Selo Lyceum) is at once the oldest and the most famous of these institutions. Its early annals are illuminated by the name of Pushkin, who, even as a pupil at the Lyceum, had already won fame as a poet: the famous satirist M. E. Saltykov (*Schedrin*) was also educated there. During the ninety-four years which have elapsed since its foundation more than 1,400 pupils have received their education there, who have afterwards occupied important posts in the public service. Of these, we may specially mention three successive Ministers of Public Instruction—Golovnin, Count D. Tolstoi, and Saburov: three Ministers of Foreign Affairs well known throughout Europe—Prince A. M. Gorchakov, M. N. K. Giers, and Prince A. B. Lobanov-Rostovski: Count M. Kh. Reutern, Minister of Finance; M. K. K. Grot, Chief of the Department of the Institutions of the Empress Maria; Count Bobrinski, Minister of Ways of Communication, and others. The list printed in the *Pamiatnaia Knizhka* of the Lyceum for 1899, of offices in the public service, which are now being filled by old pupils, is a striking proof of the services which the Lyceum has rendered, and continues to render, to the Russian nation.

Admission to the Lyceum is confined to boys belonging to the hereditary nobility, and the sons of persons possessing the title of Actual Counsellor of State or the rank of general. All the pupils are boarders, the fees being fixed at 800 roubles for board and tuition. Counting the preparatory school, which is, however, housed in separate premises close to the main building, the Lyceum consists of nine classes; three in the preparatory school, and six in the Lyceum proper. The six Lyceum classes are divided into two sections, the lower of which gives a secondary education corresponding to that of the gymnasium, the higher or academic section being largely, though not entirely, occupied with the study of law. Among subjects of general education, mathematics and modern languages

occupy, on the whole, the most important place. The latter are dropped only in the last year of the senior course, and the greatest possible pains are taken to give the pupils a thorough practical and colloquial knowledge of the three chief European languages—French, German, and English—as well as an acquaintance with the masterpieces of their literatures. That the knowledge of modern languages possessed by the pupils of the Lyceum is wonderfully good the writer can testify from personal experience. Latin is also a subject of serious study in the preparatory school and in the junior section of the Lyceum; but Greek is not taught at all. Physical exercises of various kinds—such as gymnastics, fencing, military exercises, dancing—occupy an hour and a half each day, viz., from eleven to one, with a break of half an hour for lunch. Lessons in the lower classes are from 8 to 11 a.m., and from 1 to 4 p.m., and from 6 to 8.25 p.m. The seniors have lectures from 9 to 11 a.m., and from 1 to 4 p.m.; they are also bound to spend a fixed portion of the evening in study. Games (*e.g.*, lawn-tennis, football, croquet, etc.) occupy a larger place in the common life of the Lyceum than is usual in Russian schools of the ordinary type.

The Lyceum is in the Department of the Institutions of the Empress Maria, and the Chief of that Department is its Curator. The resident Director is appointed directly by the Emperor; he is assisted by two inspectors, called respectively the "inspector of classes" and the "inspector of pupils," the former of whom has special charge of the intellectual side of the work of the Lyceum, the latter of discipline and morals. To each class is also attached a special tutor (*vospitatel*), whose duty it is to maintain a general oversight over the conduct of the pupils of his class, maintain order and discipline among them, and act generally as their guide, philosopher and friend. A certain number of these tutors are always chosen from the foreign language masters of the establishment, since the latter use their respective mother tongues in their intercourse with their pupils, thus greatly increasing their opportunities of obtaining a thorough command of the various languages taught at the Lyceum.

The course of instruction given in the Lyceum is indicated by the requirements for admission into the several classes, as laid down in the official handbook of the Lyceum. In the case of the intermediate classes the program of requirements is, of course, identical with the work of the class immediately below; but as no new pupils can be admitted to the two highest classes of the senior section (Classes I. and II.) the program of requirements does not set forth the work of the senior section. We give below (in Appendix III. at the end of this chapter, pp. 272-274) an abstract of the requirements for entrance (i) to the Preparatory School, (ii) to Class VI. (the lowest class of the junior section), and (iii) to Class III. (the lowest class of the senior section),* and a table showing the number of hours devoted to each subject in the various classes of the Lyceum.

* The ages of admission are fixed as follows: to the lowest division of the preparatory school, 11-13; to the middle division, 12-14; to the highest, 13-15; to Class VI., 13-16; to Class V., 14-17; to Class IV., 15-18; to Class III., 16-21,

III.—SECONDARY INSTRUCTION.

(A) SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF GENERAL EDUCATION FOR BOYS.

(i.) *Gymnasia and Real Schools.*

An account of the course of the gymnasia and real-schools, as extracted from the official schemes of study, which were in force for all such institutions in Russia until the middle of 1902, will be found at the end of this chapter in Appendix IV. The temporary organisation of secondary instruction which was then introduced has modified these schemes in many schools, *e.g.*, by deferring Greek to the fourth class of the gymnasia, or dropping it altogether. But a considerable number of gymnasia still continue to be taught on the former lines; and as the whole question of the permanent reorganisation of secondary instruction is still *sub judice* it has been thought better not to attempt any detailed description of temporary arrangements.

It should be said that the normal age of entry to the First Class of both kinds of schools is 10. Pupils are admitted a year earlier to the Preparatory Class of the gymnasia.

(ii.)—*Ecclesiastical Schools and Seminaries.*

The curricula of the ecclesiastical schools and seminaries may be considered together, since the course of the latter pre-supposes that of the former, and the four classes of the ecclesiastical school may from this point of view be considered as forming a single whole with the four lower classes of the seminary. The course of the fifth and sixth classes of the seminary is almost exclusively theological; philosophical and theological subjects are also introduced into the curriculum of the fourth class, and religious instruction receives in all classes—both of the school and of the seminaries—a larger share of attention than in the purely secular schools. With these differences, the combined course of the two grades of schools may be regarded as practically equivalent to that of the classical gymnasia. Pupils are received into the lowest class of the ecclesiastical schools between the ages of ten and twelve, and into the lowest class of the ecclesiastical seminary between the ages of fourteen and eighteen. The ages fixed for admission to the intermediate classes of either kind of institution are correspondingly higher. (For Curriculum see Appendix V., pp. 286–288.)

(iii.)—*The Cadet Corps.*

Particulars as to the course of these schools, which are under the control of the Ministry of War, and are intended to afford to boys destined for the military profession a broad general education preparatory to the special course of the higher Military Colleges, may be gathered from the official programs of requirements for admission into the various classes of the Cadet Corps. The same syllabus of

examination requirements applies also to admission into the corresponding classes of the Corps de Pages, except only as regards modern languages, in which the Corps de Pages issues its own regulations.

The Cadet Corps have a course of seven years. For admission to the first or lowest classes boys must not be under ten nor over twelve; they must possess certain elementary notions of religion and of Old and New Testament history; they must be able to read fluently in Russian and Slavonic, to recite from memory simple Russian poems and fables, to transcribe from copy and write correctly from dictation; they must have some idea of Russian grammar; they must know the multiplication table and be able to apply the four simple rules to problems not involving, in the case of multiplication and division, numbers above 100.

Generally speaking, the course of these schools presents many points of similarity with that of the gymnasia, the great difference being however that the classical languages are not taught at all in the Cadet Corps. The course in Religion (taught in all classes) and in History (Classes III. to VII. inclusive) is practically the same as that of the corresponding classes of the gymnasia. The course in foreign languages is also very similar, though French is begun in the first class in the Cadet Corps, that is, one year earlier than in the gymnasia. The general scheme of instruction in Russian follows the same general lines as that of the gymnasia, though Church Slavonic is not begun in the Cadet Corps before Class V., where it is taken in connection with the historical study of Russian.

In Geography the Cadet Corps have a special scheme. Some elementary notions of the geography of the world and of the Russian Empire are given in the First Class; the subject is dropped in the next two classes, and taken up again in Class IV., where Asia, Africa, America, Australia are studied; in Class V. Europe in general and Russia in more detail are taken; in Class VII. Russia is studied from a specially military standpoint.

The Mathematical course of Classes I.-V. inclusive is practically the same as in the gymnasia; but in the two higher classes of the Cadet Corps increased attention is paid to this subject. Trigonometry is begun in the VIth, and the Principles of Analytic Geometry in the VIIth.

Physical Science also receives much more attention in the Cadet Corps than in the gymnasia. The course of the former in this subject is much nearer that of the real-schools. In Class II. Zoology and Botany are begun, and both subjects are continued in Class III. The study of Botany is carried still further in Class IV., in which some knowledge of Mineralogy is also imparted. In Class V. the pupils are introduced to Physics, which is continued also in the two higher classes. In Class VI. Motion, Sound, Light are studied; also the elementary laws of Chemistry and Animal Physiology. The work of the seventh Class includes Heat, Magnetism, and Electricity; also Cosmography (elements of astronomy and meteorology).

A special feature of the instruction given to the pupils of the

highest class of the Cadet Corps is Law, by which is really meant an elementary course in ethical, social, political, and juridical science intended to serve as a basis for the special study of Russian law undertaken in the higher military colleges. ⁶⁷

Manual work is taught as an optional subject in each of the Cadet Corps, and more than one-third of the pupils are stated to take advantage of the instruction in this subject.

(B) SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF GENERAL EDUCATION FOR GIRLS.

(i.) Course of the day schools (gymnasias) for girls in the Department of the Institutions of the Empress Maria. The following table of lessons gives a general view of the subjects taught and the number of hours per week assigned to each. It should be noted that the classes in these schools, contrary to the usual Russian custom, are numbered downwards, the first being the highest, and the seventh the lowest.

	Classes.						
	vii.	vi.	v.	iv.	iii.	ii.	i.
Religion - -	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Russian - -	4	4	3	3	3	3	3
French - -	6	5	5	5	4	3	3
German - -	4	5	5	5	5	3	3
Mathematics -	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Geography - -	2	2	2	2	2	2	-
History - -	-	-	-	2	2	4	4
Pedagogy - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Natural Sciences	-	-	-	2	2	2	3
Hygiene and First Aid - -	-	-	-	-	-	2	1
Needlework - -	2	2	2	2	2	1	1
Singing - -	1	1	1	1	2	2	2
Dancing - -	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Calligraphy - -	2	2	2	-	-	-	-
Drawing - -	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Total - -	29	29	28	30	30	30	30

(English, Latin, and music are optional subjects, for which an extra fee is paid.)

The above is the arrangement of lessons adopted in the St Petersburg Gymnasium for Girls. It is slightly different in some respects from that in use at Moscow, *e.g.*, the teaching of Hygiene and First Aid is peculiar to St. Petersburg, the time for this subject being obtained at the expense of Natural Science and Needlework.

There are also variations in detail between the instruction given on other subjects at St. Petersburg and Moscow respectively.

The account which is given below (see Appendix VI., pp. 289-291) is translated almost verbatim from a bilingual brochure on the St. Petersburg Gymnasias, which was prepared for the Paris Exhibition.*

(i.) The course of instruction in the Diocesan Girls' Schools comprises the following obligatory subjects: religion, Russian (with Slavonic), arithmetic and the elements of geometry, geography, history (Russian and general), elements of physics, pedagogy, writing, church singing, and needlework. Optional subjects, for which a special fee must be paid, are modern languages, music, and drawing. Pupils are not admitted before the completion of their tenth year, and course lasts six years. The table given below (see Appendix VI., p. 292) shows the number of hours assigned to each obligatory subject in the various classes of the schools.

(c) COMMERCIAL EDUCATION.

Some idea of the general aim and scope of commercial education may be gained from the curricula of two schools in St. Petersburg, *viz.*, the Commercial School of St. Petersburg, which is one of the oldest schools in Russia, having been founded in the year 1772; and the Peter School of the St. Petersburg Merchants' Company. The former of these schools is in the Department of the Institutions of the Empress Maria, the latter is under the control of the Ministry of Finance. The tables given in Appendix VII. (pp. 294-295) will show the subjects taught in each of these two schools, and the number of hours assigned to each subject.

The average age of the pupils attending these schools is much the same as in the gymnasias and real schools.

(d) TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

Under this head it will suffice to give (1) the general scheme of studies pursued in one of the older intermediate technical schools, which, as has been explained in a previous section, combines in its curriculum both general and special instruction; and (2) the schemes of studies sanctioned by the Ministry of Public Instruction for the various kinds of technical schools which have been, and are now being, established in different parts of the Empire. It has been thought advisable to append these schemes to Chapter VI., which deals with the whole question of technical instruction, rather than to this chapter.

* S. Petersburgskiiia Zhenakiia Gimnazii Vedomstva Uchrezhdenii Imperatritsy Marii. Institutions de l'Impératrice Marie—Gymnasées de Jeunes Filles à S. Petersbourg. S.P.B. 1900.

IV.—PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

The great diversity of method and organisation which characterises the administration of primary schools in Russia by no means implies a corresponding variety in the methods or subject matter of instruction. In the latter respect, apart from certain inevitable differences which arise from the great diversity of language and religious belief existing within the Empire which will be considered later, the primary schools of Russia, to whatever department of State they may belong, are distinguished by very considerable uniformity. According to the classification adopted by the Ministry of Public Instruction in its officially issued "Statistics of Primary Instruction in Russia for 1898" (St. Petersburg, 1900), all Russian primary schools may be divided into three categories or grades, viz., schools with one class, schools with two classes, and those with a course superior to that of the schools with two classes.* Ninety-six per cent. of the whole number of primary schools about which the Ministry of Public Instruction possessed information belonged in 1898 to the first category. The publication just referred to thus defines the general character of this type of school. "The school with one class is a school of primary instruction, which aims at imparting to the children the first rudiments of knowledge. The knowledge thus imparted may have a greater or less degree of clearness and connectedness, and the habits acquired in the schools may be more or less firmly rooted. This difference depends neither on the particular designation of the school nor upon the Department of State to which it belongs, but upon certain general conditions which affect its efficiency, such as the financial resources of the school, the intellectual level of its environment, the social and economic conditions of the locality, the capability, degree of training, and zeal of the teacher, the activity and skill brought to bear by the management. Where these conditions are favourable, the children acquire at school not only the fundamental notions of religion and morality together with the ability to read, write, and cast accounts, but also a certain stock of practical knowledge, which however is acquired incidentally, and in any case does not constitute the aim of the school."

The one-class school of the Ministry of Public Instruction will best serve as a type of the schools belonging to this category. A good idea of the general scope of the curriculum of the schools may be ob-

* As the nomenclature in use in Russian primary schools differs somewhat from that which is most familiar to English readers, it is important to explain that the term *class* is applied in Russia to the whole number of children under the charge of a single teacher, though all the scholars composing the class may not be actually taught together. If the class consists of children in various stages of progress, it is subdivided into *sections*, the work of each section generally occupying a year. One-class schools accordingly consist of three such sections, corresponding to the three years' course of such schools, two-class schools of five sections, similarly corresponding to their five years' course, and so on.

tained from the "Model Programs* of Instruction for Primary Schools" issued by the Ministry of Public Instruction in 1897. We translate in full the "General Observations" prefixed to these programs.

"(1.) These programs are intended for schools in which the children are taught for three years and for not less than six months in the year, exclusive of holy days. This period of time must be considered the minimum for proper instruction in school.

"(2.) The programs set forth the minimum range of knowledge which ought to be attained in a one-class primary school. If the circumstances of the school are unfavourable (for example if it is attended by many children of non-Russian parents, or if the attendance generally is irregular) the time of instruction should be extended but the program should not be abridged. If, on the other hand, the circumstances of the school are especially favourable (for example, if there is a separate teacher for each division), the syllabus of instruction in particular subjects forming part of the elementary curriculum may be extended and supplemented, but only with the sanction of the Director of Primary Schools, which is given separately for each school, a report on the case being furnished to the Curator of the Educational District. †

"(3.) In view of the great educational importance of Church singing, in choosing a teacher decided preference should be given to a person able to teach singing.

"(4.) The distribution of the subject matter of instruction over the years of school life, which is adopted in these programs, is intended only as a guide, and teachers may, in accordance with local conditions, transfer parts of the course from one year to another, provided that the general aim be kept in view, viz., that the scholars should, under normal conditions, have gone through everything that is contained in the program by the end of the third winter.

"(5.) The following distribution of lessons shows the number

* Up to 1897 no detailed programs for primary schools were issued by the Ministry. The range of the instruction was, however, to some extent determined by the requirements of the examination for partial exemption from military service. In order to obtain the certificate entitling to this privilege, a candidate must have a knowledge of the prayers and liturgy of the Church, of Old and New Testament history, and of the shorter Catechism (Creed and Ten Commandments): must be able to read fluently, correctly, and intelligently a narrative or descriptive passage from an unseen book in the Russian or Slavonic character, and to reproduce the subject matter in response to questions: must write from dictation correctly and with due regard to punctuation, and be able to read manuscript: must work common problems in the four primary rules of arithmetic, and show a knowledge of Russian weights, measures, coinage, and divisions of time.

† This does not mean that either the Director of Primary Schools or the Curator has power to sanction the teaching of *subjects* not provided for by the terms of the Statute of 1874 relating to Primary Schools. A circular of the Curator of the St. Petersburg Educational District, dated in December, 1895, deals expressly with this point, and makes it quite clear that such subjects as history, geography and natural science cannot be added to the curriculum of the one-class school, though certain general notions of these subjects may be given incidentally in the course of the reading lesson.

of hours weekly which must be devoted in every primary school to each subject : this arrangement of hours may be modified for exceptional reasons, but only with the permission of the local inspector of primary schools :—

Religion - - - - -	6 hours
Church Slavonic - - - - -	3 "
Russian - - - - -	8 "
Writing - - - - -	2 "
Arithmetic - - - - -	5 "
Total - - - - - 24 "	

Three hours a week in addition are assigned to Church singing, and, where possible, instruction is given in gymnastics, especially drill. In the above table the number of hours indicates the time which the teacher is bound to devote to work with the scholars ; this time should, as far as possible, be distributed among the divisions in accordance with the following instructions :—

“(a.) The teacher of religion should divide the time devoted to this subject equally amongst the three divisions.

“(b.) In the teaching of Church Slavonic the second and third divisions may be combined and taken in reading for half an hour each day, whilst in the second half of the school year two half hours a week may be assigned for the instruction of the lowest division in the elements of Church Slavonic. During this time the two upper divisions will read Church Slavonic by themselves.

“(c.) In Russian the teacher will devote somewhat more time to the lowest divisions than to the two others, in order that the former may master the rudiments of reading and writing as quickly as possible. The rest of the time will be divided equally between the second and third divisions.

“(d.) In Arithmetic each of the three divisions should have approximately the same amount of time devoted to it.

“(e.) As regards handwriting, the teacher should devote more time to the lower and middle divisions, in order that the scholars may, as soon as possible, acquire a correct and legible style of writing.

“(6.) Whilst the teacher is giving a lesson to one division, the children of the other two divisions will be occupied independently with work set them by the teacher, and it will be most convenient to set work in the subject which the master is teaching in one of the other divisions, though, of course, exceptions to this rule may be permitted. The lowest division, for which it is difficult to devise a large number of independent occupations, may be sent home earlier than the rest, provided however that the time spent by them in school is not less than three hours daily.

“(7.) The distribution of time by days and hours (*i.e.* the composition of the weekly time-table of lessons) is a matter for the decision of the teachers among themselves, subject to the instructions of the inspector, provided, however, that the teacher of religion

be permitted the right to select the days and hours which are most convenient for him, and that the teachers shall endeavour to fix the times of lessons which place the greatest strain upon the scholars' attention early in the day, before the children have become exhausted."

The abridgment of the "Model Programs" given in Appendix VIII., pp. 296-298 will show the general lines on which it is recommended that the instruction in each subject should proceed.

The curriculum of the one-class model "schools of the Ministry" differs from the above only in having a somewhat different distribution of lessons which enables four hours a week to be devoted to linear drawing in the third year. The subjects taught in the one-class Church parochial schools under the Holy Synod are essentially the same as in the ordinary one-class schools under the Ministry, though greater stress is here laid upon the teaching of religion, Church singing, and Church Slavonic. The "reading-and-writing schools" (*shkoly gramoty*), which, since the year 1891, have been under the control of the Holy Synod, have a curriculum which embraces all the subjects necessarily taught in other one-class schools; the only difference being in the range and thoroughness with which each subject is treated.

To the rule that one-class schools have a three years' course an exception has to be made in the case of schools established for non-Russian-speaking populations. In these schools the course covers a period of not less than four years, the reason being that an extra year is required to impart a knowledge of Russian to the children, who, for the most part, are quite ignorant of it before their admission. These schools exist both under the Ministry of Public Instruction and the Holy Synod; the organisation of those in connection with the latter owes much to the labours of the late Director of the Kazan Church Training School, N. I. Ilminski.

The curriculum of the primary school with two classes is, during the first three years of the course, precisely the same as that of the one-class school; but in the fourth and fifth years certain supplementary subjects are added (geography, history, nature study, geometry, etc.) The following is the scheme adopted for the schools under the Ministry of Public Instruction—

	Fourth Year.	Fifth Year.
Religion - - - - -	4	3
Russian - - - - -	8	6
Arithmetic (including fractions) - -	6	6
History - - - - -	2	3
Geography and Natural History - -	2	4
Linear Drawing - - - - -	4	4

Singing is taught for half-an-hour at the end of each day's work.

The instruction given in Sunday schools follows generally the programs sanctioned for primary day schools of one or two classes.

To the third or highest grade of primary schools must be referred the District Schools created under the law of 1828 and the Urban Schools founded under the law of May 31st, 1872. The latter were intended gradually to replace the former, but the process of transformation is even yet far from complete. The District Schools have three classes and a three years' course, one year being assigned to the work of each class. The curriculum comprises religion, Russian, arithmetic, geometry, geography, a short course of Russian and general history, handwriting and drawing. Supplementary courses in commercial and technical subjects may be introduced in accordance with local requirements. It will be seen that the course of the District School necessarily presupposes a certain degree of elementary education on the part of those entering it, and this is an important point of difference between these schools and the Urban Schools intended to replace them. No previous knowledge is required for admission to an Urban School. Its course is arranged to cover six years; the two first years are devoted to teaching the rudiments very much as in an ordinary primary school of a single class, while the course of the last four years is of a distinctly higher character. The main points in which the curriculum of the Urban School differs from that of the older district school is in the introduction of Church Slavonic, natural history and physics. An Urban School may have from one to six classes, the difference between a school of one class and a school with more consisting not in the length of the course or the range of the instruction, but in the number of teachers and separate class rooms. Urban Schools with one class (and a single teacher) are divided into three groups or sections, the work of each of which is arranged to cover two years. In Urban Schools with two classes (and two teachers) the first class is divided into four sections, and the second class into two, the course being similarly divided into two parts, of which the first occupies four, and the second two years. In three-class schools each class is simply divided into two sections. The arrangement in the schools with four or five classes follows that of the three-class school as regards the younger scholars, but the upper classes are not subdivided;* the six-class school, having a teacher for each class, of course does not subdivide at all. Of these various types of Urban Schools the one-class school is for obvious reasons the least in favour; in 1904 only one school out of a total of 729 was of this type. The Urban School most usually met with is

* Thus in a four-class school, the pupils of the two first years are taught together by a single master, and similarly those of the third and fourth years; but the fourth and fifth years have each a master of their own. In a five-class school there is a master for each year, except the first and second, which are grouped.

one with three classes, each containing two divisions (of schools of this type there were 434 out of 729). Next come the schools with four classes (212); and these again are followed at a considerable interval by those with two classes (34). Of schools with five classes there were sixteen, and of those with six, thirty-two. The following scheme shows the distribution of school-time among the various subjects of instruction in a three-class school—

HOURS PER WEEK.

SUBJECTS	Classes.		
	i.	ii.	iii.
Religion - - - - -	6	3	2
Reading and Writing - - -	8	-	-
Russian and Church Slavonic - -	-	6	4
Arithmetic - - - - -	1	6	5
Practical Geometry, Instrumental and Freehand Drawing - - -	-	4	6
History and Geography - - -	-	2	4
Natural History and Physics* - -	-	3	4
Total - - - - -	18	24	25

* Physics is begun only in the sixth year.

Singing and gymnastics also form part of the curriculum, about half an hour a week being devoted to each subject in every class.

We must not omit to mention that in all grades and types of elementary schools in Russia instruction may be given, in accordance with local circumstances and needs, in various kinds of handicrafts and practical occupations, such as needlework, gardening, Slöjd, and the like. This teaching is given out of school hours either by members of the regular staff of the school, or less frequently by a special instructor engaged for the purpose. The extent to which this side of the school's usefulness has been developed in Russia is illustrated by the official returns for 1904 relating to the primary schools under the Ministry of Public Instruction. Out of 43,982 schools of the primary grade, including Urban and District Schools, 9,760 had plots of ground of varying size attached to them, of which 8,058 were appropriated to educational uses. Farming work was carried on in 2,246; 4,702 were used as school gardens or vegetable plots; beekeeping was taught in 792 schools; silk-worm culture in 174; while the cultivation of the vine, hops and fruit-trees was also taught in a few schools. Instruction in various crafts was given in 422 schools, and there were 644 classes in manual work. Needlework was taught in all girls' and mixed schools, where women teachers were employed. No recent statistics are obtainable as to schools giving instruction in needlework, but in 1898 the number of such schools was stated as 4,556. It should be noted that the attention paid to gardening and other forms of rural activity is very largely due to the initiative of the Ministry of Agriculture and of Imperial Domains, which has encouraged

the teaching of these subjects by free grants of land, of seeds and of plants, by providing suitable instructors, etc.

V.—INSTRUCTION IN PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

The foregoing details of the instruction given in Russian schools and colleges of various grades are based upon the official programs of study issued for State educational institutions. These programs are not necessarily followed by the private schools, which, as already explained, are divided into three grades according to the number of classes they contain. The curricula of all such schools must receive the approval of the Curator of the Educational District in which they are situated; and the general rule is laid down that private schools must "co-operate with the views of the Government in the spread of education." Moreover, it is declared to be desirable that private schools should use the same text-books, etc., as the State schools, though the use of other books is permitted in case of necessity; such books, however, must be sanctioned by the State authorities.

Among private schools of the first grade (*i.e.*, those with not less than six classes) there are some of the very highest order of excellence. One such school, which was visited by the writer, is the girls' gymnasium of Mme. Stoiunin at St. Petersburg, the lady principal of which is the widow of the well-known educationalist and writer on pedagogical subjects, V. Ia. Stoiunin. Private schools which attain a sufficiently high standard may be granted all the rights and privileges which belong to the corresponding State institutions, and sometimes receive a subvention from the Government. The lower grades of private schools often act as preparatory schools to the gymnasia and other secondary schools. This is a function which many of them are said to discharge with only indifferent success, especially when, as frequently happens, the same establishment undertakes to prepare pupils for higher schools of several different types.

VI.—INSTRUCTION IN TRAINING INSTITUTIONS.

TRAINING OF FEMALE SECONDARY TEACHERS.

The Pedagogical Courses at St. Petersburg.—For admission to these courses a candidate must have completed the course either of the Gymnasium under the same Department (Empress Maria) or of a girls' secondary school recognised as of equal status, or must present a certificate from the Ministry of Public Instruction conferring on its holder the title of *domashniaia uchilnitsa*. No entrance examination is required in the case of those pupils of a gymnasium or institute who have completed their course "with distinction"; all other candidates have to pass an examination (which, in view of the limited number of vacancies, assumes the character of a competitive test) in Russian, mathematics and some one foreign language.

The course of instruction lasts three years. Students enter either for the literary or the physico-mathematical section. In either case the course of the first two years includes not only studies designed to widen the candidate's general range of knowledge, but also a certain amount of instruction in the theory and method of instruction as applied to the subjects included in the curricula of secondary schools for girls. In the third year the course includes teaching practice in the pro-gymnasium attached to the establishment under the guidance of pedagogical experts. These lessons are given in the following subjects: Russian, French, arithmetic, geography, and calligraphy. Those students who complete the three years' course and successfully pass the final examination, receive the title of *domashniata nastavnitsa*, and the right of teaching in the four lowest classes of the gymnasia for girls, with the preference in case of vacancies in the day schools belonging to the Department of the Institution of the Empress Maria.

The following table shows the subjects of instruction in the Pedagogical Courses—

PEDAGOGICAL COURSES AT ST. PETERSBURG.
(Department of the Institutions of the Empress Maria.)

	Literary Section.			Physico-mathematical Section.		
	Classes.			Classes.		
	i.	ii.	iii.	i.	ii.	iii.
Religion	2	1	1	2	1	1
Russian and Methodology	2	4	2	2	4	2
Russian Literature	2	2	3	-	-	-
Theory of Literature	2	-	-	-	-	-
General Literature	2	2	2	-	-	-
Russian History	3	2	2	-	-	-
Universal History	2	2	2	-	-	-
Psychology	2	-	-	2	-	-
Logic	-	2	-	-	2	-
Pedagogy	-	-	2	-	-	2
French Language	2	2	2	-	-	-
French Literature	2	2	1	-	-	-
German Language	2	2	-	-	-	-
German Literature	-	-	-	-	-	-
Arithmetic	-	-	2	2	-	-
Arithmetical Method	-	-	-	2	-	-
Algebra	-	-	-	3	3	-
Fundamentals of Analysis	-	-	-	-	-	3
Geometry	-	-	-	3	2	-
Trigonometry	-	-	-	-	1	-
Analytical Geometry	-	-	-	-	-	2
Physics	-	-	-	2	2	2
Cosmography	-	-	-	-	-	2
Geography	-	-	-	2	2	2
Natural History	2	2	2	2	2	2

TRAINING OF PRIMARY TEACHERS.

Under this head we have to take account, as has been already explained, of four different types of training institutions, viz.,

(a) the Institutes for the training of teachers for the Urban Schools.

(b) the Seminaries for the training of those for the ordinary primary schools under the Ministry of Public Instruction.

(c) the Church Teachers' School preparing those who will be employed in the Church parochial schools; and

(d) the *Vtoroklassnyia Shkoly* which train the teachers of the lower parochial schools, the so-called *shkoly gramoty*.

The curricula of these four types of training institutions are given below. In each case the normal length of the course is three years.*

(a) Curriculum of the Teachers' Institute.

	Classes.		
	i.	ii.	iii.
Religion - - - -	2	2	1
Russian with Slavonic - - -	5	5	2
Arithmetic and Algebra - - -	5	4	2
Geometry - - - -	2	2	1
History - - - -	3	2	1
Geography - - - -	2	2	1
Natural Science - - - -	4	5	1
Drawing and Calligraphy - -	5	4	1
Pedagogy and Didactics - - -	-	2	2
Total - - - -	28	28	12

Singing is taught twice a week, and one hour a week is devoted to gymnastics. For admission it is necessary to pass an examination in the subjects taught in the Urban Schools. In 1904 Manual

* With regard to the training institutions under the Ministry of Public Instruction, it must be borne in mind that, if privately maintained, they may, like private schools, have a special curriculum sanctioned by the Curator of the Educational District. There lies before the writer such a special curriculum sanctioned for the Teachers' School maintained by the Provincial Zemstvo of St. Petersburg. The subjects taught in this institution are practically the same as in the ordinary teachers' seminaries, but the distribution of hours is somewhat different.

work was being taught in six out of ten Teachers' Institutes. To each institute is attached a practising school of the Urban School type, where the students hear model lessons given, and give lessons themselves under the guidance and supervision of the director and lecturers of the institute.

(b) *Curriculum of the Teachers' Seminary.*

(The course lasts ordinarily three years, but is sometimes a year longer.)

	Classes.		
	i.	ii.	iii.
Religion - - - - -	4	3	2
Russian - - - - -	4	4	2
Slavonic - - - - -	2	1	1
Arithmetic - - - - -	4	3	2
Geometry - - - - -	1	2	2
Russian and General History - -	2	3	2
Geography - - - - -	3	2	2
Natural Science - - - - -	2	3	3
Calligraphy and Drawing - - -	5	4	3
Pedagogy - - - - -	-	2	3
Gymnastics - - - - -	2	2	2
Singing - - - - -	2	2	2
Practical Work in School - - -	-	-	6
Total - - - - -	31	31	32

Manual Work, though not an obligatory subject of instruction, is taught in more than half of the Teachers' Seminaries. The entrance requirements of the seminaries are equivalent to the course of the primary school with two classes. Some seminaries, however, have preparatory classes the curriculum of which is the same as that of the second class of such a school. The practising school attached to each seminary is a primary school of the ordinary type under the control of the Ministry of Public Instruction.

The teachers' schools (*uchitelskiiia shkoly*) which train teachers for non-Russian primary schools have a theoretical course inferior to that of the seminaries and approximating to that of the primary school with two classes.

(c) Curriculum of the Church Teachers' School.

	Classes		
	i.	ii.	iii.
Religion. Russian and General Church History. }	4	4	4
Didactics and the General Principles of Pedagogy.	-	2	2
Church Singing and Music - - -	3	3	2
Church Slavonic - - - - -	2	2	-
Russian Language and Literature, and the History of Literature. }	4	4	4
Russian and General History - -	3	2	3
Russian and General Geography -	3	2	2
Mathematics (Arithmetic, main principles of geometry and land- measuring) }	3	2	3
Nature-lore - - - - -	-	2	2
Drawing - - - - -	2	1	1
Total - - - - -	24	24	23

Instruction in Hygiene and (in the Church Teachers' Schools for Women) in Needlework is also included in the course. In order to be admitted into one of these institutions it is necessary that a candidate should either have completed the course of the *storoklassnaia shkola*, or pass an entrance examination corresponding to the course of the latter. The practising school attached to a Church Teachers' School is always a Church parochial school with two classes.

(d) Curriculum of the Vtoroklassnaia Shkola.

SUBJECTS.	Classes.		
	i.	ii.	iii.
Religion - - - - -	4	4	3
General Church History - - - - -			
Church Singing - - - - -	4	3	3
Russian - - - - -	6	5	5
Church Slavonic - - - - -	2	2	1
Russian History (Ecclesiastical and Secular) - - - - -	-	3	2
Geography, with Nature-Lore - - - - -	2	3	2
Arithmetic, with Geometrical Drawing - - - - -	4	4	3
Calligraphy - - - - -	2	-	-
Didactics :			
(a) Talks on Primary Teaching - - - - -	-	-	2
(b) Practical Lessons in the Model School - - - - -	-	-	5
	24	24	26

(Instruction in Needlework and Hygiene is also given.)

Admission to the *vtoroklassnaia shkola* is by examination, and is confined in the case of the institutions for male teachers to those who have completed a course of instruction in some primary school. In the case of girls the previous instruction required may have been obtained at home. The age of admission is from thirteen to seventeen. The practising school is a Church parochial school with one class, or a *shkola gramotnosti*.

IV.—SOME GENERAL FEATURES OF THE RUSSIAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

I.—RIGHTS AND PRIVILEGES ATTACHED TO EDUCATION.

One of the most striking characteristics of the educational system of Russia is the relation in which it stands to the peculiarly Russian institution of *chin*. This is the term used to denote the hierarchy of ranks into which the whole Russian nobility is divided, not in accordance with their birth, social position, or hereditary titles, but in accordance with their position in the public service. *Chin* is not a

very ancient institution; like many others of the characteristic features of the politico-social life of Russia it owes its origin to Peter the Great. The idea which lies at the root of *chin* is that civil service should be hierarchically organised on the same basis of personal rank as military service. Starting from this idea Peter created fourteen "classes" or grades of *chin*, and made promotion from one class to another depend upon promotion from post to post in the public service. For this purpose he took the existing ranks in the military service as a standard of comparison, and to each of these military ranks he assigned a civil equivalent, so that, for example, a major-general had his counterpart in an "Actual Councillor of State" (Class IV.), a colonel was matched with a "Councillor of State" (Class V.), an ensign with a "College Registrar" (Class XIV.). A place in this hierarchy of ranks cannot be obtained otherwise than by service to the State, either in a military or a civil capacity, and all military officers and civil servants are *ipso facto* noble. Nobility, however, is of two kinds, personal and hereditary. Personal nobility belongs to all classes of *chin*; hereditary nobility is confined to the four highest classes. To the various grades in the table of ranks correspond certain titles or modes of address. All persons of a class below the fourth are addressed as *Vysokorodie*, roughly equivalent to our Esquire; the title of Excellency (*Prevoskhoditelstvo*) is appropriated to Classes III. and IV.: that of High Excellency (*Vysokoprevoskhoditelstvo*) belongs only to the two highest classes.

The educational system of Russia is affected by the table of ranks at more than one point. In the first place all members of the teaching profession who serve in the educational institutions of the State, from University Professors to teachers in Urban Schools, belong to the Civil Service, and consequently, each has his proper place assigned to him in the scale of ranks in accordance with the position he holds. The Rector of a University or the Director of a higher technical college is placed in Class IV.; a University Inspector or an ordinary Professor in Class V.; an extraordinary Professor in Class VI.; a Lector in Class VII. To the staff of a secondary school are assigned ranks in each case a grade lower than those of the corresponding positions in a University, the director being placed in the fifth class, the inspector in the sixth, the teachers in the seventh. Persons belonging to a particular class in virtue of their official position may nevertheless, within certain limits defined by statute, obtain promotion to a higher class while still retaining the same office. Thus it happens that one finds a Director of a secondary school, or a District Inspector, with the title of Actual State Councillor and the rank of a major-general (Class IV.), or a University Professor with the title of Privy Councillor and the rank of a general of division (Class III.): in each of these cases the official in question being addressed as "Your Excellency." But there is another point of contact between the hierarchy of ranks and the educational system which is of even greater importance. In Russia education is the one gate of access to the public service in all its

branches. The class in which a public servant commences his official career depends entirely upon the kind and degree of previous education which he has received. The certificate of maturity of the gymnasium gives the right to the fourteenth class; the ordinary diploma of the University gives admission to the tenth, the degree of Magister to the eighth, the Doctorate to the seventh. Those who complete the course of the Alexander Lyceum leave with *chin* of the twelfth, tenth, or ninth class according to the way in which they have acquitted themselves; and similar privileges belong to other institutions of the same kind. It is the fact that *chin* is thus made dependent upon education, which makes it true to assert that in Russia education is the one indispensable condition of admission to the ranks of the nobility, whether personal or hereditary.

II. EXEMPTIONS FROM MILITARY SERVICE.

Since 1874 every male Russian who attains the age of twenty-one years has been liable to be called upon to give six years' service in the army, the individuals to be actually called up being determined by lot. The period of service in the case of any person on whom the lot falls may be shortened by a period corresponding to the degree of education he has received. For this purpose all the educational institutions of the Empire are divided into three categories. The first of these comprises all places of higher and secondary education, including teachers' institutes. Persons who can produce evidence of having completed the course of any of these institutions have to serve only two years; this period, moreover, may be further reduced by one half in the case of those who volunteer for military service without waiting to be drawn by lot. The second category comprises teachers' seminaries and schools, Urban and District Schools, and primary schools with two classes; completion of the course of any of these carries with it the right to serve only three years. Finally, those who have completed the course of the ordinary primary school with one class serve only four years in the army (but six years if assigned to the navy). Students who attain the military age whilst still prosecuting their studies are allowed to complete their course before commencing their military services; moreover, pupils who have completed the course of a secondary technical school have since 1896 been permitted to defer their military service until the age of twenty-four, the object of this regulation being to allow them to complete and strengthen their theoretical knowledge by practical experience in factories and works. Duly qualified persons engaged as teachers in educational establishments are entirely exempted from the obligation of military service; this privilege, however, is not extended to those teaching without the statutory qualifications. It will be seen that all these exemptions have the effect of placing a special premium upon educational attainments, and in particular of rendering the teaching profession more attractive.

III. RELIGION AND LANGUAGE.

In a country presenting such extreme differences of race and creed as does the Russian Empire, the provisions made in respect of religious instruction and the use of local languages in schools are of the utmost interest and importance. Speaking generally, it may be said that Russia has gone very much farther in the direction of securing unity of language than unity of creed. There is, of course, only one State Church in Russia—the Orthodox or Greek form of Christianity, as there is only one recognised State language—the Great Russian dialect of Slavonic. But whereas Russia extends a large tolerance to other forms of religious belief existing side by side with Orthodoxy within the bounds of the Empire, and sometimes (as Catholicism in Poland, Lutheranism in the Baltic Provinces, Mahomedanism in some of the Eastern and South-Eastern Governments) claiming the allegiance of the great majority of the inhabitants *, to languages other than Great Russian she accords only the minimum of official recognition which is required by the circumstances of each individual case. This difference in attitude is reflected in the provisions made with regard to religion and language respectively in Russian schools.

Religion forms an obligatory element in instruction in every educational institution in Russia. The only exceptions we have noted are the higher technical colleges of Poland and the Baltic Provinces; and again, no provision is made at the Russian Universities for the religious teaching of students not professing Orthodox Christianity. In schools, whether in Russia proper or among non-Orthodox populations, each child receives religious instruction from a priest of the church to which he or she belongs; so that it frequently happens in places like St. Petersburg, where the population is representative of all races and creeds, that religious teaching is given to different sections of the pupils in one and the same school by an Orthodox clergyman, a Roman Catholic priest, a Lutheran pastor and a Jewish Rabbi. It is to be noted, however, that in non-Orthodox Christian schools, whilst priests or clergymen of the faith professed in the school have free access to the children for the purposes of religious teaching, they are expressly excluded from taking any part in the secular instruction.

Broadly speaking, Russian is the language of instruction throughout the Empire. To this rule no exception is permitted in those provinces of Little and White Russia where the local language, though not identical with Great Russian, is very nearly akin to it. But places with a predominantly non-Russian population are somewhat differently treated. Russian is taught in all schools, and is used as the medium of instruction in all Universities and secondary schools

* In connection with the above statement it is important to bear in mind (1) that the official toleration of certain forms of the *raskol* implies no right on the part of Russian dissenters to have their doctrines taught in the schools; and (2) that any attempt to convert a person from the Orthodox faith is a criminal offence in Russian law.

except in the religious teaching. With regard to the use of Russian as the language of instruction in primary schools, there is in different parts of the Empire some diversity in practice. In the village schools of the Baltic Provinces the language of instruction is either Russian or the local language* ("as convenience dictates") during the first two years of the course, but in the third year all instruction, except in religion and church-singing, must be given in Russian. In the town schools the use of the local language is allowed as an aid to instruction during the first stages of a child's school life; but afterwards all the teaching must be in Russian, except in religion and singing. In the Polish primary schools Russian is the language of instruction except in the case of religion and the mother tongue, both of which subjects may be taught in Polish. In some of the governments of the north-western territory where there is a Lithuanian, Lettish or German population, religious instruction is permitted to be given in the mother tongue during the first year of school life to Catholic children "in case of necessity." In the Caucasus considerable use is made of the local dialects in instruction. The rule of the Holy Synod as to the language of instruction in the Church primary schools under its control which are established among non-Russian populations is as follows:—Instruction in reading and writing is given for the first half-year in the child's own language, but from books printed in the Russian character.† From the second half-year onwards, the children having by this time mastered the mechanical difficulties of reading, are gradually introduced to the reading of Russian. But for the first two years all the lessons in religion are given exclusively in the native tongue of the children.

* *I.e.*, Estonian in Esthonia and the northern half of Livonia; Lettish in South Livonia and North Kurland; Lithuanian in South Kurland. Livonian is also spoken in the north-west corner of Kurland. German is the language of the gentry and educated classes in all three provinces.

† Special importance is attached to the use of the Russian character in schools designed for the Mussulman Tatar population. The reason for this is not only that the adoption of the Russian alphabet greatly facilitates the introduction of the Russian language among a non-Russian population. Another reason of at least equal importance is to be found in the traditional association existing in the popular mind between the use of a particular alphabet and belief in a particular creed. A familiar instance of this is the unanimity with which all the Slavonic peoples who adhere to the Church of Rome have adopted the Latin alphabet, while those of the Eastern confession use a modification of the Cyrillic. A similar instinct leads the Tatar population to attach a particular religious value to the Arabic character, which came into use among them with the introduction of Islam. The substitution of the Russian alphabet for the Arabic effects a breach in this tradition, and for this reason it is strenuously opposed by the Mohammedan clergy. Apart from these semi-religious considerations, however, the Russian alphabet has many advantages over the Arabic for the representation of Tatar languages. The poverty of the latter alphabet in vowel symbols renders it specially unsuitable for the representation of the copious vowel-system of the Turco-Tataric tongues. The Russian alphabet, on the contrary, when eked out by a few diacritical marks, is found to be fairly adequate for this purpose.

IV. PROVISION AND MAINTENANCE OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS.

The following categories of educational institutions are provided and maintained by the State :—Universities, teachers' seminaries and institutes, gymnasia (both for girls and boys), real-schools, Urban and District schools, parochial schools established under the law of 1828 ; also many special and technical schools of all grades. But all kinds of secondary and primary schools are also established by private initiative. Urban Schools may be established either at the cost of the State, or at that of local authorities, societies, or individuals. Model primary schools are established by the Ministry of Public Instruction in rural districts where local authorities, societies, institutions, or private individuals undertake to provide a site (of not less than a *dessiatina* = 2.7 acres), to provide a caretaker, to build (or hire) and keep in repair the necessary teachers' dwellings, and to assign a definite yearly sum towards salaries and apparatus. Where these conditions are observed, the Ministry of Public Instruction pays an annual grant not exceeding 500 roubles (or with the consent of the Minister, 700 roubles) to schools with one class, and an annual grant of 1,000 roubles (or with the consent of the Minister, 1,400 roubles) to those with two classes. Primary schools of the ordinary type under the Ministry of Public Instruction are provided either by local authorities or by private societies or individuals, and are almost entirely maintained by them. In the thirty-four governments with zemstvos it is these bodies which usually provide the schools ; in towns, it is the municipalities. Few zemstvos, however, appear to bear the whole cost incurred in connection with the schools, in respect of provision, maintenance, and structural repairs. Usually an arrangement is come to between the zemstvo and the locality in which a school is required, the peasants undertaking to provide the building (sometimes with the aid of a loan from the zemstvo) to pay a caretaker, to supply fuel, and sometimes to contribute so much per head of the population to the funds of the zemstvo. The local landowners also not seldom take an interest in the school and bear a share of the burden of maintaining it.* In any case the amount contributed by the central government towards the maintenance of the zemstvos' schools is minute in comparison with what is obtained from other sources, and is devoted solely towards the following objects :—(1) to provide the best schools with apparatus and to encourage by grants of money persons who distinguish themselves in the work of national education ; (2) to provide special grants, not exceeding 100 roubles to each person, for ex-pupils of the ecclesiastical seminaries who devote themselves to teaching in the schools of the zemstvos whilst preparing for the priestly calling ; (3) to make temporary grants-in-aid to necessitous schools.

In the Baltic Provinces and Poland primary schools are provided by the local communities in the manner already described in the second section of this chapter (pp. 212 to 214). The provision of schools in Poland is encouraged in some cases by building grants

* See article by Alexander Novikov in the *Novoe Vremia* for 12th to 14th April, 1899, on "The Primary School and its Future."

from the State and by a Government grant for the first ten years of a school's existence of a sum equal to the annual amount raised from local sources.

In the case of the Church parochial schools the proportion of expenditure borne by the Imperial Treasury is much greater than in the case of the primary schools under the Ministry of Public Instruction, since the former cannot rely upon contributions from the funds of the *zemstvos*. Moreover, the ratio of Treasury grants to local contributions towards the maintenance of Church parochial schools tends constantly to increase. In 1885 this ratio was as 1 to 10: in 1895 as 1 to 4. In 1898 the local contributions to Church schools amounted to 5,350,000 roubles (nearly ten times the amount raised in 1885). The Treasury grant assigned to these schools in May, 1899, was 1,859,605 roubles. Many Church schools, particularly those established among dissenting or non-orthodox populations, are maintained entirely out of the funds at the disposal of the central authorities.

Owing chiefly to the number of State Departments engaged in the work of education in Russia, it is extremely difficult to present financial data relating to education, which can lay any claim to absolute precision and completeness. The following statements will, however, give a general idea of the amounts spent on public instruction in the Russian Empire, and the proportions in which the burden falls upon the State and local resources respectively. From the article on Russia in Brockhaus and Ephron's "*Entsiklopedicheskiï Slovar*," vol. liv., pp. 197 and 206, we gather that the expenditure of the Ministry of Public Instruction in the year 1897 amounted to 26,475,867 roubles, or a little less than 2 per cent. of the total ordinary expenditure of Russia in that year, which was 1,494,598,224 roubles. The aggregate amount of the educational expenditure if all the Ministries taken together in the same year is put at 45,546,600 roubles, or 3·1 per cent. of the total State expenditure for all purposes. By far the greater portion of this sum is devoted to higher and secondary education, as will appear from some interesting data furnished by the publication to which we have already so often referred (*Statisticheskiia Svedeniia*, pp. xxxiv-v.). The statistics there given refer to primary education alone. According to this source of information, the total sum spent on primary education in the year 1898 was 40,616,149 roubles (of which 73·2 per cent. was devoted to schools under the Ministry of Public Instruction, 24·4 per cent. to schools under the Holy Synod, and 2·4 per cent. to schools of other Ministries). The following table shows the proportion of this amount contributed respectively from Imperial and local sources:—

Imperial Treasury	8,665,274 R	or	21·3 per cent.
Zemstvos	8,940,200 R	"	21·8 "
Village Communities	7,290,111 R	"	18·0 "
Municipalities	5,446,472 R	"	13·5 "
Voluntary Contributions	5,057,078 R	"	12·2 "
Fees	2,764,554 R	"	6·8 "
Various Sources	2,452,450 R	"	6·1 "
Total	40,616,139 R	"	"

The population of the Empire being reckoned at 130,000,000, the total expenditure on primary education works out at something like 31½ kopecks, or about 7½d. per head; the share of the State in expenditure is 6½ kopecks, or 1½d. per head. The figures given in *Rossia v Kontsie* xix. *Veka*, p. 777, show that in 1896 the zemstvos devoted 9,920,100 roubles, constituting 16·4 per cent. of their annual expenditure, to popular education. The corresponding figures for the municipalities are not given separately in M. Kovalevski's book, but from other sources we gather that the proportion of municipal funds annually devoted to education is rather more than 8 per cent. of the total annual expenditure. The details given by M. Kovalevski as to the finances of the *mir* and the *gmina* refer to the year 1894. In that year the proportion of the total expenditure of the Russian *mir*s which was devoted to education was 8·5 per cent. (5,227,600 roubles); in the case of the Polish *gminy* the proportion was 19 per cent. (692,000 roubles).*

V. OBLIGATION TO PROVIDE SCHOOLS: COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE: FACTORY LEGISLATION AFFECTING EDUCATION.

A communal obligation to provide and maintain primary schools exists in each of the three Baltic Provinces, the number of schools so provided and maintained standing in a fixed proportion to the numbers of the Lutheran population. In Livonia the proportion is fixed as follows. Each commune (or group of communes, provided the male inhabitants of such group do not exceed 500) is bound to maintain a commune school, and each parish containing at least 2,000 inhabitants is bound to provide a parish school. In Esthonia and Kurland the proportion of schools to population is somewhat differently fixed. In all three provinces children must attend school between the ages of ten and thirteen years, the penalty for non-attendance being a fine of small amount for each day missed. Except in the Baltic Provinces there exists in Russia no legal obligation to provide schools and no obligation to attend them. It is, however, within the competence of the *mir* to insist on the attendance of children at school within its local bounds, and exceptional cases have occurred in which parents have been fined by the *mir* for neglecting to send their children to school. It is clear that primary education must be made generally accessible before it can be made compulsory. Meantime, however, the Russian legislature has taken certain steps to prevent obstacles being placed in the way of the attendance at school of children at work in factories. By the law of 1st June, 1882, supplemented by that of 12th June, 1884, no child is allowed to work in a factory under the age of twelve. Children between twelve and fifteen years of age may not be employed for more than eight hours a day; and owners of factories employing such children are bound to allow them the opportunity of attending school for at least three hours a day, or eighteen hours

* In comparing the expenditure of the *mir* with that of the *gmina* it is important to bear in mind that the Russian *mir* is exclusively a peasant institution, while the Polish *gmina* embraces the nobility also.

a week, except in the case of those who hold a certificate of having completed the course of a primary school; moreover, if there be within reach a primary school of a higher grade than the one-class school, a child who has only a certificate from the latter may claim the benefit of the statute in order to attend such higher primary school. The maximum penalty for infringement of this provision of the statute is fixed at 100 roubles. Factory owners are encouraged by the State to provide schools, which may be attended by children in their employ as well as by the children of their workmen. On the 1st of January, 1899, the number of such schools which had been established in European Russia was 446, giving instruction to 46,793 children, and maintained almost entirely at the cost of the factory owners themselves.

VI. APPOINTMENT AND QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS:
SALARIES AND PENSIONS.

In all public educational institutions under the control of the Ministry of Public Instruction, howsoever they may be provided, the State either appoints the staff, or at least intervenes in the appointment, acting for this purpose through various official agents according to the status of the teacher to be appointed and the importance of the post to be filled. Rectors of Universities are appointed directly by the Crown on the nomination of the Minister of Public Instruction; University Inspectors, Deans of Faculties, and Professors by the Minister; the whole of the staff of the secondary schools by the Curator of the Educational District; the teachers of the primary schools may be selected by the persons establishing or maintaining the schools, but they are admitted to the exercise of their functions by the Inspector of Primary Schools, and are confirmed in them by the District School Council, in which is also vested the right of dismissal. Teachers of Urban Schools are appointed directly by the Government. Even in the case of Urban Schools not provided by the State, the actual appointment of teachers rests with the Government, though the wishes of those who provide the school are consulted.

The State does not interfere with the appointment of teachers in private schools, otherwise than by requiring a certain standard of academic qualification to be observed.

The teachers of the Church parochial schools are either the clergy of the parish or other persons nominated by the parish priest and confirmed in office by the bishop of the diocese. In case no approved candidate is presented by the local priest, it becomes the duty of the District Section of the Eparchial Council to select a suitable candidate, and, pending the confirmation of the appointment by the bishop, to admit him to the exercise of his duties.

The academical qualifications for the office of teacher are strictly defined for educational institutions of all grades. A University Professor must have the degree of Doctor in the Faculty to which he is attached, a Privat-Dozent at least that of Magister; the Professor of Theology at each University must be either a Doctor

or a Master of Divinity. Similarly in the higher technical colleges for the more important chairs (*e.g.* physics and chemistry at St. Petersburg and Kharkov, theoretical mechanics, physics, and chemistry at Moscow) a learned degree is required, that of Doctor in the case of a Professor, that of Magister in the case of an Adjunct; for other professorships a degree is not insisted on, but the holders must be persons who have received an education up to University standard in the subjects they profess. Only persons who have completed a course at the University, or have passed the special examination referred to below, are permitted to teach in the secondary schools of general education, except in the case of teachers of religion and also of drawing and other special subjects. As regards the secondary and lower technical schools, the teachers of the "general" subjects (mathematics, physics and natural history) must either have the qualifications required from teachers of these subjects in the real-schools, or must have completed the course of one of the higher technical colleges; the teachers of mechanics, chemistry, rural economy, or other "technical" subjects, including technical drawing, must be persons who have been through a course of instruction in one of the higher technical colleges in the particular subjects they profess. The academic qualifications for the teachers of geometrical drawing, practical work, book-keeping, etc., are laid down with equal precision. Teachers of special subjects and practical demonstrators have on the completion of their academic course to undergo an additional course of practical training for their work in factories, works, and industrial establishments within the Russian Empire, and are also sent abroad to study in foreign technical institutions. During this period of special training, which lasts one or two years according to circumstances, the future teacher receives from the State a sum of 1,000R. a year for his maintenance, on condition of serving in the technical schools of the Ministry of Public Instruction two years for every year during which he has received such maintenance.*

The right to teach in the secondary schools of the Ministry of Public Instruction and of the Department of the Institutions of the Empress Maria does not follow unconditionally from the possession of a University diploma, except in the case of students of the historico-philological Faculties who have completed their course with distinction, and in some other exceptional cases. All others must pass a special examination in order to obtain the title of "teacher in the gymnasium" (which carries with it also the right to teach in real schools in the same subject). Special examinations for the purpose of conferring this title are conducted (except in the case of modern languages) by the historico-philological or the physico-mathematical Faculties at the Universities; they are not confined to persons who have completed a course at the University, but form in fact, a sort of side gate into the teaching profession for those who have been otherwise educated. The examination, however, is not the same for both classes of candidates. The *full* examination is taken only (a) by persons who have gone through the complete

course of the gymnasium, but have not obtained a University diploma; and (b) by persons who have finished their University course, but not in the Faculty or department of learning to which the subject they desire to teach is related. On the other hand, an *abridged* examination only is required from those who have completed the University course in the Faculty, which includes the subject they intend to teach. The difference between the "full" and "abridged" examinations consists in the fact that the former comprises subsidiary subjects, which are not required in the case of the latter; e.g. the full examination for the teachers of Russian includes logic, psychology, and Latin, in addition to Russian and Slavonic; that for teachers of mathematics and physics includes astronomy, etc. In both cases a standard equivalent to that maintained in the University examinations is required. Special rules, however, apply to teachers of modern languages. The examinations in their case are conducted by special Examining Committees, largely or wholly composed of gymnasium teachers, presided over, where possible, by the District Inspector or by a University Professor. University qualifications are not insisted on in the case of modern language teachers; but persons who have completed a course of secondary instruction, and foreigners educated abroad are admitted to the examination, which is abridged in the case of those educated in Russian secondary schools, full in the case of foreigners not so educated. The standard of examination is that of the gymnasium, not that of the University.

In the case of all candidates for the right to teach in secondary schools the examination is written, oral and practical, two trial lessons, one given to a lower, the other to a higher, class of the gymnasium, forming an essential part of the test required from each candidate.

The right to teach in primary schools may be gained in various ways:—

(a) By going through the course of one of the training colleges for primary teachers (seminaries or institutes); or, in the case of teachers of Church parochial schools, by going through the course of a training school maintained by the Holy Synod.

(b) By completing the course of the Ecclesiastical Seminary or the Eparchial Girls' School, in both of which Pedagogy is taught in the highest classes, and the pupils have practice in teaching in the primary school attached to each of such institutions.

(c) By completing the course of a girls' institute or gymnasium, in both of which kinds of schools pedagogy is taught.

(d) Persons who have passed through a University or a secondary school of general education may also obtain the right to teach in primary schools, if they show proof of practical efficiency by giving a trial lesson.

(e) Other persons may obtain the same right by passing a special examination which includes a test in practical teaching. Such examinations are held both by the Ministry of Public Instruction and the Holy Synod. For district schools under the Ministry of Public

Instruction, the candidate must pass an examination in religion and Russian, and must, besides, show knowledge up to gymnasium standard in one subject of the district-school curriculum, and up to district-school standard in the rest. District-school standard is required in the case of teachers of ordinary primary schools, but the requirements are less severe for rural teachers than for those who wish to teach in towns.

Some idea of the rate at which teaching work is remunerated in Russia may be gained from the following examples.* The salary of an ordinary professor at a Russian University is 3,000R. a year: of an extraordinary professor 2,000R.; of a reader (*lektor*) in modern European or Oriental languages 1,000R. In addition to his fixed salary every University teacher receives fees from the students, the total amount of which varies, of course, with the number of lectures given, and the number of students attending them; and such a teacher may also undertake lecturing work outside the University. The Rector of a University receives 1,500R. in addition to his salary as a Professor, and has also an official residence. Deans of Faculties receive 600R. a year in addition to their professional stipends. The remuneration of the staffs at the different technical colleges under the Ministry of Public Instruction varies somewhat. The Director receives at Kharkov 4,200R.; at Moscow and St. Petersburg 4,200R. with an official residence; at New Alexandria 5,000R.; in each case if the Director also acts as a Professor he has an additional salary of 1,200R. or 1,500R. a year. Each Professor at Kharkov receives 2,700R.; at St. Petersburg seven professors receive 3,000R., and eight 2,700R.; at Moscow and New Alexandria the salary of each is 3,000R. Adjuncts receive 2,000R. except at Kharkov, where the salary is fixed at 1,800R. The annual remuneration of a lecturer at the St. Petersburg Women's Higher Courses varies according to the number of weekly lectures he delivers. A professor giving one weekly lecture receives 200–250R. a year; if he gives two weekly lectures he is paid twice the amount, and so on in the same proportion.

The salaries of teachers in the State secondary schools are computed by a somewhat complicated method. Each teacher receives a fixed sum for the first twelve lessons a week which he gives; this sum in the gymnasia (as also in the lower technical schools) may be 750R., 900R., 1,200R., or 1,500R. per annum, according to the scale on which he is paid. On his first appointment a teacher in a gymnasium is paid on the lowest scale (750R.); after five years of service he is promoted to the second scale (900R.); after fifteen years of service he may obtain 1,250R., and after twenty years 1,500R.: but the two higher scales are seldom attained, since only one salary can be paid on either of these two scales in any one school at the same time. For each lesson a week given

* The English reader may here be reminded that the value of the rouble is slightly more than two shillings. The kopeck is one-hundredth part of a rouble, or nearly equivalent to a farthing.

by the gymnasium teacher after the first twelve he is paid at the unvarying rate of 60R. a year. A teacher giving thirty lessons a week would thus begin with a salary of 1,850R. a year; after five years he would be receiving 1,980R., with the possibility of an additional rise of 350R. after ten years more. The salary of the Director of a gymnasium is paid on the second scale augmented by a third, that is, he receives 900R., plus 300R., as salary proper; in addition to this 800R. is paid to him as "table-money" (*stolovyya*) and he has also an official residence free. The Inspector is also paid on the second scale without augmentation; he has in addition 600R. table-money, and an official residence. In the case of the secondary technical schools, the salaries are somewhat better. The Director has in every case an official residence, and his salary varies in accordance with the number of departments under his control; e.g. the Director of a chemico-technical school gets 2,000R. a year (inclusive of table-money): but the Director of a combined school of mechanics and chemistry has 2,600R.; and other combinations may raise his salary as high as 4,000R. The teachers of the secondary technical schools are also more liberally paid than those of the gymnasia. The four scales of fixed payment in the case of the former are 900R., 1,200R., 1,440R., and 1,800R. respectively; the second scale may be attained after five years, the third after ten, the fourth after fifteen. Supplementary lessons are paid for at the rate of 75R. instead of 60R., as in the case of the gymnasia. Lower rates of payment are, however, applicable to the teaching of the graphic arts, to demonstration in the laboratories, and to practical teaching in the workshops. The salaries paid in the Commercial Schools under the Ministry of Finance are as a rule better than those obtained in the secondary schools of the Ministry of Public Instruction; e.g. a Director of a Commercial School gets from 3,200R. to 5,200R. a year, an inspector from 2,400R. to 4,000R., in both cases with residence. Teachers (of either sex) in girls' secondary schools are paid at a somewhat lower rate than those in the corresponding schools for boys.

Every teacher in an Urban School receives from the State an annual salary of 540R., plus 75R. for residence. In some cases this salary is further supplemented by the municipalities of the towns in which the schools are situated. Teachers in the model Ministerial schools receive from 330R. to 500R. a year with lodging. The salaries of teachers in the ordinary village primary schools vary very greatly, being highest in the Governments of St. Petersburg and Moscow. From an article in the October and November numbers of *Russkaia Shkola* for 1892 it appears that the salaries in the Government of St. Petersburg then began at 600R. in the case of those teachers who had been through a gymnasium or teachers' seminary, or had attended pedagogical courses; the commencing salary for others was 480R. In either case the salary rose by an increment of 80R. every five years to a maximum of 840R. and 720R. respectively. But these salaries would appear to be much above the average. An article in *Russkaia*

Mysl for February, 1898, gives the following statistics of average salaries of primary teachers in the Governments of Novgorod, Orlov, and Olonets.

	Novgorod.	Orlov.	Olonets.
Male Teachers	225 R 32 K	240 R 21 K	309 R 51 K
Female Teachers	221 R 95 K	218 R	277 R 03 K

The official "Account of the Administration of M. Bogolepov"* published in 1901, states that the average salary of a primary teacher under the Ministry of Public Instruction does not exceed 200–250R. Teachers in Church parochial schools receive as a rule much less than their *confrères* in the schools of the *zemstvos*. According to statistics relating to the year 1899,† the yearly salary of nearly 66 per cent. of the Church teachers did not exceed 100R., and only about 15 per cent. of them received over 200R. per annum. The worst paid of all are the teachers of the *Shkoly gramotnosti*, many of whom receive only about 50R. for the winter. It must be borne in mind, however, that these teachers have in the past generally been ordinary peasants, who followed some other employment in the summer. The *utoroklassnyia shkoly* are now doing much to supply better trained teachers for these small schools.

The pension rights attached to the teaching profession in the higher and secondary branches are very considerable in Russia. Professors and secondary teachers in the service of the Ministry of Public Instruction have in this respect an advantage over administrative officials in the same Department. Twenty years of work gives to such a teacher a right to a pension equal to half his salary, twenty-five years' service entitles him to a pension equal to his full salary. Moreover, if the teacher is prevented by shattered health or some incurable disease from continuing in the exercise of his profession, he is still more generously treated. After ten to twenty years of service he receives one-third of his full salary; after twenty to twenty-five years two-thirds; after twenty-five and over he receives the full amount. If the illness is such as to require the constant attendance of another person, the periods of service entitling to a pension in the various scales just mentioned are still further abridged; five to ten years of service giving a right to one-third the salary, ten to twenty years to two-thirds, twenty years and over to the full amount.

As regards primary teachers, only those serving in State-provided schools have the position of public servants with a right to a pension from the State. An Urban School teacher may look forward to a pension of from 300R. to 330R. a year after twenty-five years of service. The ordinary primary teacher had until lately no such prospect, except in a few Governments where pension funds were locally established. The pension scheme of the Ministry of Public Instruction which came into operation at the beginning of 1901, will, doubtless, do much towards rendering the position of

† *Kratkii Obzor Deiatelnosti Ministerstva Narodnago Prosvetscheniia za vremia upravleniia pokoinogo Ministra N.P. Bogolepova*, p. 29.

* Quoted in *Russkaiia Shkola* for January, 1905, p. 153.

the primary teacher in that Department more secure. It provides not only for his own support in case of his incapacitation, but also for assistance to his family in case of his death.

VII. FEES, BURSARIES, ETC.

The following data as to fees have been selected as fairly well representing all classes of schools and colleges in Russia. The fee paid by University students for admission to all lectures, laboratory demonstrations, etc., is 25R. a semester, *i.e.* 50R. a year (at Warsaw 100R.); in addition to this the student has to pay to each professor whose lectures he attends a honorarium of one or more roubles, according to the number of times per week the professor lectures. On the average each student would pay some 40R. or 50R. a year in fees to professors; so that his total disbursements for University instruction would amount to rather less than 100R., say £10, a year.* At most of the higher technical colleges the cost is somewhat less. The fixed fee at the Technological Institutes of St. Petersburg and Kharkov, the Institute of Rural Economy at New Alexandria, and the Institute of Civil Engineers at St. Petersburg is 50R. a year; at the Mining Institute of St. Petersburg it is 60R., and at the Moscow Technical School 75R.; but at none of these technical colleges are special fees paid to professors. The charge for instruction at the Riga Polytechnic Institute is 150R. to natives of the Baltic Provinces, and 160 R. to others. The fee charged at the Alexander Lyceum (which, it should be remembered, does not admit day scholars) for board and instruction is 800R. a year. The fees at the Cadet Corps (boarding schools) are, as a rule, 450R. (in one case 550R.) a year. Those charged at the secondary day schools (gymnasias for boys and girls and real-schools) under the Ministry of Public Education vary from 40R. to 70R. a year, the most usual amount being 60R. Day-boys at the Kiev First Gymnasium pay 60R. a year, boarders, 380R. Pupils not of clerical parentage are charged 40R. a year for instruction at the St. Petersburg Ecclesiastical Seminary. The Peter School of the St Petersburg Merchants' Company charges 125R. per annum. In the Commercial Schools under the Ministry of Finance the average fee charged to day-boys varies from 75R. to 250R., and to boarders from 500R. to 800R.; but the charge in these schools differs in different classes, ranging from 80R. in the lower classes to 150R. in the higher classes of the same school. The fees of the Business Schools provided by societies or corporations run from 20R. to 100R.; those charged by private Business Schools range rather higher. The fees at the Kommissarov Technical School at Moscow are 100R. for day-boys, 360R. for boarders (but the latter also pay 40R. on entrance for "equipment"). The Lodz Higher Trade School for many years charged its pupils only 20R. per annum. The fees paid in the ordinary secondary technical schools vary from 40R. to 60R.

* Hostels now exist at all the Universities. The cost of living at the Alexander Hostel in connection with the St. Petersburg University is stated at 191 roubles a year.

a year ; those of the lower technical schools do not generally exceed 20R. In the Trade Schools the charge per annum varies in different localities from 3R. to 10R. Schools of Apprentices appear to charge from 6R. to 8R. The fees at the St. Petersburg gymnasia (day-schools) for girls under the Department of the Institutions of the Empress Maria vary from 80R. to 100R., the latter being the most usual charge. One of the best of the private day-schools for girls in St. Petersburg charges fees varying from 150R. to 220R. a year.

The charge made by the Urban Schools varies from 2R. to 20R. a year, according to local conditions. In St. Petersburg it is 2R., but this fee is often remitted to poor parents. In all primary schools other than the Urban Schools, gratuitous instruction is the rule, fees the exception. In the Moscow primary schools 3R. a year are charged to cover the cost of books supplied to the children.

But a considerable proportion of those receiving not only primary but secondary and higher education in Russia pay no fees at all. In the first place, all persons actually in the service of the Ministry of Public Instruction in connection with secondary or primary schools have the right to free instruction for their children in any gymnasium, real-school, or technical school under that Ministry. But, apart from this, a certain proportion (generally about 15 per cent.) of free places are reserved for deserving children of poor parents in every secondary school. This is such a characteristic feature of Russian education that even the private schools commonly follow the example of the State in this respect. Many pupils, whose fees are not wholly remitted, also receive special assistance from time to time from the special funds of the schools they attend. The proportion of University students attending lectures without payment has of recent years averaged from 17 to 20 per cent. Finally, in connection with higher education, the bursary system has received a very wide extension. The sum spent by the State alone in 1898 upon bursaries and other subventions to poorer students amounted to 653,100R. ; and, in addition to this, a large number of bursaries have been founded by private individuals and societies. University bursaries are of two kinds. The first kind consists of those to which conditions of service are attached by the donors, *i.e.*, either the State, the zemstvos, or municipalities, or the private societies, which have founded the bursaries. Those who receive these bursaries bind themselves in return to enter the public service for a stated period after the completion of their University course. The second kind of University bursary consists of those to which no condition of obligatory service attaches. These are awarded on the result of a competitive examination conducted according to regulations settled by the Minister of Public Instruction. In addition to these bursaries a certain sum is placed at the disposal of the Rector of each University, to be used at his discretion for the relief of poor students who have not obtained bursaries. the statutes of the higher technical colleges also invariably provide

for a certain number of bursaries and free places. For example, at the St. Petersburg Technological Institute there are 105 bursaries of 360R. each, and provision is made for free instruction to 100 students. Much is also done to assist poor students by the societies which have been founded for the purpose in connection with the Universities, and many other places of higher and secondary education.

The bursaries granted to poor students during their course of study at the Universities must be distinguished from those given to students who have obtained their diploma and wish to stay on at the University to read for the degree of magister. If the Faculty Meeting applies to the Minister on behalf of such a student, a bursary is granted to him for this purpose for two years, which period may be extended by another year on the renewed application of the Faculty. Of these students there were 198 residing at the various Universities in 1904, in addition to seventeen others who had been sent abroad with travelling studentships. Similar assistance is given at the Ecclesiastical Academies to students who, after taking their first degree, wish to read for a higher degree, with a view of ultimately being employed as professors.

VIII. PREMISES AND EQUIPMENT.

It remains finally to say a few words about premises and equipment. In respect of both points it is difficult to make any general statement, since the range of difference between the best schools and the worst, especially in the domain of primary education, is extraordinarily wide. In the capitals and large towns there are many examples of beautiful and commodious school buildings, furnished with all the appliances of modern educational science, and so far as secondary schools are concerned, the writer has personally seen none that were not at least reasonably satisfactory from a hygienic and sanitary point of view. But the statements of official and semi-official publications leave no room for doubt that many secondary schools are carried on in premises which in point of airiness, open spaces, and general comfort are not all that could be desired. The author of the official report of the Educational Section of the Nizhni Novgorod Exhibition of 1896 complains that "in the majority of cases" the schools are old, ill-lighted, and badly ventilated, that they have neither open courts nor gardens, and that their sanitary arrangements are imperfect; and he asserts that these conditions have a very injurious effect on the health of the pupils, inducing headache, anæmia, short sight and other physical troubles. Improvement is, however, undoubtedly being made in this respect. Many of the school buildings of the Kiev Educational District, for instance, are stated to be excellent in every way. The First Gymnasium of Kiev, as may be seen from the details given in the special brochure on the school prepared for the Paris Exhibition, is a good example of a thoroughly up-to-date school, satisfying the most exigent demands of modern hygienic science. The great defect in Russian secondary schools which

strikes an Englishman is the lack of space for open-air games. The indoor Hall of Recreation, in which the pupils march or saunter up and down during the times of recess, is but a poor substitute for such an open playground.

The contrasts between the best and the worst primary schools are very well summed up in the brochure issued by the St. Petersburg District Zemstvo under the title of "The Life of the Russian School." "In the capital and in the great centres of population," says the author of this book, "schools may certainly be found which meet all modern requirements—veritable little palaces with spacious and well-ventilated classrooms, large recreation halls, beautifully kept courts and even gardens, and sumptuously equipped with furniture and educational apparatus. Many of the schools maintained by local communities, though they pretend to no such luxury as this, are nevertheless very suitably housed and equipped. But it is very different in the more remote provincial districts." Then follows a description of one of these rural schools "A tumble-down hut; a low, narrow room with tiny windows scarce admitting the uncertain light of a winter day; the cold coming in through the chinks as well as through the door, which has to be opened from time to time for ventilation, cold which numbs the fingers and freezes the toes, and forces the teacher to wear a double covering for her feet and wrap herself in thick shawls; the air vitiated by the smell of the children's sheepskins; a lack of books, no tables except the window sills, wretched grey paper and bad ink, miserable furniture. . . ." The writer of this Report can testify from personal experience that this picture of the conditions under which some rural schools of Russia are taught is by no means overdrawn. No one can have visited such a school without feeling convinced that great devotion to duty on the part of the teachers and great willingness to learn on the part of the pupils are the sole conditions which make success possible in circumstances so adverse. We shall see in the succeeding chapter that both these conditions are abundantly present in the Russian primary schools.

CHAPTER II.—APPENDIX I.

LEARNED INSTITUTIONS AND SOCIETIES.

The following account of institutions and societies existing in Russia for the advancement of learning and the prosecution of scientific research is founded on the article "Learned Societies" in Brookhaus and Ephron's *Entsiklopedicheskii Slovar*, vol. 54, article *Rossia*, pp. 410-414, supplemented by particulars drawn from other sources.

Imperial Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburg.—This institution was founded in 1725 by a ukaz of Peter the Great, and was opened by his widow and successor in the following year. Since 1841, it has been divided into three sections, viz., (1) the Physico-Mathematical Section, (2) the Section of Russian Language and Literature (representing the old Russian Academy founded in 1783, and amalgamated with the Academy of Sciences in 1841), and (3) the Historico-Philological Section. In 1899, on the occasion of the Pushkin centenary, the Section of Russian Language and Literature was augmented by a new department of Belles Lettres. The Academy consists of Ordinary and Extraordinary Academicians, Adjuncts, Honorary Members and Corresponding Members. The persons comprised in the first three categories are Russian scholars appointed to Academical chairs corresponding to the particular branch of science in which they have won distinction. The President and Vice-President of the Academy are appointed by the Emperor. The Permanent Secretary is an Academician whose duty it is to supervise the current business affairs of the institution, conduct correspondence with Russian and foreign savants and learned societies, etc. The Academy possesses a library of about 400,000 volumes; a physical cabinet; laboratories (chemical, physical, botanical, physiological); museums of botany, geology, zoology, classical archaeology, ethnography and anthropology, with an Asiatic museum, consisting of some 25,000 books, manuscripts and other objects; a Russian numismatic cabinet containing a fine collection of ancient Russian coins and medals. The Museums are open to public inspection, and are available for research purposes to persons unconnected with the Academy. The Academy has also the supervision of the following institutions: the Chief Physical Observatory at St. Petersburg, the Constantine Magneto-meteorological Observatory at Pavlovsk, the Physical Observatory at Tiflis, the Magneto-meteorological Observatories at Ekaterinburg and Irkutsk, and the Chemical Laboratory of St. Petersburg. Attached to the Academy is a Standing Commission for the assistance of needy scholars and writers, and it has at its disposal many special funds for the encouragement of research. It has its own printing-press and type foundry, and publishes a monthly journal (*Izvestia Imperatorskoi Akademii Nauk*), and a yearly *Pamiatnaia Knizhka* as well as Transactions of its various sections.

According to the statistics contained in the article in the *Entsiklopedicheskii Slovar* which we are following, the number of learned societies in Russia in 1899 was 340. This number, however, includes five societies in connection with the Russian Orthodox Church, whose aims are not exclusively or predominantly scientific, and some others whose aims are chiefly practical. Of these 340 societies the greater part have been founded since the accession of Alexander II. In 1856 the number of learned societies of all kinds did not exceed twenty-five, but rose to 200 during the next twenty-five years. Of those now existing somewhat over two-thirds are in the two capitals. Some of the provincial University towns—Kiev, Warsaw, Odessa, K&szl;zan—also stand well up in the list. Many learned societies are in fact founded in connection with the Universities, which since 1863 have possessed the right to establish them with the sanction of the Minister of Public Instruction.

Since 1897 the Minister of Public Instruction has had the right to sanction the establishment of learned societies of every kind.

The following are the principal societies existing in Russia, arranged according to the branches of learning which they are founded to promote.

Economics.—The oldest existing society in Russia is the Free Economical Society, founded 1765. It has three sections, (1) Section of Rural Economy; (2) Section of technical productions connected with rural economy and of agricultural mechanics; (3) Section of political economy and rural economical statistics.

Philosophy.—The Psychological Society, founded 1804 in connection with the University of Moscow; its organ, "Questions of Philosophy and Psychology" (established 1889) is devoted to research in psychology, philosophy and logic; the Philosophical Society, founded 1897, in connection with the University of St. Petersburg; the Russian Society of Experimental Psychology, founded in St. Petersburg early in the nineties.

Russian Language and Literature.—Society of the Lovers of Russian Literature in Moscow University; the Russian Literary Society (St. Petersburg, founded 1886); the Literary and Artistic Society of Odessa (has existed since the end of the forties); the Literary and Artistic Society of Kiev (1896); the Russian Literary Circle in Riga (1874). Societies for the study of the Russian language and literature also exist in Mitau, Reval, Fellin, and Riga.

Ancient and Modern Languages and Literature.—The Society of Classical Philology and Pedagogy (St. Petersburg, 1874); the Neo-Philological Society in connection with the University of St. Petersburg (reorganised in its present form in 1889); the Classical Philological Society (Kiev).

History.—The two oldest historical societies in Russia are the "Society of Russian History and Antiquities" of Moscow, and Odessa, founded respectively in 1805 and 1839. The Imperial Russian Historical Society, founded in St. Petersburg in 1866, and since that date has done much to encourage and facilitate historical research by the publication of its *Annals*. An Historical Society was founded in connection with the University of St. Petersburg in 1889, and another in connection with that of Moscow in 1895. In 1895 there was founded at St. Petersburg a "Society of the Study of Russian historical learning, in memory of the Emperor Alexander II." The other historical societies have a more local character. Such are the Society of the Chronicler Nestor in connection with the University of Kiev (founded 1873); the Society of Archaeology, History and Ethnography in connection with the University of Kazan (1878); the Society of the Astrakhan region (1874), which is mainly concerned with the investigation of the history of Little Russia; the Historico-Philological Society of Odessa (1889), which devotes itself principally to the study of Russian literature, and (since 1898, when a Slavonic section was added) also to Slavonic questions generally; the Historico-Philological Society connected with the Bezborodko Institute at Nezhin (founded 1897), which is also connected with the study of Slavonic literature and philology. Eparchial Historical Societies exist at St. Petersburg and Kamenets-Podolsk. A General Historical Society was founded at St. Petersburg in 1897 in connection with the University of the Emperor Alexander III. The collection and publication of historical documents is undertaken by special "Archæographical Commissions" at St. Petersburg, Kiev, Vilna, Tiflis, and Moscow. Very considerable services in the field of local historical investigation have been rendered by the Provincial Archive Commissions, of which there are now seventeen in various provincial towns.

Archæology.—The general study of archæology in all its branches is undertaken by three societies, viz., the Imperial Russian Archæological Society of St. Petersburg, founded in 1846, which has three sections, namely, the section of Oriental archæology, the Russian and Slavonic section, and the section of

classical, Byzantine and Western European archæology; the Imperial Archæological Commission of St. Petersburg, founded in 1859; and the Imperial Russian Archæological Society of Moscow, founded 1864. The study of local antiquities is prosecuted by a number of societies, such as the Society of Archæology, History and Ethnography of the University of Kazan (1878); the Archæological Society at Pskov (1880); the Circle of Lovers of the History and Archæology of the Crimea, at Sebastopol (1864); the Novgorod Society of the Lovers of Antiquity (1894); the Turkestan Circle of Lovers of Archæology at Tashkent (1895), the president of which is the Governor General, and whose object is to collect materials for the study of the ancient history of Central Asia; the Archæological Society at Pernov (1896); and the Society of the Lovers of Archæology, History and Natural Science at Tver (1898). Two Antiquarian Societies belong to the Baltic Provinces, viz., the *Gesellschaft für Geschichte und Altertumskunde der Ostseeprovinzen Russlands* at Riga (1834), and the *Gelchrte estnische Gesellschaft* at Dorpat (1838). Special branches of Archæology are the object of investigation by the following societies: the Moscow Society of Old Russian Art; the Imperial Society of the Lovers of Ancient Writings, at St. Petersburg (1877); the Society of Ecclesiastical Archæology established in 1894 in connection with the Ecclesiastical Academy of St. Petersburg; the Kiev Society of Antiquities and Arts (1897); the Commission for the Consecration of Ancient Monuments at Kiev (1898); and the Moscow Numismatic Society (1888). Several societies are devoted to the interests of local Church history and archæology. Such are the Society of Ecclesiastic Archæology at the Kiev Ecclesiastical Academy (1872); the Section of Ikonography in the Society of Lovers of Religious Enlightenment at Moscow, the Eparchial Committee for Ecclesiastical Archæology at Nizhni Novgorod (1889), the Volhynian Society of Ecclesiastical Archæology at Zhitomir (1894), the Commission of Ecclesiastical Archæology at Sukhum (1893), the Society of Ecclesiastical Archæology at Stavropol (1894), the Committee of Ecclesiastical Archæology at Smolensk (1896), the Association for Ecclesiastical Archæology at Tula (1898). There are Archæological Institutes at St. Petersburg (1878) and at Constantinople (1895).

The following societies are devoted to the study of *Law*: the Law Society of the University of St. Petersburg (1876) with sections of civil, criminal, administrative and customary law, and including also the Russian group of the International Union of Criminalists; and the Law Societies in connection with the Universities of Kiev, Kazan, and Odessa. The University Literary Society of Dorpat also contains a Law Section. The Law Society of the University of Moscow was closed in 1899 by order of the Minister of Public Instruction. Other societies for the advancement of legal science are established at Tiflis, Kursk, Iaroslav and Ekaterinoslav. There is a Society of International Law at St. Petersburg founded in 1880.

Geography, Anthropology, Ethnography.—The most important society devoted to the interests of geographical and related sciences is the Imperial Russian Geographical Society, founded in 1845, which consists of four sections viz., mathematical geography, physical geography, ethnography and statistics. Besides this there is the Society of Investigators of the Alma at Barnaul (1891), the Society for the Investigation of the Island of Eesel at Arensburg (1865), the section of natural history in the Peter Society for the Investigation of the Astrakhan region (*see above under History*), the geographical and ethnographical sections of the Moscow Society of Lovers of Natural Science, Anthropology and Ethnography (*see below*), the Russian Anthropological Society and the University of St. Petersburg (1887), and the Anthropological Society founded in 1893, in connection with the St. Petersburg Military Academy of Medicine.

Mathematical and Physical Sciences.—There are Mathematical Societies in connection with each of the Universities of Moscow, St. Petersburg, Kharkov and Kazan, a Physico-Mathematical Society at the University of Kiev, a Physico-Chemical Society of the University of St. Petersburg, an Astronomical Society at St. Petersburg, and a Circle of Lovers of Physics and Astronomy at Nishni Novgorod.

Natural History.—The Imperial Moscow Society for the Investigation of Nature has existed in connection with the University since 1805. The Imperial Mineralogical Society, founded at St. Petersburg in 1817, has included since 1861 geology and palæontology within the scope of its interests. The Imperial Society of Natural Science, Anthropology and Ethnography, founded at the University of Moscow in 1863, comprises sections in anthropology, ethnography, the physical sciences, zoology, chemistry and geography. Besides these Natural History Societies exist in connection with each of the Universities of St. Petersburg, Kazan, Kiev, Kharkov, Odessa, Warsaw, Dorpat and Tomsk, that of the last-named having also a medical section. There is also an Entomological Society at St. Petersburg, an Imperial Russian Society for the Acclimatisation of Animals and Plants at Moscow; a Society for the Investigation of the Natural History of the Government of Iaroslav, at Iaroslav; a Society of Lovers of Natural Science at Ekaterinburg; a Geological Committee at St. Petersburg; a Society of Natural Science Investigators and Lovers of Nature at Saratov; and a similar society at Riga.

Pedagogy.—The most important Pedagogical Society is that founded in connection with the University of Moscow. Two pedagogical societies also exist at St. Petersburg, and one at Ekaterinburg. There is a Froebel Society at St. Petersburg, founded in 1871.

Bibliography.—A Russian Bibliographical Society exists in connection with the University of Moscow.

Of medical societies there are a considerable number, thirty-three such being enumerated in the two capitals alone. Societies connected with the drama, music and other arts are also numerous; and there are also many societies pursuing practical aims in connection with rural economy and technical knowledge, concerning which we have no detailed information at our disposal.

Scientific Congresses.—The organisation of Congresses for the discussion of scientific subjects is attended with special difficulties in Russia. Since the sixties, however, such Congresses have been held from time to time, the first being the Congress of Naturalists which met at Kiev in 1861. In 1867 an ordinance of the Committee of Ministers authorised the holding of periodical Physical Science Congresses, and the first of these took place at St. Petersburg in the winter of 1867-8. (*See* p. 125.) Archæological and Medical Congresses have also been recently organised. A Congress of Russian Jurists met at Moscow in 1874, but official sanction for the holding of a second Congress of this kind has not been obtained.

SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION.	Insti- tute of En- gineers of Ways of Commu- nication.	Mining Insti- tute.	Insti- tute of Civil En- gineers.	Electro- Techni- cal In- stitute.	Insti- tute of Fore- stry.	Nicholas Technological Institute.		Kharkov Technological Institute.		Moscow Technological Institute.		Moscow Institute of Rural Economy.		New Alexandra Institute of Agriculture and Forestry.		Riga Polytechnic Institute.							
						Me- chanics.	Chemis- try.	Me- chanics.	Chemis- try.	Me- chanics.	Chemis- try.	Agricul- ture.	Engin- eering.	Agricul- ture.	Fore- stry.	Con- struc- tion.	Engin- eering.	Me- chanics.	Chemis- try.	Rura Scout my.			
Divinity	2	8	8	8	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mathematics	9	9	7	8	4	7	5	8	6	9	6	-	-	8	12	12	6	5	7	8	9	8	8
Physics	3	7	3	7	4	5	6	6	6	6	6	5	5	6	6	4	8	4	4	10	2	2	2
Chemistry	3	8	3	5	6	6	6	5	4	6	6	9	9	6	6	3	3	4	3	2	2	2	2
Descriptive Geometry	4½	4	2	3	-	2	3	3	3	3	3	-	2	-	-	5	6	5	2	2	2	2	2
Theoretical and Applied Mechanics; Strength of Materials	10	6	4	2	-	14½	13	13	11	15	9	-	5	-	-	5	9	20	5	-	-	-	-
Art of Construction	1½	-	6	3	-	3	2	2	2	-	-	-	-	2	2	6	6	3	3	4	4	4	4
Architecture	2	-	2	2	-	2	2	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
Architectural Form	1	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Geodesy (Land-surveying)	4	2	-	1½	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	4	2	2	1	4	1	-	-	-	-	-
Drawing	6	-	20	-	-	4	4	4	4	4	4	-	-	-	-	16	6	5	5	5	5	5	5
Geometrical and Technical Drawing, Exercises in descriptive geometry, art of construction, or archi- tecture; drawing of ground plans, sites, etc., drawing as applied to engineering, etc.	14	6	14	6	-	12	12	10	10	12	12	-	-	-	-	19	17	17	10	7	7	7	7
Modern Languages	2	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	-	-	5	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Botany	-	-	-	-	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	6	3½	3½	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Dendrology	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Zoology	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	4	3½	3½	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mineralogy	-	4	1	3	-	3	3	-	4	-	2	2	2	4	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Crystallography	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Geology and Physical Geo- graphy	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Geology and Knowledge of Soils	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	2	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Geognosy and Geology	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Animal Physiology	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	4½	4½	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Vegetable Physiology	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	2½	2½	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Bacteriology	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Forestry (Silviculture)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mining (Art of)	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gallurgy	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Paleontology	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Telegraphy and Telegra- phic Construction	-	-	-	4½	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mechanical Technology	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Chemical Technology	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Political Economy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Statistics	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Law	-	-	2	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Agricultural Machinery	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

* In the third year.

CHAPTER II.—APPENDIX III.

(A) REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION TO THE CLASSES OF THE ALEXANDER LYCEUM.

i.—*Requirements for admission to the lowest division of the Preparatory School.*

Religion.—Requirements vary according to the creed of the pupil (Orthodox, Roman Catholic, or Lutheran). For Orthodox boys they comprise a knowledge of the most common prayers, the Creed, the Ten Commandments, and a knowledge of the chief events of Old and New Testament history.

Russian.—Declensions and conjugations: grammatical analysis, writing from dictation, and knowledge by heart of certain poems.

Latin.—Declensions of substantives, adjectives, pronouns, and numerals, comparison of adjectives and adverbs, infinitive, imperative, and the present active and passive of the regular verbs, with exercises.

Mathematics.—Arithmetic to addition and subtraction of fractions.

Geography.—Elementary notions of mathematical geography, general knowledge of the surface of the earth from the globe.

French and German.—Knowledge of names of objects met with in the house, the court-yard, the field, and the wood; parts of the body, articles of dress, days of the week and months. Translation of short sentences and passages into Russian and French [German]. Some poems to be learnt by heart. Dictation.

ii.—*Requirements for admission into Class VI., i.e., to the lowest class of the Lyceum proper.*

In mathematics and Latin a knowledge of the course covered by the first four classes of the gymnasium for boys. In the other subjects the requirements are as follows:

Religion.—(a) Orthodox boys must know the prayers in general use, the history of the Old and New Testament, and the Liturgy of the Church.

(b) Catholic boys must know the short Catechism and the whole of Old Testament history.

(c) Lutheran boys must know the five parts of the Catechism with biblical texts as set forth in Dietrichs' handbook. Also the whole of Old Testament history as in Kurtz' "*Biblische Geschichte.*"

Russian.—Full knowledge of Russian etymology and syntax. Reading, translation, and knowledge of the main forms of the etymology and syntax of Church Slavonic. Oral and written reproduction of matter read. Dictation. Knowledge by heart of stated poems and fables.

Geography.—General elementary knowledge of mathematical and physical geography. The use of the globe. Description of the five parts of the world from the physical, ethnographical, and political standpoints (not including Russia).

History.—Russian history. Ancient history of the East.

French and German.—All the etymology. Writing letter from dictation. Oral reproduction in French or German of passage read. Translation from Russian to the foreign language and *vice versa*.

English.—First rules of etymology. Conjugation of auxiliary and regular verbs. Writing easy phrases from dictation. Translation from Russian to English and *vice versa*. Oral reproduction of matter read.

iii.—Requirements for admission into Class III., that is, to the Senior Section.

[Note.—In addition to the following, the requirements include a knowledge of all the work gone through in the lower classes.]

Religion.—Orthodox Pupils.—The whole of the Catechism.

Lutherans.—Bible History, especially the sayings of Jesus Christ and His sufferings. The five parts of the Catechism, with detailed exposition and knowledge of biblical texts referred to:

Catholics.—Third and Fourth Parts of the Catechism.

Russian.—Theory of Literature according to a detailed program. Knowledge by heart of set poems.

Logic.—Function of Logic. Ideas and representation. Definition and Division. Judgments. The Laws of Thought. Law of Identity, Opposition, and the excluded third. Inferences. Immediate Inferences. The Syllogism. Logical Fallacies. Induction; Methods of Induction. Deduction; Analysis and synthesis. Proof.

Latin.—Cicero's philosophical writings: Pro Ligario, De Finibus or De Officiis, De Senectute, De Amicitia or Speeches (*e.g.* In Antonium); or Livy, and not less than one book of Virgil. Translation from Russian to Latin. Grammar generally.

Mathematics.—Application of Algebra to Geometry and Analytical Geometry.

(See also note above.)

Physics.—Light. Heat rays and chemical rays. Heat. Transformation of work into heat. Mechanical theory of heat. Conservation of energy.

(See also note above.)

Cosmography.—The shape and size of the earth. Diurnal motion of the heavenly bodies. Positions of the stars. Positions of places on the earth. Motion of the earth on its axis. The sun: its visible motion, distance, size, construction. Movement of the earth round the sun. Measurement of time. The moon. Eclipses. Planets. Comets. Falling stars. Fixed stars. Nebulous spots. Universal gravitation.

Geography.—The Russian Empire.

History.—Mediæval, Modern, and Russian History.

French.—French Literature (Corneille, Molière, Racine, La Fontaine, Boileau, Pascal, Bossuet, Fénelon), from Pictet's *Manuel de la Littérature Française*. Oral narration or written composition in French upon a given historical or historico-literary theme. Translation into French of Pushkin's Stories. Dictation.

German.—Grammar generally. Translation from German into Russian. Translation into German of Pushkin's Stories. Knowledge of chief German classics up to the time of the Reformation. Oral narration and written composition based on passages read. Dictation.

English.—English Literature: Shakespeare, Pope, Swift, Defoe, Burns, Scott from Turner's *Lessons in English Literature*. Oral narration and written composition, as in German. Dictation.

(B) TABLE SHOWING THE COURSE OF STUDY.*

	Classes of Lyceum.						Classes of Preparatory School.		
	i.*	ii.	iii.	iv.	v.	vi.*	1.	2.	3.
Canon Law - - - -	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Church History - - -	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Encyclopædia of Law - -	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-
History of Russian Law - -	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Civil Law and Procedure -	2	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Criminal Law and Procedure -	2	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Roman Law - - - -	-	-	5	-	-	-	-	-	-
Political Economy - - -	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Financial Law - - - -	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Statistics - - - -	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Imperial Law - - - -	3	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Administrative Law - - -	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
International Law - - -	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
History of Philosophy - -	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Russian History - - - -	-	-	4	2	2	-	-	2	-
Universal History - - -	-	2	3	2	2	4	2	-	-
History of Russian Literature	-	2	3	-	-	-	-	-	-
History of Universal Literature	-	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hygiene - - - -	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Religion - - - -	-	-	-	2	2	2	2	2	2
Russian and Church Slavonic	-	-	-	4	3	3	4	4	4
Latin - - - -	-	-	-	5	5	5	5	5	5
French - - - -	-	2	2	4	4	3	3	3	4
German - - - -	-	2	2	3	4	4	3	3	4
English - - - -	-	2	2	3	4	3	3	-	-
Logic - - - -	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
Mathematics - - - -	-	-	-	2	7	6	6	5	5
Physics - - - -	-	-	-	3	3	3	-	-	-
Cosmography - - - -	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-
Geography - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	3	2	2	2
General Study of Russia	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-
Natural History - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2
Calligraphy - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2
Drawing - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	1
	24	20	30	36	36	36	31	31	31

* The classes are numbered in the reverse order to that adopted in the ordinary schools, Class I. being the highest, and Class VI. the lowest.

CHAPTER II.—APPENDIX IV.

COURSES OF STUDY IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS FOR BOYS.

(i.) COURSE OF THE GYMNASIA.

RELIGION.

(We give merely the general heads of the program of religious instruction sanctioned by the Holy Synod for use in the gymnasia.)

Preparatory Class (four lessons).—The most usual prayers; the Creed; the Ten Commandments; narrative of the principal events of Old and New Testament History.

First Class (two lessons).—Old Testament History.

Second Class (two lessons).—New Testament History.

Third Class (two lessons).—Liturgy of the Orthodox Christian Church, with exposition of Church psalmody.

Fourth Class (two lessons).—First notions of the Catechism; Divine revelation, sacred tradition, and the Holy Scriptures: first part of the Catechism (on Faith).

Fifth Class (two lessons).—First and second parts of the Longer Catechism (on Hope and Love); history of the Orthodox Church.

Sixth Class (two lessons).—Continuation of the history of the Orthodox Church.

Seventh and Eighth Classes (two lessons in each).—Christian doctrine and ethics.

The above course of religious instruction is, of course, for boys of the Orthodox faith only. The official programs contain no information as to the religious instruction given in the gymnasia to those professing other creeds.

RUSSIAN (WITH SLAVONIC).

The aim of the teaching of the Russian language and literature in the gymnasia is defined as being the correct use of the literary language in speech and writing both from the grammatical and stylistic points of view. The grammar of Russian being particularly difficult and complicated, it is necessary to devote considerable time to this part of the subject. Hence the work of the classes below the fourth is mainly concerned with the principles of Russian grammar, along with such exercises in reading, writing, dictation, composition, and learning by heart as will illustrate the facts of the language and strengthen the pupil's hold upon them. The subjects studied in the fourth and fifth classes, on the contrary, are the two elements upon which the existing literary language is based, viz. the old Church Slavonic, and the language of Russian oral and popular literature. In the sixth and seventh classes the history of the literary language in its successive phases of development forms the object of study. In the eighth class the knowledge already obtained of the facts of the language, and its literature, serves as a basis for the study of the theory of literature and style. Great importance is attached in all classes to oral and written exercises in composition. In the higher classes the latter consist largely of essays on historical, literary and other subjects, or of translation exercises.

The course in Russian language and literature, therefore, falls naturally into two divisions, in the lower of which the study of language * predominates, in the higher, the study of literature. The following is the distribution of work among the various classes as given in the official scheme:—

A. Lower classes (grammar).

Preparatory Class (six lessons).—Division of sounds into vowels, consonants and semi-vowels. Division of words into syllables. Accent. General notions of the parts of speech. Declension and conjugation.

First Class (five lessons).—Study of the analysis of a simple sentence and more detailed study of the parts of speech.

Second Class (four lessons).—Syntax of the simple and complex sentence. Principal and subordinate clauses. Conclusion of Etymology.

Third Class (four lessons).—Syntax of the complex sentence with detailed study of the rules of punctuation.

N.B. Each successive class recapitulates the work of the class immediately preceding it.

Fourth Class (three lessons).—Grammar of the old Church Slavonic language. Recapitulation of Russian Grammar. Ideas of periods and their division into simple and complex.

N.B. The course of old Church Slavonic grammar in this class is of extreme importance. On the one hand, it explains many features of the grammatical structure of the Russian language; on the other hand, it familiarises the pupil with one of the chief elements which have entered into the composition of the language in its present condition. The course of the fourth class is, therefore, the essential link which binds together the lower classes studying the Russian language with the higher classes studying Russian literature.

B. Higher classes (literature).

Fifth Class (three lessons).—Study and analysis (from the points of view of language, style and literature) of the old Russian writings of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, and of the oral popular literature (*byliny*, religious poems, historical ballads).

N.B. Oral popular literature forms another main element which has gone to the making of the present literary language, and is at the same time the inexhaustible source from which the living material of the language is constantly being drawn for literary purposes.

Sixth Class (three lessons).—Study and analysis of the works of Russian literature from the sixteenth century to Karamzin.

Seventh Class (three lessons).—Study and analysis of the works of Russian literature of the nineteenth century from Karamzin to Gogol.

Eighth Class (three lessons).—Short systematic course of the theory of style, poetry and prose. Study and analysis of models of literary art, both Russian and foreign.

N.B. In all classes select works of Russian literature are read, discussed and, up to the seventh class inclusive, learnt by heart, and the oral and written exercises indicated in the program and explanatory memorandum are performed.

LOGIC.

In the eighth class of the gymnasium one hour a week is devoted to the elements of Logic.

* i.e. Russian up to the fourth class, and Slavonic in the fourth.

THE CLASSICAL LANGUAGES.

A. LATIN.

First Class (six lessons).—Etymology, principally of the declined parts of speech: also the indicative mood, of the verbs of the four conjugations and of the verb *sum*; the pupil should at the same time have constant exercises, at first in isolated Latin phrases, which should, as far as possible, have some positive content, but afterwards in continuous Latin texts (easy fables, anecdotes, narratives): these to be discussed, translated into Russian, reproduced in Latin in answer to questions, turned back from Russian into Latin, and paraphrased: words and (especially) whole phrases and short passages to be learnt by heart.

Second Class (six lessons).—Etymology, especially of the verb, with the addition of the chief exceptions, the syntactical rules necessary for the reading of the chrestomathy, with exercises as above principally on the Latin passages contained in the chrestomathies.

Third Class (five lessons).—Syntax of the cases with exercises as above, both orally and in writing. In the second half-year two lessons a week only to be given to this work, the remaining three lessons to be devoted to Cornelius Nepos.

Fourth Class (five lessons).—Systematic course on the syntax of the complex sentence (to the subjunctive mood in dependence upon conjunctions inclusively) with written and oral exercises. This to occupy, in the first half-year, three lessons, in the second half-year, two lessons. In the first half-year, two lessons; in the second half-year, three lessons are to be devoted to the reading of Cæsar.

Fifth Class (five lessons).—Systematic course in syntax of complex sentences (completion) with written and oral exercises (two lessons). In one half-year, Sallust, and in the other, Ovid's *Metamorphoses* (three lessons).

Sixth Class (five lessons).—Systematic recapitulation of Latin syntax with oral and written exercises (two lessons). Cicero's *Orations* in one half-year, and Virgil's *Æneid* in the other (three lessons).

Seventh Class (five lessons).—Cicero's *Orations* in one half-year, and Virgil's *Æneid* in the other (five lessons).

Eighth Class (five lessons).—In one half-year Livy (five lessons), and in the other Livy (one lesson) with Horace (five lessons).

B. GREEK.

Third Class (four lessons).—Etymology, especially of the declined parts of speech, together with the pres. and imperf. active and passive of the verbs in σ (uncontracted) with exercises as in Latin in the first-class.

Fourth Class (five lessons).—Etymology, especially of the verb with exercises as above on connected texts. This to occupy five lessons in the first half-year, and two lessons in the second. The remaining three lessons in the second half-year are devoted to Xenophon's *Anabasis*.

Fifth Class (six lessons).—Recapitulation and completion of Etymology with necessary supplementary matter in connection with written and oral exercises (two lessons). Xenophon's *Anabasis* in one half-year, and Homer's *Odyssey* in the other (four lessons).

Sixth Class (six lessons).—Principal rules of syntax, with oral and written exercises (two lessons). Homer's *Odyssey* in one half-year, and Xenophon's *Memorabilia* in the other (four lessons).

Seventh and Eighth Classes (six lessons).—

In one half-year in Class VII :

Homer's Iliad	-	-	-	-	-	2 lessons.
Herodotus	-	-	-	-	-	4 "

In the other half year in Class VII :

Homer's Iliad	-	-	-	-	-	2 lessons.
Plato	-	-	-	-	-	4 "

In one half-year in Class VIII :

Homer's Iliad	-	-	-	-	-	2 lessons.
Demosthenes	-	-	-	-	-	4 "

In the other half-year in Class VIII :

Sophocles	-	-	-	-	-	4 lessons.
Demosthenes	-	-	-	-	-	2 "

MATHEMATICS AND MATHEMATICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Preparatory Class (six lessons).—Arithmetic: the four fundamental rules applied to whole numbers.

First Class (four lessons).—Arithmetic: operations with whole numbers, abstract and concrete. *Easy fractions.*

Second Class (four lessons).—Arithmetic: operations with simple and decimal fractions. *Recurring decimals.*

Third Class (three lessons).—Arithmetic (one lesson). Ratios and proportions. Solution of problems relating to the so-called rules of three. Recapitulation of arithmetic. *Algebra (two lessons).—*The four fundamental rules applied to monomials. Addition, subtraction, and multiplication of polynomials.

Fourth Class (four lessons).—Algebra (two lessons). Division of polynomials. Algebraic fractions. Solutions of equations of the first degree with one unknown quantity. Solution of determinate equations of the first degree with several unknown quantities. Powers and routes of monomials. Extraction of square roots of algebraic monomials and of numbers. Proportions. *Geometry (two lessons).—*Angles; right lines, perpendiculars, obliques, and parallels. Triangles, quadrangles and polygons. The circle. Problems in construction and numerical examples.

Fifth Class (four lessons).—Algebra (two lessons). Solution of equations of the second degree with one unknown quantity. Properties of a trinomial of the second degree. Solution of easy equations of the second degree with two unknown quantities. Operations with radicals and quantities with fractional indices. Extraction of the cube roots of numbers. *Geometry (two lessons).—*Proportionality of right lines. Relations between the sides of a triangle. Similar triangles and polygons. Measurement of angles. Regular polygons. Conception of limit. Length of circumference of circle. The number π . Areas. Simple problems in construction. Numerical examples of each of the foregoing sections. The relative position of right lines and plane surfaces in space. Dihedral and polyhedral angles.

Sixth Class (four lessons).—Algebra (two lessons). Progressions. Logarithms. *Geometry (two lessons).—*Regular polyhedra. Measurement of the surfaces and volumes of prisms and pyramids. Equality and similitude of prisms and pyramids. Round bodies. Measurement of their surfaces and volumes.

Seventh Class (three lessons).—Algebra (one lesson in the first half-year and two lessons in the second). Investigation of equations of the first degree with one unknown quantity. Investigation of the system of equations of the first degree with two unknowns. Solution of indeterminate equations of the first degree. Continued fractions. The theory of combinations.

Newton's binomial. *Trigonometry* (two lessons in the first half-year and one in the second). Rectilinear trigonometry.

Eighth Class (three lessons).—*Mathematics* (two lessons). Recapitulation of the foregoing with solution of problems. Ideas of the application of algebra to geometry. *Mathematical Geography* (one lesson).—Rotatory movement of the celestial sphere. Rotatory movement of the earth. True shape and size of the earth. Apparent annual movement of the sun. Annual movement of the earth round the sun. Measurement of time. Constitution and dimensions of the sun. The moon. Eclipses. The planets, Comets. The law of universal gravitation. Ebb and flow of tides.

PHYSICS.

Sixth Class (two lessons).—General notions of a physical body. Motion and forces. Composition and resolution of forces. Gravity. Liquids. Gaseous bodies. Short sketch of the most important chemical phenomena.

Seventh Class (three lessons).—Heat. Light. Acoustics. Magnetism and electricity. Galvanism.

Eighth Class (two lessons).—Development and completion of the mechanical side of physics. Principle of the conservation of energy. Notions of meteorology. Recapitulation of the course of physics in its main features.

HISTORY.

Third Class (two lessons a week).—Elementary course of Russian History.

Fourth Class (two lessons).—Systematic course of Ancient History (general notions of the history of the East: history of Greece and Rome).

Fifth Class (three lessons). Systematic course of mediæval European history and of Russian history to the time of Ivan the Terrible.

Sixth Class (two lessons).—Systematic course of modern European history to the death of Louis XIV., and of Russian history to the end of the reign of Peter the Great.

Seventh Class (two lessons).—Systematic course of modern European history from 1715, and of Russian history from the death of Peter the Great to the present time.

Eighth Class (two lessons).—Recapitulation of the history of Greece and Rome with supplementary matter. The remainder of the available time is occupied for the most part with the recapitulation of Russian history.

GEOGRAPHY (Two lessons a week in each class).

First Class.—Elementary notions of mathematical and physical geography. brief survey of the world's surface, with the aid of the globe and maps.

Second Class.—Asia, Africa, America, and Australia.

Third Class.—Europe.

Fourth Class.—Russia.

All parts of the world as well as Russia are to be studied from the physical, political, and ethnographical points of view.

FRENCH.

The course in French is divided into three grades, in accordance with the character of the methods of teaching and the nature of the verbal and grammatical material to be dealt with.

In the elementary course, viz., that of the second, third, and fourth classes, by means of reading and translation from Russian into French, along with oral and written class exercises, the pupils are made acquainted

with the etymology and the rules of syntax which are essential for the understanding of the text.

In the course of the intermediate classes (the fifth and sixth), a chrestomathy or a complete work by a French author is read, and the subject-matter serves as the material for oral and written class exercises and as the occasion for familiarising the pupils with the chief parts of syntax.

In the course of the senior classes (the seventh and eighth), attention is concentrated on the reading of French authors.

In accordance with this scheme the study of French in the individual classes is arranged as follows:—

Second Class (three lessons).—Reading and writing. Oral translation at first of isolated phrases, afterwards of easy connected passages, the words and expressions of which should be thoroughly learnt. Paraphrase of matter read and reproduction of it by the learner in response to questions. Writing from memory and dictation of words and sentences learnt. Pupils to be made acquainted with the chief grammatical forms and syntactical rules so far as required for the comprehension of the text.

Third Class (two lessons).—Reading and translation of connected passages from the text-book. Oral and written exercises, such as are given in the second class, but differing somewhat therefrom in accordance with the character of the linguistic material studied. Learning of words, expressions and poetry. Continuation of etymology.

Fourth Class (three lessons).—Reading and oral translation of connected passages from the chrestomathy. Paraphrase of text translated and reproduction of it in the pupil's own words without questioning. Learning of poetry. Dictation. Completion of etymology.

Fifth Class (three lessons).—Reading of passages from the chrestomathy with mastery of the linguistic material contained in them; cursory reading of a short complete book or of episodes from several books. Paraphrasing and oral and written reproduction of matter read. Learning of poetry. Rules of syntax.

Sixth Class (two lessons).—Reading of a short complete work or episodes from several books, both with preparation and unseen. Oral and written reproduction of matter read. Dictation from an unseen text. Rules of syntax.

Seventh Class (three lessons) and *Eighth Class* (three lessons). Reading of short complete works or episodes from prose works of the last two centuries or poetical extracts chosen by preference from the classical period of French literature, with the addition of the necessary historical and literary explanations and biographical accounts of the authors. Oral and written exposition of the content of matter read.

A general idea of the standard aimed at will be obtained by noting the authors recommended for study in the different classes. They include, in the fourth class, Lamé, Fleury, *Histoire Ancienne* (extracts); in the fifth, Michaud (extracts form the *Histoire des Croisades*), Maistre (e.g. *Le Lépreux*, *Le jeune Sibérienne*), Fénelon (*Fables*, etc.), selected works of Souvestre, Vigny, etc.; in the sixth, Voltaire (extracts from *Histoire de Charles II.*), selected works, mainly historical, of Rollin, Barante, Michelet, Delavigne, and Ségur; and in the seventh and eighth classes, selected portions of the historical writings of Thierry, Thiers, and Lanfrey; extracts from Buffon's *Histoire Naturelle*; *Le Bruyère* (extracts from the *Caractères*), selected works of Vigny, Octave Feuillet and Scribe, Molière, Corneille, Racine, and Voltaire (in the approved school editions).

GERMAN.

(Three hours a week are assigned to this subject, except in the two highest classes, where the number is reduced to two.)

The study of German in the gymnasia is based on the same principles as that of French, and follows the same general lines in regard to method. The

course in this subject therefore need not be described in detail. For reading and translation from German to Russian a chrestomathy is used up to the fifth class inclusive. For the sixth class the following are the authors recommended: Hauff (Lichtenstein and Märchen), Herder (Cid); Schiller (Der Neffe als Onkel, Turandot), Goethe (Götz von Berlichingen); and for the seventh and eighth classes the following: Lessing (Minna von Barnhelm, Emilia Galotti), Schiller (Episodes from the History of the Thirty Years War, and the Revolt of the Netherlands; also the best known historical plays, Goethe (Hermann und Dorothea, Egmont, Wahrheit und Dichtung, Iphigenie).

The explanatory memorandum emphasises the fact that the aim of the study of modern languages in the gymnasia is twofold: viz., (1) to serve the interests of general intellectual culture, and (2) "to provide the pupils with the knowledge necessary to enable them on the completion of their course in the gymnasium to make use in the original of scientific and literary works written by French and German scholars and authors, not only for the purpose of extending their own general education, but also for the study of the special branch of scientific knowledge which they have chosen." It is in pursuance of this twofold aim that the study of modern foreign languages in the gymnasia is based especially upon the reading of authors.

CALLIGRAPHY.

Preparatory Class (four lessons).—Preliminary exercises with the lead pencil for the training of hand and eye. Elements of small and capital letters in their genetic order. Figures. Latin script.

First Class (two lessons).—Recapitulation of above. Writing of words and phrases between lines. Exercises in German script. Exercises in writing on a single line.

Second Class (two lessons).—Continuation of exercises in Russian script on a single line. Latin and German script, copied from blackboard or from printed text, on a single line. Greek letters.

Third Class (one lesson).—Exercises in cursive writing without lines. German, Latin and Greek script from blackboard and copies.

DRAWING.

Preparatory Class (two lessons).—Drawing of flat rectilinear figures.

First Class (two lessons).—Drawing of flat rectilinear and curvilinear figures.

Second Class (two lessons).—Drawing of flat figures and rectilinear geometrical bodies in perspective.

Third Class (two lessons).—Drawing of geometrical bodies of revolution (cylinder, cone, globe) and simple ornaments in relief.

(ii.) COURSE OF THE REAL-SCHOOLS.

RUSSIAN WITH SLAVONIC

The scheme of work in this subject in its general outlines the same as in the gymnasia, the lower classes (to IV. inclusive) being mainly occupied with grammar (Russian and Slavonic), those from IV. upwards with literature. But the course in literature taken by the upper classes is not so full as in the gymnasia.

Preparatory Class and Classes I. to IV. inclusive.—As in the gymnasia, except that in Class IV. lessons are given on versification and style.

Class V. (three lessons).—Short course in the theory of poetry and prose. Reading and analysis of selected models of literary excellence.

Class VI. (three lessons).—Reading and analysis of Russian literary works of the nineteenth century to Gogol inclusive.

Supplementary Class (four lessons).—Reading and analysis of Russian literary works from the earliest times to Karamzin.

MODERN LANGUAGES.

The aim of the study of modern languages in the real-school is not the same as in the gymnasium. Whereas in the case of the latter great stress is laid on the use of French and German as scientific and literary instruments, the practical advantages of a knowledge of modern tongues come more prominently into view in the case of the former. Hence, says the explanatory memorandum which accompanies the official program, "the teaching of modern languages should be directed towards enabling the pupils not only to master the grammar of the language studied and to understand without especial difficulty a book written in the foreign tongue, but it should also teach them, as far as possible, to express themselves in the language orally and in writing." This difference in aim as between the gymnasium and real-school is clearly reflected in their respective programs of instruction in modern languages.

GERMAN.

The course in German is divided into three sections. In the first section, comprising *Class I.* (six lessons) and *Class II.* (six lessons) the German is studied by practical methods by means of exercises based on a connected text, the object of which is to impart to the pupils the necessary linguistic material, and to familiarise them with the fundamental rules of German Grammar.

In the second section, comprising *Class III.* (five lessons) and *Class IV.* (four lessons) German grammar is systematically gone through with oral and written exercises. The reading of the passages of the chrestomathy serves to elucidate and fix in the minds of the pupils the rules of grammar, as well as to consolidate and extend the knowledge of vocabulary and idiom which they have already acquired.

In the third section, which includes the fifth (three lessons) sixth (three lessons) and supplementary (five lessons) classes, the pupils are mainly occupied with the reading of German authors, their attention being chiefly directed to the subject-matter.

The last paragraph refers only to the fundamental division of the real school. In addition to the work of that division the pupils of the commercial division have two additional hours for German in the fifth and sixth classes, which are occupied as follows:—

Fifth Class (Commercial Division).—Study of model commercial letters and translation of them into Russian: study of commercial phrases and vocabulary: composition of commercial letters: practice in German conversation on commercial subjects.

Sixth Class (Commercial Division).—Study of bills, contracts, etc., in German: continuation of study of German commercial terminology, letter writing and conversation.

FRENCH.

The course in French is divided into two stages, in conformity with the character of the methods of instruction and the nature of the linguistic and grammatical material.

In the elementary stage, taken by the junior classes, viz., II. (five lessons), III. (five lessons) and IV. (four lessons), the pupils read and translate from French to Russian, with oral and written exercises in class, and are thus

familiarised with the etymology and the syntactical rules necessary for the understanding of the text.

In the senior stage, viz., that of Classes V. (two lessons) and VI. (two lessons) passages from the chrestomathy and complete works (or considerable portions of them) are read, the subject-matter serving as the text for oral and written class exercises, and as the occasion for making the pupils acquainted with the most important principles of syntax.

In addition to the work of the Fundamental Division in Classes V. and VI., the pupils of the Commercial Division go through a special course in commercial French, similar to that described above in the case of German.

GEOGRAPHY

(Two hours in each class, except the fifth).

Class I.—Elementary notions of mathematical and physical geography and a brief survey of the world's surface with the aid of globe and map.

Class II.—Brief survey of the Russian Empire and physical and ethnographical description of Asia, Africa, America, and Australia, with mention of the principal States into which they are divided.

Class III.—Physical and ethnographical survey of Europe and survey of the States of Western Europe with their Colonies.

Class IV.—Survey of the Russian Empire with brief recapitulation of the geography of Europe.

Class V.—Short course of physical geography. Survey of the Russian Empire as compared with the chief States of Europe and of other parts of the world from the physical, industrial, and commercial points of view.

Class VII.—Short course of mathematical geography.

HISTORY.

The teaching of history in real schools is divided into two courses, the elementary and the systematic. The component parts of these courses are distributed among the classes as follows:—

Class III. (two lessons).—Elementary course of Russian History.

Class IV. (two lessons).—Elementary course of ancient and mediæval history as far as the Crusades.

Class V. (two lessons).—Elementary course of mediæval and modern history from the beginning of the Crusades.

Class VI. (four lessons).—Detailed course of Russian history.

Class VII. (four lessons).—Detailed course of modern history with a preliminary survey of the chief features of the mediæval life of Europe.

N.B.—In Class VI of the Commercial Division, which has two lessons only in history, a course of Russian history is also gone through, but in an abridged form.

MATHEMATICS AND GEOMETRICAL DRAWING.

Preparatory Class and Classes I. to III. inclusive.—As for the gymnasium, but Class III. has in addition two lessons a week in technical drawing.

Class IV. (eight lessons).—*Algebra* (three lessons).—Operations with algebraic fractions. Solution of equations of the first degree with one unknown quantity. Solution of determinate systems of equations of the first degree with several unknown quantities. Powers and roots of monomials. Extraction of the square roots of monomials. Extraction of the square and cube roots of numbers.

Geometry and Geometrical Drawing (five lessons).—Angles. Right lines, perpendiculars, obliques, and parallels. Triangles, quadrangles, and polygons. The circle. Measurement of angles. Similar triangles and polygons. Solution of problems in construction.

Class V.—Fundamental Division (seven lessons).—*Algebra* (three lessons). Solution of equations of the second degree with one unknown. Solution of simple systems of equations of the second degree. Operations with radicals. Quantities with negative and fractional indices. Logarithms. Progressions.

Geometry and Geometrical Drawing (four lessons).—Relations between the sides of a triangle. Regular polygons. Notions of the length of a circumference of a circle. The number π . Areas. The mutual relation of straight lines and planes in space. Dihedral and polyhedral angles. Solution of problems of construction.

Class V.—Commercial Division (two lessons).—Brief course of planimetry and stereometry.

Class VI. (eight lessons).—*Algebra* (two lessons).—Investigation of equations of the first degree with one unknown and systems of equation of the first degree with two unknowns. The theory of combinations. Newton's binomial for a whole positive index. Continued fractions. Indeterminate equations of the first degree with one unknown. Recapitulation of algebra.

Geometry and Geometrical Drawing (four lessons).—Regular polyhedra. Measurement of surfaces and volumes of prisms and pyramids. Equality and similitude of prisms and pyramids. Round bodies. Measurement of their surfaces and volumes. Recapitulation of geometry. Solution of problems in construction.

Trigonometry (two lessons).—Rectilinear trigonometry.

Supplementary Class (three lessons).—Application of algebra to geometry. Recapitulation of the whole course of mathematics with some additions.

The supplementary class has also two lessons a week in projectional drawing.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Class III. (two lessons).—Botany—system and morphology of flowering plants. Zoology—system of the vertebrata.

Class IV. (two lessons).—Botany—system and morphology of non-flowering plants. Zoology—system of the vertebrata.

Class V. (three lessons).—Zoology—anatomy of the vertebrata, especially man. Botany—anatomy of plants. Mineralogy—crystallography and mineralogy.

Supplementary Class (two lessons).—Short course on the physiology of plants and animals.

PHYSICS.

Class V. (four lessons).—Preliminary notions. Motion and forces. Gravity. Liquida. Gasea. Heat. Short sketch of chemical phenomena.

Class VI. (four lessons).—Sound. Light. Magnetism. Electricity. Galvanism.

Class VII. (two lessons). Motion. Energy. Recapitulation of course with necessary additions.

DRAWING.

- Preparatory Class* (two lessons).—Elementary drawing with ruled lines.
- Class I.* (four lessons).—i. Elementary principles of drawing: conjunction of straight lines and simple geometrical rectilinear figures and their combinations in the form of a flat ornament.
- ii. Practice in drawing the circumference of a circle and simple curved figures composed of segments of a circle.
- iii. Drawing simple flat curved figures, composed of elements of the vegetable kingdom; leaves and flowers, symmetrically arranged on one or more axes.
- Class II.* (four lessons).—i. Drawing of more complicated flat symmetrical curvilinear ornaments and simple motives composed of spirals.
- ii. Drawing of simple flat geometrical figures and bodies from wire models in perspective.
- iii. Drawing of simple solid geometrical bodies in water colour.
- Class III.* (two lessons).—Drawing in water colour in perspective simple groups of geometrical bodies, symmetrically arranged.
- Class IV.* (two lessons).—i. Drawing ornaments in relief, composed of the elements of simple solid geometrical bodies.
- ii. Drawing simple ornamental models, selected from the vegetable kingdom, in the shape of leaves, flowers, stems.
- Class V.* (four lessons).—i. Drawing simple rosettes, etc., in relief.
- ii. Drawing in perspective architectural ornaments, composed of bodies with surfaces of revolution; bases of columns, balustrades, vases, etc.
- Class VI.* (two lessons).—Drawing architectural fragments with strong relief, parts of cornices, consoles, medallions, etc.
- Supplementary Class* (three lessons).—i. Drawing of capitals, ornamental heads of animals, mascarons, etc.
- ii. Antique heads for the more capable pupils.

CALLIGRAPHY.

This subject is taught much as in the gymnasia, but no instruction is given in the writing of Greek letters, and the subject is not continued beyond the second class.

COMMERCIAL DIVISION OF THE REAL-SCHOOL.

The special subjects taught in the Commercial Division (Classes V. and VI.) are Commercial Arithmetic (including instruction in money, weights and measures used in different countries; Interest and Percentage, Stocks and Shares, Profit and Loss, Discount and the like), Book-keeping, Commercial Economy (production, exchange, distribution, consumption), and Commercial Geography.

CHAPTER II.—APPENDIX V.

CURRICULA OF ECCLESIASTICAL SCHOOLS AND SEMINARIES.

(i) CURRICULUM OF THE ECCLESIASTICAL SCHOOLS.

SUBJECTS.	Classes.			
	i.	ii.	iii.	iv.
Old Testament History	3	—	—	—
New Testament History	—	3	—	—
Catechism	—	—	3	—
Completion of Catechism and Exposition of Liturgy.	—	—	—	3
Russian and Slavonic	10	3	3	3
Greek	—	5	5	6
Latin	—	5	6	5
Arithmetic	4	3	2	2
Geography	—	—	3	3
Church Singing	4	2	1	1
Calligraphy	2	2	—	—
Total	23	23	23	23

(ii) CURRICULUM OF THE ECCLESIASTICAL SEMINARIES.

SUBJECTS.	Classes.					
	i.	ii.	iii.	iv.	v.	vi.
Holy Scripture	4	2	4	3	3	3
Biblical History	—	2	—	—	—	—
Russian Literature and History of Literature.)	4	4	3	—	—	—
Greek	4	4	2	2	1	1
Latin	4	4	2	2	1	1
Mathematics	3	3	3	—	—	—
Physics	—	—	—	3	—	—
History, Russian and General	3	3	3	—	—	—
Logic	—	—	2	—	—	—
Psychology	—	—	—	2	—	—
Elementary notions and Short History of Philosophy.)	—	—	—	3	—	—
Church History, History of the Russian Church and Confutation of Dissent.)	—	—	2	3	3	4
Liturgics	—	—	—	1	2	—
Homiletics	—	—	—	2	1	1
Fundamental Theology	—	—	—	1	2	—
Dogmatic Theology	—	—	—	—	3	3
Comparative Theology	—	—	—	—	—	1
Moral Theology	—	—	—	—	—	2
Practical Instruction in Pastoral Work.)	—	—	—	—	2	2
Didactics	—	—	—	—	1	1
Church Singing	1	1	1	1	1	1
Total	23	23	22	23	20	20

Note.—French, German, and Hebrew, ikon-painting and gymnastics are taught out of school hours.

It is scarcely necessary to describe the programs of instruction in use in these two kinds of schools with the same fullness as those of the gymnasia. The following notes are, for the most part, confined to the subjects common to these schools and the gymnasia, the special theological and philosophical subjects being left untouched.

The teaching of Russian and Slavonic has thus much in common with the instruction given in the gymnasia in these languages, that the whole of the grammar is supposed to be mastered in the four classes of the ecclesiastical schools; but whereas Slavonic is not commenced in the gymnasia until the fourth class, it is taught in the ecclesiastical schools *pari passu* with Russian from the first. The work of the seminaries is confined to the study of the theory of literature and the history of the literature of Russia. In the first class the general rules of composition and style are taught, and the various forms of literary production are described, prose works, for example, being considered as (a) descriptive and historical; (b) philosophical; (c) oratorical, and poetry as (a) epic; (b) lyrical; (c) dramatic. This theoretical treatment of the subject forms the basis for the systematic study of Russian literature in the second and third classes, the period down to the beginning of the eighteenth century being taken in the second class, and the modern period in the third.

The course in arithmetic in the ecclesiastical schools is spread over four years, decimals, for example, not being commenced before the third class. Algebra is not taught at all in the ecclesiastical schools, and the instruction given in this subject in the seminaries does not cover quite as much ground as in the gymnasia. The course in geometry and physics, on the other hand, is about equivalent to that of the gymnasia.

The course in geography taken by the third class of the ecclesiastical schools includes during the first half year general notions of mathematical, physical, and political geography; during the second half year, Asia, Africa, America, and Australia, are studied in general outline, and European Russia is commenced. In the fourth class, a more detailed study is made during the first half year of Russia, both European and Asiatic; during the second half year, Europe is taken in general outline.

The course in history in the seminaries is as follows:—

Class I.—Ancient history (Oriental, Greek, and Roman), and mediæval history to the time of Charlemagne.

Class II.—Mediæval history from the time of Charlemagne to the XVIIth century, and the history of Russia to the end of the House of Rurik.

Class III.—History of Western Europe from the XVIIth century to the present time. History of Russia from the period of confusion to the close of the reign of Alexander II.

Church history is taught as a separate subject from this class upwards according to the following scheme.

Class III. History of the Church from Apostolic times to Constantine the Great.

Class IV. Constantine the Great to the fall of Byzantium and the beginning of the Reformation in the West.

Class V. From the fall of Byzantium and the beginning of the Reformation to the present time. History of the Russian Church in particular to 1589.

Class VI. History of the Russian Church from 1589 to the present time.

The course of study in the classical languages is so arranged that the most important principles of etymology and syntax in both Latin and Greek shall be mastered in the ecclesiastical schools, and that the pupils shall, when they reach the fourth class, be able to read in Latin extracts from

Cornelius Nepos, and an Epitome Historiæ Sacrae, and in Greek the New Testament, especially the Gospel of St. Luke and the Acts of the Apostles.

The following is the program of instruction in both languages in the ecclesiastical seminaries :

LATIN.

Class I.—Extracts from Cæsar De Bello Gallico, and from Ovid's Metamorphoses.

Class II.—Extracts from Cicero's Orations or philosophic writings (Lælius and Cato), and from Vergil's Æneid.

Class III.—Extracts from Cicero (Orations, or De Officiis, or Tusculan Disputations).

Class IV.—Extracts from Lactantius' Institutiones Divinæ.

Class V.—Extracts from Latin Christian writers, especially St. Augustine and St. Ambrose.

Class VI.—Extracts from Latin Christian writers, especially St. Jerome and St. Gregory.

Obs.—In the first four classes the pupils are practised in Latin composition.

GREEK.

Class I. — (a) Recapitulation of grammatical course studied in the ecclesiastical schools.

(b) Xenophon (Anabasis, Cyropædia).

Class II. — (a) Structure and scansion of the hexameter. Homer (Odyssey and Iliad), with study of the forms of the old Ionic dialect.

(a) Xenophon's Memorabilia and Herodotus.

Class III.—Demosthenes (Olynthian Orations and Philippics).

Class IV.—Plato (Apology, Crito, Phædo, Laches, Euthyphron).

Classes V. and VI.—The Fathers of the Church;

CHAPTER II.—APPENDIX VI.

COURSES OF STUDY IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS.

(I.) THE ST. PETERSBURG GYMNASIA IN THE DEPARTMENT OF
THE INSTITUTIONS OF THE EMPRESS MARIA.

Religion.—For admission into the seventh class a knowledge of the most important prayers is required. In this class the Lord's Prayer and all the other most usual prayers are taught and explained; also the Creed and the Ten Commandments; the most important festivals of the Church are also explained, with the object of familiarising the pupils with the prominent events of New Testament history. In the sixth class, the most important events of the Old Testament are studied, and in the fifth, the history of the New Testament based as far as possible on the text of the four Gospels; in the fourth, the liturgy of the Orthodox Church; in the third the two first positions of the Orthodox Catechism (i.e., concerning Faith and Hope); in the second, the third part of the Catechism (concerning Charity) and general survey of the principal events of the history of the Orthodox Church. [The work of the 1st Class is not given in the account we are following; but in the Moscow program it is set forth as follows: "History of the Orthodox Christian Church, especially of the Russian Church. Study of the principal passages of the Acts of the Apostles. Recapitulation of the doctrine of Faith according to the longer Catechism."]

Pupils belonging to other creeds (Catholics or Protestants) are taught by members of their own clergy (priests or pastors), who are engaged at each gymnasium and present their own programs of religious study. Priests of the Jewish or Mahometan rites are also invited by the authorities to give religious instruction to girls whose parents desire it and pay specially for such instruction.

Russian.—In the lower classes the pupils are exercised in reading with explanation of the subject matter, in expression, in oral or written reproduction of matter which they have read or heard, and in the learning by heart of short passages of poetry or prose which have been previously analysed and explained. Grammar is acquired in these classes by practice, that is to say, the rule is framed from individual examples. Special attention is given to correct spelling and punctuation. In the fourth and third classes, the principal rules of etymology and syntax are recapitulated in a systematic form, and are compared as far as possible with those of foreign languages. Literary works are now read and analysed from the point of view of logical construction, and artistic expression; and in the third class, the theory of literary style is studied and a general idea is given of the characteristics of narrative and descriptive literature, founded on the study of models in poetry and prose. The work of the second class includes a course on the theory of poetry and of prose. In the first class the chief monuments of Russian literature are studied in their historical order. In all classes exercises in composition adapted to their respective stages of progress are written by the pupils.

French and German.—In order that the pupils may acquire a command of linguistic material, and may also, as far as is possible in a day school, accustom themselves to the colloquial forms of both these languages, certain practical exercises directed to the attainment of this object form a part of the whole school course from the lowest classes upward. Such are (a) the learning by heart of words, conversational phrases, of extracts or passages of prose and poetry (b) constant practice, both orally and in writing, in

translation, paraphrasing, and reproduction of matter read or learnt, (c) in the higher classes practice in connected narration or in summarising matter read, (d) the study (in the course of reading) of derived words, synonyms, homonyms, and characteristic idioms. Grammar is studied practically in the lower classes, systematically in the higher, *i.e.*, from the fourth inclusive, the pupil's knowledge of grammar being supplemented little by little from their reading of the best authors. The senior classes (the second and first) begin the study of the literary language by the aid of a chrestomathy, and then from school editions of individual authors. The chief aim of the modern language teaching in the gymnasium for girls is to enable those who reach the highest class (a) to translate fluently from the foreign language into Russian a narrative or descriptive passage of moderate difficulty, and (b) to reproduce in the foreign language either orally or in writing, the substance of what they have read.

History.—In the three lowest classes history is not taught as a separate subject; but narratives of the principal events of Russian history, suited by their form and contents to young children, are a necessary element in the subject matter used for the teaching of the mother tongue. The systematic study of history begins in the fourth class, in which two hours are devoted to the subject. The work of this class comprises the chief periods of Oriental and Greek history. In the third class the history of Rome and mediæval history down to Charlemagne is studied in an equally general way; the work of the second class covers mediæval and modern history to the Thirty Years War, and Russian history to Peter the Great; in the first class the study of modern European history and of the history of Russia is concluded, and the work of the lower classes is recapitulated in general outline. For the leaving examination only the principal dates specified in the detailed program of historical study are required.

Physics.—The study of this subject is begun in the fourth class, the work of which comprises elementary notions on the general properties of bodies and a brief survey of chemical phenomena. In the third class the course includes the laws of equilibrium of liquid and gaseous bodies, magnetism and statical electricity; in the second, galvanism, light and heat. In the highest class one lesson is devoted to the study of the elements of cosmography, whilst two are given to physics (elementary mechanics and acoustics); the work of the lower classes is also recapitulated.

Mathematics.—In the preparatory class the children are exercised in mental arithmetic and the solution of problems involving figures up to 100, and are also taught the principal Russian measures. In the seventh and sixth classes the work is concerned with whole numbers and ordinary fractions with simple problems. The work of the fifth and fourth classes includes the whole of arithmetic, with the exception of proportion. In the fourth class, the pupils are taught to measure experimentally surfaces and circles; the systematic teaching of geometry begins in the third class, where the pupils are introduced to the study of lines, angles and plane figures. Arithmetical proportion with problems is also studied in this class. In the second class the general formulas of algebra are taught, and the study of plane geometry is concluded. Stereometry forms the work of Class I.

Pedagogy (only in the highest class). In the teaching of pedagogy attention is chiefly given to such general principles of psychology and logic, including particularly the psychology of childhood and adolescence, as will enable the pupils to approach the work of teaching with intelligence and judgment and facilitate for them the study of serious pedagogical writings. With this object, after some preliminary observations on the training of youth and its importance, the teacher treats of the following points in succession: the chief manifestations of the psychical life in relation to the training of children—emotions and their development in the child; attention, conceptions, memory, imagination, thought, the development of language in the child, sensations, the exercise of the will and the development of character, reflexes and habits.

Geography.—The study of this subject begins in Class VII. with elementary notions of the geography of the world, and the children are also made acquainted with a plan and map of St. Petersburg and the immediate neighbourhood. The sixth class study the world in general, with Russia in more detail; map drawing is begun in this class. The work of Class V. is the world from the physico-ethnographical point of view, along with political divisions and the capitals of Europe. That of Class IV. is concerned with the political organisation of the chief states of Asia, Africa and America (excluding the United States). The political organisation of Europe and its colonies, and that of the United States, constitute the work of the third class, while the second class follows a detailed course in the geography of Russia.

Hygiene and First Aid.—The object of the course in this subject is to impart to the pupils such a general knowledge of the laws of health as will enable them in after life to deal intelligently and rationally with questions relating to the preservation not only of their own health, but also of that of those who are entrusted to their immediate care and supervision, whether in the family or the school. The aim of the instruction in first aid is to remove the practical helplessness of most mothers in face of the ordinary accidents of children (burns, bruises, cuts, swoons, and the like). The course of hygiene and first aid includes elementary notions of anatomy and physiology. On the introduction of instruction in hygiene, the section relating to the physical training of children was removed from the program in pedagogy.

Calligraphy. In the preparatory class and Class VII, preliminary exercises and elements of letters. Russian and French script. Class VI., writing between lines, transcription from book, blackboard, or manuscript; French and German script; practice in cursive writing. Class V. practice in cursive on a single line; copying from a printed text.

Drawing. Class VII., drawing on squared paper. Classes VI. and V., copying flat ornaments fixed to the blackboard. Class IV. geometrical bodies and wire models (square, circle, and cube); Classes III. and II., drawing from simple plaster ornaments; Class I. drawing from more complicated ornaments, and for the best pupils, drawing in water colours.

Needlework. Classes VII. and VI., knitting of garters, and mending of stockings; sewing on canvas and cloth. Class V., recapitulation of sewing lessons on finer materials; sewing on flannels; buttonholing and back-stitching; linen patch; child's linen garment and bed-linen; marking with crosses on canvas (sampler-work). Classes IV. and III., measuring, cutting out, and making women's underlinen. Class II. buttonholing on woollen materials; measuring, cutting, and making a simple bodice. Class I. cutting out and finishing a complete dress in the gymnasium uniform. At the end of their course the pupils can make a dress for themselves in material of their own choosing.

(I.) DIOCESAN GIRLS' SCHOOL.

SUBJECTS.	Classes.					
	i.	ii.	iii.	iv.	v.	vi
Religion - - -	4	4	4	3	3	3
Russian (with Slavonic)	4	4	4	3	3	3
Arithmetic - - -	4	4	4	3	3	-
History - - -	-	-	-	2	4	3
Geography - - -	-	2	2	3	3	2
Elements of Geometry - - -	-	-	-	-	-	2
Physics - - -	-	-	-	-	2	3
Pedagogy - - -	-	-	-	-	-	2
Calligraphy - - -	4	2	2	2	} taught out of school hours.	-
Church singing - - -	2	2	2	2		-
	18	18	18	18	18	18

Needlework, which is also an obligatory subject, is taught out of the ordinary school hours.

The following details as to the course of instruction in each of the obligatory subjects are extracted from the official programs appended to the "Statute of the Diocesan Girls' Schools."

FIRST CLASS.

Religion.—Short explanation of the Creed, prayers and Commandments. Principal events of sacred history explaining the Creed. Reading of the Gospels in Slavonic, with translation into Russian for purposes of explanation.

Russian.—Exercises in reading and relation of matter read: learning by heart short passages of prose and poetry. Analysis of the simple sentence.

Arithmetic.—Meaning and use of numerical symbols: addition and subtraction of whole numbers, with mental exercises bearing thereon.

Writing and Church Singing.

SECOND CLASS.

Religion.—Old Testament history: reading of the Gospels in Slavonic with translation into Russian.

Russian.—Continuation of exercises. Etymology.

Arithmetic.—Multiplication table. Multiplication and division of whole numbers, with problems on the four primary rules.

Geography.—Necessary first notions of mathematical and physical geography. General knowledge of the globe.

Writing and Church Singing.

THIRD CLASS.

Religion.—New Testament history: explanatory reading of the Acts of the Apostles in Slavonic, with special reference to the grammatical peculiarities of that language.

Russian.—Reading, narration, dictation. Syntax with practical analysis.

Arithmetic.—Complex numbers. Addition and subtraction of fractions. Bills of parcels.

Geography.—Asia and Africa.

Writing and Church Singing.

FOURTH CLASS.

Religion.—First part of the longer Catechism: explanation of the Liturgy; reading of the Epistles in Slavonic with grammatical explanations.

Russian.—Reading of Russian literary models with explanation of literary categories and forms. Composition exercises.

Arithmetic.—Multiplication and division of simple fractions: decimals.

Geography.—America and Australia.

History.—Ancient History.

Writing and Church Singing.

FIFTH CLASS.

Religion.—Completion of the Catechism: explanation of the Church Service. Continuation of explanatory reading of the Epistles in Slavonic.

Russian.—Continuation of practical study of categories and forms of prose and poetry. Composition exercises.

Arithmetic.—Rule of three with its various applications.

Geography.—Europe.

History.—History of the Middle Ages and history of Russia to the accession of the Romanovs.

Physica.—The general properties of bodies, the equilibrium of liquid and gaseous bodies, heat and sound.

SIXTH CLASS.

Religion.—Outlines of Church History and History of the Russian Church.

Russian.—History of Russian literature.

Elements of Geometry.—Measurement of the superficies and content of geometrical bodies with practical problems.

Geography.—Russia. Detailed treatment of mathematical and physical geography.

History.—Modern History and History of Russia to the present time.

Physica.—Magnetism, electricity, galvanism and light.

Pedagogy.—Elements of Pedagogy and Didactics.

CHAPTER II.—APPENDIX VII.

CURRICULA OF COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS.

(ii.) THE COMMERCIAL SCHOOL OF ST. PETERSBURG.

Subjects.	General Classes.						Special Classes.	
	i.	ii.	iii.	iv.	v.	vi.	i.	ii.
Religion - - - - -	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
Russian - - - - -	4	4	4	3	3	3	2	3
German - - - - -	5	6	3	3	3	3	3	3
French - - - - -	2	6	3	3	3	3	3	3
English - - - - -	-	-	5	5	4	4	3	3
Arithmetic - - - - -	4	5	4	2	-	1	-	-
Algebra - - - - -	-	-	-	2	2	2	-	-
Geometry - - - - -	-	-	-	2	2	2	-	-
Trigonometry - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-
Physics - - - - -	-	-	-	-	3	4	-	-
Natural Science - - - - -	-	-	2	2	2	1	-	-
History - - - - -	-	-	2	2	2	3	-	-
Geography - - - - -	2	2	2	2	2	-	-	-
Calligraphy - - - - -	3	3	2	1	1	1	-	-
Drawing - - - - -	2	2	1	1	1	-	-	-
Book-keeping - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
Commercial Arithmetic - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	1
Chemistry - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	2
Knowledge of Wares - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	3
Political Economy - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2
Law - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-
Commercial Law - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
Commercial Geography - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-
Commercial Correspondence - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	1
Gymnastics - - - - -	1	1	1	1	1	1	-	-
Dancing - - - - -	1	1	1	1	1	1	-	-
Choral Singing - - - - -	A total of five hours divided among all the classes							
Total - - - - -	26	32	32	32	32	32	30	30

(ii.) THE PETER SCHOOL (*Petrovskoe Uchilistche*) OF THE ST. PETERSBURG MERCHANTS' COMPANY.

Subjects	Preparatory Class.		i.		ii.		iii.		iv.		v.		1st Special Class.		2nd Special Class.		
	Junior	a	b	a	b	a	b	a	b	a	b	a	b	a	b		
Religion	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	
Russian	6	6	6	6	6	5	5	4	4	4	4	3	3	2	2	2	
French	-	-	-	6	6	6	6	5	5	4	4	3	3	3	2	2	
German	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	4	4	3	3	3	3	2	3	2	
English	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	4	4	4	4	2	2	2	2	
Arithmetic	6	6	6	4	4	5	5	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Algebra	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	3	3	3	3	3	-	-	-	-	
Geometry	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	2	1	1	-	-	-	
Trigonometry	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	
Physics	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	3	3	3	-	-	
Chemistry	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	3	2	2	-	
Natural Science	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	2	3	3	1	1	-	-	
Geography	-	-	-	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	-	-	-	-	
History	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	3	3	2	2	3	3	-	-	
Political Economy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	2	-	
Commercial Geography	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	2	-	
History of Commerce	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	
Law	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	4	-	
Knowledge of Wares	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	3	-	-	
Book-keeping and Commercial Arithmetic	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	3	5	5	-	
Writing	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Drawing	2	4	4	2	2	2	2	2	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	
Total	26	25	25	30	30	30	30	32	32	32	32	32	32	31	31	31	31
		3											9		9		
Dancing		1		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1				
Gymnastics				1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1					

CHAPTER II—APPENDIX VIII.

ABRIDGED PROGRAMME OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

RELIGION.

In the first year the most usual daily prayers are taught, and the children learn by heart the Creed and the Ten Commandments. In the second year the main events of the history of the Old and New Testaments are studied. In the third year the children are taught the Short Catechism and receive lessons on the Liturgy, the significance of the chief acts of worship connected with the service of the Orthodox Church, etc.

CHURCH SLAVONIC.

FIRST YEAR.

Study of the Church Slavonic alphabet. Peculiarities of the Church Slavonic alphabet as compared with the Russian. Reading of the most commonly used prayers. Practical acquaintance with diacritic signs and abbreviations.

Reading exercises from the primer.

SECOND YEAR.

Reading of the Gospels and the Chasoslov (Horologium). Slavonic numerals.

THIRD YEAR.

Reading of the Gospels. Reading of the Psalter.

The explanatory memorandum instructs the teacher that Slavonic reading should be commenced after Russian, and so soon as the children shall have mastered the mechanical difficulties of Russian reading, *i.e.* about the middle of the first year of school life.

RUSSIAN.

FIRST YEAR.

Analysis of words into syllables and syllables into sounds. Letters and their combinations. Reading of separate words and short phrases composed of the letters learnt. Reading of short and easy connected passages, with special attention to marks of punctuation and with reproduction of subject matter by pupil in response to teacher's questions. Learning by heart of short fables and other poems.

Division of words into syllables and rules for carrying over parts of a word to the next line. Capital and small letters, use of capital letters. Vowels and consonants; the hard vowels and the corresponding soft sounds. Use of the hard and soft signs after consonants, etc. Use of certain alternative vowel symbols. What vowels may not follow certain consonants. Hard and soft pronunciation of consonants. Accent, change in meaning of words according to position of accent. Writing from dictation of individual words and short sentences, with the object of affording practice to the scholars in the rules of orthography which they have learnt, the dictation exercise being preceded by explanation of the right method of writing words in which the scholars might make mistakes. Copying from book passages previously read.

SECOND YEAR.

Practice in fluent and (so far as possible) expressive reading with oral reproduction of subject matter in response to teacher's questions, and otherwise. Written reproduction of short passages with assistance of teacher's questions. Learning by heart of poems and fables.

Words signifying a thing (object), the quality of a thing, the action or state of a thing. The substantive: its gender, number, case-endings in response to questions. Personal pronouns taking the place of the substantive. The verb: its tenses and persons, imperative and infinitive moods. The preposition standing by itself and in the form of a prefix.

Proper letter to be used in cases where the pronunciation of a vowel or consonant in a word is obscure. Use of the full stop, colon (in certain specified cases), quotation-marks and hyphen, comma before vocative case. Dictation with previous warning against errors and also upon rules of orthography already learnt. Copying from book. Writing from memory of matter previously learnt.

THIRD YEAR.

Intelligent and expressive reading with oral and written reproduction of subject matter. Reading of ordinarily legible manuscript. Learning by heart poems, fables and elegant prose extracts.

The adjective: its agreement with the substantive in gender, number and case; case-endings; degrees of comparison; full and short endings of adjective. Cardinal and ordinal numbers. The sentence, subject and predicate; extension, complement and exercises in the proper use of punctuation between sentences and parts of a sentence (not including comma and semicolon). Exercises on the use of the letter or at the end and in the middle of words. Dictation for purposes of recapitulation and testing pupil's knowledge. Copying from book. Writing of letters and simple descriptions according to a given model.

WRITING.

The teaching of writing presents no features of peculiar interest. In the first year the scholar first learns the proper way to sit and hold his pen; he is successively taught how to form the elements of letters, the letters themselves and complete words: by the end of the year he is supposed to be able to write sentences in large hand between lines. The second year's work consists chiefly in accustoming the scholar to a smaller handwriting, the copy exercises being either from headlines or the blackboard. The pupil continues to write between lines until the third year, when he begins to write on one line. Greater attention is, of course, paid to legibility than to rapidity of writing, but by the end of the third year a fair amount of rapidity is expected to have been attained.

ARITHMETIC.

FIRST YEAR.

Counting, directly and otherwise, up to 100.

The four primary rules with numbers not exceeding twenty.

Note. The requirements may be exceeded only if a thorough knowledge of the rules within the limits indicated has been attained.

Knowledge of figures and the signs of arithmetical operations.

Examples of fundamental arithmetical conceptions (*e.g.*, add, take away, repeat, how many times is such and such a number contained in another, divide, how much more or less, how many times more or less).

Roman numeration up to XX.

SECOND YEAR.

Numeration and application of the four rules from 100 to 1000.

Explanation of the arithmetical expressions: addition, subtraction, multiplication, division: comparison of numbers.

Multiplication and division by 10 and 100.

Acquaintance with the most commonly used Russian measures.

Solution of problems, orally and in writing, upon the arithmetical rules learnt.

Elementary knowledge of fractions (defined in the explanatory memorandum to mean such as are commonly used in practical life, *e.g.*, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{8}$, $\frac{1}{16}$, $\frac{1}{32}$, $\frac{1}{64}$).

THIRD YEAR;

Numeration and the four primary operations upon numbers of any magnitude and proofs of these operations.

Operations upon compound concrete numbers.

Very simple calculations with fractions.

Solution of problems, oral and written.

SINGING.

The chief aim of the teaching in this subject is to familiarise the scholars with the chants and hymns in most frequent use in the Church, though in all three divisions the singing of national and patriotic songs is, as far as possible, made part of the instruction. The chants chosen are of progressive difficulty, and singing by note is introduced in the second year.

CHAPTER II—APPENDIX IX.

AGENCIES AUXILIARY TO THE PRIMARY SCHOOL.

The shortness of the course of the primary school and the rudimentary character of the instruction which it is possible to impart in it lend a great relative importance to agencies which aim at supplementing this instruction and enabling those who have completed the course of the primary school to carry forward their own education. This work can be done by Sunday Schools and recapitulatory classes only to a limited extent, as the course of these institutions is necessarily limited to the range of subjects taught in the ordinary primary schools. Particular interest therefore attaches to the organised efforts which are being made, both by publishing firms and philanthropic societies, to spread cheap literature among the masses of Russia, and this movement has been attended with a success which may at first sight seem entirely out of proportion to the progress made in the organisation of primary education and to the literacy of the population.

It must be borne in mind, however, that books can be produced very cheaply in Russia, and also that the Russian peasant has a natural love of reading, or, where he is himself illiterate, of being read to. Sometimes as many as thirty peasants will gather together in a Russian village to hear a child read from the Gospels or the Lives of the Saints; and in some cases peasants will even club together to hire a hut as a reading-room. These circumstances have made it possible for Russian publishers to count upon an enormous sale for reprints of standard works and books of popular science, and to produce such books at prices much below those usual in this country. The Gospels in Russian, for example, may be obtained for ten kopecks (a kopeck is about equal to a farthing), ten of Tolstoi's most popular stories for the same price, one of Ostrovski's best comedies for 8k., Koltzov for 8k., all Pushkin for a rouble. For forty or fifty roubles (say, £2 to £2 10s.) it is possible to obtain from two to three hundred volumes suitable for a village library.*

The need for cheap books of a healthy and useful kind to satisfy the demand of the peasantry for reading matter is shown by the enormous sale of literature of the chap-book type (*tubochnaia literatura*, literally, literature carried in *tubochki*, or baskets of bast), which is hawked about by strolling pedlars among the peasant population. The great centre of this trade is Moscow. This chap-book literature presents a great variety of subjects, comprising mediæval romances and abridgments of modern novels; almanacs and riddle-books; books of a semi-religious character, such as the Passion of Christ, or the Lives of the Saints; treatises on Antichrist and the end of the world; guides to the choice of a wife; and so on. Much of it, if not positively harmful, does not particularly tend to edification. It was calculated by the Moscow Committee of Literacy that not less than four million copies of books of this kind were sold during the year 1892 alone.

To counteract the influence of books of this type and to replace them by literature of a more healthy kind much has been done both by the enlightened enterprise of private publishing firms and by societies established with a philanthropic purpose. A good account of the progress of this movement is given by Princess Kropotkin in an article entitled "Lending Libraries and Cheap Books," which appeared in the "Nineteenth Century" for January, 1904, and from which we venture to quote a couple of passages.

"Another important feature of the Russian publishing activity is the attention that has been given to the country labourer, the peasant. Some

* The above examples and much of the other information contained in this Appendix are borrowed from M. Vakhterov's *Vneshkolnoe Obrazovanie Naroda*; see especially pp. 8, 26 and 27.

publishers, inspired with the desire of spreading knowledge among the peasant masses, as well as several others who are merely guided by commercial calculations, publish a mass of excellent literature and popular science in editions of hundreds of thousands of copies, on good paper, well printed, the books ranging from one to thirty kopecks (i.e., from one farthing to sevenpence) in price. So that for a few shillings a poor family living in the country can have a shelf of books upon various subjects, corresponding to a popular encyclopædia, and another shelf of lighter reading for the same price." Princess Kropotkin mentions especially that "the movement owes much to the efforts partly of the women pioneers of popular education, who have started cheap editions of better literature, and partly of Tolstoi and his friends (the firm "The Intermediary"). This last firm alone spread every year from 1,000,000 to 2,000,000 copies of very well chosen popular literature; so that at the present moment there is a large literature of good popular publications, which would do honour to any West European country. One finds now among these farthing and halfpenny publications all sorts of admirable abridgments of the works of the best writers of all nations—in natural science, economics, geography, agriculture, hygiene, folklore, fiction, poetry, calendars full of encyclopaedic information and yet costing only five farthings, and so on. Only history is poorly represented, on account of the rigours of censorship." Some of the most successful attempts to supply the people with sound literature of the type described by Princess Kropotkin have been made by societies like the St. Petersburg Committee of Literacy, the Moscow Committee of Literacy, the Kharkov Society for the Spread of Literacy among the People. The first-named society, which during the years 1886–1898 distributed 400,000 books, is, however, now suppressed, and the usefulness of the Moscow Society has also been of late years much curtailed. We should also mention here the work of the Synodal Press, which combines the functions of a publishing house and a distributing agency, and issues about a million copies of books of various kinds every year. A good example of the popular literature issued by the Synodal Press is the Parish Library, a series comprising treatises on religion, national history (civil and religious), rural economy, and geography, reprints and abridgments of Russian classics, etc., all well printed on good paper and tastefully got up, and sold at prices ranging from 20 to 60 kopecks per volume, the most usual price being 30 kopecks. Many of the zemstvos have of late taken up the question of supplying cheap literature for the people, and with this object have established book-stores, where books are sold at a considerable reduction upon their published price, an arrangement made possible by the favourable terms such book-stores are able to obtain from the great bookselling and publishing firms. Such book-stores can only be opened with the permission of the provincial governor, but this permission once obtained, all Russian books not prohibited by the censor may be sold. Book-stores at which publications approved of by the Scientific Committee of the Ministry of Public Instruction can be offered for sale may be established in connection with schools without the previous consent of the governor; and in the case of Church Schools the District Sections of the Eparchial School Councils have the duty laid upon them of establishing such stores wherever possible.

The zemstvos have also done much to encourage the establishment of village libraries. These libraries have steadily increased in number of recent years, their establishment having been much facilitated by the efforts of the societies we have mentioned above, as well as by the low prices at which the works of the best Russian writers can now be obtained. According to a statement made by the Moscow Committee of Literacy, the cost of a well-stocked village library need not now exceed about £30. The permission to form a village library has also to be obtained from the governor. The books comprised in it are restricted to those permitted for the use of primary and secondary schools with the addition of those contained in a special list published from time to time in the official organ of the Government, the *Pravoslavnoye Vestnik*.

Public readings are also an important means of spreading enlightenment and a love of literature among the people. The State regulations governing

these readings are somewhat different for the St. Petersburg Educational District (where they are under the control of a special Standing Commission) for the chief towns of the provinces, and for district-towns and villages. In the last-named they have only been permitted to be organised by the secular authorities since 1894; but the District Sections of Eparchial School Councils have been authorised since 1888 to conduct readings in schoolrooms under the guidance of parish priests. Until 1901 the organisation of public readings was subject to very severe restrictions both as to the persons who were allowed to conduct them and as to the subject matter permitted to be read. In the greater part of Russia they could only be started with the combined sanction of the Minister of Public Instruction, the Minister of the Interior, and the High Procurator of the Holy Synod; the promoters must also be approved by the local administration as well as by the central educational and ecclesiastical authorities; and the books read had to be selected from a specially approved list, with the addition of such works as are permitted in the libraries of primary schools. It was one of the last acts of the Ministry of Bogolepov to obtain a relaxation of these regulations. By the terms of an Imperial Order, dated 28th January, 1901, the right to sanction public readings was entrusted to the local Director of Primary Schools, a veto in respect of individual readers and of the place and time appointed for reading being also reserved to the governor of the province; and the Director of Primary Schools may also in special instances sanction the reading of compositions other than those specially approved by the Ministry of Public Instruction. The new regulations do not affect readings organised by the clergy or by the Standing Commission above referred to. A Ministerial regulation, dated 3rd December, 1902, relaxed still further the conditions under which public readings may take place in school premises. For such readings the permission of the District School Council only is required in the case of primary schools, that of the Director of the school in the case of secondary schools; the sanction of the governor, however, must be obtained before any person not on the staff of the school can be employed as reader. Under these improved conditions we may probably look forward to a considerable development of the system of public readings, which, as the writer can testify from personal observation, possess a great attraction for the people and constitute in many towns and villages an interesting and important phase of the social activity of the educated classes. They are (except in the St. Petersburg District) organised entirely by private initiative, *i.e.*, either by societies or private individuals, but are sometimes aided by grants from the local administrative bodies. One of the most successful of the societies for organisation of public readings is that of Tambov, which has at its disposal an endowment of 250,000 roubles, given for the purpose by the founder of the society, E. D. Naryshkin. This society has established in the government of Tambov more than a thousand public readings and village libraries. Odessa and Barnaul in Siberia may also be named as places where the system of public readings has been widely developed.

Some mention should here be made of the system of school colonies, which was instituted in 1887 by Miss E. N. Orlov for children attending one of the primary schools of Moscow, and has since received a wide development, not only in Moscow but in many other places also. Full details of this interesting experiment may be found in a pamphlet prepared for the Paris Exhibition, entitled "Notices sur les Colonies Scolaires de Moscou." In 1900, the Moscow Municipal Council voted an annual sum of 2,000 roubles to the committee engaged in the organisation of school colonies. At St. Petersburg the work is undertaken by the Municipal Council itself, which allots a sum of 22,000 roubles a year to the maintenance of school colonies and kindred objects. The primary object of these colonies is to take weakly children living in towns into the country for two or three months during the summer, in order to benefit them physically; but the colonies are also made to serve the ends of moral and intellectual discipline also. For example, the children are taught to observe and study nature and to take part in field work; instruction in various kinds of manual occupations is often given: the girls are taught to mend their own clothes, &c.

CHAPTER III.

THE RUSSIAN PRIMARY SCHOOL AND ITS PROBLEMS.

I. GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS AND CONDITIONS.

In order to understand Russian primary education aright, it is important to bear in mind certain points in which it differs from both secondary and higher education in respect of origin, history, and present conditions.

In the first place, it is not to anything like the same extent the creation of the State. Underlying the educational superstructure reared by the State and the cultivated classes in quite modern times there is a basis of popular, spontaneous culture which has a much longer history. The beginnings of popular education in Russia are as old as the dawn of civilisation. All through the centuries which have elapsed since the introduction of Christianity into Russia, we can trace the existence of a popular desire to acquire the elements of Slavonic and Russian learning. This desire was satisfied first by the Church, and afterwards, also by the literate laity; in the one case by means of schools which may be considered the prototypes of the modern Church parochial schools, in the other by schools answering to the modern *shkoly gramotnosti*. All this, however, was unorganised effort, the free response to a spontaneous demand, and was a matter with which the State as such did not concern itself at all. When the State in the eighteenth and the first half of the nineteenth centuries did interfere in the domain of primary education, the net result of its interference was at least as much to restrain primary education as to advance it. The legislation of Nicholas I.'s reign against "illegal teaching" would, if carried into effect, have improved the *shkoly gramotnosti* off the face of the earth, though nothing better was put in their place. Happily, the law against illegal teaching remained, to a large extent, a dead letter; the *shkoly gramotnosti* continued to exist in spite of everything, and did much to prepare the way for the great educational movement of the sixties. But the point to insist upon is that up to the reign of Alexander II. these poor little hedge-schools, always under the ban of the law, but answering to a popular need, formed no inconsiderable portion of the provision existing in Russia for the education of the poorer classes.

The history of primary instruction since the sixties has been concerned with the creation, partly by the State, but mainly as the result of spontaneous social effort, of an organised system of primary instruction independent of these popular elements of culture, and also with the endeavour of the State to draw them within the sphere of its own control. The schools of the *zemstvo* and of the Holy Synod are the results of the one process; the subordination of the *shkoly gramotnosti* to the clergy, and the efforts of the Holy

Synod to provide these schools with regular programs and specially trained teachers are instances of the other. But the process of organisation is still far from complete, and probably for a long time to come the old type of half-educated peasant or strolling teacher—old soldier, broken-down clerk or ex-monk or whatever he may be—will continue in many places to exercise the pedagogic calling without much real supervision or control from anyone.

Moreover, it should be noted that while all schools in Russia are equally under the control of the State, very few schools of the elementary grade are State schools in respect of their origin. Almost the only State-provided schools are the Urban and District Schools and the Ministerial model schools. The Church schools owe much to the direct encouragement and support of the State, but even they are not State schools in the sense of being wholly State-maintained and State-provided. The schools of the *zemstvos* and the municipalities are purely a result of social initiative—acting, however, under the legislative sanction of the State. Whatever may be said of the schools of the Church in this respect, the relation of the State to the schools established by the *zemstvos* and the towns is essentially one of control, pure and simple. Furthermore, the amount of control which the State is able to exercise over the teaching in primary schools is limited by circumstances arising out of the conditions of the case. It is one of the paradoxes of Russian life that in spite of the elaborate bureaucratic machinery created by the State for the administrative control of primary education, the schools are, in fact, less strictly supervised from the educational point of view by the officials of the central government than in England. This state of things is, of course, the direct result of the enormous areas over which supervision has to be maintained. When the schools under the charge of a particular inspector are scattered over two or three *uezdy* poorly provided with facilities of locomotion, it becomes a matter of physical impossibility for him to visit each school even as often as once a year; and where visits are so infrequent anything like effective supervision of the teaching becomes very difficult.

While these causes tend to diminish the control of the central government over primary education, the fact that there is nowhere in Russia proper any legal obligation to send children to school gives the peasantry in practice a very real influence over the spirit of the teaching and ensures its popular character. No peasant will send his child to any school, however conveniently it may be situated, if the teaching given in the school is not what pleases him. This circumstance goes far to account for the absence of any apparent division of opinion between Government and people as to what should form the constituent elements of primary instruction. It is true that the State lays down the general lines of the curriculum, and has now even issued detailed programs of instruction for primary schools; but until education is made a matter of legal obligation even the State cannot legislate far in advance of, or seriously in opposition to, the conscious requirements of the people.

For a country like Russia, where so many influences are constantly in operation to produce a rigid uniformity, the variety of types of primary school which still exist side by side is surprising. Apart from the *shkoly gramotnosti*, which, as we have said, are a spontaneous growth of the soil, there are even in Central Russia schools administered under every educational law which has been passed during the last eighty years: schools of Nicholas I. (the law of 1828); the various kinds of schools established under Alexander II. (the schools of the *zemstvos*, the schools of the Ministry, the Urban Schools); the Church Schools created under Alexander III. The schools of the Frontier Provinces, again, have special characteristics of their own; those of Poland, though assimilated by a series of supplementary measures to the Russian schools, are still administered under the law of 1864; the primary school system of the Baltic Provinces still remains in all essentials as it was organised by the Lutheran Consistories. The German colonies on the Volga and elsewhere also retain their own schools, which have the special privilege of being taught in the German language. But alongside these regularly organised schools, more or less systematically controlled by the State, there are thousands of others, over which the official supervision which can be exercised is of the most uncertain and superficial character. Such are the Jewish *hedery* in Little Russia and Poland, the Mohammedan *mektebe* and *medresse* in the Eastern Provinces, and other similar schools which, like the Russian *shkoly gramotnosti*, have sprung up in response to a spontaneous popular demand for the rudiments of learning, either secular or religious.

We have, therefore, to recognise that in the case of Russia we have not to deal with a homogeneous, firmly knit system of primary education, framed by the State according to a single preconceived plan, but with one which has grown by the accretion of several diverse elements and in which many loose ends, so to speak, remain still to be gathered up and worked into the complex fabric of the State organisation. And in this, as we have indicated, lies one great distinction between primary education and the higher grades of instruction in Russia. The influence of traditional and popular elements has been, and is, far more strongly marked in the former than in the latter, and the main reason for this is that primary education has a longer history behind it than either the secondary schools or the universities. The fact that the organisation of both secondary and university education is so simple, uniform and completely centralised, is purely the result of its modern origin; just as in a new country the roads can be laid out in the straightest and most direct line that leads to the goal, whereas those of an old country tend to follow the curves and windings of ancient footpaths, trodden out by past generations. But with education as with roads, what is lost in uniformity may be more than made up in picturesqueness and interest.

In this chapter we shall be concerned only with the regularly organised schools, which after all constitute 90 per cent. of the

provision made for primary education within the Empire, and are the normal type to which all other schools tend constantly to approximate.

For the study of primary education in Russia there is no lack of material. All matters relating to the instruction of the masses are followed with keen interest by the cultivated society of Russia, an interest which is fully reflected in the public press. The reason for this becomes manifest when it is realised that elementary education has formed during the past forty years the greatest and most open of all fields for social initiative and humanitarian effort in Russia. Readers of Leo Tolstoi's writings will be familiar with the story of his educational work among the peasants of his estate of Yasnaia Poliana, where for some years he taught day by day in his own school, thus gaining the experience on which his educational theories are based. But Russian education owes still more to the practical genius and public spirit of Baron Korf, who devoted years to the experimental study of the problems of primary instruction, and whose schools established on his estate at Alexandrov in the Government of Ekaterinoslav became the model for zemstvos' schools throughout Russia. The secular schools, as they exist to-day, are in fact the creation of men like Baron Korf, Ushinski, and Leo Tolstoi.

But it is right to add that enthusiasm and devotion in the cause of education are the monopoly of no party in Russia. Against the names of the founders of the secular school whom we have just mentioned may well be set that of S. A. Rachinski, the spiritual leader of the movement in favour of Church schools, as M. Pobedonostsev has been its organiser and director on the administrative side. At the age of thirty-five M. Rachinski abandoned his professorial chair at the University of Moscow, retired to his own estate at Tatevo in the Government of Smolensk, and devoting the remainder of his life to the work of teaching in village schools of his own founding, created the model which the schools of the Holy Synod have followed, and left behind him at his death in 1902 a memory of self-sacrificing public spirit of which the Russian Church is justly proud.

We have mentioned, however, only the best known representatives of a considerable body of men and women of every shade of political and religious opinion, whose efforts on behalf of their less fortunate fellow-countrymen form one of the brightest pages in the annals of popular instruction in Russia. To the honour of Russian society it must be said that examples of men who, like M. Rachinski, have turned aside from careers of distinction, or of delicately bred women who have left homes of refinement and culture in order to labour for the intellectual and moral uplifting of the Russian peasant in some country hamlet or parish remote from all the influences of civilised life, have neither been few nor far between. Russian women have especially distinguished themselves by their high-souled, steadfast enthusiasm for a work in which no laurels were to be won, and no reward could be looked

for save the consciousness of a duty bravely done to humanity. Such efforts to bridge over the moral and intellectual chasm which of late has seemed to grow wider with the passing years between the cultivated society of Russia and the inarticulate mass of the people, have an incalculable social importance in addition to their educational value, and may find a partial analogy in the movement which has given to England its University settlements and kindred institutions. Several striking instances of women of birth and education who have thus "gone to the people" (as the Russian phrase runs) are presented to the Western reader in a little pamphlet published in French by the District Zemstvo of St. Petersburg, under the title of "*La Vie de l'École Primaire.*" We must not yield to the temptation to say more upon this interesting topic; but it has been necessary to say so much, because the history of primary education in Russia would not be fully intelligible, nor would its future be so full of hope, were it not for the existence as a permanent factor in Russian life of the spirit which makes such instances of high, unselfish devotion possible.

II.—HIGHER GRADES OF PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

In considering the problems of primary education in Russia, it will be convenient to deal first with the higher grades of primary schools, namely, the Urban Schools established under the law of 1872, the District Schools, and the schools with two classes. All these types of schools are sharply marked off from the ordinary one-class primary school by many peculiarities of organisation, administration and external circumstances. They are all directly administered by the central authority. Existing as they do in the more populous districts, they are comparatively unaffected by many causes which hamper the efficiency of the ordinary primary schools, and are taught under conditions which tend more and more to approximate to those prevailing in the Western countries of Europe. They are for the most part well supplied with teachers trained according to the most approved methods of Western pedagogic science; and the results they attain with the small fraction of Russian children who attend them are, generally speaking, similar in degree and kind to those which the primary schools of any other civilised country would have to show. But it is worth while to call attention to one peculiar feature in the organisation of primary education in Russia which affects the higher grades of schools and to some extent restricts their number. We mean the dividing line drawn between the kinds of schools which may legally be established in town and country respectively. This distinction, which is apt to strike the foreign observer as somewhat artificial and unnecessary in relation to the actual conditions of Russian life, is not an old one and appears to have nothing to do with the traditional habit of regarding the population of town and country as belonging to two distinct social orders. It is rather an accidental distinction due to piecemeal legislation.

The only institutions in Russia which can properly be described as higher primary schools are the Urban Schools created under the law of 1872, and these can only be established in towns. Next in grade come the primary schools with two classes. The most important schools of this type are the Ministerial "model" schools established directly by the Ministry of Public Instruction. According to the strict letter of the law, these can only be established in the country, though *de facto* they are to be found in towns also. The ordinary primary schools with two classes may be founded either in town or country, but their establishment is in practice much restricted by a circular of the Ministry of Public Instruction, issued in 1889, which lays down the rule that two-class schools founded by local bodies or private persons shall be administered under the law of 1828 relating to parish schools, that is, shall not be controlled by the local School Councils established in the reign of Alexander II. It is obvious that the effect of the arrangement by which all schools with two classes are administered by the central government must be to discourage the general establishment of such schools and to make local bodies and private individuals prefer to establish schools with one class, in the management of which they have some voice through the local School Councils.

Hence the only type of primary school which can be established with equal facility in either town or country is the school of one class, and the great majority of Russian primary schools are consequently of this type. The highest grade of primary school cannot be established in the country at all; and it is important to note that this regulation affects not only rural districts properly so-called, but the great industrial villages of recent growth, which are towns in all but name, and in which higher primary instruction is more urgently required than in many of the district towns. On the other hand, the most common and convenient form of two-class schools, the ministerial model schools, cannot be established in towns without ignoring the letter of the law, though these schools would seem to be much better adapted to the circumstances of some of the district towns than the Urban Schools administered under the law of 1872. These anomalies are to a great extent the consequence of the industrial expansion of Russia during the last generation; and it is to be supposed that any comprehensive new measure for the extension or regulation of primary education will involve some readjustment of the present system with the object of bringing it more into harmony with present-day conditions.

Much discussion has recently taken place in the educational press of Russia on the subject of the reorganisation of the Urban Schools. The question appears to have been first raised during the ministry of Bogolepov, who was known to contemplate very considerable modifications of the existing Urban School system. The precise lines upon which his scheme of reorganisation would have proceeded have not transpired, but the discussions in the public press and in educational circles generally afford ample information as

to the reforms which are called for by public opinion. The questions discussed partly concern organisation, and partly the content and method of instruction.

At present Urban Schools, though all nominally following the same program of instruction, are organised on lines which differ considerably in accordance with the number of teachers composing their staffs. The course in every case lasts six years, and consequently in every Urban School there are six different sets of pupils under instruction. It is, however, the exception to find a school in which each of these sets constitutes an independent class, or, in other words, is taught by a separate teacher of its own. Grouping of sets is the rule: *e.g.*, in the three-class school, which is the type most commonly met with, two sets are assigned to each teacher. It is beginning to be urged that the time has now arrived to abolish grouping altogether and to substitute a single uniform type of Urban School for the variety at present existing. This would, of course, involve in effect the levelling up of all the weaker schools to the standard of efficiency now attained by those which have a teacher for every class. Failing this reform, some writers urge that the program of requirements should cease to be uniform for all schools, a certain minimum of attainment only being insisted on as a condition of obtaining a leaving certificate.

Again, many people think that the present organisation of the Urban School places it in an abnormal relation to the ordinary primary school on the one hand and the secondary school on the other. The course of the Urban School does not presuppose that of the ordinary primary school, and in this respect it differs from the District School which it was intended to replace. This has led in many cases to a wasteful duplication of the provision for elementary instruction, which might be avoided if the lower classes of the Urban School were always suppressed in places where there is a sufficient number of primary schools of the ordinary type to give the necessary preparation for the more advanced course of the Urban School. In practice, this has been done in many industrial districts, but it is not an arrangement contemplated or definitely sanctioned by the law.

It is further proposed by an influential section of Russian educationists so to modify the curriculum of the higher classes of the Urban Schools as to make it practically identical with that of the lower classes of the secondary school. In this way pupils who had completed the course of the Urban School would be qualified for admission to the fourth class of the gymnasium or other school of equal grade. It is clear that so long as classics form an important part of the curriculum of the gymnasium, any such proposal as this would not be practicable. But assuming that the commencement of Latin is deferred to the fourth class of the gymnasium, the mere addition of a modern foreign language to the present curriculum of the Urban School would transform it into a very efficient place of preparation for the middle classes of the gymnasium,

the real-school, or the secondary technical school.* Thus in the case of town children at any rate, the path from the primary school to the university or higher technical college would be made straight and plain, instead of running off, as at present, into blind alleys at several points. It should be added that, quite apart from any question of using the Urban School as a stepping-stone to higher education, the addition of at least one modern language to its course is often advocated purely in the interests of that important section of its pupils who aspire to posts as clerks in mercantile houses, as foremen in factories, or as minor officials in the public service.

Lastly, there is a strong feeling in favour of replacing the class-system of teaching which is now in vogue in Urban Schools by something more nearly approaching the subject system of the secondary schools.† The class-system has in practice already been considerably modified in this direction. This tendency is the natural result of the strong conviction which prevails in Russia as to the essential superiority of the subject system of instruction, about which we shall have something more to say in the chapter dealing with secondary education. The general introduction of the subject system into Urban Schools would entail a great specialisation of the training given to the teachers in the institutes, since the great advantage of this system is that each subject is taught by a person specially well acquainted with that subject. Whether this specialisation is either possible or desirable is another question.

III.—PRIMARY SCHOOLS WITH ONE CLASS.

As we have already had occasion to observe in the preceding chapter, it is not in the higher grades of schools that the great bulk of Russian children of the poorer classes receive instruction. The demand of the Russian peasant or artisan for primary instruction does not at present go beyond the modest curriculum of the one-class school of the *zemstvo* or of the Holy Synod, or the still more rudimentary course of the *shkola gramotnosti*. The chief interest of Russian primary education centres therefore in the one-class schools; and amongst these, rather in the schools of the country than in those of the towns. The mere statement of the fact that, in spite of the recent growth of industries in Russia, only 13 per cent. of the whole population live in towns, as compared with 77 per cent. in England and Wales, will suffice to show why the relative importance of the rural school should be so much greater in Russia than in this country.

What then are the special characteristics of the one-class primary school in Russia? That the peculiar conditions of Russian life

* For a further discussion of problems affecting the Urban School, see the Report of a Special Commission on these schools appointed by the Moscow Pedagogical Society (Proceedings of the Society for 1903).

† The subject system was the one actually used in the older District Schools, and such District Schools as have not been converted into Urban Schools continue to employ it.

should have caused primary education in Russia to assume characteristics which are not met with elsewhere in the same degree will not be a matter of surprise to anyone. Climate, religion, national traditions, the distribution of the rural population, the nature of their pursuits and their general economic condition, the enormous distances over which supervision has to be exercised, are all factors which have powerfully influenced the history of Russian primary education and have affected not only its external organisation, but also the very character of its curriculum.

For example, the poverty of the people affects the school at many points. Its first and most direct consequence is to make the rural school a winter school only. The sternness of the struggle that has to be waged with the forces of nature for the bare means of subsistence is such that the children can be spared for school only so long as it is impossible to labour in the fields. Directly the frost breaks up and nature awakes from the sleep of winter, the schools must close; they are therefore open only from October to May, say for 140 days at the outside. The shortness of school life—in most cases not extending beyond three years and often even falling short of that—is also due to the same cause. Children cannot under the conditions of the Russian climate be sent to school earlier than eight years of age, nor can they be kept there beyond twelve or thirteen; the particular ages during which they are actually at school depend very much on local and individual circumstances. Finally, in connection with the question of poverty it should be pointed out that it costs much more to equip a child for school in Russia than in England, since the need of warm clothing and boots is so much greater; and this expense is often beyond the reach of the poorest parents.

The sparseness of the population, again, greatly complicates the question of providing an efficient school within reasonable distance of each child's home. This circumstance has to be borne in mind in accounting for some characteristic phenomena of the recent history of Russian education, such as the attempts to develop and organise the *shkoly gramotnosti*. The same cause, coupled with the severity of the climate, and other physical conditions, has had another important consequence. The short days, the extreme cold, the deep snow in winter, the terrible state of the roads in early spring and late autumn, make it impossible for children who reside at a considerable distance from the school to return home daily; and it therefore becomes necessary in many cases to provide some sort of lodging accommodation for them in connection with the school. This accommodation is of the rudest and simplest kind, often amounting to nothing more than a rough shelter; but here the children attending the school are housed for the night, providing their own food, of which they generally bring with them a week's supply at a time. Where these conditions exist, they alter the whole nature of the relation in which the school stands to the children, laying upon it obligations which among us are held to attach only to the boarding school. The school becomes the home

of the children throughout the day ; the responsibility of the teacher is no longer confined to the normal school lessons ; he has perforce to become the friend and companion of his pupils out of school hours as well, to provide employment, instruction and recreation for them during the long winter evenings, to act *in loco parentis* to them in all the small affairs of their life. This increased responsibility, though purely a matter of custom, and not of legal obligation, is always cheerfully undertaken by the teachers, and in many cases discharged with a devotion which is beyond all praise. The normal working day of a Russian teacher in a school with a lodging attached to it cannot be put at less than twelve hours.

The features of the Russian rural school which have already been noted—its character as a winter school only ; its course limited to three years ; the late age at which school life begins ; and the fact that in many cases the children are not only taught, but actually live at the school—are sufficient to mark it off sharply in point of external organisation from the corresponding schools of Western Europe. The absence of any legal obligation to attend school also deeply affects the character of primary education in Russia, and causes its problems frequently to assume aspects with which western countries are unfamiliar.

If all these factors in the life of the primary school are important as they affect external organisation, they are not less so from the point of view of their influence upon the character and spirit of the teaching itself ; and in this direction they are reinforced by certain deep-lying causes connected with the traditions and habits of thought of the Russian peasantry. Within the extremely modest limits which are assigned to the curriculum of the Russian primary school, there is still room for much that is distinctively Russian to assert itself ; and the specially national elements in the teaching of the primary school are in fact so much more strongly marked than they are in the higher grades of education as to go far towards justifying the assertion which some Russian educationists are fond of making, that the primary school is the only school in Russia which is Russian.

Foremost amongst the distinctively national characteristics of the primary school we must put the religious and ecclesiastical basis of the teaching. There is a consensus of opinion that what the Russian peasant most values in the school teaching which his child obtains is the ability to read religious books in Russian, to read the Gospels in Slavonic, and to join in Church singing. He is by no means indifferent to secular learning, but until recently his attitude towards it was still more or less mediæval ; and even now the instinct to regard all learning as the handmaid of religion strongly affects his attitude towards the school. At any rate, a school in which the " Law of God " should not be taught would be inconceivable to him. No such schools, in fact, exist in Russia, nor is there any school of educational thinkers which would venture to advocate for a moment a purely secular program in Russian schools. Differences of opinion exist, as we shall see later on, as to the relative

importance to be assigned to religious teaching in comparison with other subjects; but the absolute exclusion of religion from the curriculum does not come within the range of practical politics in Russia, and it is not so much as discussed. It should be added that by religion is always meant the doctrine of the Orthodox Russian Church, except in the case of pupils professing certain other recognised creeds, such as Lutheranism, Roman Catholicism, or the Jewish faith; and that a sharp distinction is drawn between these recognised beliefs and the various forms of Russian dissent, which have no legal status whatever, so far as the schools are concerned.

In close connection with the religious element in the instruction stands the teaching of Church Slavonic, to which an important place is assigned in the curriculum of every primary school. The importance of a knowledge of this language to every Orthodox Russian is incontestable. For the benefit of readers unacquainted with the history of the Slavonic languages, we may here explain that Church Slavonic is a modified form of the Old Bulgarian dialect used by the two Slavonic apostles Cyril and his brother Methodius in the ninth century. It has long ceased to be a spoken tongue in the ordinary sense of the word, but is used by all Slavs who follow the Greek rite as their liturgical language. It preserves a more primitive phase of Slavic speech than any of the living tongues which have sprung from the same stock, but it is not to be regarded as their common parent. Its use for religious purposes through many centuries has, however, left a deep impression on the literary dialect of Great Russian and other Slavonic tongues, and the same cause has given it a strong hold upon the affections and imagination of the Russian peasantry, who regard it with all those feelings of veneration which inevitably attach themselves to forms of speech long reserved for sacred uses.

These circumstances would be sufficient in themselves to justify the teaching of Church Slavonic in the schools of Russia, even if no special pedagogical advantage could be claimed for this instruction. But in point of fact the pedagogical value of the language must be rated very high indeed. The teaching of a language, separated indeed from the mother tongue of the pupil by marked differences both of grammatical structure and of vocabulary, yet not so far apart from it as to be beyond the intellectual grasp of children of tender years, is surely an educational instrument such as it rarely falls to the lot of a primary school to use. In skilful hands it is capable of conferring benefits comparable in kind, if not in degree, to those which are claimed for the study of the classical languages in the case of older pupils. Putting aside, therefore, all questions of the value of Church Slavonic from the religious point of view, its value as an instrument of mental gymnastic must always give to it a position of unique importance in the modest scheme of studies of the Russian primary schools. But it is important to emphasise the fact that no subject of the curriculum is so

dependent upon skilled teaching to make it effective as Church Slavonic.*

Of the secular subjects entering into the curriculum the only one which calls for special notice is Russian. The Russian Government is so much alive to the importance of a common language as a unifying instrument, that the teaching of Russian is made obligatory in schools of every grade, whether established among a Russian-speaking population or one of alien speech. It is obvious that the task of the teacher must be very much more difficult in the latter case than in the former, and this fact is recognised in the provision which extends the course in primary schools established among the non-Russian population to four years. So great, however, are the intrinsic difficulties of the language, *e.g.*, its shifting accentuation, and the subtle variations of meaning conveyed by the aspects of its verb—that four years must often appear all too short a time for the primary school to accomplish the task imposed upon it. In the case of those subjects of the Empire who already speak some other Slavonic dialect, such as the Poles or the Little or White Russians, the difficulties are of course by no means so great; while for Great Russians, in whose case the object in view is the obtaining of such a mastery of the grammatical difficulties of the language as will enable them to avoid provincialisms in speech and writing, the three years of the normal primary course are probably ample under ordinary conditions. But great as the difficulties of Russian undoubtedly are, it must not be forgotten that the disciplinary value of the study of such a language is correspondingly great; and that a primary school which comprises in its curriculum two such subjects as Russian and Slavonic is equipped on the linguistic side as no other primary school in Europe is. It should, however, be mentioned that while the spelling of Church Slavonic is perfectly phonetic, that of Russian contains a certain number of arbitrary features, though it is very far from being so hopelessly unscientific as the system of orthography in use in English; and that Russian teachers complain very much of the unproductive expenditure of time involved in teaching purely conventional details which have no scientific value.

If we compare the curriculum of the Russian one-class school with that of our own primary schools, the most conspicuous difference will appear to be the absence of any provision in the former for teaching history, geography, nature-lore and drawing. All these subjects form part of the regular course in the schools with two classes, and in the Urban Schools, the latter also adding instruction in elementary geometry. It should be explained, how-

* A Russian friend of the writer, an educationist of high standing, expresses the opinion that this skilled teaching is seldom available. He says: "As a matter of fact, the teaching of Church Slavonic is on a low level, and does not go beyond a more or less instructive groping after the sense of prayers and extracts from the New Testament. One of two things happens: in the secular schools very little is achieved by it; in the Church schools too much is sacrificed to it."

ever, that a certain amount of historical and geographical information, and some elementary notions of physical science, are incidentally conveyed to the pupils of the one-class schools, especially in those of the *zemstvos*, through the medium of the reading lesson. The knowledge of Russian history and geography sometimes displayed by Russian school children is surprisingly clear and accurate. Nature study cannot be said to be so successfully carried on, since mere book learning or oral teaching is of little avail here, and intuitive methods of nature-study are difficult in schools open during the winter only. This practice of "explanatory reading," as it is called, has, however, sometimes been discouraged by the higher educational authorities on the ground that the whole time at the disposal of the primary school with one class is needed for the mastery of the more elementary subjects named in the curriculum, and that the scholar's attention ought not to be distracted from these subjects by attempts to supply him with a mass of unconnected details of general information.*

A primary school with a course of three years, or rather three winters only, is such an unfamiliar phenomenon to the present generation of English educationists that the question will naturally be asked what results are actually produced by such a school working under average conditions. In attempting some answer to this question, certain preliminary considerations must be borne in mind, such as the average age at which Russian children are admitted to school, the state of preparation in which they enter it, their attitude towards school learning, and their general intellectual capabilities.

It will probably be admitted that under all ordinary circumstances a child entering school for the first time at eight, nine or ten years of age when his intellectual faculties have already undergone a considerable degree of development, but are still highly plastic and receptive, must be in a better position to profit by a three years' course of instruction than he would be either at a much earlier or a much later stage. But in the case of a Russian child the conditions under which the first ten years of life are passed are usually such as to make him, both in an intellectual and moral sense, old beyond his years. M. Rachinski has a passage of much eloquence and pathos dealing with this point, which may well be quoted here.

"The Russian boy entering a rural school in his eleventh year has little in common with a child of the same age belonging to the cultivated classes. He has never yet set eyes on a primer, but he knows well the alphabet of life. He has already tasted much unchildish sorrow, has already been a sharer in many unchildish labours. By the time he could barely stand firmly on his feet, he

* The attitude of the Ministry of Public Instruction towards "explanatory reading" has varied somewhat; but its latest programs declare it to be desirable to impart to the children some knowledge of natural history, and of Russian history and geography. The whole subject is dealt with in connection with the question of extending the program of certain one-class primary schools in a circular of the Curator of the St. Petersburg Educational District, dated 12nd December, 1895.

has been entrusted with the nursing of a younger brother or sister. All our country children, boys as well as girls, have passed through this nursing experience. On the threshold of conscious life there is laid upon them the most awful of responsibilities—responsibility for the life of a helpless, beloved, importunate creature, who cannot exist without their constant care. The mother, of course, is harrowing or ploughing, mowing or reaping. As soon as the signs of physical strength appear, tasks beyond his strength are laid upon the boy, tasks connected with responsibility for the most valuable portions of a peasant's stock—the cattle and the horses. He is an active participator in all the labours and cares of the family. In the midst of this heavy, feverish toil there is no possibility of hiding from him any of the dark or repulsive sides of life. He learns everything, not from facetious stories, but from bitter personal experience. He sees death at close quarters in all its terrifying details, in all its mysterious greatness, and learns to look upon it simply and soberly, with humility and hope. By the side of a five-year-old child of the educated classes he is an ignoramus, but he is immeasurably riper for contact with life than a youth of twenty years who has been delicately nurtured in a wealthy, cultured family.

“To go to school is a delight to him. There awaits him a life of comparative comfort and ease, free from all labour, physical or intellectual, which is beyond his powers—there awaits him the luxury which is the necessity of childhood, but for which there is no time in his home life—the luxury of constant attention and care from his elders. But he brings with him the feeling acquired in the home, of responsibility for his own conduct and for his own time, the consciousness of the necessity for labour and the exertion of all his powers. It is for the teacher to see that these precious seeds are not choked but that they are strengthened and properly directed. He brings with him also a vague, but lofty and reverent, idea of learning, as the key to the mysteries of prayer, of eternal life and of divine wisdom. Making the sign of the cross, he kisses the first book which is put into his hands.”—*Selskaja Shkola*, pp. 15-17.

The eagerness of Russian children to avail themselves of the opportunity of schooling is universally attested. “The majority of our children” says a lady teacher in one of the schools of the St. Petersburg district Zemstvo, “love school: cases to the contrary are extremely rare. Seldom, indeed, does it happen that lessons are missed by the fault of the children: such a thing occurs only when they are kept at home by their parents to work, or because of inclement weather, or (and this is no uncommon case) for want of clothing or boots. They insist on coming to school: very few parents take any pains to see that their children attend school regularly, but the converse does occur, that is to say, the parents try to keep a child at home, and he quietly runs away to school. The children have a characteristic expression of their own [for attending school]; they do not speak of being sent to school; they say that they are let go to school (*puskavit v shkolu*), that is, they are not detained at home.” This attitude on the part of the children towards their school explains at once why it is possible and indeed inevitable that lessons and other occupations in Russian village schools should extend far beyond the nominal five hours or so of teaching which are contemplated by the law. Let us hear M. Rachinski once more upon this point:

“Our children come to school with the firm intention to master the rudiments of learning, generally at their own earnest request, and with perfect readiness to study without interruption from morn till eve. Such is also the wish of the parents. A school in which work is confined within the limits of the four o:

five hours a day which pedagogical science recognises as sufficient, is considered a poor school. And the parents are right. They prize but little the scanty fragments of knowledge which can be got up for show in the course of three or four winters of State instruction, but they appreciate highly the necessary arts (forms of skill), which can be *really* acquired in that time, though only with great concentration of labour. All this irresistibly impels our school to increase the number of hours of instruction, and the chief impulse in this direction comes from the pupils themselves. Their constant presence in the school, their truly insatiable thirst for learning, compel every teacher who is interested in his work, whether he will or no, to increase the number of class lessons, especially during the first half of the winter, when it is necessary to utilise the whole of the short day; and then begins the long evening, in which the children cannot run about the streets. Of the special features which this intensive system of instruction introduces into the curriculum as well as into the school discipline, I shall speak later on. For the present I simply insist on the fact that such intensive teaching is not a tyranny exercised over the children, but a concession to their demands; they have come to school to learn, and they have nowhere but the school to go to. To get them out of the class-room, it is literally necessary to put out the lamp. They do their work with patience and perseverance, fully understanding that this work is difficult and important. This attitude on the part of the children towards the school alone makes it possible for the teacher to do the extra work involved, which, however, to every peasant teacher appears entirely in the normal course of things."—*Selskaia Shkola*, pp. 19–20.

M. Rachinski in another place (p. 27) tells us that he speaks as a teacher who passes all his life in school; that in winter, on working days and holy days alike, he spends the whole day from eight in the morning to eight at night surrounded by some seventy peasant children; and that a like number of children of the same age belonging to the best families and with the most careful training would drive him mad in a week.

In reading such testimonies as those above quoted to the love of school and the eagerness to learn which are shown by Russian children attending the primary schools, we must, of course, give due weight to the fact that attendance at school is in Russia neither compulsory nor universal, and that therefore children for whom or for whose parents learning has no attraction are not as a rule to be found in the schools. Doubtless the effect of making education compulsory would be, even in Russia, to make the school more or less unpopular with the baser and more ignorant elements of the population. But for the present the Russian primary school has no such difficulty to contend with. Whatever the disadvantages under which its work is carried on, and we have said enough to show that these are in many respects enormous, it yields to no primary school in Europe in respect of the good will with which it is regarded by the community which it serves, and of the eagerness with which its benefits are welcomed by the children themselves. The love of school shown by the children, together with their capacity for the intensive work described by M. Rachinski in the extract above quoted, are factors of the highest importance in the success of the school, and help us greatly to understand why it is that a three years' course does actually yield results so much in advance of what might be expected, judging by Western experience only.

Another factor of at least equal importance is the extraordinary receptivity of the Slavonic race. This national characteristic, with which we are all more or less familiar in the case of Russians of the cultivated classes, is fully shared by the children of the Russian peasantry. It is impossible to visit a Russian primary school without being met at every turn by striking evidences of the quickness of the children in receiving and assimilating knowledge. One hears, for example, children who have been at school only a few weeks read from their Russian primer, slowly and stumbingly it may be, but still with a surprising degree of correctness, passages of difficulty quite equal to those of our First and Second Standard Reading Books; and one is assured that these children on admission did not even know their alphabet. The writer was told at one of the Moscow schools that the children were expected to master the purely mechanical difficulties of learning to read in about three weeks. Equally rapid progress is made in the other subjects of instruction; one occasionally sees quite remarkable specimens of neat handwriting (single letters and words) after a couple of months' teaching; and the older pupils display exceptional readiness in mental arithmetic.

When all the points we have mentioned are taken into account—the late age at which children enter school, their eagerness for work and intense application to it, and the exceptional receptivity of their minds—it will not be thought surprising that even a short three years' course of instruction proves sufficient to give substantial and permanent results in the case of the majority of scholars attending the primary schools. What do these results amount to in practice? In other words what advantage does a boy who has completed a three years' course in a primary school possess over his illiterate fellows?—In the first place, he has acquired the power to read his own language in its literary form. Incidentally the instruction he has received in connection with the reading lessons has been the means of giving him a certain amount of information relating to the history and geography of his native land. His intellectual interests have thus been awakened, his mental horizon has been greatly widened, and he has at his command the means of carrying forward his education for himself to a degree only limited by his own capacity for assimilating knowledge. He has, moreover, acquired a better command of correct Russian for purposes of speech and writing; this not only greatly facilitates his intercourse with his more cultivated fellow-countrymen, but is also a great advantage to him in the affairs of his ordinary life; he has learnt, for example, how to write an ordinary letter on business or in the way of friendly intercourse. He has a sufficient knowledge of arithmetic to enable him to deal correctly with whole numbers and even the simpler fractions. Last, but not least, if he has had the advantage of good teaching in Church Slavonic, his study of this language must not only have trained his faculty of comparison and given him some insight into the laws of language, but by enabling him to comprehend more fully the prayers and services

of his church must surely have contributed to make his whole conception of religion more conscious and intelligent. So much for the purely intellectual side of the school's work. Its influence in the sphere of morals and religion is equally positive and decided, though in this more than in any other department of the teacher's work personal factors and local circumstances must be taken into account. Of the differences between the Zemstvos' schools and those of the Holy Synod in respect of religious influence in general and the Orthodox "atmosphere" in particular we shall speak later on. But it must be obvious that where, as is the case with so many of the rural schools of Russia, the teacher is in contact with his scholars during most of the waking hours of the day, his opportunities of influencing their characters must be enormously greater than those enjoyed by the Western school teacher: and there is, in fact, no lack of evidence as to the softening and civilizing effect which the rural school in particular actually exerts over the characters of its pupils. Of the material advantages which a good primary education may secure to its possessor it is sufficient to say that it greatly increases his chances of remunerative employment, especially in the towns, and that in the case of those who are called up for military service, a certificate of having completed a three years' course in the primary school abridges the term of service by two years, and may also in various incidental ways lighten considerably their military duties; (*See Rachinski, Selskaja Shkola*, pp. 92-94).

While the above is believed to be a fair summary of the advantages which a good one-class primary school, taught by an efficient teacher devoted to his work and calling, has to offer to those of its scholars who complete the full course, it is important to insist that three years is the minimum time within which these results can in ordinary cases be achieved. It is the misfortune of Russian primary education that a large number, even a majority on the whole, of the pupils leave school before the completion of the three years' course. The reasons for this discouraging phenomenon are not far to seek. They are to be found in the poverty and ignorance of the parents, coupled with the absence of legislative sanctions in the matter of school attendance. Indirectly, doubtless, the partial exemption from military service which attaches to the possession of a leaving certificate acts as an encouragement to many parents to keep their children at school until they have completed the course; but this inducement is operative only in the case of the boys. Hence the school life of a Russian girl of the poorer class is said rarely to exceed two years. The inevitable result of this state of things is a considerable amount of intellectual recidivism which the existing provision of Sunday schools and recapitulations, greatly as these have increased in number of recent years, is inadequate to cope. In the absence of a law making compulsory (which would probably indeed be almost impossible to enforce over a great part of the country) a remedy for the existing state of things lies in the gradual

education of public opinion. The advisability of extending the course of the primary school to four or five years and of widening the curriculum at the same time so as to include definite instruction in geography, history, geometry and the like is from time to time discussed in Russian educational circles. There are, undoubtedly, some localities in Russia where a school with a four or five years' course might be established with good prospect of success. But it would certainly seem that until the Russian parent of the poorer class has realised the necessity of keeping his child at school for the three years required to complete the present course, it is somewhat premature to contemplate a general extension of the primary school course beyond its existing limit, and to attempt to widen the curriculum without extending the course would be positively harmful.

It may seem paradoxical or inconsistent, after speaking of difficulties arising from the unwillingness of parents to keep children at school until the completion of the course, to go on to assert the existence among the masses of Russia of an almost universal feeling in favour of education. Yet there can be no manner of doubt that an appreciation of the advantages of education, at any rate for boys, does as a matter of fact in Russia, as in some other countries that might be named, go along with a very widespread indisposition or inability to utilise existing advantages to the utmost.*

The existence of this appreciation of education is, to some extent, vouched for by the almost universal overcrowding of the existing schools, and the large number of applicants who are annually refused admission into these schools. The facts of the case are very well stated in a recent publication of the Ministry of Public Instruction, from which we extract the following passage :

"According to the figures for 1897, the average number of scholars attending each primary school in the Empire was fifty. If we take into account the fact that at least 30,000 of these schools were located in ordinary *praetlasi* huts, and could accommodate at most fifteen to twenty scholars, it will be seen that the existing schools were very much over-crowded, and the conclusion is inevitable that the low number of children attending school in Russia is mainly due to the fact that there are few schools, and that they cannot accommodate all the children who could and would attend school. This con-

* As regards Moscow this statement may be illustrated by placing side by side two passages occurring in Professor Vinogradoff's Memorandum on the Universal Accessibility of Primary Instruction in Moscow, to which reference will be made later. "We may leave entirely out of account the assumption that any considerable number of poor families will refuse to send their children to the schools, if facilities of access to the latter are afforded on a wide scale. Whatever may be the case in villages, among the population of Moscow the recognition of the benefit and necessity of elementary instruction may be considered universal" (p. 10). "The number of scholars in the first," i.e., the lowest, "class is about one half of the total number in the school; the second class is considerably smaller than the first, and the third is unfortunately apt to show a still more considerable falling off" (p. 8). The diminishing numbers in the higher classes are, however, partly due to the strictness of the examinations, which prevents many of the more backward scholars from obtaining promotion in the regular course.

clusion is confirmed by this fact among others, that wherever new schools are opened they are at once filled with scholars, and that refusals to admit children for lack of room are now an ordinary occurrence in all parts of the Russian Empire, from St. Petersburg to the remotest corners of Siberia. . . . In the Government of St. Petersburg the average number of children annually refused is as follows: by each school maintained by the Zemstvo, sixteen; by each Ministerial school, ten; by each Church parochial school, eleven. According to the official report of State Secretary Kulomzen, refusals of the means of education have latterly become a chronic phenomenon in Siberia in the life of many schools in the country as well as in the towns.”*

The whole question as to how far the desire for primary instruction had penetrated among the people of Russia was investigated some few years ago by the Moscow Committee of Literacy (*Komitet Gramotnosti*), who obtained replies to enquiries on the subject from a large number of persons in all parts of Russia. Of the answers received 90·2 per cent. (viz. 96·3 per cent. from towns, 88 per cent. from the country) stated that there was a general desire on the part of parents to have their children educated. As regards the remaining 9·8 per cent. the enquiries had in some cases been misunderstood. Where there was clear evidence of a positive prejudice against the schools, the reasons given were based on religious grounds (this concerned e.g. the Tatar Musulman populations, and to some extent also the Russian sectaries) and partly on poverty and remoteness from centres of civilisation.

Whilst, therefore, there are good grounds for the statement that there exists in Russia a general desire for education, it should only be made subject to one very important qualification. It is in point of fact true only in respect of the boys; the desire that girls should be educated is by no means general among the poorer classes in Russia. Roughly speaking, out of every four children receiving primary education in Russia only one is a girl; and the proportion of girls to boys in the schools is very much smaller in the villages than in the towns. The distinction between town and country in this respect is very well brought out by the results of the investigation of the Committee of Literacy above referred to. Of the replies to the question whether the desire for education applied to girls as well as to boys, only 13·4 per cent. were in the affirmative in respect of the villages, as against 76·7 per cent. in relation to the urban population.

This comparative indifference to the education of the future mothers of the nation is a fact of such capital importance that it is worth while to enquire somewhat more closely into the reasons for it. Perhaps the most fundamental reason is to be found in the traditional notions obtaining among the peasantry as to the general position of women. However advanced the ideas of female education entertained by the upper classes of Russia may now be, it should be remembered that it is only a comparatively short time, as the lifetime of nations is reckoned, since anything beyond the merest rudiments of book-learning was thought totally unnecessary

* *Kratkii Obzor deiatelnosti Ministerstva Narodnago Prosvestcheniia za vremia upravleniia pokoinogo Ministra N. P. Bogolepova. S.P.B., 1901.—* (p. 5.)

for the daughters of the most aristocratic families in Russia. In this respect, as in many others, the ideas prevailing among the peasantry simply represent a lower state of culture from which the upper classes have now emerged. "Why should a girl learn to read and write?" asks the Russian peasant. "Her business is to stay at home, to spin and knit, to cook the broth, to nurse the baby, and to mind the house. What is the use of book-learning to her?" Old-world notions of this kind notoriously die hard; still the influence of modern ideas slowly makes itself felt, and the old prejudice against the education of girls is observably on the wane in many districts, as may be shown by comparing the statistics of school attendance of succeeding decades since the sixties. There are, however, some other considerations, partly of an economic, and partly of a moral kind, which also operate strongly in the direction of keeping the school attendance of girls at a much lower level than that of boys. A boy's work is out of doors, a girl is more useful indoors. The boy is wanted for field work in the summer, but in the winter he is free to go to school. His sister is of more use in winter than in summer; she can not only help in the work of the house, but she can occupy the long winter evenings in spinning flax, knitting stockings or gloves, or in any of the other small industries for which certain districts in Russia are famous. Hence it is just at the time that the schools are open that the girls are most wanted at home. The Report of the Committee of Literacy mentions as an illustration of the way in which these economic considerations affect the question that in some districts the attendance of girls at school depends on the flax harvest; a good harvest reduces attendance, while a failure in the crop causes a sudden influx of girls into the schools during the ensuing winter. Cases are also mentioned in which girls have attended school on Fridays only, since it is accounted by the peasants a sin to spin on Fridays. It should also be borne in mind in connection with the economic aspect of the matter, that although no fees are, as a rule, charged in Russian primary schools, the equipment of a child for school is nevertheless a very considerable tax on the resources of an ordinary peasant household. Very many peasants cannot afford to spend five, ten or fifteen roubles on extra overwear and boots for more than one child at a time; in such cases, if there are both boys and girls in the family, the boys naturally get the preference. One consideration which tells powerfully in favour of the boys is the fact that they can obtain partial exemption from military service by means of the school, while there is no corresponding privilege open to the girls. For this reason, even when girls are sent to school, they are withdrawn, as a rule, earlier than the boys. The ordinary parent will make an effort to keep his boy at school for a third winter in order to obtain the military exemption; but as to his daughter, "what good," he asks, "will a third year do to her? She knows her letters, she can read and say her prayers. What more does a girl want? She is not going for a soldier."

There is still another reason operating in the same direction, namely, the dislike of many of the Russian peasantry for mixed

schools. But the vast majority of the rural schools of Russia are of the mixed type; separate girls' schools are almost unknown outside the towns. Mixed schools are, in fact, a necessity in Russia for the same reason as makes them a necessity in the less thickly populated parts of rural England—the need of economising in buildings, cost of maintenance and teaching power. The instinct of the peasantry is, however, in many places against these schools, as places of education for their daughters; and it must be admitted that there are reasonable grounds for this feeling whenever constant oversight on the part of the parents is rendered difficult by the distance of the child's home from school. It is one thing to allow a boy to trudge several versts to and from school in the dark winter mornings and evenings, or to spend the entire week away from home in the rough common lodging shared by other boys; but the case is entirely different with a girl. Many of the more enlightened parents would willingly send their daughters to school if they could have them educated separately from the boys, or if separate lodging accommodation could be provided under proper supervision. The proof of this lies in the fact that wherever separate girls' schools have been provided they are filled to overflowing. As it is, the attendance of girls at the ordinary mixed rural schools is frequently confined to the daughters of families living in the immediate proximity of the school. Another reason which weighs with the peasantry in favour of separate girls' schools is that only in these schools is it found possible to teach needlework, instruction in which is highly prized on account of its practical value.

Whilst all these causes unite to keep down the attendance of girls at the ordinary primary schools to an abnormally low level, their opportunities of obtaining higher primary instruction are throughout the greater part of the Russian Empire practically non-existent. Except in the provinces of Kiev, Volhynia, and Podolia, the Urban Schools established under the law of 1872 are open only to boys.

We have dwelt at some length on the inferior position in which the girls of the lower classes are placed in respect of educational opportunities because it undoubtedly constitutes one of the most serious weaknesses of the whole educational system of Russia. No system of primary instruction can be said to have its foundations firmly and securely laid which does not provide adequately for the education of the future mothers of the race. It is not too much to say that the slow progress which primary education in Russia has made even among the male population is largely due to the backward state of public opinion among the peasantry with regard to the education of girls. The influence of the mother over the intellectual development of the child during the first ten years of life can hardly be overestimated. It is found by actual experience that wherever a Russian mother can read and write all the children can do so also, at least to some extent. Lack of culture on the part of the mother, on the other hand, deprives the school teacher of the most powerful auxiliary to his efforts on behalf of the child. "If, twenty years ago," says M. Sokolov, a priest of the Government of Tula, "we had

begun to provide for the instruction of girls instead of boys, nearly the whole of the generation now growing up would be able to read and write, and we should not now have to waste precious time in school teaching the sounds of letters, prayers, and the first rules of social intercourse. If we cannot now reverse our procedure we should, at least, make up for lost time by endeavouring in every possible way to attract girls into our schools."* There can be no doubt that the opening of a large number of girls' schools would do more than any other possible measure to reduce illiteracy in the next generation. Short of this, much might still be done, even under present conditions, by means of Sunday schools, summer schools for girls, and the like.

The existence among the poorer classes of a growing appreciation of the advantages of education, at any rate for boys, being thus established, it is important to enquire further to what extent this appreciation has so far led to a demand on the part of the peasantry and the artisan population for secondary and higher education. It follows almost as a corollary from what has been said as to the difficulty of inducing parents to leave their children at the primary school for as long a period as three years that the number of children of the lower orders who seek instruction higher than elementary is as yet very small. The statistics of admissions into secondary schools, universities and higher technical colleges show, nevertheless, that a small but slowly increasing percentage of students are drawn from the agricultural and artisan classes. But the path upward from the elementary school to places of higher education is not made easy. The close co-ordination of secondary with university instruction in Russia finds no counterpart in the correlation of the elementary curriculum with that of the secondary schools. In the educational legislation of Alexander I. the educational ladder was an officially recognised ideal, but the re-organisation of the educational system under Nicholas I. broke off the connection between elementary and secondary schools, and the gap thus created has never been again bridged over. Of course, there is nothing to prevent a clever boy, whose parents can afford the necessary expense, from passing from a primary school at the age of ten or eleven into a gymnasium or real-school, and thence making his way to the university or to a higher technical college. Such cases happen, no doubt, sporadically; there is, for instance, a constant dribble of boys from the Urban Schools into the real-schools. But nothing is done to pick out poor boys of good capacity attending the primary schools, in order to send them on with the help of bursaries, reduced fees or the like, to the secondary schools. In fact, as we have already seen in a preceding chapter, the whole spirit of the administration of the Ministry of Public Instruction has of late years been directly opposed to any such policy.

That the principle of the educational ladder finds strong and able

* Quoted in an article on Girls' Education in "*Narodnoe Obrazovanie*" January and February, 1901.

advocates in Russia goes almost without saying. It may in fact be said to be one of the essential planks in the platform of the party of educational reform. We have already, in an earlier section of this chapter, noted a proposal to make the Urban School a stepping-stone between the primary school and the gymnasium, or other place of secondary instruction in the case of town children. The whole attitude of the reform party to the question is, however, conditioned by their dissatisfaction with the existing organisation of secondary education. Their demand is not so much for greater facilities of access to the existing gymnasia and real-schools as for such a reorganisation of the curricula of the latter as shall make the passage from the primary schools into them easy and natural. This might be done, for example, by so arranging the course of instruction in the lower classes of secondary schools as to include much the same subjects as are taught in the higher primary schools, so that pupils might pass from the latter to the former either without examination or on the result of an examination in certain subjects only. A proposal of this nature actually formed part of the recommendations of General Vannovski three years ago.

There are other objections, entirely unconnected with questions of curriculum, to any scheme for facilitating the passage on a wide scale of boys from rural districts into the existing secondary schools. One serious difficulty, for example, arises from the fact that the secondary schools are all established in the larger towns. A boy from the country attending such a school is taken out of his natural environment, and, unless his parents also remove to the town for the sake of his education, he is cut off from all the wholesome influences of home. Moreover, the whole aim and spirit of the secondary schools of Russia are such as to make thoughtful people of all parties in Russia doubt greatly whether, in any but exceptional cases, it is to the real advantage of a peasant boy to be placed in them. M Rachinski puts this point very clearly in a passage occurring in his *Selskaja Shkola* (pp. 94 and 95).

“In the majority of cases a peasant boy can only lose by being placed in one of our secondary schools. The final and irretrievable breach with his former social environment which such a step renders inevitable seldom finds its compensation in the obtaining of a real education. In saying this I mean no reproach to the teaching in our gymnasia. But such is the inevitable result of the relations which have been established between our educational system and the public service, and of the views of education which have developed under their influence in our rapidly increasing half-educated society. It is owing to these conditions that our secondary schools, and partly also our places of higher education, are becoming more and more nurseries, not of enlightenment, but of officialdom. This is why they are filled to overflowing why they produce malcontents, why failure to complete their course assumes the aspect of a real calamity. In the eyes of the pupils and their parents the knowledge acquired in them is nothing. It is all a question of diploma, of rights with respect to the public service. A knowledge of the Latin conjunctions, if not crowned by admission to the fourteenth class [in the scale of ranks] is considered such a misfortune that it drives our disappointed gymnasts to the greatest follies, not even excluding suicide itself. Few peasants have the patience and the means to keep a son at school long enough to complete the course of the gymnasium. An incomplete course leaves him with

far more vain aspirations than real knowledge. Even if he completes the course, in a majority of cases his education simply flings him into the hungry and unsatisfied army, already too numerous, of our minor officials.

It is obvious that the criticism contained in the above passage is directed not against the desirability of some kind of secondary education for village children, but against the general spirit and associations of the existing secondary schools. A system of rural schools of the secondary grade, or of a grade intermediate between the primary school and the gymnasium or real-school, would be open to none of the objections urged by M. Rachinski. If, as has been suggested, a number of such schools were established in the larger villages of Russia they would afford the brighter boys from the rural primary schools the opportunity of continuing their education under natural conditions, whilst keeping them fully in touch with rural life. The more ambitious pupils might pass on to the secondary schools of the towns, but in the case of the majority the rural secondary school would be their final place of education.* It must be said, however, that the realisation of such a scheme as this is at present outside the range of practical politics.

To other disadvantages of the Russian primary school which have been incidentally enumerated in the preceding pages, we have to add the difficulty arising from a defective supply of teachers. This has been from the first a chronic source of weakness to the Russian system of primary instruction; and of late years, in consequence of the rapid increase in the number of schools opened both by the Ministry of Public Instruction and the Holy Synod, the supply of fully qualified teachers has tended more than ever to fall short of the demand. In the preceding chapter we have indicated the main sources from which the teachers of both these classes of schools are drawn. Here we will merely recall briefly that so far as trained teachers are concerned, the schools of the *Zemstvos* rely partly on the output of the teachers' seminaries, and partly on female teachers, trained in the pedagogical classes of the secondary girls' schools; that the teachers of the Church parochial schools are also largely drawn from the latter institutions, especially from the Eparchial Girls' Schools, though an increasing number of teachers are being turned out by the training colleges of the Church, and a small but very valuable contingent consists of ex-pupils of the Theological Seminaries on their way to Holy Orders. All these may be described as "trained and certificated teachers," if we use the term in a sense somewhat different from that which it bears as applied to our own primary teachers. In addition to these, there is a large class of teachers who are "certificated" only, that is, they have acquired the right to teach by passing a qualifying examination, held either by the Ministry of Public Instruction or the Holy Synod. Finally, a certain number of persons are always employed in both kinds of schools who possess no qualification what-

* See a paper on Rural Secondary Schools by an Orthodox clergyman, M. Nikolai Eleonski, printed in the "Transactions of the Moscow Pedagogical Society" for 1900.

ever : this number is very much larger in the Church schools than in those of the Zemstvos, since the licence to teach in the former depends solely on the local ecclesiastical authorities.

The difficulty of filling vacancies as they arise may be illustrated by some statistics taken from the official paper from which we quoted a few pages back. "In 1899," says this document, "there were 7,931 vacancies in the office of teacher : of these 1,592 were in new schools. The vacancies were filled in 6,590 cases (83 per cent.) by persons possessing a teacher's certificate ; in 805 cases (10 per cent.) by persons without such a certificate : 536 places (7 per cent.) remained unfilled. Of those who were appointed, 2,212 (or 30 per cent.) had special pedagogical training ; 2,591 (or 35 per cent.) had been taught in secondary schools (2,186 in girls' schools) ; 2,592 (or 35 per cent.) had been taught in primary schools or at home. Thus more than one-third of the whole number were neither specially trained nor had received an adequate general education." The proportion of untrained teachers appointed in 1899 would certainly appear to be abnormal, and to be due largely to the difficulty of finding teachers for the schools recently opened. Three years earlier, viz., in 1896, of the total number of teachers appointed, 76 per cent. had received pedagogical training ; 20 per cent. were certificated only ; while 4 per cent. were unqualified. But we have quoted the figures for 1899 because one of the discouraging phenomena of recent years has been the decline in the proportion of trained teachers available for the work of primary education, and because one reason for this appears to be that the schools maintained at the cost of the Zemstvos have increased at a faster rate than the output of the teachers' seminaries, maintained for the most part by the State. This state of things constitutes so serious a hindrance to the spread of education—among other things it acts as a discouragement to the opening of new schools—that it is important to enquire the reasons for its existence.

The first reason which suggests itself is connected with the fact that so large a proportion of the teaching *personnel* are women. In 1898 the proportion of women teachers serving in schools under the Ministry of Public Instruction was 43·7 per cent. of the whole.* It is probable that the percentage of women teachers employed in the schools of the Holy Synod is even greater ; but as to this we have no precise information. It is one of the disadvantages of an educational system under which the teaching posts are so largely held by young unmarried women that it cannot count on anything like permanence in its staff of teachers. Sooner or later the profession of teaching tends to be abandoned for that of wife and mother ; only a minority of women teachers really make the work of primary education a vocation for life. Thus gaps in the ranks of women teachers are constantly occurring which the output of the girls' secondary schools is insufficient fully to supply.

As to the teachers who are drawn from the ecclesiastical

* The proportion is highest in Central Russia, and lowest in the Baltic Provinces.

seminaries and are preparing for holy orders, it is obvious from the very nature of the case that their period of service in the primary school can be but brief, not exceeding five years at the outside.

But as regards the majority of the male teachers employed in the primary schools, the main reason for the constant leakage which goes on is undoubtedly an economic one. It is difficult to obtain precise data as to the cost of living in rural Russia, and doubtless it varies somewhat in different localities; but the writer has formed the opinion that something like 250R. or 300R. a year is needful to enable a single man to live in a Russian village in the style expected of a teacher. For a teacher, even though, as is generally the case, he is of peasant extraction, cannot live quite like a peasant. His training in the seminary has given him the tastes of an educated man; he associates on terms of equality with the local *intelligentsia*, with the clergy, the small landowners, the petty officials; he has to dress in a certain style and to keep up appearances. Even in the country this means something; but in the towns the difficulty is still greater, inasmuch as the cost of living is higher there. Expenses are, of course, increased indefinitely if the teacher ventures on matrimony. A budget of necessary expenses for a married teacher in an Urban School is given in the December number of *Russkaia Shkola* for 1900; the total for the year is 749·4R.* It is not probable that the expenses of a married teacher in an ordinary primary school in a large town could be reduced much below this figure.

If the reader will now turn to the statistics of salaries paid to primary teachers which are given in the preceding chapter (pp. 261–262) he will see in how few cases they really afford a living wage. Those earned in the country will barely support a single man; of marriage, of laying something by for a rainy day, the rural teacher must not even think. The salaries paid in the towns as a rule are better; but only in a few places (*e.g.*, in the two capitals) can they be called really satisfactory. And it should be remembered that it is only within the last three or four years that a teacher has had any prospect of a pension to induce him to continue in his calling.

The inevitable consequence is that the rural teacher leaves the profession as soon as he sees a better opening elsewhere. Some seek admission into a Teachers' Institute, the course of which qualifies them for the better paid posts of the Urban Schools, and moreover gives them a definite place and prospects of promotion in the civil service of the Empire. Others drift into other callings. The official paper from which we have already quoted tells us that twenty years ago when the office of *uriadnik* (a kind of police officer) was instituted, many schools had to be temporarily closed because

* It may be of interest to give the items of expenditure separately. They are as follows:—Residence, 108R.; warming, 45·6R.; lighting, 16·3R.; board, 294R.; boots and clothing, 103·2R.; service, 76·8R.; books and newspapers, 18R.; sundries, 87R.

of the appointment of their teachers to the newly created posts; and that now (1901) the same phenomenon is being repeated in places where the State sale of liquors is being introduced, teachers passing over in considerable numbers to the service of the Department of Excise.

The only remedy for this state of things is a considerable improvement in the financial position of the teacher; and this is, of course, a remedy which it is easier to suggest than to apply.

IV.—PROBLEMS OF PRIMARY EDUCATION.

I.—THE QUESTION OF UNIVERSAL INSTRUCTION.

The account we have attempted to furnish in this and the preceding chapters of the actual condition of primary education in Russia will have placed the reader in a position to understand the bearings of some important questions which have of late years claimed the special attention of the Russian educational world. We refer to the question of the universal provision of facilities for primary instruction, with or without compulsory legislation; and to the controversies which have arisen from the rivalry of the schools established by the Holy Synod with those maintained by the zemstvos.

The idea of making primary education universal and obligatory is an old one in Russia; but it cannot be said to have become a question of practical politics until the abolition of serfdom in the sixties. We have already described in the first chapter the reasons which led the educational statesmen of Alexander II.'s reign to the conclusion that it was then premature to attempt to make primary instruction either universally accessible or universally obligatory, and decided them to leave the provision of schools for the most part to local and private initiative. The question was revived in the seventies by the then Minister of Public Instruction, Count D. Tolstoi, but the inquiries made by him only served to show once more that under existing conditions the proposal to establish a sufficient number of schools to meet the educational needs of the whole nation would be an economic impossibility—a conclusion in which so genuine a lover of popular education as Baron Korf was constrained to concur. But the question was at that time always argued as though the problem was to place Russia in a position of equality with Western countries in which universal compulsory education had been introduced and in which the period of school life was six or seven years. The inevitable conclusion from these premises was that some 200,000 additional schools would be required in order to provide primary instruction for the whole of the population, and the cost of establishing such a number of schools appeared to be prohibitively great. In the nineties, however, the question was revived in a much more practical form. The great success attained by such zemstvos as those of Moscow and others, especially in the industrial districts of Russia, in reducing illiteracy within their borders encouraged the hope that this excellent example might be followed in the near future through-

out the Empire. It began to be pointed out (particularly by M. Vakhterov in his valuable and interesting brochure entitled "Vseobstchee Obrazovanie") that the period of school life was so much shorter in Russia than elsewhere that nothing like so many as 200,000 schools would be required in order to bring primary instruction of the existing type within the reach of every child in Russia whose parents desired it. It makes, of course, a great difference whether the normal period of school life be taken at seven years, as is the case in most Western countries, or at three, in accordance with the existing usage in Russia. In the former case the proportion of children of school age to the whole population would be not less than fifteen per cent. But we have said enough to show that a school with a course of seven years or even of five years is for the present an unrealisable ideal, at any rate for most of the rural districts of Russia. "School age" is so indefinite a term in Russia that it is difficult to fix precisely the percentage of children who are of school age at a given time; but taking the period of school life as the three years between eight and twelve (9, 10, 11), we may reckon the proportion of such children to the whole population as being 6·7 per cent. This figure is based on the investigations of M. Bortkevich, published by the Academy of Sciences. Stated in this way, the problem of extending the benefits of education to the whole population assumes much more manageable proportions. There are already districts in Russia where the proportion of children actually attending school approaches the percentage just stated. In Livonia, for example, the proportion is 6·3 per cent., in Iaroslav 5·3 per cent., in Tula and Olonets 5 per cent. The investigation of Bogolepov into the literacy of the children of school age in the Government of Moscow showed that in the district of Moscow 91 per cent., and in the district of Mozhaisk 83 per cent. of such children had been to school.* In the towns of Moscow, St. Petersburg and Odessa the provision of primary instruction is now nearly, if not quite, commensurate with the needs of the population.† These are, of course, some of the best districts.

* Of the recruits called up in 1898, 92 per cent. in the Baltic Provinces, 67 per cent. in the Government of Iaroslav, 80 per cent. in the Government of Moscow, and 73 per cent. in the Government of St. Petersburg, could read and write. The proportion for the whole of Russia was 44·5 per cent.

† In Moscow this result has been brought about quite recently by the municipality (*duma*), which chose this method of celebrating the fortieth anniversary of the grant of self-government to the towns and zemstvos. It is interesting to note that the chief promoter of this movement was Prof. Paul Vinogradoff, now Corpus Professor of Jurisprudence at Oxford. In a "Memorandum on the means of making primary instruction universally accessible in the town of Moscow," which was presented to the Moscow Duma in April, 1901, by Prof. Vinogradoff, as President of the Municipal Schools Commission, he pointed out that some 3,000 places needed still to be supplied in order to make the provision of educational facilities correspond to the requirements of the local population. The *Duma*, by a resolution passed on May 15th, 1901, adopted Prof. Vinogradoff's suggestion that the new schools necessary to supply the deficiency of school places should all be provided by 1904. According to communications which have appeared in the Russian press, the whole of the 3,000 places have now been supplied, though it is stated that 1,000 more are required in the suburbs of the city.

The average for the whole country is greatly reduced by the condition of things obtaining in some of the more backward governments, *e.g.*, Vilna and Astrakhan, with a school attendance respectively of 1·9 and 1·7 per cent. of the population. But the statistics prepared for the Paris Exhibition showed that of the whole population of the Russian Empire 3·2 per cent. were attending school during 1898. Taking the sexes separately, the figures work out at 4·8 per cent. for the male population, and 1·6 per cent. for the female. Roughly speaking, therefore, the extension of primary education to the whole population would involve doubling the existing school accommodation. This would provide for girls and boys alike. But, as we have seen already, public opinion among the peasantry themselves is not ripe for the universal instruction of girls. If, therefore, the supply of additional educational facilities be confined within the limits indicated by the presumed demand, the number of new schools required would be very much less than has just been suggested. Taking the present number of schools of all kinds as 80,000, it is probable that an additional 50,000 schools would make primary education accessible to all who desired it, even allowing for the probable contingency that the bringing of educational facilities nearer the homes of the children would greatly stimulate the demand for instruction in the case of girls.

To achieve at least this result has now become the recognised goal of educational progress in Russia. Very little is now heard of compelling attendance at school by legal sanctions. If obligatory instruction is still cherished as an ideal by a few enthusiasts, most educationists are content to regard it as at any rate unattainable during the lifetime of the present generation: while by others the whole subject is contemptuously dismissed as mere moonshine in relation to the actual conditions prevailing in rural Russia, the impossible roads in autumn, the deep snow in winter, the poverty of the parents, the difficulty of providing suitable clothing for the children, and the like. The phrase "obligatory instruction" has now given way to "universal instruction," or at least, "instruction accessible to all;" and in this form the subject is discussed with keen interest in educational circles in Russia. In 1896 an important Congress on Technical and Professional Education met at Moscow. The General Questions Section of this Congress discussed the subject of universal instruction, and came to the following conclusions, which are quoted here as representing the judgment of competent and practical educationists on this important question.

1. The Section considers it desirable to organise universal education in Russia.

2. This matter should remain within the competence of the public institutions of the *zemstvos* and the municipalities (a reference to the question then pending, but since decided, whether the whole work of primary education should not be handed over to the clergy); for this purpose financial assistance from the State is necessary.

3. An obligatory minimum should be imposed on local organs of administration in respect to the number of schools.

The third of these conclusions raises a question of fundamental importance. At present all such matters as the geographical distribution of schools, the size of classes, and the proportion of teachers to scholars are left to the option of the local bodies providing the schools, and are dealt with on very different lines in different localities. For example, at Saratov, though only 53·6 per cent. of the children of school age are under instruction, and though the municipality uses the schools twice a day for two different sets of scholars, the classes are stated to be over-crowded almost to the point of suffocation. The Kursk zemstvo, again, reckons a teacher to every sixty scholars, and one to every ninety in schools where all three divisions are under the charge of a single teacher. On the other hand, the zemstvo of the Government of Moscow fixes forty as the normal number of scholars for a single teacher, and allows the number to reach sixty only under very exceptional circumstances. The municipality of St. Petersburg fixes the normal number of children in a one-class school at fifty, modifying this arrangement within certain limits in schools with more than one teacher; and of late the normal size of classes in its schools has been little exceeded.* These varying standards greatly affect the question of making primary instruction universally accessible, at any rate in the minds of those who hold that care for efficiency should keep pace with the desire to increase the facilities of education. It is conceivable that a local body might, by sacrificing efficiency, achieve the ideal of universal instruction earlier than one which adopted a higher standard in respect of staffing, premises, equipment and the like. As a matter of fact, the tendency is the other way; it is found that the nearer a local body approaches to the ideal of universal instruction, the higher is the standard of efficiency it adopts in individual schools.

The question of the obligatory minimum of schools, and related matters, were therefore considered by a special Committee of the Section, and this Committee made the following suggestions, among others:—

1. Children of school age to be reckoned at 67 per 1,000 (varying from 60 to 80 according to locality).
2. Number of children per school to be taken at 40 to 60.
3. School radius not to exceed three versts, and in some places should be as low as two versts.
4. Minimum salary of teacher to be 240R–400R according to local circumstances: salary of religious instructor 30 R–60R.

Apart from the clearly expressed preference for the organs of local government as the bodies most fitted to undertake the organisation of universal instruction, there is little in the above proposals which can be described as controversial. As a statement of what it would be desirable for Russia to aim at, if means were forthcoming, they would probably command the general assent of all parties.

* These examples are borrowed from Professor Vinogradoff's report mentioned on page 329.

Two facts of the situation, then, may be stated as beyond question. First, the popular demand for instruction is much in advance of the existing supply of schools; and secondly, there is an ever-rising tide of sentiment and conviction on the part of cultivated society in favour of the utmost possible extension of primary education among the people. So far the conditions would appear to be more favourable for the introduction of universal instruction than they have ever been before. But difficulties arise when questions of ways and means come to be discussed.

The truly admirable results achieved in the domain of popular education by the most progressive zemstvos and municipalities and the tendency observable in many of the more backward local bodies to follow their lead at a greater or less interval, may at first sight suggest the conclusion that the zemstvos might confidently be left, out of their own resources supplemented by voluntary contributions, to increase the provision of schools to such an extent as to make primary instruction universally accessible. It is doubtful, however, whether such a conclusion would be justifiable in the actual circumstances of the case. It is at any rate not the view held by some of the most earnest members of the progressive section of educationists. Many persons who are naturally by no means inclined to under-rate the importance of the zemstvos in the public life of Russia doubt very much whether these local bodies have not in many cases almost reached the limit of their ability to advance the interests of primary education, and whether any but the richest of the zemstvos are in a position to provide schools for the whole of the population without a considerable subsidy from the State. M. Vakhterov, in the work referred to above (p. 329), goes so far as to express the view that the vain or exaggerated hopes placed by the friends of education upon the philanthropy of manufacturers and upon the public spirit of the organs of self-government, have been among the chief reasons which have hampered educational advance since the sixties. And it will be noted that the resolutions of the General Questions Section of the Congress of 1896 emphasise the necessity of obtaining a contribution from the State towards the cost of providing the additional schools.

Moreover, the competence of the zemstvos to deal effectively with the question of providing universal education has been very seriously limited by two acts of the central government both occurring in the last decade of the nineteenth century. The first of these was the handing over of the control of all "reading and writing" schools (*shkoly gramotnosti*) to the clergy. In view of the sparseness of the population over a great portion of Russia, it is clear that any scheme for making education universal must involve the creation of a large number of very small schools of the type of the *shkoly gramotnosti*. Some experiments made towards the close of the eighties in the Government of Smolensk and elsewhere will sufficiently indicate how such little schools might be connected with the general system of zemstvos' schools. They were established in the remoter districts with scattered population, and placed under the general direction

of the teacher of a neighbouring school established by the zemstvos or the Ministry. These little schools were taught in ordinary peasants' huts, and the peasants themselves provided fuel, light and other necessaries. The teachers were young persons from sixteen to twenty years of age generally selected by the teacher of the central school from among his former pupils. The cost of each school to the zemstvos was not more than about £4 a year. The teacher of the central school visited each school once a week or once a fortnight, gave model lessons, arranged about books and apparatus, and gave advice and direction generally, his position with regard to the affiliated schools being precisely analogous to that of the parish priest in relation to the *shkoly gramotnosti* under the Holy Synod. Then came the regulation of 1891, placing all such schools under the control of the clergy. The experiment of affiliating small schools to the central schools maintained by the zemstvos thus came to an abrupt end, and was made impossible for the future.

The second act of the central administration to which we have referred is the regulation issued by the Ministry of Finance in 1900, placing a fixed limit upon any further increase in the general expenditure of the zemstvos. The effect of this regulation is, of course, to prevent the zemstvos from greatly increasing the number of schools maintained by them. The most progressive zemstvos are comparatively little affected by it; but it bears very hardly in cases where there is more leeway to make up, as it leaves no room for repentance, but restricts the energies of the future within the limits set by the remissness of the past.

Nor is it at all likely that any large measure of financial support for the schools of the zemstvos will be forthcoming from the State. It is, so to speak, "a plank in the Liberal platform" in Russia to demand a larger appropriation of the resources derived by the State from taxation to purposes of internal progress in general, and of education in particular; but it is very doubtful whether any step taken by the Government to meet this demand would add to the funds at the disposal of the zemstvos. The whole policy of the Russian Government during recent years has been in the direction of increased centralisation, and of limiting still further the restricted powers conferred on the organs of local government by the legislation of the sixties. In accordance with this policy the practice of the Government has been to direct the flow of State subsidies in aid of primary education into channels where their application will remain entirely under the control of the central administration; hence the largely increased grants recently assigned to the church schools, administered by the Holy Synod, and to the model schools directly under the control of the Ministry of Public Instruction.

From all these considerations it would seem to follow that the zemstvos and municipalities are not, failing a change in the fiscal policy of the State in respect of the distribution of its expenditure, in a position to undertake the provision of universal instruction. The goal is far more likely to be reached as the result of the combined efforts of the zemstvos on the one hand, and the Holy Synod on the

other. The latter department possesses, as things now are, certain manifest advantages over the Ministry of Public Instruction for supplying the gaps in the present provision for primary education. It has the control of the *shkoly gramotnosti*; it was, until a very recent date, in a position of vantage with respect to the establishment of Sunday schools; and though it cannot count on any substantial or regular assistance from the local taxes levied by the zemstvos, it has the support of the public treasury. It is not probable that the provision of universal facilities for education will follow as the result of any definite act of the legislature; but there is reason to hope that it may be attained little by little and, it may be, sooner than some Russian friends of education now believe to be possible. Meantime it may be remarked that any sudden increase in the number of schools as the result of legislation would bring with it difficulties of its own, in view of the lack of qualified teachers to supply even the schools already in existence; and that even a gradual approach to the ideal of universal education would have to be accompanied by measures on the part of the State not only for greatly increasing the supply of teachers, but also for improving considerably their material position.

II. THE CONTROVERSY BETWEEN THE SCHOOLS OF THE CHURCH AND THOSE OF THE ZEMSTVOS.

We must now attempt to give some account of the main differences in organisation, curriculum and general spirit between the schools of the zemstvos and those of the church. Here we shall be treading on highly controversial ground; and the writer will therefore endeavour to make his statement of the questions at issue as objective as possible, leaving the reader to form his own opinion as to the side of the controversy on which the balance of advantage lies.

It is essential to a proper understanding of the differences between the two kinds of schools to realise at the outset that the questions debated in reference to them have very little in common with the controversy on the subject of religious teaching in the schools of England or France. There is no party in Russia which calls for purely secular teaching in the schools; there is no movement in favour of undenominational teaching; there is no outcry against the control of religious teaching by the church. Religious instruction is universal in Russia: the control of such instruction by the Holy Synod, at any rate in all purely Russian schools throughout the Empire, is absolute and unquestioned; every Russian child of the Orthodox faith is presumed to be taught religion by a priest of the Church* and according to a program sanctioned by the Church; and the right of entry to all schools, by whatever Department of State they may be administered, belongs to the clergyman of the parish. The epithet "sectlar" (*svetskii*) is sometimes applied by the church

* *De factó*, the lay teacher often gives the religious instruction in the absence of the religious teacher; but he has no legal right to do so, unless he has received the special authorisation of the eparchial authorities.

party to the schools of the zemstvos; but the word as thus used is very far from bearing the meaning which attaches to it in the West. By a *svetskaja shkola*, as a Russian clerical would use the term, is meant a school under secular control, or at most a school in which it is implied that secular teaching takes precedence of religious; but certainly not a school in which there is no religious teaching.

The most palpable external difference between the two types of schools is that just indicated, namely, the difference in organisation and control. The church schools are administered by ecclesiastics: those of the zemstvos by laymen. Lay elements undoubtedly enter into the composition of the various organs of administration under the Holy Synod, just as clerical representatives are found on the corresponding bodies acting under the Ministry of Public Instruction; but this does not alter the fact that the controlling power in relation to the schools of the Holy Synod is at every point in the hands of the clergy, and that in relation to the schools of the zemstvos it is in those of the laity. This distinction penetrates the whole of the two rival systems from summit to base, affecting the organisation of the humblest schools in the land. The Church school is a school in which the priest is master, giving his instructions as to secular and religious teaching alike to the lay teacher (where one is employed); but in the school of the zemstvos the position of the two men are almost exactly reversed; the priest enters the school as the assistant of the lay teacher for the performance of a specific duty, and the responsibility for the secular instruction rests solely with the latter. One frequently hears great resentment expressed by Russians of the clerical party at the position of subordination in which the clergyman is placed to the *gospodin uchitel* in the zemstvos' schools. The very different relation in which he stands to the teacher in the schools of the Holy Synod is perhaps the most striking evidence of the different conceptions of the aims of primary education which underlie the two rival systems.

The preference for clerical over lay supervision is such an essential feature of the educational system of the Holy Synod, that it is worth while to dwell for a moment on some of the reasons put forward in its support. The most obvious reason is, of course, the necessity for maintaining the special religious and ecclesiastical character of the teaching, which is described a few paragraphs later on. But there are, besides, some considerations of a general character on the strength of which the clerical party maintain that the parish clergy are the only possible supervisors of primary education in the more distant parts of Russia. We must distinguish between inspection on behalf of the central government, and supervision on the part of local persons interested in the schools of a particular neighbourhood. It is maintained that the distances in Russia are so great and the areas, which are necessarily under the charge of a single State inspector, so enormous that the supervision which can be exercised by these officials is reduced to a mere

form. Under existing conditions the State Inspector of the Ministry of Public Instruction can visit each individual school only about once in two years. Obviously, therefore, he can exercise little effective control over the character and tendency of the teaching. A more real supervision is capable of being exercised by educated persons living in the neighbourhood and interested in the school, if such are available. But here we have to take into account the effect of certain modern tendencies in reducing the number of educated lay persons habitually residing in the country in Russia. Increased facilities of locomotion, the attractiveness of city life, with all the other influences which have gone to produce that international modern phenomenon known as the "drift to the towns," have enormously increased absenteeism among the provincial Russian gentry, and have at the same time, it is to be feared, done much to relax the bonds of sympathy and mutual comprehension between them and the peasant class. A still more serious and far-reaching change is being brought about by the economic revolution which, year by year, transfers more of the land of Russia out of the hands of the old noblesse into those of new men, merchants, innkeepers, usurers, Jews, and the like, many of whom insufficiently comprehend or are incapable of performing the traditional duties of a landed gentry, and—what is of capital importance from the Orthodox point of view—are often divided in religious belief from the peasantry by whom they are surrounded. Finally, an important factor in the situation is the distrust felt by the Church of the secular spirit of the educated laity generally. Explain it as one may, there can be no denial of the fact that the educated and half educated classes of Russia, though outwardly observant of the forms of religion, tend more and more to indifferentism in matters of belief. This is but one manifestation of that cleavage between the *intelligentsia* and the masses which is so striking a phenomenon in the life of modern Russia. We are far from saying that there are not shining examples of piety and zeal for the national faith to be found among the educated laity of Russia. But the existence of a minority of fervent believers does not alter the fact that the tendency towards indifferentism among the Russian laity as a whole is sufficiently pronounced to make them incompetent supervisors of primary education in the eyes of a church anxious above all things that the instruction given in the schools of the people should be penetrated through and through with the spirit of Orthodox Christianity.

When all these considerations are taken into account, it is not difficult to see why the parish priest, who is never an absentee, and is bound by every tie of interest and conviction to the church which he serves, should be considered by the clerical party to be everywhere the best supervisor of primary education, and in some districts the only possible guardian of its interests, as that party conceives them. And it is equally easy to see why the State, in its desire to strengthen its effective control over the teaching in primary schools scattered throughout the vast Russian Empire

should have thought it good policy during the past twenty years to favour the schools of the church at the expense of those of the zemstvos.

We shall see later on what reply is made by the critics of the church school system to the considerations just advanced in its favour. Meanwhile we proceed to consider the differences in curriculum and general spirit which are observable as between the two types of schools.

It has already been explained that the main features of the curriculum are the same for all primary schools in Russia. It might certainly seem at first that a course of instruction confined to religion, Church Slavonic, the reading and writing of the Russian language, arithmetic, and church singing (as is the case in the great majority of primary schools in Russia), would leave very little scope for differences of instruction to assert themselves. Such differences as do exist are differences of proportion and emphasis. More prominence is given in church schools than in those of the zemstvos to Church Slavonic and church singing. It is constantly asserted by the Church party that the teaching of Church Slavonic is slurred over or neglected in the schools of the zemstvos. This accusation is indignantly repudiated by the friends of the latter, and it is quite possible to accept their assurances, whilst still believing that the *relative* importance of Church Slavonic is rated somewhat lower in their schools than in those of the church. The use of Church Slavonic is so intimately bound up with the religious life of the Russian people that its elevation to the place of honour in the curriculum of the Church schools follows almost as a matter of course. Moreover, the strong vein of Slavophil sentiment, which shows itself in the utterances and opinions of church writers would, of itself, incline them to attach very high value to a language which, socially and politically, as well as in a religious sense, forms the strongest bond of union between all Orthodox Slavonic peoples. Finally, it is reasonable to suppose that the teachers of the Church schools, in so far as they are drawn from the ecclesiastical seminaries and girls' schools, would be especially competent to teach Church Slavonic. As regards other subjects of the curriculum, it only remains to mention that the practice of explanatory reading is discouraged in Church schools, on the ground that attempts to give information *de omni re scibili* are out of place in a school with a course of three years only.

The difference between the church school and the school of the zemstvos, however, is not so much one of curriculum or method as of general spirit. The aim of the church school is to permeate the whole of the teaching with the religious spirit. This idea is quite clearly expressed in the following passage occurring in a recent official document of the Holy Synod ("Explanatory Memorandum to Project of Law relating to Church Parochial Schools"): "The character of the church school is determined by the fact that it not only possesses among the subjects entering into its curriculum one bearing the title of 'Religion,' but that the whole of the

instruction must be penetrated by the church spirit and gravitate towards the church as the centre of the religious and moral life of the local community." Religious and moral influence is thus the first aim of the school; intellectual development is sought only in so far as it is accompanied by spiritual and moral growth. Moreover, it is affirmed that the results aimed at can only be obtained by closely associating the school with the Orthodox national Church. "Upon what principles does the Church school base its public instruction?" says a writer in the Church organ, *Narodnoe Obrazovanie* (March, 1897). "Upon those traditional principles of the Russian national consciousness—Orthodoxy, autocracy, and nationality—which determine individual, social and national life. By what means does it fulfil the tasks it has undertaken? By uniting the school with the church. If a child has begun to love the church, has grown habituated to it, has learned to obey its laws, that is enough to make him throughout life a faithful son of the church, a loyal subject of the Tsar, a true citizen of his country. But it is only through the external organisation which the Church school has received that this union with the church is made possible." The school is intended, in fact, to serve as the vestibule of entrance into the church; its function is to impart to the children of the parish under the guidance of the priest as the "shepherd of souls and the father of his parishioners," the knowledge necessary to enable them to fulfil their duties to the church, the Tsar, and their native country.* The definitely Orthodox character of the instruction has always been strongly insisted on, as may be seen, for example, by comparing the definition of the aim of the school in the Regulations of 1884, by which the church parochial system was established, with the corresponding statement of aim in the Law of 1874, under which the primary schools of the zemstvos are administered.

The ideals of the Church party are perhaps most clearly revealed by their criticisms of the schools of their opponents. Briefly stated, these criticisms amount to this; that the spirit of the zemstvos' schools is too western; that they are too much under the influence of German and French ideas of pedagogy, which are objected to as being too one-sidedly secular and setting too high a value on the intellectual aim of the school. "The zemstvos' schools," say the Church party, "train the mind but do not develop the character; ours, on the other hand, give more weight to the religious than to the secular element in education: our aim is not primarily intellectual but spiritual." "We hope," said one of the leaders of the Church party to the writer, "to develop a new

* Compare an article by Southey in the "Quarterly Review" for October, 1811, which adumbrates an educational system for England curiously parallel to that of the Russian Church parochial schools—"The church and school establishments ought" says he "to be intimately connected; the parish priest should be the superintendent of the parish school; and when a race of men have been educated for the purpose, it would be well if the clerk were always the schoolmaster. (p. 303.)

national school of pedagogy, of which Rachinski and Ilminski will be regarded as the founders." Underlying the whole church position in the controversy may be recognised the assumption that the Church school is the more national, and that it is the school which the peasant instinctively recognises as answering to his spiritual and intellectual requirements.

To sum up, then, the gist of the claim made on behalf of the Church schools as compared with those maintained by the zemstvos is that they are more national, more religious, and better supervised. The friends of the zemstvos' schools join issue with their opponents on each of these points, meeting the allegations of the latter for the most part with a vigorous and indignant denial. "How can it be maintained," they ask, "that the schools of the zemstvos are less national than those of the Church when both have the same curriculum, settled in each case by the supreme authority of the State in accordance with the recognised needs of the population at large? And how can it be affirmed that the Church school is *par excellence* the school the peasant wants, in face of the fact that the Church schools are less well attended than the schools of the zemstvos? The peasant knows quite well what he is about and prefers to send his child eight or nine versts to a good school rather than half the distance to a poor one. That is the reason why the schools of the zemstvos contain on an average 71·5 children as against an average of 36·5 attending the Church schools."

This retort from statistics is a very telling one, but it should be borne in mind, on the other hand, that the facts are at least susceptible of another explanation. The zemstvos being the first in the field, and having a start of nearly twenty years in the matter of the provision of schools over the Church, were able to supply the larger villages and more populous districts with educational facilities, leaving only the districts with scattered population to be occupied by the Church schools. How far this explanation may account for the striking difference between the attendance at the two kinds of schools it is difficult to say; but in any case it is clear that the average of children in attendance at Church schools must be very materially reduced by the returns from the *shkoly gramotnosti*, many of which contain no more than a dozen scholars.

The assertion that the interests of religious instruction are comparatively neglected in the schools of the zemstvos is also met with an emphatic negative. On this point we cannot do better than refer the reader to an article by M. K. Tikhomirov in the May-June number of the *Russkaya Shkola* for 1897. M. Tikhomirov replies to the charge in question by quoting from the "Instructions to the primary teachers of the Educational District of Vilna," which have been in force since 1871, and which certainly do not leave the impression that the persons who drew up these instructions were indifferent to the claims of religious instruction. We quote in full M. Tikhomirov's account of the way in which the day is spent in the schools of this Educational District, not only because it gives a good idea of the place which religious observances

occupy even in the so-called secular school, but also because it incidentally affords an interesting glimpse into village school life in general :

The following is the regular program of the school day, as established by long usage, *e.g.*, in the schools of the north-western part of Russia. In the morning all the children assemble for prayers ; the proper morning prayers (with others) are read and sung by all in unison, the usual arrangement being for one of the scholars (in a fixed rotation) to read them in a loud and distinct voice whilst all the rest, including the teacher, repeat them in a whisper or undertone ; but in some schools we have heard the prayers read by all the scholars together in unison. Before the beginning of the lessons "the prayer before study" is read and generally sung, after lessons "the prayer after study" and the grace before meat (the children are dismissed for dinner) ; after dinner the grace after meat and again the "prayer before study" ; when lessons are over, the usual "prayer after study," and where most of the scholars are day-pupils not living in the common lodging, the evening prayers also are read. After rest and play, the children assemble at 6 p.m. in the classroom, and under the supervision and guidance of the teacher they prepare the lessons which have been explained during school and set for the following day. At 8 or 8.30 p.m. comes supper, before and after which a prayer is sung or read, and after this evening prayers are read and sung in the way described for morning prayers ; then lights are put out in the classroom and all go to bed. Before he himself retires to rest it is the teacher's duty to go round the living rooms attached to the school and assure himself that everything is right and in good order. On Sunday and feast days in all schools the scholars are obliged to attend divine service, where they read and sing under the guidance of their teacher.

As M. Tikhomirov remarks, this is scarcely the description of a godless school, nor of one in which the training tends to alienate the children from the Church.

With regard to the question of supervision, the opponents of Church schools have many objections to allege against the clergy as local managers of schools. They are, say they, not seldom totally unfitted by previous training or by personal character to supervise the teaching work of the parish ; they are in many instances quite apathetic towards the whole movement in favour of Church schools, which did not originate with the rank and file of the clergy, but is largely a movement from above ; and even if this were not so, the number of their other duties would prevent their devoting a proper amount of time to the schools. Finally, even allowing that the Orthodox clergy are the best possible supervisors of the work of the schools in the districts with an Orthodox population, this is not true of districts (*e.g.*, in South-West Russia) in which the population is predominantly Roman Catholic, and in which the number of Orthodox clergy is consequently very small.

The competency of the clergy to undertake the charge of popular education is discussed and defended by M. Rachinski in a special article reprinted in his *Selekaia Shkola*, and the question is in some respects such a delicate one that it seems better to give here a summary of M. Kachinski's points than to attempt any independent treatment of the subject. It should be premised that M. Rachinski is dealing with the qualifications of the clergy not only as managers of schools but as teachers, for it must not be forgotten that about

20 per cent. of the Church parochial schools are taught by the clergy without lay assistance. The objections he is replying to are based on the grounds stated above, namely, (a) the insufficient preparation of the clergy for the work, (b) the number of their other duties, and (c) their moral qualities.

(a) In reply to the first point he calls attention to the fact that in the ecclesiastical seminaries from which the clergy are mainly recruited pedagogy is now made a regular subject of the curriculum in the two highest classes. Many of the clergy after leaving the seminary have spent as many as five or six years in the work of teaching before taking Holy Orders. Moreover, the office of deacon is frequently filled by ex-teachers—and this is becoming a great object of ambition among teachers, as it may lead up to full priest's orders. Hence it follows that the clergy of the future will all have more or less pedagogical knowledge and experience.

(b) As regards the pressure of other duties, M. Rachinski says that the deacon can perfectly well teach the ordinary subjects of the curriculum, if the priest will not take him away from the school on week-days, as he has no necessity to do; and the priest can, and ought to, teach religion and exercise general supervision over the work of the school. The priest can also perfectly well look after the *shkoly gramotnosti*, as he has in any case to visit the hamlets of his parish in which these schools are carried on.

(c) With regard to the moral defects alleged against some of the clergy, he remarks in the first place that the clergy are not more vicious than the laity of any other profession, but acknowledges that they ought to set a good example to the laity. He points out, however, that whereas the clerical profession should partake more than any other of the nature of a vocation, it is in Russia practically hereditary; that the training of the clergy leaves much to be desired; and that they suffer greatly from the lack of moral support from the absentee nobility and from the educated middle class. Under the circumstances he wonders that the cases of criminous and neglectful clergy are as infrequent as they are. He says it is the general experience, with which his own observation coincides, that the number of conscientious earnest priests is on the increase; that the growing intelligence and curiosity of the people, the multiplication of schools, and the call to the clergy to assist in the work of education have all had the effect of awakening them to a sense of their responsibilities; and that, therefore, the future is full of hope.

The Church schools are open to other criticisms besides those which have reference to the competency of the clergy to supervise or conduct them. One undoubted source of weakness to them is the unstable character of the financial basis on which they rest. Their support must always in the main depend on local voluntary contributions. The ordinary funds at the disposal of the Holy Synod are already severely taxed by the strain of having to find

maintenance for some 45,000 married clergymen and their families; and the special State subsidies voted towards the support of the schools from time to time are a somewhat precarious resource. Hence it is maintained that the schools which have been already opened, generally in hired buildings, possess no guarantee of permanence; that the teachers are miserably paid; and that many of the schools themselves are inefficient, or exist only on paper. Some go so far as to maintain that the existence of the whole system depends entirely on the energetic personality of M. Pobedonostsev, and that it would crumble to pieces at once were it not for the stimulus supplied to the clergy by their knowledge that zeal in opening new schools is at present the surest way to promotion. Of course all this is strenuously denied by the advocates of the Church schools, who maintain that the only foundation for the assertion that the schools exist only on paper is found in the admitted fact that many of the *shkoly gramotnosti* have only a temporary existence, being opened as the need for them arises, and closed again when they have served their purpose.

Without presuming to pass judgment on any of these points let us, in conclusion, ask what are the great questions of principle which appear to underly the whole controversy. It seems to the writer that two such questions are involved; one moral or pedagogical, affecting the aims of instruction, the other political, concerned with its organisation; and that on both these questions agreement is difficult or impossible because they represent phases of wider controversies affecting the whole conception of religious and social life. The question of the place to be assigned to religion in education raises the most momentous issues of life and conduct; and it may well be that the difference of opinion will be permanent which divides those who hold to the mediæval view that religion should dominate the whole mental life, from those who adopt the more modern conception that the spheres of religion and knowledge are separate. Failing some adjustment of these conflicting ideals, it would seem to be inevitable that both should be embodied in systems of education working side by side, and each acting as the complement of the other. Whether this will be the solution ultimately adopted depends on the action of forces the relative strength of which is at present incalculable. In the political sphere the educational controversy brings us face to face with a similar conflict of ideals. The whole history of the revival of Church schools has to be understood in connection with the general trend towards centralisation, and the strengthening of the bureaucracy which has characterised the reigns of the last two Russian Emperors. The opposition of Russian Liberals to the educational system of the Holy Synod has derived much of its vehemence and force from their conviction that this elaborate organisation, based on the negation of the elective principle, and pressing the whole machinery of the Church into the service of the State for the supervision of popular instruction, constitutes a serious set-back to the principle of self-government which had received a limited recognition in the domain of

education during the reign of the second Alexander. There are signs, however, that this tendency towards centralisation has now reached its limit. During the last few years the tide of opinion in favour of increased local control in education of all grades has been steadily rising, and has affected the attitude of the Government itself towards questions of higher and secondary instruction. What would be the effect of any change of policy on the much larger questions of primary education, and in particular upon the relations between the two rival systems of schools, it is for the future alone to decide.

III.—THE DEMANDS OF THE FRIENDS OF THE ZEMSTVOS' SCHOOLS.

It remains to give some account of the movement of opinion just referred to, in so far as it affects the administration of education generally. Discussion of the administrative problems of education has of late been very active in Russian society; and it is impossible not to perceive that the drift of public opinion is very decidedly in one direction. The criticisms of the existing system may be directed against this or that detail—against the position of dependence in which the teachers of the zemstvos' schools are placed upon the State Inspector, who may, for any reason that seems sufficient to him, refuse to confirm a teacher in his post, or insist on his dismissal by the School Council,—against the inadequate representation of the zemstvos which provide the schools upon the School Councils which control them,—against the consequent inability of the local organs of self-government to adapt local education to local needs,—against the limitation of the power of the local authorities to extend or otherwise modify the school course,—against the restrictions above noted on the competence of the localities to tax themselves beyond a fixed limit for the support of their schools, or to maintain schools of more than one type and so on. But the positive demand based on these criticisms is always the same, viz., that a large measure of the control now vested in the State officials shall be transferred to the local elected authorities.

And it should be noted that the demand of the reform party, as of late formulated, goes far beyond the mere removal of restrictions now imposed by the State upon the competence of the zemstvos, though even this would mean a great deal. It would, for example, involve a considerable change in the existing order of things, if the zemstvos obtained a majority, instead of a minority, representation upon the School Councils; if they secured the absolute right of appointing their teachers, uncontrolled by the State officials; if the fixed limit to expenditure were removed; and if they were allowed a greater measure of freedom to adjust their school courses to local requirements. But the program of reform advocated by many responsible educationists is much more advanced than this. The demand, for example, is now frequently heard that new sources of local taxation shall be placed at the disposal of the

zemstvos, for educational and other purposes; that the moneys now disbursed by the State in aid of primary education shall be administered by the zemstvos, subject only to some such control as is exercised by the British Treasury over the expenditure of Parliamentary grants; that the zemstvos shall be entrusted with the supervision of all existing primary schools, whether secular or otherwise, within their respective areas, and that the whole work of further promoting and extending popular instruction shall be left entirely to them.

It does not fall within the scope of this report to enter upon a discussion of these proposals, or even to describe them further in detail. It will be sufficient to append here a translation of the text of a document which seems to the writer to contain the most authoritative recent exposition of the program of the party of reform, viz., the resolutions passed by the Tenth Section ("Schools and Courses for working men and their children") of the Technical Congress of 1903-1904.

RESOLUTIONS OF THE TENTH SECTION OF THE TECHNICAL CONGRESS OF 1903-4 (SCHOOLS AND COURSES FOR WORKING MEN AND THEIR CHILDREN).

1. The growth of industry and the increased productiveness of labour stand in direct dependence upon the development of general education, without which professional instruction does not attain its object.

2. In order to promote the increase of national wealth, which depends immediately upon the productivity of the worker's labour, it is urgently necessary to introduce universal instruction at the earliest possible moment.

3. The organisation of universal instruction should be left to the organs of self-government in town and country (municipalities and zemstvos).

4. In those localities where there are no such organs of self-government, universal instruction can only be attained on condition of their creation.

5. In order to realise the ideal of universal instruction it is necessary (a) to abrogate the law fixing a limit to local taxation by the zemstvos, (b) to open up new sources of taxation to the zemstvos, and (c) to alter the present system of local taxation.

6. In order to hasten the realisation of this ideal it is necessary to alter the existing constitution of the zemstvos so as to allow of a more regular system of representation, to enlarge the independence and competence of the institutions of self-government, and to introduce a smaller unit of local government.

7. Schools maintained by grants from the Treasury (village schools, schools of the Ministry, urban primary schools, Church schools, etc.) should be transferred to the control of the zemstvos and municipalities along with the sums allotted for their support by the Imperial Treasury.

8. It is necessary that the funds now placed at the disposal of Curators of Educational Districts for the promotion of primary education should be distributed with the concurrence of the provincial zemstvos.

9. The rights of public bodies maintaining schools should be extended so as to permit of their supervising not only the financial but also the educational side of the schools' work.

10. Independently of the development of zemstvos' schools for children, there should be established in connection with factories and works (and also in industrial districts) an adequate number of evening and Sunday schools for adults, giving instruction both in general and technical subjects. Such schools should not be restricted to the curricula of schools for children.

11. The existing organisation of School Councils should be altered, and the project of reform should be drafted with the concurrence of the zemstvos and municipalities.

12. Teachers of primary schools should be associated in the organisation and administration of education by the establishment in connection with the zemstvos and municipalities of education committees consisting of elected representatives of the teachers.

13. For the immediate local supervision of the schools elective school committees should be organised.

14. Instruction in primary schools should be given in the local language of the people.

15. The summoning of an all-Russian Congress of persons engaged in primary education is necessary at the earliest possible date.

16. The variety of natural conditions prevailing in different localities of Russia precludes the possibility of a common, uniform type of school.

17. The secondary school should form a direct continuation of the lower school, and its requirements for admission should correspond to the results of the instruction given in the latter.

18. The primary school, like every school of general education, should follow a single aim—to aid the development of abstract thinking. It is necessary that the idea of human individuality should be made clear to the child attending such a school, and that he should be aided to impose a conscious limit to the arbitrariness of human actions.

19. The Russian primary school cannot, without being untrue to its own proper vocation, carry technical knowledge to the people.

20. With a view to the attainment of a higher general level of intellectual development on the part of the pupils of the primary school and to their better preparation for the acquisition of special knowledge, the revision of the existing programs and the extension of the course to four years is necessary.

21. A four-years' course of instruction may be introduced without any change in the existing legislation.

22. A four years' course of instruction should not involve any extension of the existing programs and examination requirements.

23. The Model Program of 1897 should be locally revised in concert with educationists of repute, representatives of organs of local self-government and teachers. The model programs so revised should have no binding force.

24. Compulsory examinations should be abolished in schools.

25. Teachers in primary schools should be permitted freedom of action and their legal position should be better safeguarded.

26. All kinds of punishments and rewards should be abolished, as being opposed to the fundamental principles of school education and training.

27. School savings banks should be done away with in view of their evil influence on the morals of the scholars.

28. General questions of education in future Technical Congresses should receive open and thorough discussion in a special section.

29. Societies for the spread of technical knowledge should have the right to act in the sphere of general education to the extent to which they find it necessary and possible.

CHAPTER IV.

SECONDARY EDUCATION IN RUSSIA AND ITS PROBLEMS.

I.—INTRODUCTORY.

The purpose of this chapter is to throw into relief some of the most important aspects of public secondary education in Russia, and to give some account of the chief questions which are now being discussed in relation thereto. Many of these questions are, in their main features, identical with those which are occupying the attention of educationists in other civilised countries; others are peculiar to the Russian Empire. In either case the special national factors which affect the consideration of the questions at issue are of the first importance. The aims of education, so far as they are concerned with the fundamental, unchanging needs of the human spirit, are, broadly speaking, everywhere the same. Nevertheless, certain parts of the educational problem stand to each other in different relations when viewed from differing national standpoints, and the importance of the individual parts in relation to the whole problem also varies greatly in accordance with the social organisation, the political institutions, the historical, geographical and economic conditions, of different countries. If national education is everywhere affected by these considerations, it is especially important to bear them in mind in the case of Russia, the circumstances of whose history and present position differ so widely from those of the rest of the nations of Europe. An English reader in particular would find Russian education a perplexing study if he failed to take into account the very different conditions under which the educational systems of Russia and England respectively have taken their present shape. To a German student the difficulty of the Russian system is by no means so great. The educational nomenclature which he finds in use reminds him at every point of that of his own country, from which much of it is in fact borrowed; the Russian system of secondary schools has been largely organised upon German models and follows German categories; the educational literature of Russia expresses itself for the most part in terms of German thought. Nor is it merely in respect of matters of external organisation and terminology that Russian education reproduces German characteristics; the likeness between the Russian and German systems goes deeper, and rests ultimately upon certain similarities in the political conditions of the two countries, among which may be specially mentioned the great part which the control of the State plays in the social and political life of both.

II.—COMPARISON BETWEEN THE RUSSIAN SCHOOLS AND THOSE OF OTHER CONTINENTAL COUNTRIES.

But even as compared with Germany, the conditions of Russian education present not a few peculiar features. The most striking of these are summed up in an official memorandum accompanying the project for the reform of the gymnasia in 1871. The passage in question deals with the reasons for extending the course of the gymnasia from seven to eight years. After pointing out that the course of foreign gymnasia usually extends over a period of not less than nine years, the memorandum proceeds:—

“Foreign gymnasia also enjoy many other advantages in comparison with our own. There the social *milieu* fills up many educational gaps left by the school, whereas with us, on the contrary, the school is compelled to carry on a struggle against the lack of educative elements in the social environment. Further, foreign countries possess excellent text-books and apparatus and admirably prepared teachers, whilst our gymnasia are greatly lacking in both of these. Finally, the curriculum of our gymnasia, if we are not to mutilate it by arbitrarily excluding from it its most essential and educative elements, exceeds in scope that of other countries. For example, in other countries it is possible to rest content with the study of the mother tongue in the form which it has assumed in literature; we, on the other hand, with a view not only to a more thorough study of our own language and a fuller acquaintance with the literature of our native country, but also for the satisfaction of our religious needs, must study Church Slavonic alongside of Russian. Moreover, in other countries there is a possibility (of which advantage is always taken) of studying universal history in immediate connection with that of the native country, whilst we are deprived of this possibility, at any rate until the beginning of the eighteenth century. And lastly, whereas in foreign gymnasia it is for the most part considered sufficient to study one modern foreign language, with us it is necessary to afford the pupil the opportunity at least of learning two languages, French and German.”

This passage, though written nearly a generation ago, may still serve, with slight modifications, as a brief but accurate summary of the chief permanent conditions which distinguish Russian education from its German prototype. A comparison with English or American systems of secondary instruction will reveal differences of a much more fundamental character, and to this we shall return presently. Meantime a few words of comment on the points mentioned in the passage just quoted will serve to bring out more clearly the differences between the Russian and other continental systems, and will thus prepare the English reader to understand how Russian ideas of secondary education differ from those with which he is most familiar. Taking the various points in order, we have first to notice:—

(1) The difference in the out-of-school surroundings of the pupils attending the gymnasia and real-schools. There can be no doubt that taken as a whole the boys attending the secondary day-schools of Russia are drawn from a lower social stratum than those of England or France, and are accustomed to less intellectual surroundings than those of Germany. The reasons for this fact are not far to seek. Neither the children of the aristocracy of birth, nor those of the higher officials, attend the gymnasia as a rule; the former are educated for the most part by private tutors, the latter in

special schools open only to the nobility. For the rest, though it is no longer accurate to say, as might have been said with truth before the emancipation, that there is no native middle class in Russia, it is perfectly true to assert that a cultured middle class is only in process of formation. The schools and the Universities are themselves among the most potent instruments in the creation of this cultivated middle class; the increase of wealth as the result of the development of trade and industry is also a powerful influence operating in the same direction; but these causes have not been at work in combination long enough to produce in Russia the social results which they have invariably produced in the Western countries. As to the actual degree of culture of the middle class which is thus being formed in Russia, it would be difficult to make any positive statement, which would be equally true of all its component elements, drawn as they are from the ranks of the poorer officials, the *intelligentsia* (or educated class), and the families of the clergy on the one hand, and from the mercantile classes on the other; but it is safe to say that the average of culture is lower on the whole than in the middle class of Germany or France, and that in so far as the children attending the gymnasia come of middle class families, the influences of their home life are on the whole less intellectual and refined than those to which children of the same class in either of these two Western countries are habituated. But many of the pupils of the Russian secondary schools do not belong to this class. Probably every gymnasium or real-school contains a contingent, representing in some cases a considerable proportion of the whole number, of pupils drawn from the poorest families, who are attracted to the secondary school by the military exemptions and other privileges attaching to the possession of a "certificate of maturity," but who would be entirely unable, without the help of bursaries or other pecuniary assistance, even to pay the school fees. The proportion of such pupils enormously increased after the sixties, and in spite of the Government circular of 1887, raising the school fees, and excluding the children belonging to certain defined classes from the gymnasia, it is still very large. Some indication of the poverty of the pupils in the secondary schools is afforded by the fact that many of them are under the necessity of earning their school fees by giving lessons to younger boys.

"In every gymnasium," says Count Kapnist (*Klassicism*, p. 38), "especially in the provinces, there are a number of pupils who from the time they reach the sixth, the fifth, or even the fourth class, earn their own means of subsistence by coaching (*repetitorstoom*) and other occupations. These young people, who are often no more than children, belong to the poorest families, live under the most unfavourable conditions, and spend two, three, or more hours a day in assisting their more fortunately placed companions in their school tasks, whilst at the same time pursuing their own studies, going through and completing their course."⁴ To sum up, therefore, a large number, though not the whole, of the pupils attending the secondary day schools of Russia, are drawn

from families distinctly below the intellectual and social level of those which send their sons to the corresponding schools in the Western countries, whilst a considerable minority, amounting probably in many cases to one-third of the whole number, belong to the poorest classes of the population. The home life of many of these latter is spent among surroundings which not only do not conduce to high intellectual development, but are often even incompatible with good physical health.

The effect which the prevalence of these conditions cannot fail to have upon the life of the school is obvious. Not only do the pupils lack, in great measure, the wise direction and stimulus to intellectual effort which a cultivated home is capable of giving, and which, when it is given, so greatly facilitates the work of the teacher, but the want of intelligent appreciation on the part of parents of the work which their children are doing in school is also fatal to the existence of that harmony of aim between the school and the home on which the highest efficiency of any system of education must always depend. No one who realises how much the success of German education depends upon the intelligent interest of German society in the schools of the State, and upon the extent to which the influences of the school are seconded and reinforced by those of the home, or who understands how relatively large a part is played in the education of English middle-class youth by influences wholly independent of the school, can fail to see how heavily handicapped the Russian schools must be so long as they continue to draw their pupils so largely from the uncultured classes. There is, of course, a bright side to the picture which must not be left out of sight. The eagerness of the poorer classes for secondary education, standing as it does in such marked contrast with the state of things which prevailed in Russia only a few generations ago, is in itself a most encouraging and hopeful sign for the future, since it cannot but result in such a general diffusion of intellectual interests among all ranks of society, as will ultimately, and perhaps very shortly, place Russia on an equality in respect of educational conditions with the most cultivated nations of Europe.

(2) The second point referred to in the passage we have quoted is (*i.e.*, was in 1871) the deficiency of suitable text-books and properly prepared teachers. The lack of text-books has now ceased to be a real difficulty. During the last thirty years the output of school books of all kinds has enormously increased, and is now more than sufficient in quantity to meet the demand. The difficulty of obtaining a good supply of teachers, which has always been one of the main hindrances to educational success in Russia, still continues to give trouble, though not to the same extent as formerly. The introduction of foreign instructors *en masse* to teach classics in the gymnasia affords a striking proof of the extent to which this difficulty was felt in the seventies, when the sudden and rapid multiplication of schools, especially of the classical type, gave rise to a demand for teachers which the Russian Universities were unable fully to supply. Quite half of the classical masters

employed in Russian schools in 1880 were persons of non-Russian extraction (mostly Austrian Slavs), whose teaching, at any rate until they had become fully familiar with the Russian language, cannot have been thoroughly effective, however well-equipped they may have been in respect of knowledge of the subject they professed. Count Kapnist, writing in 1890, stated that "at the present time the great majority of these teachers, though they have retained an incorrect accent, have nevertheless sufficiently mastered Russian, if not to be able to teach it, at any rate not to permit their pupils to make serious blunders."* This, however, is faint praise, and there can be little doubt that the employment of foreign masters in such large numbers has told greatly against the success of the higher forms of classical teaching in the Russian gymnasia. By this time the difficulty of obtaining native classical teachers has been practically overcome, as the historico-philological faculties in the Russian Universities have proved equal to supplying vacancies as they arose in the gymnasia. The real and professional schools have always been reasonably well supplied with native teachers.

Apart from the question of supply, the two main difficulties which remain to be solved in connection with the teaching staff of the Russian Secondary Schools are (1) the question of remuneration, and (2) the question of professional training. With regard to the first point, there seems to be a general agreement that the present scale of remuneration, which was fixed thirty years ago, is not sufficiently high either to attract the best talent into the teaching profession or to enable teachers to give their undivided attention to their school duties. Putting the matter briefly, an assistant teacher in a State Secondary school, teaching for the thirty hours a week which are accepted as the normal limit, receives 1,830 roubles a year (say £190) for the first five years of his service, after which his salary is increased by 150 roubles, thus reaching 1,980 roubles (£206) a year in all. Extra payments, *e.g.*, for correcting exercises and acting as "class tutor" (*klassnyi nastavnik*) may raise his remuneration to 2,230 roubles a year, but in all ordinary cases, so long as he continues to be an assistant teacher, his salary remains as above stated from the sixth to the twenty-sixth year of his service, when he receives his pension. Directors and inspectors are paid on a somewhat different scale, but substantially their position is not very much better, the former receiving as a rule 2,000 roubles (£208) and the latter 1,500 roubles (£156) a year, with residence in each case. If these figures be compared with the corresponding statistics (so far as these are available) for English Secondary Schools, it will appear that while the material position of an English headmaster is as a rule better, and often very much better, than that of a Russian director or inspector, an English assistant master actually receives less on an average than his Russian confrère.† That is not to say,

* *Klassitsizm*, p. 57.

† If the statistics of salaries given on pp. 200, 210 of the Report of the English Commission on Secondary Education may be taken as typical, the

however, that the Russian assistant teacher is adequately remunerated for his difficult and exhausting labour. An income of less than 2,000 roubles a year may be sufficient to enable him to live in a manner suitable to his position, so long as he remains a bachelor; it is wholly inadequate to the needs of a married man with a family. With the most rigid economy a moderate-sized middle-class household cannot be maintained, at any rate in the larger towns of Russia, on less than 3,000 roubles a year.* A married teacher is therefore under the absolute necessity of earning on an average an extra thousand roubles a year, in addition to his official salary, in order to keep soul and body together anyhow and provide proper education

average salary of an English assistant master is about £135 a year. In comparing Russian salaries with English, however, it must be borne in mind that the secondary teachers of Russia are (modern language masters excepted), almost to a man University graduates, while English teachers of the corresponding class are not necessarily so.

* The statements in the text, which are largely based upon data supplied in an article in the *Russkaia Shkola* for November, 1895, from the pen of M. J. Mohr, director of one of the gymnasia of St. Petersburg, may be illustrated by the following table of the cost of living in one of the larger towns of Russia. This table is taken from a paper by M. A. Plesterer, printed in the "Transactions of the Moscow Pedagogical Society for 1900."

Items of Expenditure.	Un-married.	MARRIED.				
		No children.	1-2 children.	3-4 children.	5-6 children.	7 children or more.
	R	R	R	R	R	R
Residence	300	400	500	600	600	700
Firewood, etc.	—	96	144	144	144	192
Lights	5	24	30	26	42	48
Floor-polishing	—	12	18	24	24	24
House-tax	5	7	11	11	11	14
Servants' wages	—	72	156	156	156	228
		(cook)	(cook and nurse)			(three servants)
Gratuities to servants	24	12	26	26	26	38
Servants' food	—	72	144	144	144	180
Table expenses	365	540	600	720	840	960
Tea, sugar, rolls	36	36	36	36	36	36
Clothing and boots	150	200	250	300	350	400
Laundry	60	96	108	120	132	144
Tobacco	36	36	36	36	36	36
Water	—	12	18	24	30	42
Doctor and chemist	20	30	50	70	90	100
Books, stationery, and newspaper	50	50	50	50	50	50
Amusements	120	63	44	7	—	—
Sundries	29	78	115	132	125	144
	1,200	1,800	2,300	2,600	2,800	3,300

M. Plesterer adds, "Though this estimate of expenses is as low as possible, and though nothing is allowed for the summer trip out of town, for the cost of girls' education (and perhaps boys' too, if they do not get through their examinations), etc., and though 'amusements' disappear from the later columns, the figures obtained are, nevertheless, greatly in excess of the salary received for thirty lessons a week under the present scale (12 lessons at 75R = 900R + 18 lessons at 60R = 1,080R + salary as class-tutor = 160R + remuneration for correcting exercises = 100R — 2 per cent. deduction for pension = 45R. Total 2,195R)."

for his children. The means of obtaining this additional income which comes most readily to his hand is the giving of private lessons, and it is probable that the majority of married teachers in the larger towns actually adopt this method of supplementing their official income. The effect which this must have upon the health and energy of such teachers need hardly be dwelt upon. Five hours' class teaching a day in a gymnasium or real-school, week in, week out, through the whole school year, is weary work enough for a man, but if to the regular day's work be added the giving of private lessons in the evening, with constant anxiety as to making ends meet, the nerves must be strong indeed which will stand such a strain, and it need not surprise us to hear, on high authority, that the teachers of Russia are, as a class, not long lived, and that many of them suffer constantly from nervous weakness. The difficulty under these conditions of keeping their knowledge fresh and up-to-date is also a consideration which has a serious bearing on their efficiency as teachers. The Russian Government has shown itself fully alive to the fact that in the difficult work of national education it is as important that the teachers should be reasonably free from financial worry as that they should be persons of high intellectual attainments, and that neither aim will be fully secured until their material position is considerably improved. The whole subject received careful consideration at the hands of M. Bogolepov's Commission, and legislative effect may be expected to be given to its recommendations as soon as circumstances permit.

Another subject which was also discussed by the same Commission and has received much attention of late in the educational world generally, is the question of the pedagogical training of secondary teachers. This question is at the present moment in much the same stage of advancement as in England; that is to say, graduates are appointed straight from the University to fill vacancies in the gymnasia or real-schools, those who have most successfully completed their course at the University having the first choice of posts. The selection is made by the authorities of the Educational District; the candidate is appointed in the first instance for a three months' probation, during which time he has the title and status, not of a teacher (*uchitel*), but of "one discharging the functions of a teacher" (*ispravianiustchiĭ dolzhnost' uchitelia*). At the end of his three months of probation, if he has discharged his duties to the satisfaction of the Director of the school and the District Inspector, he is confirmed in his position, and his further promotion in the ranks of the profession and of the civil hierarchy depends upon himself. But of late the conviction that some special preparation for the teaching profession needs to be superadded to the general intellectual training received at the Universities has rapidly spread among all who are interested in Russian secondary education, and various schemes for providing such special preparation have been mooted in the educational journals and the public press generally. So far as the writer has observed, the measures proposed may be classified under two heads (a) the provision of special instruction

in pedagogy in connection with the Universities, coupled with the institution of a system of student-teacherships in connection with secondary schools, which would enable the student to receive instruction in the art and practice of education under the guidance of experienced teachers, and (b) the establishment of special pedagogical courses for practising teachers. Of these two alternatives the former would appear to be preferred by the most competent authorities, and it is certainly the solution of the problem which is best supported by precedent in the history of Russian education (*e.g.* the pedagogical institutes established in connection with the Universities in the time of Alexander I.). The whole question, however, stands in very close relation to that discussed in the preceding paragraph. Some of the strongest advocates of the training of secondary teachers are of opinion that "special pedagogical training can be demanded from teachers only on the condition of a considerable improvement in their material position; otherwise this demand will simply prove an additional obstacle to the choice of the teaching profession, which even at present is entered unwillingly."*

3. The third point emphasised by the authors of the memorandum of 1871 is concerned with those features of the curriculum of the secondary school in respect of which a certain measure of deviation from Western custom is imposed upon Russia by the very circumstances of her position. The particular subjects in question are Church Slavonic, history, and modern languages. As regards the first of these subjects little need be added to what we have already said in treating of Russian primary education. It is only necessary to remark here that the importance of Church Slavonic in the secondary schools of Russia depends not only on its religious significance as the liturgical language of the National Church, but also on its intrinsic value for the study of the Russian language and literature, inasmuch as it was the literary language of Russia up to the end of the seventeenth century, and has also greatly influenced the Great Russian dialect, which is now the recognised literary and official language of Russia.† With respect to the teaching of history, again, the peculiar position in which Russia stands is obvious. Unless the study of history is to be understood in a narrowly national sense—as is too often the case in our English secondary schools—it must take some account of the main historical factors—economic, social, religious and political—which have gone to the making of modern Europe as a whole. It is comparatively easy to teach the subject in this sense in countries like England, France or Germany, whose own national history has formed so large a part of the general history of Europe. But in Russia, whose national life until the seventeenth

* The words quoted are from a special report on the training of teachers drawn up by a Commission of the Moscow Pedagogical Society.—(Transactions, 1900).

† Pupils belonging to the non-Orthodox population of the Western and South-Western Provinces of the Empire have hitherto been exempted from the obligatory study of Church Slavonic.

century was almost untouched by the influences which affected the Western countries of Europe, the difficulty of teaching universal history in connection with that of the native country is undoubtedly a very real one, though the importance of a knowledge of the general history of Europe is not less in the case of a Russian than of a German or an English boy. It is right to add, however, that this difficulty is very successfully overcome in practice. Probably in no schools in the world is history more thoroughly taught than in the secondary schools of Russia. Finally, the study of modern foreign languages possesses a very much greater importance in Russia than in any other great country of Europe. Whether the matter be considered from the point of view of the practical man or the scholar, a good knowledge of modern languages is an equally necessary part of the equipment of every educated Russian. Owing to the fact that his own language is so little understood by foreigners, the Russian man of business needs French and German for the purposes of his commercial transactions. The traditions of polite society make a knowledge of French at any rate a necessary accomplishment of every Russian lady or gentleman. The ability to read modern languages is equally indispensable to the Russian with intellectual interests. Whether he wishes to follow closely the progress of contemporary thought or to pursue any line of independent research, the Russian savant finds that he cannot dispense with at least a working acquaintance with the three languages of European culture, English, French and German. Even the ordinary student finds French and German necessary. In spite of the great advance made by Russian scholars and men of science in certain departments of knowledge, some time must yet elapse before learned works in Russian become sufficiently numerous to make the study of foreign treatises unnecessary to the Russian student; meanwhile, in order that a young Russian may place himself on an equality in point of opportunities of study with a Frenchman or a German he must learn at least one more language than the latter finds necessary. Hence the importance attached by public opinion to the French and German languages as elements in the curriculum of both types of secondary school in Russia. It is true that according to the existing statute one only of these languages is nominally obligatory in the gymnasia, but as a matter of fact no gymnasist who intends to carry forward his studies at the University can afford to dispense with a knowledge of either tongue.*

* Thus—to say nothing of Church Slavonic, which is also for him practically a foreign tongue—the Russian gymnasist has perforce to undertake the simultaneous study of four languages—Greek, Latin, French, and German—which a recent committee of the English Headmasters' Conference has declared to be "too onerous a requirement" for English boys. We may add here that the acquisition of a colloquial knowledge of modern languages is not specially aimed at by the ordinary secondary schools, and the great facility and accuracy with which educated Russians frequently speak foreign languages is generally the result of home training. Modern languages have hitherto been taught in the gymnasium mainly as instruments of scientific study, and in the real-school for the practical purposes of commercial life. These aims

III.—COMPARISON BETWEEN RUSSIAN AND ENGLISH SCHOOLS.

So far we have been dealing with the points which distinguish the secondary education of Russia from that of Western Europe generally. If we narrow the field of comparison to include Russia and England only, many other differences emerge into view, the most important of which are due to the very different position which the State occupies towards education in the two countries respectively; to the different relation in which the secondary schools of each stand to the Universities and other places of higher learning; to the effect of endowments on English education; and finally to certain differences of internal organisation, among which may be specially mentioned the much wider development which the boarding-school system has received in England than in Russia. But behind all these differences in detail, it must never be forgotten that there lie the great controlling facts of national character and genius, of historical development, and of social organisation and environment. In both countries the characteristics of the educational system are the characteristics of the national life as a whole; consequently, individualism, decentralisation, self-government, and the utmost freedom for individual enterprise are the distinguishing marks of English education, as State control, extreme centralisation, and the limitation of private initiative are of Russian.*

are now recognised as being too narrow, and a wider development will probably in the future be given to modern language teaching in both kinds of schools. Doubtless the adoption of modern methods of instruction will facilitate the acquisition of a colloquial command of foreign languages in Russia as elsewhere; but the demand of the progressive party is not so much for this as for a more thorough knowledge of the literatures of foreign countries.

* It may help to place the English reader at the right point of view for judging of the Russian system of secondary instruction if we briefly summarise here the conclusions arrived at by a very competent student of English education (M. Mizhnev) as to the peculiar characteristics which distinguish our schools from those of Russia and other continental countries. The following are the points he enumerates (*Russkaja Shkola*, April, 1897, pp. 69, 70):—

- (1) The absence of uniformity in English schools, in respect both of administration, curriculum, and inner life.
- (2) The prominence given to school games as a means of physical training rather than to gymnastics.
- (3) The care for the development of the character and the will, as well as of the intellect. This development is made possible by
- (4) The great freedom allowed to the pupils.
- (5) The tendency to treat boys as though they were men, and the great extension given in English schools to the principle of self-government among the boys.
- (6) The predominance of the boarding-school system.
- (7) The friendly relations existing between teachers and taught.
- (8) The division between aristocratic schools (i.e., our great public schools) and relatively cheap schools. He notes especially that no (State) privileges are reserved to the aristocratic schools.
- (9) Decentralisation and the development of private initiative in education. The latter has proved less harmful to education in England than elsewhere, because

In respect of the organisation and control of secondary education by the State, Russia and England stand at opposite poles. No greater contrast could well be imagined than that which is presented by the Russian system of education on the one hand, with its centralised administration, its hierarchy of State teachers of various grades, its definite programmes and curricula, and its reduction of all possible forms of general education to two simple types—and the English system (if so it can be called) on the other, with its lack of cohesion, its unco-ordinated aims, its bewildering variety of curricula, its untrammelled freedom of instruction, and its traditional tendency to treat education as a private concern. It is significant that, while at the present moment the reform of secondary education is under discussion in both countries, what is meant by reform in England is more complete organisation and more effective external control; in Russia, on the contrary, what is aimed at is a change of *curriculum*, that is, reform in the subject matter of education, and those most eager for reform in this sense would desire to see a less stringent form of external control than exists at present.

We have already in a previous chapter described the organisation by which the State maintains its control over all grades of education in Russia; but it may be interesting to note here a few general considerations suggested by observation of the Russian system as compared with the very different educational conditions prevailing in England.

The difference between a constitutional State such as England, and an autocratic State such as Russia, expresses itself, perhaps, most clearly in the different role assigned to public opinion in each. Public opinion in a constitutional State exercises many of the functions which, under an autocracy, are reserved to the Government. While in Russia all secondary schools, whether public or private, are responsible directly to the State; in England they are, broadly speaking, responsible to public opinion alone. Public opinion must also supply with us the motive power for educational reform; an English Government itself is, as a Russian writer well remarks, "little more than a temporary commission for giving legislative effect to reforms demanded by the community." In

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- (10) The English have been more conspicuous than any nation, except the Americans, by the liberality of their donations for educational purposes.

M. Mizhnev also comments upon the tendency in English schools to drop Greek as an obligatory subject. All who are acquainted with both Russian and English secondary schools will recognise his statement of the differences between them as accurate and full of insight, though in order to make it quite complete, a few other points should be noted in addition: *e.g.*, the influence which the Universities exercise upon secondary instruction in England partly through college scholarships, and partly through the Local Examination; the preference shown in English schools for form-masters as compared with teachers of special subjects, and the tendency to combine two or more types of school (classical and modern "sides" corresponding respectively to gymnasias and real-schools) in the same institution under a single head.

Russia the position of affairs is exactly reversed ; the province of public opinion is purely negative and critical, fulfilling, in fact, a function not unlike that of the opposition in a constitutional State. But all initiative rests with the Government, acting with the assistance of such expert advisers as it chooses to summon to its counsels, but centring all real executive authority in the hands of a small knot of high officials.

The most direct and obvious result of a highly centralised system of administration such as this is to produce great uniformity of aim and organisation. The existence side by side with one another of a large variety of different types of secondary education is almost inevitably discouraged by the State as being incompatible with simplicity of administration. Furthermore, the smooth working of the administrative machine also necessitates the restriction of independent initiative in education. Private schools need not be suppressed ; they may even be welcomed as a necessary supplement to the State-provided schools ; but they are only encouraged in so far as they can be pressed into the service of the State by being made to conform in all the essential features of their curriculum to the programmes of instruction approved by the Government for the State schools.

In all these respects Russian educational practice runs very much counter to accepted English ideas ; and it would be very easy for an English critic to make out a case against the Russian system which would be entirely convincing to all who look at the matter from the English point of view. He might point, for example, to the constant tendency under a system of State control of education to subordinate the interests of the individual to those of the State ; to exalt unduly the mere machinery of minutes, programmes, curricula, and instructions ; to forget that in education the teacher is everything, and that circulars, instructions, curricula, and the rest are but the tools to his hand, useful only in so far as he can turn them to educational profit. He might protest against the idea of applying the formal methods of administrative routine to the living work of education, as though the human spirit were only so much passive material to be acted upon at will, and point out how inevitable it is that centralisation should produce bureaucratism, and that bureaucratism should degenerate into mere mechanical formalism. He might show in particular that there is no place for an Arnold or a Thring in a country where educational initiative is monopolised by the State, and that the manifold services which the private teacher has rendered in the development of English education would have been impossible except as the result of his freedom (so far as the State is concerned) to experiment in education, to teach what he liked in the way that seemed to him best. The writer is far from wishing to dissociate himself from the views thus adumbrated^r; he is convinced, on the contrary, that the balance of advantage, for English-speaking countries at any rate, is very decidedly in favour of a looser and freer organisation of public instruction than exists in most of

the continental countries of Europe. [He would only remind the reader that a highly centralised system of education has been for Russia an historic necessity; that probably under no other system would secondary and higher education have been so widely diffused among Russians as they are at present; and, finally, that a centralised form of State control over education, provided only that it leaves initiative free, possesses certain intrinsic advantages which are by no means unworthy of consideration. Let us briefly state a few of the most important of these.

(1) In the first place, the centralisation of control in the hands of the State very much facilitates a general reform of education whenever this is thought desirable by the Government. The ease with which the most revolutionary and sweeping changes in secondary education have been effected in Russia stands in striking contrast with the enormous difficulty encountered in England by any attempt to alter the general direction of studies even when such alteration is shown to be a matter of urgent national importance. Since the State has little or no control over the machinery of secondary instruction in this country, changes in school curricula must as a rule take place from within, or must be the effect of outside opinion acting directly upon the teachers and managers of individual schools. Unfortunately it happens too often that the opinion of the outside public, when it tends in the direction of educational reform, is vague, unorganised, and inarticulate, and is therefore ill-fitted to contend against an order of things which is supported by all the forces of tradition and vested interests. Tradition is in English education what authority is in Russian—either a good or a bad thing, according to the use that is made of it. So long as our secondary teachers are men of sound philosophic temper and training, and have an adequate sense of the way in which national interests are affected by their work, we may well be content to leave questions of educational reform largely in their hands. But if and whenever this condition is absent, the dead hand of tradition is apt to prove an even worse evil in education than the dead hand of authority.

(2) This leads us naturally to the second point. The State organisation of education does at least secure the existence within the nation of a large body of men who, while serving the State in particular parts of the educational field, are accustomed to look upon education from a broad, national standpoint. One man may be a director of a gymnasium or a real-school, another a University professor, a third a District Inspector, but all alike are officials of a State department which is concerned with the interests, not of this or that branch or grade of education, but of national education as a whole. Their common position as servants of the State binds them together in a community of interest, if not of sentiment. It is impossible not to reflect upon the loss which our own country has suffered in the past from the lack of some equally effective bond of union between the members of the teaching profession. Our first-grade secondary schools and our Universities attract to

their service some of the finest and best-trained minds of the nation. But neither kind of institution has hitherto given us the assistance in solving great national questions of educational reform which we might justly expect from them, and which they are in the nature of things so well qualified to afford. The English public school master or the University professor lives in an isolated community which is complete in itself and stands in no organic relation to any other community of the same kind. They are not so much members of a profession, as members of particular societies within a profession. The consequence is that the interests of their own societies tend too much to fill their horizon and prevent many of them from attaining that broad statesmanlike grasp of the problems of national education as a whole, which comes from greater comprehensiveness of vision and of interest. It is precisely this broad outlook upon educational questions which distinguishes the corresponding classes of educational workers in Russia, and which they seem to owe chiefly to their position as members of a profession welded together by the bond of common service to the State. Among the leaders of thought on secondary education in Russia are to be found quite as many University professors as teachers in gymnasia and real schools, and both grades of teachers display an interest in the questions of primary instruction to which it would be hard to find a parallel in this country.

(3) Apart from its effect on those actually engaged in educational work, the State organisation of education also tends to create a keen interest in the subject on the part of the outside public, and thus inclines them to pay that "honour to lessons" which, to use Thring's noble phrase, should be "the first article in a nation's secular creed." A significant indication of the interest felt by Russian society in questions of public instruction is afforded by the space allotted to them in the columns of the public press. Monthlies of the standing of the "*Vestnik Evropy*," the "*Russkii Vestnik*," the "*Rus*," the "*Russkoe Obozrenie*," and "*Russkaia Mysl*," as well as dailies like the "*Novoe Vremia*," the "*Moskovskiiia Vedomosti*," the "*Russkiiia Vedomosti*," and others of similar rank, frequently print thoughtful articles on educational matters, which would certainly not appear in such journals as these unless they appealed to a widespread public interest. It is true that this interest is greatly quickened by the military exemptions and other privileges attached by the State to the successful completion of a course in one of the public schools, and perhaps still more by the fact that admission to the Universities (or institutions of equal rank) and consequently to the higher professions is made contingent upon the possession of a certificate from the school testifying that the candidate has completed such a course. The existence of these privileges and requirements at once makes success in the schools a matter of urgent practical concern, and induces many parents to take an interest in education who would otherwise be indifferent to it. It also tends to increase greatly the number of those seeking education, especially of the

secondary and higher grades, and encourages boys to aim at higher standard of attainment than they might otherwise be content with. There is, of course, a reverse side to the medal. The very magnitude of the privileges associated with educational success aggravates the bitterness of failure to attain them, and fosters feeling of hostility to the school wherever the blame of failure can be attributed to the severity of its requirements, rather than to the incapacity of the pupil himself. And in this connection it is to be observed that the professions have a relative prestige in the eyes of Russian society far exceeding even that which attaches to them in this country. The reason for this is obvious. Commerce has not yet won its way to social recognition in Russia. To a poor Russian boy the professions and the public service offer the only possible means of bettering his social position. The state of things to which we are accustomed in England, where boys of the mercantile classes are received on terms of perfect social equality into our most aristocratic schools, where a university course is a frequent preliminary to a business career, and where even a senior classic may become a cotton-spinner or a senior wrangler a tea broker, is almost inconceivable to a Russian. Hence it is that failure to get through his course is in the eyes of a Russian gymnasiarist such an irretrievable disaster. The professions and the State service are both closed to him. His career is broken on the very threshold of manhood.

The control of education by the State also determines the nature of the relation between the secondary schools and places of higher education. In Russia the schools are organically connected with the Universities, or other institutions of University rank, as parts of the same State system. The bond of connection between secondary and higher education is formed by the requirement of the certificate of maturity (*attestat zrelosti*) of the gymnasium for admission to the Universities, and that of either the gymnasium or the real school for admission to the higher technical colleges. Both types of school make it their aim in theory to give a general intellectual training as well as to prepare for institutions of a higher grade. But it is important to observe that the relation of the gymnasia to the Universities is in actual fact much closer than it is in theory presumed to be. "Our legislature," says Count Kapnist, "defines gymnasia as educational institutions whose aim it is to give a general education and also to prepare for admission to the Universities and other places of higher education. Of these aims preparation for admission to the University has long become the predominating one, and by actual experience we have arrived at the more precise conception of the significance and aim of the gymnasium as a preparatory school for the University. Attempts to give a new direction to this tendency in our gymnasia have not been crowned with success; the experiment of forming within them departments whose aim it should be to prepare, not for the University, but for other careers in life, has turned out a failure, and proved abortive in practice. At the

present time more than ever our gymnasias are educational institutions having as their one main object to prepare for the University, while preparation for other more special institutions has become of secondary importance, though access to them still remains, and ought in justice to remain, open to those who have passed through the gymnasias." (*Klassitsizm*, p. 62.)

We shall see later that this conception of the function of the gymnasium meets with vigorous protest from those who hold it to be unjust that the whole curriculum of the school should be decided by the requirements of the minority proceeding to the University. Here we are only concerned to note the fact that it is so decided. It will be seen, therefore, that the Russian gymnasias are quite as closely related to the Russian Universities as our own public schools and more important grammar schools are to Oxford and Cambridge. The relation, however, is of an entirely different kind. The English Universities are autonomous and independent institutions, which are free to impose their own conditions of admission upon intending matriculants, and by this means, as well as by the influence of the college scholarship system and the University Schools Examination, are able to mould, or at any rate considerably to affect, the whole curriculum of the schools. The Russian Universities are not autonomous institutions, the conditions upon which they may admit students are settled for them by the State, and they possess no independent power to influence the teaching in the gymnasias. Bearing this distinction in mind, we may define as follows the influence exerted on the secondary schools by the entrance requirements of the Universities in the two countries respectively. The *attestat zrelosti*, which forms the only condition of admission to the Russian Universities, implies a higher average standard of attainment in classics, mathematics, and the mother tongue than is required for admission into most of our English Universities; on the other hand, our older Universities, by means of scholarship competitions, raise the standard of excellence in the case of a few pupils of our best secondary schools to a higher level than is attained in Russia, though at the cost of a specialisation of the curriculum which most Russians would consider very undesirable.

Turning now from matters of external organisation to the inner life of the secondary schools themselves, we shall find the contrasts between Russian and English schools both numerous and striking. The most important of these contrasts are the result of the differences between a system in which boarding schools predominate, and one in which day schools form the large majority. Neither in Russia nor in England does either type of school hold the field so exclusively as the day school does in Germany; there are important boarding schools in Russia, as there are important day schools in England; the difference between the two countries is that in England the older public schools, and those more modern institutions which have been organised on the same model, are numerous and influential enough to give the tone to the whole secondary

system, whilst in Russia the great boarding schools, such as the Alexander Lyceum, the School of Law and the Corps of Pages, have been prevented from influencing Russian education in a similar way, partly by their fewness and partly by their class character. Moreover, here again economic factors come into play. The boarding-school system is comparatively expensive, and, therefore, unsuitable for wide diffusion among a poor people. Very probably even in England it has now almost reached the limits of its usefulness, and any great extension of secondary education among us will have as its consequence a considerable development of the day-school system, as has already been the case in Wales. There is a certain tradition in Russia in favour of boarding-school education. We have already described how the gymnasia were made popular in the time of Nicholas I. only by attaching "boarding-houses for the sons of gentlemen" to them. At the present time boarding-houses are maintained in the larger towns in connection with some of the gymnasia and real-schools, owing to the considerable influx into such towns of pupils from parts of the provinces where no adequate educational facilities exist, and such boarding-houses have always been recommended by the Government as the best means of providing for this element in the schools. Nevertheless a very considerable proportion of the pupils attending the secondary schools of Russia—amounting, according to one statement* to about ten per cent. of the whole—live in lodgings with no other supervision than that which the class tutors and their assistants can give to them. This system combines all the disadvantages of the day-school and the boarding-school systems, without any of the advantages of either; the only remedy we have seen suggested is the adoption of a system of cheap hostels.

The differences between day and boarding schools are among the most fundamental of the conditions that can affect the character of secondary education. It is not too much to say that the whole problem of education is affected by the differences between the two types of school. In the day school the whole life of the place centres in the class-room; in the boarding school, the class-room is only one out of many influences which are brought to bear upon the pupil. Consequently, the aim of the day school tends almost inevitably to be narrowed down to purely intellectual functions, moral training being left to the church and the family (by which many people would argue that such work can be better done). The boarding school, on the other hand, must take the place of the home; it must train the will and the character as well as instruct the mind; its responsibilities towards its pupils are therefore enormously greater than those of the day school, as its opportunities of influence are also greater. The difference in the influence of the two types of school is clearly seen in the difference of their products. The

* See article in *Russkaja Shkola*, September, 1900, p. 104. See also A. Leroy Beaulieu, *L'Empire des Tsars et les Russes*, 4th edn. 1897, ii., pp. 525, 6.

Russian boy who has completed a course in the gymnasium or the real-school is undoubtedly better developed intellectually than an English public-school boy of the same age; but the English boy has had the opportunity of a more many-sided training, and as a rule has benefited by it. He is generally what the Germans call *denkscheu*; prefers doing to thinking; is less under the influence of ideas than of instincts and traditions. But he is physically well-developed; he has learned more or less of self-reliance and self-control, has acquired a sense of responsibility, and knows how to govern as well as to obey. He owes infinitely less to the teaching of the class-room than the Russian boy; to a large extent he is self-educated, or has been educated by his fellows; but he has had enough "wholesome neglect" to cast him upon his own resources, and to develop in him a certain power of initiative. Some years ago, under the influence of M. Demolins' well-known book, "A quoi tient la supériorité des Anglo-Saxons?" an abridgment of which was edited in Russian by M. Pobedonostsev, Russian society began to take a great interest in English education, and the possibility of transplanting the English public school system to Russian soil was much discussed in the Russian press. Such discussion, however flattering it may be to an Englishman who feels that there is not too much to boast of in the educational arrangements of his country, has always seemed to the writer to miss the significance of one essential point. All that is most valuable in the life of an English public school arises from its being the reflection of the life of a self-governing community. Its school societies, its organised games and other forms of social activity, its corporate life and feeling, the mingling of the democratic with the monarchical principle in its system of government, its special traditions and conventions, all these things help to make the English public-school a microcosm of the larger England which lies beyond its walls and playing-fields, and are valuable chiefly in so far as they train its pupils to take their part as public-spirited citizens of a democratic community. Few indeed of the typical features of English public school life would remain after taking away all that would be found incompatible with the political system of Russia. The writer has retained a very pleasant impression of the life of a Russian boarding school from a visit paid to the Alexander Lyceum in St. Petersburg; but he is nevertheless convinced that the school systems of Russia and England respectively are too closely related to the social order of each country to admit of successful imitation one by the other.

Another important characteristic of Russian secondary education as compared with English is the predominance of what is known in Russia as the "subject system" (*predmetnaia sistema*) of instruction—that is, the system by which each master in a secondary school teaches one, or at most two, subjects, in which he is specially proficient. No such thing as a form-master exists, so far as the writer is aware, in any Russian secondary school.*

* It does exist, as we have seen in the preceding chapter, in the Urban Schools administered under the law of 1872.

and the place of such a master is only partially supplied by the class tutor (*klassnyĭ nastavnik*). Many of the masters teaching in a given school are not even specially attached to that school; their time may be divided between two or more institutions, of which one may happen to be a gymnasium and another a real school. This occurs particularly in the case of teachers of the subjects to which only a comparatively small number of hours are assigned in the time-table of the gymnasias, e.g., geography or physics.* Such an arrangement as this has obvious advantages in respect of the intellectual side of education. It secures that every subject in every school shall be taught by a person who knows that subject better than he knows any other. That in itself is doubtless a great deal; but it is not everything. Every English form-master would readily admit that he had sometimes had to teach subjects in which he was not specially well versed; but he might certainly claim that what is lost on the intellectual side of education by the system under which he works is more than made up on the moral side. The Russian teacher is much more of a professor than his English *confrère*, both in respect of his methods of instruction, and also in respect of his special knowledge of the subjects which he teaches; but the constant contact into which the English form-master is brought with the particular set of boys entrusted to him gives him infinitely more of those opportunities of influence which every true teacher prizes above all other incidents of his profession. If the Russian teacher knows his subject, the English teacher knows his boys; and even from the point of view of intellectual culture, the latter kind of knowledge is not without its importance.† Thring's ideal of "a school to teach and train each boy" is perhaps seldom completely realised either in England

* The Russian method of computing salaries by the number of lessons given is intimately connected with the subject-system of instruction. The opposite system of fixed salaries which prevails in this country is based on the assumption that as a rule a master's time is spent in a single institution and is distributed, if need be, among several subjects.

† In connection with the above the following remarks occurring in M. Pobedonostser's suggestive *brochure*, "The Teacher and his Work," are of interest. After mentioning with approval the close personal relations existing between some of the older teachers (of primary schools) in the country and their pupils, the author proceeds:—

"But in a town, and especially in a large town, a teacher becomes a kind of educational hireling, wearing himself away in the drudgery of his calling, and teaching assumes the aspect of a mere craft. In never-ceasing concern for the daily bread of himself and his family, without interest, without inspiration, he does his day's work, hurrying on foot, or driving, from one school to another to give his lessons, and everywhere he arrives tired and irritable, in some cases losing minutes and quarters of an hour from each lesson, and never devoting his labour to a single one of the schools in which he acts as teacher. How can he know his pupils, how can he mark their abilities and development? All that is left to him to do is to give his lesson, to propound his questions, and to assign impersonal marks (that is, marks which are not affected by the individuality of the pupil) to the answers. Seldom is a teacher to be met with who is content with his work, his place and position—he is absorbed in concern for the improvement of his means of livelihood, and in the quest for opportunities of bettering himself elsewhere."

or in Russia ; but the English school fails most on the side of teaching, the Russian school on the side of training.

Among matters of internal organisation in respect to which the practice of Russian secondary schools differs from that of our own should also be mentioned certain aspects of school discipline. We need only emphasise two points in particular. The first concerns the uniformity of discipline in Russian schools. So far as school rules are concerned, no distinction whatever is in theory made between the highest class and the lowest, between the young man of twenty about to proceed to the university and the child of ten fresh from the family circle ; all are equal before the law, which is the same for all. In practice, doubtless, distinctions are made ; but there is in Russian schools nothing like that graduated scale of privileges according to age and position in the school which is found in most English schools ; least of all do the Russian schools afford any parallel to the position of authority and responsibility which is assigned to the sixth form in our public schools, and the great advantage of which lies in the preparation it gives for the freedom of university life. The second important point to be noted is the fact that corporal punishment is entirely prohibited in all Russian schools. The Russian aversion to this kind of punishment, though always justified on purely pedagogical grounds, would seem to be ultimately based upon reasons which derive all their force from the fact that exemption from stripes was historically a civic privilege at first shared only by comparatively few among the subjects of the Tsar, but afterwards so widely extended that corporal punishment came to be associated with ideas of criminality and serfdom, and thus to be resented as an indignity which ought not to be offered to the freeborn. From another point of view it may be regarded as a natural revulsion against the harshness of the old Muscovite régime. That corporal punishment should be permitted even in the most aristocratic schools of England, that it should have been largely used even by our best-known, most humane and most successful headmasters, and that such protest against it as makes itself heard in this country should affect our lower schools rather than our higher, are among the standing puzzles of English life, even to those Russians who understand us best. Yet in point of fact the complete abolition of the cane is a matter of recent accomplishment in Russian schools. It is true that corporal punishment was forbidden by the educational legislation both of Catherine II. and Alexander I. ; but it is nevertheless certain that it was actually in use in some of the Alexandrine schools, which found it difficult to live up to the standard set by the exalted humanitarian ideals of the monarch. Under Nicholas I. corporal punishment was permitted in the last resort, when other means of correction (including incarceration) had proved useless, but only in the three lowest classes, and then only at the discretion of the pedagogical council. In practice, however, these limits were not strictly observed, both directors and inspectors ordering corporal punishment on their own authority. The practice was

finally abolished by the school statute of 1864. The present generation of teachers have had no personal experience of its use in the schools; public sentiment is unhesitatingly against it, and one never finds it referred to in Russian pedagogic literature except in terms of condemnation, or as a relic of medieval barbarism only to be excused as belonging to a period before the "great reforms."

Many Russian educationists are disposed to go still further in the same direction and to condemn *in toto*, or at least to look with great suspicion upon, the use of any kind of punishments or rewards as educational instruments. The writer had the privilege of being present at a meeting of the Moscow Pedagogical Society, which was attended by about 400 persons of both sexes, including some of the foremost educational thinkers of Russia, and which unanimately adopted the following resolutions, together with others framed in a similar spirit:—

"(a) Certificates of merit, rewards, the inscription of names upon a roll of honour (literally, gilded tablet), the distribution and placing of pupils in class according to their attainments, should be banished from the schools, since they obscure in the minds of the pupils the true ends of knowledge, and with the high-minded motives of the quest of learning mingle selfish considerations, vainglory, envy, and other undesirable sentiments.

"(b) All kinds of marks (class marks, or quarterly or annual marks) should be entirely excluded from the school; [other] methods of informing parents as to the work of their children should be devised by the pedagogical council.

"(c) The punishment of pupils, as a means in the highest degree dangerous to their moral development, should be resorted to only in exceptional cases, and as the *ultimate* means of influencing their conduct."

As the inclusion of marks in this sweeping condemnation will doubtless seem strange to the English reader, we may quote in full the passage referring to marks in the paper read in support of these resolutions. The whole paper is printed in the Transactions of the Society for 1901:—

"Among the features of the life of the modern school, which develop bad feelings and hinder good ones from taking root, must be reckoned marks of all kinds, whether given for a particular lesson or at the end of each quarter or year. A mark is by its very nature an evil, because it assumes something which does not actually exist, namely, the possibility of accurately appraising each of the pupil's answers. Every answer is a complex matter, but the mark sets at naught the individuality of the answer and reduces all the pupils to a few apparently precise categories, according to which they are grouped with what looks like great minuteness. By a glance at the quarterly list we may learn the comparative merits of the pupils with such accuracy as to determine the fractional part of a mark by which one youth is better or worse than his fellow. Not to speak of the impossibility in fact of defining in so much detail the intellectual attainments of the pupils, it is necessary in the interests of their moral training to fix our special attention on the fact that this grouping of pupils according to the marks they have received gives food for the development of rivalry, envy, and other bad feelings. Boys accustom themselves to learn for the sake of marks, and not for the love of knowledge, and mark-hunting brings in its train all kinds of deceptions, copying, and other forms of school offences. Setting a high value on good marks, boys eagerly and jealously watch the way in which they are given by the teacher. It is in connection with marks that particular teachers gain the reputation of being unjust, and they give rise to endless disputes. How bitter a thing it is to be the helpless victim of injustice! and nothing gives occasion for such feelings so frequently as marks, because with all the seeming

precision of this method of estimating answers, a mark may really be a perfectly indefinite thing, allowing scope to the teacher's personal opinions and even admitting of such abuses as the giving of a bad mark for a boy's behaviour in class. The pupils, as incompletely developed and at the same time interested persons, are certainly disposed in many instances, when they get a bad mark, to suspect the justice and impartiality of the teacher, which strikes at the very root of the school's moral influence over its pupils. No less harmful is the effect of marks in disturbing the quiet work of the pupil in class and at home by introducing into it the idea of reward and punishment; because whatever we may say of the objective significance of marks, as a simple index of a pupil's knowledge, a 'one' is always a punishment for him, as a 'five' is always a reward.* This constant expectation of rewards and punishments, involving the agitations of self-love and fear, not only ruins the nervous system of the child, but destroys his conception of the true aims of learning. What becomes important for him is not knowledge itself, but the way in which his teacher appraises it."

With the views set forth in the passage just quoted, many English teachers will find it difficult wholly to sympathise. All educators would of course agree that the highest possible motive a boy can have for work is a sense of duty, and that the boy who works solely to avoid punishment or for the sake of marks or rewards is substituting a lower motive for a higher, and so far is influenced by a wrong ideal. But whilst the authors of the passage quoted would seem to regard the two motives as mutually exclusive, the practice of most English teachers shows that they consider it possible to use the lower motive to stimulate and reinforce the higher. And here it is important to observe that the whole question is vitally affected by the difference in the attitude of the pupils themselves in the two countries towards their school work. Generally speaking, the difference consists in this, that in the case of the English boy marks, rewards and punishments are the only external stimulus which is available, and they are often enough quite insufficient to rouse him even to a show of interest in his work; the Russian boy,

* It should be explained that according to the system of marking in use in all Russian schools, as well as in connection with all public examinations, the highest obtainable mark is five, the lowest being one. The value of the marks may perhaps be best represented to the English reader by saying that 5 = excellent, 4 = good, 3 = fair, 2 = moderate, 1 = poor or a failure. In practice the lowest mark is seldom given, so that the actual range of marks is from five to two. A pupil receives marks according to his answering in class. The questioning of a particular pupil often takes a considerable time, and the rapid cross-fire of question and answer customary in English schools is almost strange to Russian practice, as is also the habit of requiring short written answers to questions set to the whole class during lesson time. The questions given in the higher classes in such subjects as classics, history, and Russian literature, are not infrequently such as to lay a severe tax on a boy's powers of oral expression. In fact, the great advantage which the Russian system of questioning seems to an English observer to possess over that to which he is accustomed is that it forces the pupil to express himself orally in a connected and logical way. On the other hand, the English system enables the knowledge of each boy to be tested much more frequently than can be done in Russia, where it sometimes happens that the teacher does not get round his class more than two or three times a year. This fact of course greatly increases the relative value of the mark given on each occasion of questioning a pupil, and explains the great importance attached to it by the pupil himself and his friends.

on the other hand, has the powerful additional incentive which is supplied by the knowledge that his whole future career depends on his success in his school course. Hence not only does the Russian need the stimulus of marks less than the English boy, but he is disposed to take them far more seriously, because very much more depends on them. It is doubtful whether even the English boy would continue to display the philosophic indifference to lessons and marks which so frequently characterises him at present if they were brought into such intimate and obvious relation to his future career as is the case in Russia. It will, therefore, be easily seen that the complaints as to the evil influence of the mark-system have a special significance in relation to Russian conditions. It must also be recollected that this system is apt to be more prejudicial to the existence of wholesome relations between pupils where the life of the school centres wholly in the class-room than where, as in English schools, the boys have usually many opportunities of meeting elsewhere and forgetting the rivalry of the class-room in the common interests of the life outside.

The exceptional privileges attached to the possession of the certificate of maturity, which make the successful completion of a course of secondary instruction a matter of the greatest importance for the pupil's future career, also account in large measure for the extraordinary development of the system of private coaching (*repetitorstvo*) in Russian secondary schools. There is probably not a class throughout the Russian Empire, there is certainly not a gymnasium or a real-school, in which a certain proportion of the pupils do not avail themselves of the services of a *repetitor*; and in the case of the lower classes of some schools every second or third pupil does so. The large classes which are to be found, especially in some of the real-schools, greatly favour the growth of this system by preventing due individual attention being paid to each pupil by the class teacher. But it is not only the weak scholars who seek the help of a *repetitor*; the use of this resource depends far more on the financial position of the particular boy's parents than on any other consideration. Many of the pupils are, of course, not in a position to pay the necessary fees for such assistance. In fact, as we have already noted, the *repetitors* employed by pupils in the lower classes are very commonly themselves gymnasists, who find in the fees thus earned the means of supporting themselves whilst passing through the higher classes of the school. In the University towns a great deal of the work is done by students, many thousands of whom rely for their subsistence almost entirely on private lessons of this and other kinds. A third class of *repetitors* is formed by the class tutors and other members of the ordinary staff of the secondary schools themselves. The whole question of *repetitorstvo* forms a most difficult phase of the problem of secondary education in Russia, and proposals for the better regulation of the system are not infrequently put forward in the public press. The practice is of course a somewhat abnormal

outgrowth of the secondary school system, but all the indications point to the conclusion that it has come to stay, and it is even said that there is a growing tendency on the part of the weaker teachers to shift the responsibility for the pupil's progress on to the shoulders of the *repetitor*.* The relation of the *repetitor* to the normal work of the school is in any case somewhat difficult of adjustment. If the *repetitor* be a class teacher, and his private pupils the members of his own class, it is not easy for him to avoid the charge of showing favouritism to them before their classmates. The fear of such accusations naturally deters many sensitive teachers from undertaking this kind of employment. The Ministry of Public Instruction has also maintained an attitude of great reserve towards the practice of allowing pupils to receive special lessons from their own class teachers, and has sometimes even forbidden it altogether. But if private lessons are to be given at all, it is often a practical necessity that the class teacher should give them, since no other qualified person may be available; this is the case, for example, in many of the smaller towns of Russia. In such cases it has been proposed to recognise officially the right of teachers to give private lessons to weak pupils of the highest or "graduating" class. Difficulties of another kind arise when the *repetitor* is a person unconnected with the school staff. The teaching then almost inevitably partakes of the nature of cram, since it is strictly directed to satisfy the requirements of the teacher of the pupil's class; the collision of two standards of judgment—that of the coach and the class teacher—is a perpetual source of friction, which even affects the relations between the home and the school; and, finally, there is always a difficulty in justly appraising work in which the pupil has been assisted by his coach—a matter of great importance where so much depends on the class marks as in the Russian schools.

IV.—CRITICISMS OF THE EXISTING SYSTEM.

In the foregoing paragraphs the writer has attempted to make clear to the English reader, as far as possible by comparing the Russian gymnasia and real-schools with the English schools of corresponding grade, the main distinctive features of the Russian system of secondary education. It has, however, already been explained that this system is now in process of revision, and that changes of a more or less substantial nature are certain shortly to be introduced into the curriculum of both types of secondary school. The reasons which have made this measure inevitable have been incidentally referred to in the foregoing pages, and it will suffice here to refer the reader to the frank and detailed statement of criticisms of the existing system contained in M. Bogolepov's circular of the 8th July, 1899, which is quoted in full on pp. 155 to 157 of this Report. The points particularly emphasised in that circular were: the strained relations existing between the

* See article on the subject in the "Novoe Vremia" for May 6th, 1900.

school and the family ; the prevalence of bureaucratic methods of educational administration ; the lack of attention to the individuality of the pupils ; the neglect of moral and physical training ; the too early specialisation rendered necessary by the differentiation of the curricula of the two types of school ; the mental and physical overstrain of the pupils ; and certain general questions of curriculum.

With regard to some of the matters here referred to, especially the two first mentioned, it seems to the writer that little can usefully be added to what has already been said. Criticism of foreign systems or arrangements is always an invidious task ; as, moreover, the matters in question are of such a nature that a Russian opinion will be very much more valuable and interesting than any which an outsider could give, we shall confine ourselves to quoting without comment a passage from a report adopted by the Moscow Pedagogical Society with reference to the organisation of the secondary schools, merely premising that this report was drawn up *apropos* of the circular just referred to, and that while it may be taken as voicing the views of the advanced party of reform, it contains no statements of fact which would be seriously questioned.

"The special peculiarity and at the same time the radical defect of the existing secondary schools affording a general education must undoubtedly be admitted to be their bureaucratic character. Bureaucratism is impressed upon every aspect of school life, and in the words of the Minister of Public Instruction, introduces 'arid formalism and lifelessness into living educational work.' Bureaucratism is above all a question of centralisation, which presupposes the exercise of a strict and uniform control over all the details of the teacher's work by a single central authority. But in view of the extreme variety of conditions prevailing in Russia in respect of climate, race, social status, economic position, and the rest, such a strict and uniform control would seem to be less applicable to Russia than to any other country ; and hence it is clear that this control cannot everywhere possess real intrinsic significance, and consequently assumes a formal character. Reasonable pedagogical considerations retreat into the background, and the dominating principle in the school becomes the strict but formal fulfilment of the instructions of the authorities. The school is deprived of its initiative, and its staff tends to be composed not of educational workers, but of executive officials. Educational interests, the interests of the intellectual and moral individuality of the pupils naturally take the second place, whilst the thoughts of the educators are concentrated on questions of official advancement. So it happens that minute regulation exercised by a central authority kills the independent activity of educationists, that is, it destroys the soul of life within them.

"But if the place of independent initiative within the school is usurped by detailed and uniform regulations, the carrying out of these regulations with precision and accuracy requires the exercise of a strict and constant supervision, which takes very various forms and undermines all confidence not only in the individual teacher, but in the pedagogical council, and even in the headmaster himself. . . . The whole life of the school centres in the headmaster, as the representative of the controlling power of the central authority. The functions of the pedagogical council may be reduced, if the headmaster so wills, to the mere confirmation of the arrangements of the latter. But the headmaster himself is involved in a whole network of checks and regulations to such an extent that he cannot move a step without reference to the opinion of the Curator of the District or to an endless variety of rules, instructions, circulars, ordinances and memoranda which fill whole volumes and demand long and special study.

"This system of minute regulation of educational work, a system of constant control over everybody and of distrust towards everybody, permeates the whole life of our school down to the veriest trifles. Not only the teacher or the headmaster, or the pedagogical council, but even the Curator is debarred from placing in the pupils' hands the most harmless narrative or the most elementary text-book without addressing a request to that effect to St. Petersburg. If so little confidence is shown by the supreme authorities even towards the Curator of the Educational District, what shall be said of the teacher who stands immediately face to face with the child? With his financial position imperfectly assured, everlastingly wearied and worried by an amount of teaching work beyond his powers, dependent upon his headmaster in everything, humiliated and deprived of rights, it is surely only in irony that the teacher can in a great number of cases be called an educator (*pedagog*). He is placed in charge of a class of 40 to 50 boys, and required to question them constantly, and assign them marks; long and difficult programs of work filled with all kinds of trifling details are placed in his hands, and the work of these programs is distributed minutely among the classes; he is required to suffer the interference of the headmaster in his methods and plans of teaching, and all this is crowned every year by a strict examination test. Thus, all the work of the teacher in his class is reduced to endless questioning and a continual drilling of his pupils to pass the examination test, which often possesses no less terror for the teacher than for the pupil. Outward formality everywhere prevails; so many marks must be given, such and such details of the subject must be learnt, the answering in the examination must be smart. The demands of external control are fully satisfied by this formal aspect of the matter. But how all these marks, examinations, and endless home lessons affect the pupil—of that he cannot even take notice.

"All these defects in the school, which proceed from its bureaucratic organisation, determine also the mutual relations between the school and the outside world. The school bears itself towards parents as towards subordinates; it does not consider it necessary to take account of their opinions: it comes into relation with them only, if one may so express oneself, on disciplinary occasions. The parents on their part regard the school with terror and often with dislike. Seeing that the personality of their children is not treated with respect and consideration in the school, that the children ruin their health over tasks which are beyond their strength, that they have no time to spend in the open air nor for games or occupations suitable to their age and personal inclinations, parents cannot love the school. But neither can they do without the school, because the certificate it confers assures their children's future. While such lack of harmony, which is unfortunately only too well known to the pupils, exists between the home and the school, the relations between the pupils and the school authorities cannot be normal. The pupils as well as their parents look on the school simply as a means of obtaining a diploma, and whilst they formally satisfy all its requirements, they do so with inward mistrust. Thus formalism and mistrust in the relations of the authorities to the school beget corresponding formalism and mistrust in the relations of the pupils and their parents to the school itself." (Transactions of the Moscow Pedagogical Society for 1900. Report on Reforms desirable in Secondary Schools, *ad init.*)

With a view to remedying the defects enumerated in the above extract, the Society suggests that, while all general questions of educational policy should continue to be determined by the central authority in St. Petersburg, the powers of the subordinate organs of administration should be increased, a large liberty of initiative being allowed them in matters of detail. Centralised control with decentralised administration is, in brief, the ideal of the Society. It is the goal which we ourselves are approaching from the opposite direction.

We turn now to the questions of curriculum and the related questions of overstrain, premature specialisation, and the like, which are raised in M. Bogolepov's circular. Here it will be necessary to treat the case of the gymnasia and of the real-schools separately, since the problems presented by the two types of school differ considerably in character. Briefly speaking, one may say that the advocates of reform direct their efforts towards the humanisation of the curriculum of the real-school, though without wishing to make it less modern, and towards the modernisation of the curriculum of the gymnasium, though without desiring to make it less humanistic. We propose to deal with the real-school first, since the questions involved in the discussion of its curriculum are less fundamental and admit of briefer statement than is the case with the problems connected with the gymnasia.

The proposals usually made for the reform of the real-school are partly concerned with the readjustment of the time-table to a new conception of the balance of studies, and partly with the readjustment of methods of instruction to modern ideas of the aim of secondary education. So far as the writer is aware, no proposal has been made by any responsible Russian educationist to remove from the curriculum of the real-school any subject at present taught there; nor is the introduction of any new subject seriously suggested, except by that school of educational thinkers which holds that some kind of definite philosophical training, though it be only in the shape of formal logic, should find a place in the curriculum of every secondary school. What is proposed is to bring the existing subjects into a new relation with one another by assigning increased importance to those studies, such as language, literature and history, which are recognised as having a general, and not merely a professional, educational value. The tendency to make the curriculum more humanistic is also strongly reinforced by the sentiment in favour of giving to it a more definitely national character, since this sentiment takes the form of a demand for a wider recognition of the language and literature of the mother tongue, and of Russian history, in the plan of studies of the real-school and gymnasium alike.*

Into the details of the criticisms levelled at the existing curriculum of the real-school we do not propose here to enter. It would be easy to discuss at a wearisome length whether this subject or that should have an additional hour or two a week assigned to it in the official time table, or whether some other subject should be dropped in the fifth class or continued to the end of the school course. On such matters as these *quat homines, tot sententiae*, and it is the business of this report to concern itself only with the more general tendencies of educational opinion in Russia. We shall confine ourselves, therefore, to saying that it seems to be pretty generally agreed that the present programme of studies in the

* Since the above paragraph was written steps have been taken under the Imperial Order of 20 July, 1902, to strengthen the study of Russian language and literature and of Russian History in the real-schools.

real-school is overloaded, especially in the higher classes, and that it lays a severe tax on the energies of the average pupil to go through it in the normal period of seven years. This has led many people to demand that the course of the real-school shall be extended by a year so as to be of the same length as that of the gymnasium. (It should be said, however, that the whole question of the normal length of the course of the secondary school in Russia is a very much debated one. It will be remembered, for example, that the course of the secondary school proposed by General Vannovski as Minister of Public Instruction in 1901 was of seven years only.)

The proposal to strengthen the elements making for general culture in the curriculum of the real-school, and at the same time to make the length of its course coincide with that of the gymnasium, is a manifestation of a tendency in Russian opinion which has been steadily gaining strength in official circles as well as in society generally ever since the educational settlement of the seventies. The statute of 1872, though nominally recognising real-schools as places of general education, practically dealt with them as special and professional schools by giving the predominance to the commercial and technical elements in their curriculum. No other conception of the function of the real-school was in fact consistent with the views held by the framers of the statute with regard to the classical languages as the necessary constituents of a liberal education.*

Nevertheless the opposite view of the aim of the real-school which rested on the assumption that the education of the nineteenth century was no longer dependent on the literature and thought of Greece and Rome, but that modern culture and modern science were capable of providing adequately for all the intellectual needs of the modern world, continued to hold its ground, and found a measure of official recognition in the revised statute of 1888, which greatly strengthened the elements of general culture at the expense of technical and professional subjects in the real-school curriculum. That, however, was merely a temporary settlement of the question; for there is clearly no logical halting-place between the position of Count Tolstoi and the recognition of the type of education repre-

* In the special Committee (*prizvatstvie*) which considered the project of the Statute of 1871, Count D. Tolstoi, in response to a challenge, thus formulated his position with respect to classical and "real" instruction :

- " (1) Count Tolstoi acknowledges only one type of general (liberal) education, viz., the classical, and denying the possibility of any kind of dualism, does not admit that the natural sciences can be instruments of general education.
- " (2) Consequently Count Tolstoi considers classical gymnasia with the two ancient languages as alone fulfilling the functions of secondary schools of general education, and abolishes the present real-gymnasia " (schools with Latin only) " as having been organised on mistaken principles.
- " (3) Finally in place of the present real-gymnasia, Count Tolstoi establishes real-schools of various kinds, proposing to introduce into them general education and special courses parallel with each other."

sented by the real-school as of equal dignity and value with the type represented by the gymnasium. It is for such recognition that the friends of the real-school are now pressing.

The most important and practical expression of this demand for equality concerns the right of admission to the Universities. At present the real-schools are in a position of decided inferiority with respect to the privileges they can offer to those of their pupils who intend to proceed to some place of higher education after leaving school. Whereas the youth who has completed his course at the gymnasium finds all such places of higher education open to him, the realist at the corresponding point of his career is confined to the higher technical schools only. Moreover, the number of these latter is so limited that the mere possession of a certificate of maturity is not sufficient to secure admission into them; the candidate must take his chance in a special competitive examination held by the particular college he wishes to enter. The real-schools are thus placed under very serious disadvantages in comparison with the gymnasia, and, as is often the case with our own "modern sides," cannot hope under present conditions to attract the most promising material to work upon. Hence the demand which constantly grows in urgency that realists shall at least have access to those University faculties in which a knowledge of the classical languages is not a necessary condition of the prosecution of academic studies, viz., the faculties of medicine and of mathematics and physics. It is difficult to see how this demand can ultimately be resisted, except on the hypothesis, which the logic of facts is rapidly making untenable in Russia, that no scientific study is possible without a classical training. In point of fact, the proposals of General Vannovski made the above-named faculties accessible to those who had completed a non-classical course in the secondary school.

In addition to the questions dealt with above, which affect the real-schools in particular, there are others of an equally pressing nature, which concern all secondary schools alike. Deferring consideration of these for the present, we now turn our attention to the problems awaiting solution in connection with the gymnasia.

Among these there is, strictly speaking, only one of central importance, and that is the question of the place to be assigned to the classics in the curriculum of the gymnasium. On the way in which this question is decided many other things depend—the position of the mother-tongue and modern foreign languages, of philosophy and the physical sciences, in the scheme of secondary studies—the age at which specialisation should begin in the case of those continuing their studies beyond the secondary stage—the conditions of admission to the University—the relations between the secondary and the primary school, and a host of other matters of less importance. Scarcely any of the defects indicated by M. Bogolepov's famous circular in the curriculum of the gymnasium could be effectively dealt with without seriously modifying the classical character of the instruction. Since the time available for

school lessons is practically a fixed quantity, increased attention to modern literature or the physical sciences could only be given at the expense of the hours now devoted to Latin or Greek. Again, the only possible way of obviating the premature specialisation which is one of the great disadvantages of the present dual system of schools, is to make the curriculum of the lower classes as nearly as possible identical in both gymnasia and real-schools, and this can only be done by deferring the teaching of Latin in the gymnasium to a somewhat later stage than is done at present. The question of overwork is also directly affected, for if it is decided that Latin need not be begun, say, before the third class, nor Greek before the fifth, the pressure upon the lower classes will be sensibly relieved. Moreover, those who believe that overstrain has a psychological rather than a physiological basis—a view for which a very great deal may be said—may point to the unpopularity of classical studies as accounting for much of the mental and physical lassitude observed in the gymnasia. The same cause may be alleged as affecting the relations between the school and the home. The extremely difficult questions involved in the large proportion of failures to complete the course of the secondary schools can hardly be discussed without considering how far the predominance of classics in the curriculum of the gymnasia prevents the opening of an honourable door of exit for those who are unable to complete the full course of these schools. The relation of the gymnasia to the primary schools also greatly depends upon the extent to which classics are made an obligatory subject of instruction in the lower classes of the former; while the question of the relation of the secondary schools to the Universities raises at once the whole controversy as to whether a classical education is a necessary part of the preparation for University studies. In view of the magnitude of the issues involved in the classical question, the following section of this chapter is devoted exclusively to the consideration of it as it affects secondary education in Russia.

V.—THE CLASSICAL QUESTION IN RUSSIA.

In every country of Europe, where the classics have formed the main subject of secondary instruction, their claims to predominance are now being sharply challenged. This is the case also in Russia; but it would be a mistake to suppose that the problem to be solved is in all respects the same for Russia as for the countries of Western Europe. Even if the problem itself were the same, the conditions under which it has to be solved are fundamentally different, and for this reason the classical controversy in Russia assumes aspects which have not, and cannot in the nature of things have, any precise counterpart in the countries of the West. In England, for example, where the position of the classics in secondary education is contested almost as vigorously as in Russia, the strength of the ancient languages lies in the fact that all the forces of tradition, sentiment, and prescription are on their side, while the efforts

of those who seek to depose them from their pride of place must be concentrated on converting public opinion. Here the State does nothing directly to encourage the teaching of the classics; the Parliamentary grants to secondary schools were, until lately, devoted exclusively to the advancement of physical science and mathematics. In Russia these conditions are exactly reversed. There the balance of public opinion is, and has been for at least a generation, against the classics; tradition and popular sentiment are against them too; and they have been upheld by the power of the State, steadily resisting the pressure of a public opinion, which it maintained to be misguided or misinformed.

This difference is fundamental and has its roots in deep-lying historical causes, which must be appreciated by all who would rightly understand Russian education. Neither in Russia, nor anywhere else, is it possible to discuss this subject from a purely pedagogical point of view—in *vacuo*, as it were. We must take into account all the influences of national environment, which in their turn are the resultant effect of a complex variety of causes, racial, geographical, and historical. We shall be better able to understand the form which the classical controversy assumes in Russia if we reflect for a moment on some of the reasons which have given the classics their peculiar position in English education. What is it, in fact, which has caused classical culture to be so closely associated in the consciousness of our cultivated classes with the very idea of a liberal education that to destroy its predominance in our public schools and Universities would seem to many Englishmen a calamity hardly to be borne? Those who are most convinced of the educational value of the classics must admit that this disposition in their favour is largely of the nature of an "inherited prepossession," the reasons for which lie far back in the history of Western civilisation. To give an adequate account of these reasons would require a volume. We should have to trace the historic links which connect the modern Romance nations with classical antiquity, and make them the natural heirs and guardians of its traditions; to recount all the causes, political, intellectual, and religious, that gave to mediæval Rome its hold over the mind, the conscience, and the imagination of the Western world; to recall the unique significance of Latin, not only as the language of the Western Church, but as the symbol and instrument of that intellectual freemasonry of the Middle Ages which made all learned men of one nation, and to explain how it thus became inevitable that, when schools and colleges were founded, they should use Latin as the only key that would unlock the treasure-house of knowledge; and finally we should have to take account of the influence of the Renaissance of letters which, while it shook the supremacy of mediæval Rome over the consciences of men, strengthened enormously the hold of the ideas of classical antiquity over their intellects.

With all these historical considerations what has Russia to do? Nothing, and less than nothing. Russia had no part in the intel-

lectual development of mediæval Europe, which was dependent on the use of Latin. The language of her Church is not Latin. In fact the use of Latin for religious purposes revives the memory of the bitterest controversies in which the Eastern Church was engaged with her Western sister. Latin as a religious language grew at the expense of Greek after the rent in the Church. One must understand how closely ideas of creed and nationality are interwoven in the mind of the Russian people before one can fully appreciate the atmosphere of prejudice which long surrounded such words as "*Latinstvo*" and "*Latynnik*," as used in popular speech, and which contrasts vividly with that reverent homage which for a thousand years was paid throughout the West to "*Rome la grande*." In the controversies of the Russian Church the accusation of "Latinism" has always been an effective weapon. It was used against Nikon the reformer. It was flung in the teeth of the founders of the first Russian schools. A striking example of the connotation of prejudice which attaches to things Latin even at the present day may be quoted here from a modern work, written by a Russian whose name is familiar to all educated English readers—the great chemist, Mendeleev. It occurs in the dedication of his *magnum opus* to his mother: "This work is dedicated to the memory of a mother by her son. . . . When she died, she left him the following admonition as an inheritance: 'Avoid Latin fraud, persevere in labour, and seek scientific truth with patience.' . . . The son has always thought it a sacred duty to carry out the wishes of his mother."*

It is thus plain that Latin has, to say the least, no historical claim upon the sympathies of Russians. But how stands the case with Greek? In view of the historical connections between Russia and Greece, it might appear at first sight as though Russia stood in the same relation to Hellenic culture as Western Europe does to Latin. But the relation is, in fact, neither so close nor so direct. Russia is not the direct heir of Greek culture in the same sense as France and Italy are of Latin. Her debt is owed to Byzantium, not to Athens. The Greek world with which she came into contact at the dawn of her national history was no longer the world of Aeschylus or Plato, nor even of their disciples and commentators. Long before the Russians came under the influence of Byzantium, the old Hellenic culture, resting as it did upon a social order and a view of life which had become obsolete, had faded away into a mere tradition. Cosmopolitanism in the secular domain, and Christianity in the religious, had effectually blurred all the characteristic features of Hellenic thought. It was not simply that Byzantium could hand on to Russia little that had formed part of the legacy of ancient Hellas; what she had to give her was something essentially different in kind, viz., the doctrines and ethical ideals of Christianity, a decadent tradition in literature and art, along

* The dedication is given in full by Morfill (*History of Russia*, p. 455), who truly describes it as "characteristically Russian."

with principles of law and of political and ecclesiastical government, which derived at least as much from Rome as from Greece and part from neither. So far the position of Russia in reference to classical antiquity does not, perhaps, differ essentially from that of some countries of Western Europe (Scandinavia, for example and in a lesser degree, England), whose contact with Rome in the Middle Ages was comparatively late and indirect. But in comparison even with these countries the connection of Russia with the classical world is weaker than has yet been indicated. She was also without any outward link with classical antiquity corresponding to that which was supplied throughout Western Europe by the use of Latin as the language of the learned, and which at any given moment made the Middle Ages accessible to the influences of ancient thought. At no time in her history was Greek used in Russia either as the language of the Church or as the language of science. Greek was studied, doubtless, in the Russian monasteries, but only as the language of the fathers of the Church; it never took the place occupied in the West by Latin as the key to the understanding even of classical Greek writers like Aristotle. Thus from every point of view it appears that the influence of Greek in mediæval Russia was incomparably weaker than the influence of Latin in the rest of Europe.

Another important point of difference between Russia and Western Europe is that the former had no part in the revival of letters in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, and had no classical Renaissance of her own. While Western civilisation was being "born again" through a vivifying first-hand contact with the thought, the imagination, and the literary ideals of the ancient world, Russia remained apart from and untouched by the movement, though, had it occurred two centuries later, it could not have failed to affect her deeply. Greek scholars came to Moscow after the fall of Constantinople, as they went to other European capitals; but Russia, which had but just shaken off the Mongol yoke, afforded no soil in which their learning could take root and fructify. It was not until the eighteenth century that Russia was ready to appropriate the results of the revived intellectual activity of Europe; and then it was from contact not with the thought of Greece and Rome, but with that of Germany and France, that her intellectual awakening resulted. That the fruits of Western culture which Russia thus gathered were grown in a soil made fertile by the ideas of classical antiquity, and that therefore Russian civilisation, in so far as it is borrowed from the West, is but Græco-Roman at one more remove, scarcely affects the question in any practical way. For what we are trying to explain is the distinctive Russian attitude towards the classics, and how this attitude differs from that of Western European nations. The greatness of the intellectual debt of modern Europe to ancient Greece and Rome is consciously recognised in the West, if it is not even exaggerated; it has, at any rate, always deeply impressed the imaginations of the Western peoples, and has thus ensured to the classics a place in education

which has not been wholly dependent on pedagogical reasons. The Russians owe no such direct debt to the classics, which have consequently never either compelled their reverence nor held their imagination to anything like the same extent. It is natural that they should feel the same sense of obligation to modern thought as Germany, France, and England do to ancient. Historically speaking, the first condition of intellectual progress for Russia was an acquaintance with modern foreign languages, just as for Western Europe it was an acquaintance with Latin. It is a matter of prime historical importance that Russia should have entered the family of European nations at the moment when the revival of letters had already borne its fruit, when the masterpieces of the four great literatures of modern Europe had already appeared, and when the current of Western thought had begun to set strongly in the direction of physical science. That Russia should be caught up and carried along by this intellectual current was in the circumstances almost an historic necessity.

To these historical considerations may be added others connected with the bent of the national intellect. Nothing is more easy than to generalise on national characteristics, intellectual or otherwise, and the facility of the process makes it especially dangerous in the case of a people whose habit of mind is so flexible and versatile as that of the Russians. But if there is one characteristic of the Russian mind more fully established by evidence and by common consent than another it is its "positivist" tendency. "Nul peuple," says M. Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu, "n'a l'esprit moins métaphysique; nul ne se préoccupe moins de l'essence des choses. Ses sciences favorites, celles qui déjà l'attirent le plus, sont les sciences physiques, les sciences naturelles, les sciences sociales. Il règne dans la nation un positivisme plus ou moins réfléchi. . . . Il y a peu de peuples aussi dépourvus de sentimentalité, et s'en faisant davantage un mérite."*

M. Leroy-Beaulieu may perhaps be going too far in attributing a lack of sentimentality to the Russians. Nevertheless, it is true that in all intellectual matters they are attracted by preference towards the positive and tangible; that their bent is logical rather than metaphysical; that where other nations may err through unrestraint of imagination, the most dangerous intellectual pitfall in a Russian's path is misapplied logic. The Russian mind acts freely only within the domain of ascertainable fact. Within these limits it shrinks from no speculation, however bold, from no inference, however extreme. It is perhaps not fanciful to see, as M. Leroy-Beaulieu does, in this habit of the Russian mind, the influence of the physical environment in which the life of the nation has been lived. "La pensée du Russe," he says, "ne connaît souvent pas plus de bornes que ses campagnes ou ses horizons, elle aime l'illimité,

* "L'Empire des Tsars et les Russes," 4th ed., 1897, i., p. 154. He rightly exempts from this judgment the Little Russians, who stand to the Great Russians intellectually in much the same relation as the Provençals to the French, or the peoples of the "Celtic fringe" to the main British stock.

elle va droit à l'extrémité des idées, au risque de rencontrer l'absurdité." And indeed, if one once admits the fact of the influence of physical environment upon mental conditions, it is no difficult to see how the unbroken uniformity of the Russian plain and in particular the absence of mountain and sea, must have told in the course of ages upon the national mind, and how far these things go to explain its wide horizons, on the one hand, and its indefiniteness, predisposing it to mysticism, on the other.

For though it is true that the Russians are intellectually more positivist than any other people of Europe, it would nevertheless be a one-sided view of the matter, as we have already indicated to regard them merely as a nation of realists. From this they are preserved not so much by any balancing intellectual quality as by their sensuous, emotional, and mystical temperament. It is this which, reacting on their intellectual nature, lends to it that touch of idealism which redeems it from the sway of purely materialistic interests and renders it peculiarly susceptible to the influence of ethical and social motives; it is this which gives to them their capacity for devotion to a cause or an idea, and so frequently infuses into their convictions, even upon purely intellectual subjects, an exalted, almost religious, fervour. Here, then, are the two sides of the Russian nature which most deeply impress themselves upon the foreign observer, its intellectual realism urging it towards the study of the positive sciences, and its emotional idealism tending towards religious exaltation or mysticism. It need hardly be pointed out how little either of these characteristics has in common with the high intellectual serenity, the restraint and moderation, and the delight in abstract truth which form so large a part of the ideals of classical antiquity. And if the Russian mind finds little that is congenial to it in the abstract ideals of the ancient world, still less is it attracted by the purely formal reasons which modern pedagogical science has discovered for the study of the classics, inasmuch as it is disposed to demand from every study positive intellectual nutriment first and foremost, to set a higher value on content than on form, and to refuse to be put off with the mere promise of "mental gymnastic."

Evidence of this trend of the Russian genius is not hard to discover. A sufficiently striking indication of it is to be found in the predominance of the realistic tendency in Russian literature, that is to say, in the preoccupation of Russian writers with problems of actual life and in their tendency to subordinate the artistic to the ethical interest. To deal with this topic fully would lead us too far afield; it will suffice to mention the names of Dostoievski and L. Tolstoi as exhibiting in varying degrees the qualities we have just noted. It is perhaps a more convincing line of argument to show that the regions of intellectual activity in which the Russians have actually distinguished themselves most are precisely the physical and social sciences and mathematics. A mere recital of the names of Russians who have achieved a reputation extending

beyond the bounds of their own country in the respective branches of science to which they have devoted themselves is sufficient to establish this fact: Lobachevski, Ostrogradski, Chebyshev, Sophia Kovalevskaja, in mathematics; Struve and Bredikhin, in astronomy; Mendeleev and Butlerov, in chemistry; Mechnikov and A. Kovalevski in biology; Inostrantsev and Amalitski, in geology; Pirogov, in surgery; Siechenov, in physiology; Bogdanov, in anthropology; Timiriazev, in botany; Count Alexis Uvarov, in Russian archæology; Nevolin, Redkin, Chicherin, Kachenovski; Martens, Maxim Kovalevski, Petrazhitski, in law; Soloviev, Kliuchevski, Bestuzhev-Riumin, Vinogradoff, in history; Buslaev; Tikhonravov, and Pypin in the history of literature. These are but examples of famous names, the list of which might easily be extended. If we turn to classical literature, philology, archæology or philosophy we are at once struck by the dearth of names worthy to rank with those we have mentioned. That classical scholars of distinction do exist in Russia we do not for a moment wish to deny; the work, for example, of V. V. Latyshev on the inscriptions of the northern shore of the Black Sea, and that of Professor Korsch on classical metres must always be mentioned with respect; but such scholars are out of all proportion few in comparison with those who have achieved distinction in other directions. Nor is it only in the region of scientific research that the Russians have distinguished themselves. They have displayed equal ability in the domain of applied science, as is evident by the remarkable aptitude which Russians of both sexes have shown for the medical and surgical professions.

The history of Russian education abounds in indications pointing in the same direction. While mathematics have been studied with success at the Universities from the very first, and the faculties of physical sciences have never suffered from a lack either of competent professors or of serious students, the faculties of philology have always been comparatively deserted, and it has sometimes been difficult even to keep them supplied with professors. Out of a total number of 16,497 young men who were in 1899 pursuing their studies at the eight Russian Universities only 648 belonged to the historico-philological faculties, as against 7,109 students of law, 4,638 of medicine, and 3,772 of physical science and mathematics*; and this in spite of the fact that every one of these 16,497 students must of necessity have passed through a course of classical instruction in the secondary schools. It is understood that at the present time the historico-philological faculties in the Universities are just able to meet the demand for classical teachers in the schools; but the filling up of vacancies in the ranks of such teachers has in the past been a constant source of difficulty, and we have seen how in the seventies and later it was necessary to import large numbers of foreigners for this purpose. With regard to the supply of classical professors at the same period, Professor Modestov (himself a classical

* See p. 185 for the corresponding statistics relating to 1905.

scholar) gives some interesting details in the course of an article written in 1880.* After mentioning that the chairs of Latin in three Universities (Kiev, Odessa, Kazan) were all then vacant and that at Kazan this chair had remained unoccupied for ten years, he goes on, "St. Petersburg is in this respect more fortunate. But it is worth observing that in the University of St. Petersburg out of seven professors of the ancient languages only two are of Russian nationality; among the rest are two Germans (it is true of Russian origin), one Greek, one Tsech, and one Finn, with a name ending in *-us*." As regards the Philological Institute "only one teacher of classical philology is of Russian nationality in the ethnological sense, and he is really a University Professor; among the other philological savants of the Institute you will find two Germans of non-Russian extraction, one Russian from the west with a German name, one Tsech, one Finn, and a Greek (if I mistake not, from Nezhin)." In the Academy of Sciences "you will find not only no Russian name among the representatives of classical philology, you will not even find a Russian subject." There is no reason to suppose that the state of things thus described in 1880 was in any way exceptional; that it was not so, the whole previous history of classical teaching at the Russian Universities affords abundant proof.

The facts above noted are sufficiently significant of the attitude which educated Russians have consistently maintained toward classical studies, at any rate at the Universities. This attitude has in its turn had some important secondary consequences which it is necessary to bear in mind if one wishes to form an accurate idea of the bearings of the classical controversy in Russia. In the first place, the classics lack the intellectual prestige which would surround the subject if Russia had produced great classical scholars. They also lack that indefinite social prestige which has not yet ceased to attach to them in England and some other countries of the West. The contrast which Russia presents to England in this respect is rather strikingly illustrated by the fact that in Russia it is for the most part the *poorest* students who attach themselves to the historico-philological faculties, whereas the pick of our public schoolboys are attracted to the corresponding "schools" at the English Universities. The "hall-mark of a gentleman," the outward sign of aristocratic culture, is certainly not in Russia an ability to quote Euripides or Horace; it is rather a finished command of two or more foreign languages, particularly French.† Another

* "Shkolnyi Vopros," pp. 22, 23.

† A convincing proof of the small social consideration accorded to the classics in Russia is afforded by the insignificant place they occupy in the curricula of the special schools most favoured by the Russian aristocracy. The Corps de Cadets find no room for either Latin or Greek in their scheme of studies. In the three lower classes (the junior division) of the Alexander Lyceum, five hours out of thirty-six are assigned to Latin, but in the three classes constituting the higher division, neither Latin nor Greek is taught. Neither language formed part of the education of the present Tsar, which was carefully mapped out by his father, one of the most typical Russians

practical consequence of the fact that classical studies are so little pursued at the Russian Universities is that there is outside the circle of classical professors and teachers no considerable class of educated persons who have received a classical education up to University standard, and whose opinion in favour of classics would be regarded as at once thoroughly well-informed and altogether disinterested in the sense of being free from a natural professional bias. Lastly, a direct result of the unpopularity of the classics at the Universities has been that the best native ability has never been attracted to the teaching of the ancient languages in the schools. This is a point of very great practical importance, as will be obvious to anyone who reflects how much the success of the classical teaching in our English public schools owes to the long-continued prevalence of exactly opposite conditions. One of the strongest practical arguments for the retention of Latin and Greek in something like their present position in our system of secondary education—an argument which appeals to many Englishmen who are critical of the educational value of the classics in themselves—is that no other subject could *at present* be taught with the same perfection of method, and therefore no other could yield the same results in intellectual development.

We have now seen how historical conditions on the one hand, and national temperament on the other, affect the question of classical study in Russia. It remains, further, to mention another Russian characteristic which is relevant to the present discussion, and seems to be related to both the above-mentioned causes, though it is perhaps more proximately a result of history and environment than of national temperament. There is in Russia little of that respect for mere antiquity which is found among peoples of ancient civilisation who have had a long and unbroken national history. The foundations of national life in Russia are doubtless old. In one sense she has a national history lasting over a thousand years; but as an organised state she is among the latest born of the nations of Christendom. The thread of her historical development was broken off in the thirteenth century, and hardly resumed before the sixteenth; her history as a European nation may be said to begin only two centuries ago. Hence, neither in the physical nor in the moral sense is she rich in visible monuments of antiquity. Only the most humble and least imposing of her secular institutions (*e.g.*, the *mir*) are old. The most impressive instruments of her power are of recent growth. The Holy Synod and the Ruling Senate were the creations of Peter the Great; the great departments of the bureaucracy are just a century old; the Imperial Council was established in the year in which Mr. Gladstone was born. Russian literature, art, and science are all in their first

who has ever sat on the throne of the Romanovs. According to Rambaud ("Histoire de la Russie," p. 830), the studies of Nicholas II. consisted chiefly of mathematics, the physical sciences, geography, history, political economy, modern languages (French, English, and German), with riding, fencing, and other physical exercises.

youth. These things cannot but affect the Russian's whole mental outlook. Moreover, the present generation of Russians have lived in an atmosphere of change. They have seen great political and economical causes at work which have profoundly modified the whole structure of society. Men and women not yet old have seen one social system crumble away, and another rise from its ruins to take its place. It is hardly wonderful, then, that the Russian should have little of that instinctive reverence for what is ancient, which seems to be felt in a greater or less degree by most Englishmen. Even if this indifference to antiquity be a temporary phenomenon, the result of passing conditions, it is nevertheless important to take note of it here, because it affects very considerably the whole attitude of Russian Society towards ancient learning—though it may be only in a negative way.

The main *differentia* in the conditions under which the classical question has to be discussed in Russia will now be clear. Some less fundamental points of difference between Russia and the West—such as the comparative importance of the study of modern languages in Russia—have been considered in a previous section of this chapter. To sum up what has already been said, the historic civilisations of the West are the immediate legatees of classical antiquity; the peoples of the West look to the ancient world not only as the parent, but as the nurse, of their culture—not only as its ultimate source, but as the unexhausted reserve to which they have again and again returned to draw fresh intellectual supplies. Moreover, many of their finest minds have been so saturated with the influence of the classics, that the thoughts, the ideals, and the spirit of the ancient world may be said still to live amongst them. Classical teaching in Russia has no such historical basis; it is not congenial to the Russian mind, and possesses little living interest for it; finally it cannot, to anything like the same extent as in Western Europe, count on a prepossession in its favour among the educated. As a school subject, or at any rate as the centre of school instruction, the classics must justify their position in Russia as nowhere else in Europe.

These facts can hardly be said to be in dispute. They are indeed common ground to the two parties in the controversy. But from the same premises each party draws very different conclusions. The advocates of a modern education appeal to the wide historical differences which separate Russia from the rest of Europe as constituting in themselves a reason why Western systems of education are unsuitable for Russia. The classicists reply that such arguments leave the main issue entirely untouched, inasmuch as the pedagogical value of the classics cannot be affected by historical considerations. Katkov points out in a well-known article dealing with this point, that the historical connection with the classical world was noticeably weaker in the case of some Western European peoples than in the case of others; that Roman law, for example, had scarcely prevailed at all in England; that since the Reformation the Latin language had had no significance in relation to public

worship in the Protestant countries of Europe; and that, nevertheless, in all these countries the classics had formed the basis of higher education. Moreover, if actual contact with the classical peoples were to be a deciding consideration, no European nation had had a closer contact with Greece than Russia herself. From these facts he drew the conclusion that the classical languages had established themselves as the centre of instruction in secondary schools "by the very nature of things, and in accordance with that reason which prevails in history." In other words, Katkov was of the opinion, recently expressed by an English writer,* that there resides in the classics an "admirable tonic virtue," which specially fits them for the purposes of intellectual discipline; and this was to him a sufficient justification for assigning them a predominant place in Russian secondary education. Similarly, to Katkov and his school it was no argument to say that the bent of the Russian mind was towards the positive sciences; all the more reason, he replied in effect, for the corrective which classical teaching with its formal discipline, and its remoteness from merely utilitarian interests, is so well fitted to supply. And here we touch, in fact, the very kernel of the controversy. It is of the essence of the classicists' case that all the benefits which have been found to result from classical teaching in other countries may be claimed for the same teaching in Russia. Their opponents insist, on the contrary, that all that makes a Russian to differ from a Frenchman or a German—temperament, history, national needs, language itself—diminishes or destroys the force of the argument from Western example. Between these two points of view no reconciliation is possible.

We are now ready to follow in more detail the course of the classical controversy in Russia. It may be well at the outset to remind the English reader that the curriculum of the Russian gymnasium, as settled in 1890, is by no means so exclusively classical as that of the average public school in England. The aggregate number of hours per week given to Latin and Greek together in all the classes of a Russian gymnasium is seventy-five, that is, one-third of the whole available school time (which amounts to 225 hours a week in the case of boys learning two modern languages); in the individual classes the proportion of time given to classics varies from less than one-fourth in the lower classes to rather more than one-third in the higher. Corresponding data obtained by an examination of the time-tables of Rugby School show that no form on the classical side of that school devotes less than half the available school hours to classics, and that the forms of the Upper School devote rather more. A somewhat larger proportion of time is assigned to mathematics at Rugby than in the Russian gymnasium; but every other subject of the curriculum (religion, the mother tongue, French, German, history, and natural science) is more scantily provided for in the English school than

* The Headmaster of Haileybury College in "Teaching and Organisation." Edited by P. A. Barnett; p. 214.

in the classical schools of Russia. It is obvious, therefore, that such terms as "the preponderance of the classics" have a somewhat different significance as used in Russia from that which attaches to them in England. The curriculum of the Russian classical schools may be better compared with that of the Prussian gymnasia according to the regulations of 1896. Here again the proportion of time devoted to classics is smaller in the Russian than in the foreign schools, the Prussian regulations allotting 39 per cent. of the whole school-time to the subject, while 33·3 per cent. only is assigned to it in Russia. It must be borne in mind, however, that the preponderance of the classics in the Russian gymnasia is still further secured by ranking them, along with mathematics and Russian, as "first-class subjects" for the purposes of the *attestat zrelosti*, or leaving certificate, which thus controls the teaching of the Russian schools very much as University scholarship examinations do that of the English public schools.

It is implied in what has already been said as to the main issues of the classical controversy that the case for the ancient languages as educational instruments is stated in Russia much as elsewhere. We will therefore endeavour to sum up as briefly as possible the main arguments urged in their favour, so as to avoid wearying the English reader unnecessarily with trite matter. We may arrange these arguments under seven heads:—

1. First, the teaching of the classics in schools is defended on the ground of the mental gymnastic afforded by the study of their linguistic material. It is claimed that Latin and Greek afford the means of mental discipline to a greater degree than any modern language—

- (a) Because they have been preserved in a sufficiently primitive stage of development to afford an excellent training in the structure of language generally and in the laws which govern its growth.
- (b) The fact that these languages are the expression of a civilisation different from our own (though not too dissimilar for the purpose) involves the necessity of constant comparison and contrast, and of a sustained effort on the part of the learner to place himself intellectually at the classical point of view. Thus the study of these languages furnishes an incomparable means of cultivating precision of thought and expression, whilst the judgment is trained by exercising it continually upon those problems of interpretation which confront the learner at every step in his reading of classical authors.
- (c) The classical writings themselves are marked by an austere simplicity and restraint of expression, a lucidity and definiteness, a precise correspondence of words with ideas, which no modern language displays in the same

degree. Hence they form an admirable corrective to slipshod habits of thought and to vagueness, obscurity, or inaccuracy in the use of language.

- (d) The syntactical structure of Latin, in particular, is so logical, and its grammar as a whole is so regular, that the study of this language cannot fail to induce in the learner, even unconsciously to himself, habits of clear and logical thinking.

2. Secondly, apart from the usefulness of classical study as formal gymnastic, it extends the mental horizon as no other study is capable of doing. To introduce a boy to the reading of a classical author is to transplant him into a new intellectual atmosphere. No boy can study the classics without obtaining some sense of historical perspective, of historical growth and evolution, of the relations between the past and the present in respect to thought, literature, art, law, and politics. Rightly taught, they thus cultivate the scientific attitude of mind, and they emancipate the mind from the influence of modern prejudices and prepossessions. Moreover, the study of antiquity is especially suited for youth, because it can be treated as a completed cycle of human development, the laws governing which have been adequately investigated and ascertained, and because it can be studied objectively, from the outside, as modern civilisation cannot. Further, the ancient view of life, depending as it did upon a few leading ideas, has a unity and simplicity which renders it easy to study as a whole.

3. Thirdly, as literature the classics have the highest value. Not only were all the great typical forms of literary art, which are known to modern Europe, created by the peoples of classical antiquity, but the actual productions of the Greek intellect, both in letters and art, remain the highest achievements of the most gifted minds the human race has yet produced. Greek literature therefore, if not Roman, possesses a universal significance, which makes it an essential element in any system of education which aims at the cultivation of literary taste and æsthetic appreciation.

4. Fourthly, the ethical element in classical literature must not be disregarded. That literature contains teaching of high ethical import; it preserves the record of the words and deeds of many men of lofty character and great nobility of mind; and though much of the morality of the ancient world must appear elementary, one-sided, or even false in the light of Christian teaching, no literature contains more striking examples of certain virtues, such as courage, patriotism, and the sense of honour, which are never likely to lose their place in the estimation of mankind.

5. Fifthly, as scientific instruments a knowledge of the classical languages is indispensable for the study of the history of European civilisation and thought. Not only is classical antiquity a closed book to those unacquainted with the classical languages, but Latin is also the key to the history of the middle ages in Western Europe, whilst Greek is almost equally indispensable to students of early Russian history. To the student of Ariæan philology, again, it is

a great advantage to possess a knowledge of two languages which preserve so many primitive forms as Greek and Latin.

6. Sixthly, we have to take account of certain practical or utilitarian considerations, such as the use of Latin to a doctor or a jurist, and the use of Greek to a clergyman; the value of a knowledge of Latin in facilitating the acquisition of the modern Romance languages; the value of both ancient languages as the sources from which the scientific terminology and much of the higher vocabulary of modern European languages have been derived; and the like.

7. Finally, it is claimed that the experience of the most advanced and intellectual nations of Europe—an experience which has extended over many centuries—is overwhelmingly in favour of the classical system of education.

Assuming that we have succeeded in stating with tolerable fairness and accuracy the case for the classics as it is put by their Russian apologists, it remains to explain on what part of the case they are accustomed most to rely. It is probably safe to assert that wherever classical teaching as an element in secondary instruction has been the subject of debate, the defenders of classicism have mainly rested their case not upon the usefulness of the classics for scientific or utilitarian purposes, but upon their value either as literature or else as instruments of intellectual discipline and culture. The French advocate of the classics gives prominence to the literary training to be obtained by their means.* In England we have been more inclined to lay stress upon intellectual gymnastic, at any rate in the case of boys at school.† Russian classicists incline very

* "Classics, which have held the field since the days of the Renaissance, and which have been the triumph and glory of our country, produce the following results:—They teach the student to discover the perfect meaning of words, and the exact relation they bear to ideas; to arrange them in beautiful and regular order; to catch the finest shades of feeling of which the soul is capable; to group words in telling or happy association, answering to the never-ending variety of man's thoughts; to understand and enjoy the most varied forms of beauty; to discern in every question the element that is human and universal; lastly, classics transmit from age to age, along with their texts and philosophical books, an old store of truth, wisdom, and generous sentiment, which is the bequest of perished ages to the thinking and feeling members of the human race."—Speech of M. Louis Liard, Vice-Rector of the Academy of Paris, December, 1902. (Quoted from a translation by Mr. G. E. Crawford.) See also a quotation from a work by Le P. Joseph Burnichon, S.J., quoted by Mr. Sadler in Vol. 3. of Special Reports on Educational Subjects, pp. 229, 230.

† "Putting it quite briefly, the learning of these ancient languages in its earlier stages affords an opportunity for training in precision of thought, memory, inference, and accuracy; in its later stages it is capable of enriching the mind with noble ideas. The aim of the school is therefore to instruct till the ages of sixteen or seventeen, in such a way as to secure the earlier benefits, if boys leave then, while gradually paving the way for the later benefits in case the study continues to the University."—Canon Lyttelton on Classical Teaching, in "Teaching and Organisation," Edited by P. A. Barnett, p. 214. Of course, one finds its different view sometimes stated by competent teachers e.g., Mr. J. L. Paton in "Aims and Practice of Teaching," Edited by Frederic Spencer, p. 46) holds that "the object of teaching Latin is . . . to form taste, to teach boys to admire rightly."

distinctly to the latter ideal rather than to the former. In Russia, as in England, the cause of classical teaching is admitted to stand or fall by the mental training afforded by the study of the grammar of the ancient tongues and the reading of classical authors. But between Russian and English practice there are some differences, the most important of which consists in the very different value assigned in the two countries respectively to composition—that is, to translations from the native language into Latin or Greek. In the first place, versification in Greek or Latin, which Canon Lyttelton, in common with many other English teachers, considers to be “the most effective of all the devices connected with classics viewed as a gymnastic of the mind,” has never found a place in the curriculum of the Russian classical school; and he would be courageous indeed who should venture now to propose its introduction. The writing of Greek or Latin verses would certainly seem, even to most Russian classicists, mere futile dilettantism, fit only for elegant aristocratic triflers, but entirely out of place in a serious plan of school-studies. Prose composition is more favourably looked on; but even this exercise has had its vicissitudes, and its star is now on the wane. Between 1871 and 1890 very great stress was laid in the Government instructions upon the importance of grammar and prose composition as elements in a classical education. But the pressure of public opinion, impatient with forms of intellectual exercise of which the advantage was not apparent, has now caused grammar and composition to be subordinated to the study of authors. In the explanatory memorandum attached to the plan of studies according to the revised curriculum of 1890, it is laid down that “the main distinction between” composition and translation from the classics “is that the former has a more didactic significance, serving as a means of strengthening grammatical knowledge, while the latter is an end in itself.” During the past twelve years, therefore, the chief aim of classical teaching has been, to use the words of the same memorandum, “the precise understanding of the meaning of the author read.” In the two highest classes set lessons in grammar are discontinued, and the teachers of these classes are instructed that “no side of the life of the ancients,” in so far as it contributed to the above-mentioned aim, “is to be left without proper elucidation. In order to attain this end the attention of the pupils should be as little as possible diverted by grammatical explanations, but should be concentrated on the translation. . . .” To the extent to which this change has been carried out, the centre of gravity of classical education has shifted from formal gymnastic in the direction of mental enlargement, and in this respect English method and practice in classical teaching part company rather decidedly with Russian. In England, classical prose composition, just because it forces the pupil to divest ideas of their expression in modern speech, to view them apart from their local and national colouring, and then to re-embodiment them in terms of ancient thought, continues to be prized by most teachers as the highest and most

valuable form of mental gymnastic afforded by the classics.* The difference, however, is one of proportion rather than of principle. In Russia, as in England, the champions of classical learning regard intellectual discipline as their inner citadel of defence; the cultivation of literary taste and skill, the value of the classics for purposes of historical and philological research, together with all the more practical considerations mentioned above, are in comparison mere outworks, which are not of course to be lightly abandoned to the enemy, but the loss of which need not involve the surrender of the cause itself.

This view of the prime function of classical teaching in schools falls in completely with, and in fact follows directly from, the conception of the classical school as being *par excellence* a school leading directly to the Universities and affording the necessary intellectual preparation for all the higher forms of study. "The gymnasia," says Count Paul Kapnist,† "being schools whose principal aim it is to prepare their pupils for the higher academic studies, must hold themselves aloof from all utilitarian tendencies and concern themselves, not with providing their pupils with a mass of information more or less applicable to their future careers in life, but with their highest mental development, with their training in habits of logical thinking and of persevering intellectual labour. . . . The training of future scholars is not at all the object of the study of the ancient languages in the gymnasia; this study enters as an essential element into the curriculum of these schools in consequence of the fact that not only theoretical considerations, but the experience of all the civilised countries of Europe for centuries, have shown that these subjects constitute a powerful and unrivalled means for the development of logical aptitudes in youthful minds, making them capable of intellectual activity in various directions. As in the study of mathematics in the school, so also in the study of the classical languages, and likewise of most other subjects of the curriculum of the gymnasia; what is important is not that the pupil on leaving school should permanently retain in his memory all that he has studied there . . . on the contrary, the matter of essential import is the *process itself whereby his knowledge is obtained*, and which gives him a development which will remain with him throughout his life." And Count Kapnist adds in a note, "The importance of the two ancient languages for imparting this general training is the sole ground on which their predominance in the course of the gymnasium should be based."

The Russian upholders of the classical system have probably been well advised to entrench themselves strongly behind the argument of mental gymnastic; for some at least of the outer

* "Rightly handled, Latin prose is perhaps the most effective instrument of education a teacher can use." Mr. J. L. Paton, in "Aims and Practice of Teaching," p. 70.

† *Klassitsizm kak neobkhodimaya osnovu gimnazicheskogo obrazovaniia* (Classicism as the necessary basis of the instruction of the gymnasium), pp. 74, 72.

defences enumerated are more open to assault in Russia than elsewhere. For example, it is obvious that the value of the classics for the purposes of comparative philology must be much more moderately estimated in the case of a Russian whose own language has been preserved in a primitive phase of linguistic development, and (when supplemented by Church Slavonic, which is understood by all educated Russians) is as valuable a possession to the philologist as either of the classical tongues. It is equally clear that from the point of view of the cultivation of their native languages the Romance peoples have a much greater interest in the study of Latin than Russians, whose native speech, except in respect of ecclesiastical and scientific terminology, has borrowed little from classical sources. It is even a tenable proposition that a knowledge of Latin is indispensable to the man who would acquire complete mastery of the resources of the English tongue, though great instances such as that of John Bright may be quoted to the contrary. But a study of Greek or Latin gives very little assistance to a Russian in acquiring a thorough knowledge of his own language, and, as a matter of fact, the great masters of Russian speech, from Pushkin to Tolstoi, have not been men of classical learning*. The advantage of a knowledge of Latin for the acquisition of the Romance languages is of course the same for a Russian as it is for an Englishman; but it is not an advantage which weighs very heavily with Russians, who know by a good deal of experience that a practical, though not a scientific, acquaintance with French or Italian can be very well acquired by persons who know no Latin.

In other respects, the attack on the outer defences of the classical system has presented much the same features in Russia as elsewhere. The high importance of classical literature from the intellectual, æsthetic, and ethical points of view is, as a rule, fully admitted; but it is maintained that the very slight degree to which the classics are found in practice to cultivate the literary and artistic faculties of boys at school does not justify the prominent place assigned to them in the curriculum of the gymnasia. It is

* Perhaps the statement in the text needs a little further exegesis. Both in Russian and in English, no inconsiderable portion of the higher vocabulary is the result not so much of the natural processes which determine the growth of language generally, as of deliberate borrowing or conscious invention on the part of educated persons well acquainted with more highly cultivated tongues. Our own higher vocabulary was supplemented and enriched by drawing directly on the resources of Latin and Greek; and as this work was done by persons who were saturated with the ideas of classical antiquity, the new terms they introduced entered into our language with their classical connotation unimpaired. Though the meaning of many of these terms has become modified in the course of time, the classical atmosphere lingers palpably about them still; that is to say, there are subtleties of meaning in such terms which cannot be rightly appreciated by those who know nothing of the life and thought of the ancient world. In Russian, on the other hand, the learned vocabulary was enriched either by borrowing directly from French or German, or by framing new terms on German models; consequently the classical atmosphere counts for little here. The key to the higher vocabulary of Russian is, above all, German.

urged that all the moral teaching of the classics would be equally accessible to the pupil in a Russian translation ; and that most of the literary and artistic training obtainable from the classics would be adequately provided for by extended acquaintance with great masterpieces of modern literature, Russian and foreign, which might also be supplemented by translations from the classics. There is a good deal of testimony that the average Russian gymnasist—and in this he is sufficiently like the average English public school boy of corresponding age—never does get to the point of appreciating the classics on their literary and artistic side ; and the view is frequently expressed that a sense of literary excellence is not to be expected at the schoolboy age. "How," asks the Moscow Pedagogical Society, "will a boy appreciate Cæsar's elegance of style, when that of Turgenev, even, is almost beyond his comprehension ?" If, therefore, it is found so difficult in practice to teach the classics as literature in school at all, it is somewhat idle to attempt to defend them on the ground of the literary training they undoubtedly afford to those who are capable of appreciating them.

Again, it is admitted that the value of Greek and Latin as instruments of research is not open to doubt ; but it is maintained that, while this would be an excellent reason for their retention in the place of honour in a few schools whose special function it would be to prepare students for the historico-philological faculties, it does not justify their position as central subjects in a national system of instruction, the prime object of which is, not to train a few scholarly specialists, but to provide the State with educated citizens and efficient servants in every department of public life. But the predominance of classics in the curriculum of any school would, in the view of the objectors to the classical system, be justified only in the case of the future specialist in history, philology, or classical letters ; for the great mass of students who, after completing their course at the secondary school, attach themselves to the faculties of law, medicine, or physical science at the Universities, a classical training has no special value whatever.

The position advanced in the last paragraph raises at once the most debated question in the whole controversy ; since the very essence of the claim made on behalf of classics as mental gymnastic is that the training they afford is of such a kind as to be of value not only to future historians or philologists, but to students who devote themselves to any of the higher branches of knowledge. This was precisely the claim by which Katkov and his followers in the seventies justified the introduction of the classical system in all its strictness into the Russian gymnasia. Katkov's famous principle of "concentration," though directed primarily against the intellectual shallowness and disinclination to mental effort which he held to be the result of superficial study of a wide range of subjects, involved the assumption that all the mental training which a diversified curriculum could give was implicit in the classical system of instruction, and that it was all the more valuable

because unconsciously assimilated. He furthermore maintained that the mental training thus obtained was an indispensable condition of success in *all* the higher branches of study. "The fact undoubtedly is," he says in one article ("Moscow Gazette," 11th May, 1871), "that the school of which we have been speaking" (i.e., a school in which one-half or more of the school time was devoted to classics) "is everywhere the condition of the highest level of intellectual culture and of the development of all specialities of knowledge and understanding. The light of science extends everywhere in our time, even to countries which are barbarous and half-savage, but the indubitable fact is that the countries which do not possess this school have no independent science of their own; they make use of borrowed light, and are in intellectual dependence upon other nations." This is no *obiter dictum* or isolated expression of opinion. The claim that a classical training is the indispensable preparation for the successful pursuit of all the higher forms of intellectual activity was consistently asserted by Katkov and his school in the most uncompromising and unqualified terms; and this, along with the idea of using the classics as a corrective to the intellectual and political tendencies then prevailing among the Russian youth, constituted the prime motive of the school legislation of the early seventies. It is, therefore, against the claim of the ancient languages to supply the best possible intellectual discipline, and against the great preponderance consequently assigned to them in the school curriculum, that the main energy of the attack of the opponents of classicism is directed. Mental gymnastic as the final aim of school teaching, and concentration as the principle of school method by which this aim is to be attained—these are the two dominant ideas which the critics of the classical system in secondary education aim at overthrowing.

Little more is possible within the limits of this chapter than to indicate the general trend of the discussion on these two subjects. The principle of concentration is impeached as being opposed to that harmonious development of the intellectual powers which is the ideal of modern education, as it was the ideal of the ancient Greeks themselves. If this charge be met by the assertion that the various aspects under which the classics are studied do in fact provide a many-sided intellectual culture, the anti-classicists reply in effect: "Granted that this is true in some sense and to a certain degree, it has still to be shown that classical instruction is the only, or the best, way of obtaining the result aimed at. Do the classics, for example, afford better opportunities for the training of memory than modern languages? Is the study of ancient texts better adapted to cultivate the powers of observation than the study of nature? Is the historical sense more effectually developed by reading the classical authors than by the study of history? Can it be maintained that practice in applying general rules of accidence or syntax to particular instances is a better discipline for the deductive faculties than mathematics can offer?"

Or that the inductive faculties are better exercised on the facts of Latin Grammar than on the facts of physics? Granted that a classical training imparts a greater precision of thought and of statement than can be obtained by any other means, is this in itself a sufficient justification for allowing the classics to throw all other subjects into the background, which is what the principle of concentration involves? Concentrate the pupil's intellectual energies by all means; but not by limiting him to this study or to that, but by directing his attention to the essential facts and central principles of every subject, and teaching him to group individual phenomena around these facts and principles. Thus only will you give unity to your teaching, and preserve your pupil not only from the intellectual superficiality which you deprecate and deplore, but from the equally formidable vices of ignorance of the physical world which surrounds him, and of indifference to the movements and interests of modern life."

The value of classics as mental gymnastic is impugned for the most part upon grounds which are familiar to the English reader, though the statement of them may vary in form from that to which he is accustomed. Some writers on the subject go so far as to deny that there is any mental gymnastic obtainable from the classics, which could not equally well be got out of modern languages, provided the latter were taught by improved methods. This is the view expressed by M. Ivanovski in a paper on the Curriculum of the Gymnasia, which was read before a special commission of the Moscow Pedagogical Society, and derives special interest from the fact that the criticism of the classical system contained therein was endorsed by that Commission. Other opponents of classicism admit that the classics have an advantage over other subjects from the point of view of the mental discipline they afford, but maintain that this advantage is too dearly bought at the price now paid for it. Out of a multitude of arguments, logical, psychological and empirical, with which the claims of the classics, especially of grammar, in respect of intellectual gymnastic, are assailed, I select for statement a few which seem to me for various reasons to be typical.

The first of these is based upon the differentiating circumstance that the native tongue of a Russian boy is highly inflected, and rich in grammatical forms. A great part of the value of the mental discipline derived from drill in the Latin and Greek languages results from the comparison of the grammatical forms of these languages with those of the learner's native tongue. In the case of an English or French boy, who speaks an "analytic" language, the learning of a highly inflected form of speech like Latin or Greek is doubtless a very valuable discipline; but to a Russian boy, whose mother tongue is in some respects richer in inflexions than either of the classical languages, the advantage is much less apparent. For him the corresponding mental discipline would consist in studying, not the grammatical forms of Greek and Latin, but those of English and French. This applies perhaps with especial force to accidence; but even with regard to syntax also, the Russian language differs

so fundamentally from English or the Romance languages, that a really scientific study of the contrasts which the structure of these languages presents to his own would afford a Russian boy a mental gymnastic by no means unworthy to be placed in comparison with that obtainable from Latin grammar. One need only mention by way of illustration the entirely different conception of action in past and future time, as expressed by the aspects of the Russian verb and the French or English tenses respectively.* It must have been a perception of these facts that led a recent correspondent of the *Spectator* (November 22nd, 1902) to suggest Russian as a substitute for Latin in the curriculum of English schools, and Bismarck's view of the relative value of Greek and Russian as subjects of study is well known. But it is important to remark, in passing, that while the grammatical material of Russian is comparatively primitive and dissimilar from that of the Teutonic or Romance languages, the structure of Russian literary prose is modern and follows Western models; and for that reason it is impossible to put Russian literature on a level with classical as an instrument of the higher intellectual gymnastic.

Another criticism is concerned with the lack of positive content in the verbal and grammatical material which forms the main portion of the mental pabulum provided by the classics during the first few years of the school course. It is maintained to be undesirable to exercise the pupil's mind, in the interests of purely formal development, on matter which is lacking in intrinsic significance. This is a consideration which appeals strongly to the Russian mind, constitutionally impatient as it is of studies that are merely disciplinary, and always disposed to attach much more value to substance than to form. The criticism is supported by two arguments of a psychological nature. It is pointed out that boys of ten or twelve years of age are intensely interested in things, but care little for the verbal expression of them. To force them to occupy their minds with words rather than things is therefore unscientific and a violence done to nature. Again, it is contrary to sound pedagogical principles to exercise the mind of a young learner upon matter which possesses no interest for him. Both these considerations, and especially the latter, are more convincing to a Russian than they would be to an English schoolmaster. The English pedagogical conscience approves of a certain amount of sheer uninteresting grind, believing it to

* In view of the comparatively slight attention which has been paid in England to the Slavonic languages, it may be necessary to say in explanation of the remark in the text, that the Russian verb possesses no means of distinguishing degrees of remoteness in past time, having, for example, only one word to express the different shades of meaning conveyed by the English, *made, have made, had made*, etc.; but that it has, in compensation, an elaborate grammatical apparatus (the so-called "aspects") for marking the distinction between an action done once (semelfactive) and one which is habitual. The same remark applies *mutatis mutandis* to future time, and also to indefinite time as expressed by the infinitive mood.

be morally, if not intellectually, productive.* It is certainly possible to carry the cult of interest too far. Nevertheless, every practical teacher realises that by neglecting to make his lessons as interesting as possible, he would be depriving himself of the main stimulus to attention.

The essence of the complaint against classical study in its earlier stages, viz., those in which grammar predominates, would appear to be that it affords a special, philological, *i.e.*, a narrowly scientific training, and is comparatively lacking in the humanistic elements which should form the basis of a liberal education. With respect to the mental discipline to be obtained from classical study in its later stages, *i.e.*, from the reading of authors, the criticism is of a different kind, being directed not so much against the lack of positive content as against the difficulty and unsuitability for boys of the literary material of the classics. To the few who are really able to place themselves at the antique point of view, the study of classical literature is acknowledged to be an incomparable means of intellectual culture. But it is asserted that the average Russian boy never does succeed in realising ancient life. To do so demands a great effort of the intellect and the imagination—an effort which taxes the powers even of the grown man, and therefore the study of classical antiquity is essentially a study for the specialist and should in ordinary cases be undertaken at the University and not at the school. That classical study is unsuited to the capacities of the average boy is held to be shown by the fact that over 70 per cent. of those who enter the Russian gymnasias leave without completing the course, and of those who obtain the certificate of maturity which enables them to proceed to the University only an insignificant fraction are so interested in the study of classics as to pursue it further during their academic course. A system of instruction which succeeds in its aim with less than thirty boys out of every hundred stands self-condemned. The reply of the classicists, of course, is that although the benefit received by the apparent failures of the classical system may not be capable of accurate measurement or definition, it is none the less real. The boy who leaves the gymnasium without a certificate may

* An interesting expression of opinion on this point may be quoted from an article by a distinguished English man of science, Dr. Alexander Hill, late Master of Downing College, Cambridge, whose view as to the value of a classical education in relation to subsequent scientific studies is precisely that of Katkov. In an article contributed to "Aims and Practice of Teaching," p. 283, he says: "I have no hesitation in saying that, on the average, boys trained on the classical side of our public schools make better men of science, medicine and of law than the boys who come to the University from the modern side; for the classics develop the power of sustained and orderly thinking. Some part of the credit for this most desirable result must be attributed to the discipline of working at a subject which offers in itself no temptations to work. No advantages, from the schoolboy point of view, are to be derived from its study. It does not come near enough to his own life to arouse his curiosity. His only motive for learning his lesson is that his master tells him to do so; and this, we think, should always be sufficient."

have little apparently to show for his expenditure of time and labour; but his thinking powers have, nevertheless, been braced and stimulated by drill in the classics to an extent which would have been impossible with any other form of mental exercise. The certificate of maturity is not the only gauge of the success of a classical training.

We may notice, further, the line of argument followed by some critics of the classical system with reference to the special advantages offered by the study of ancient history and civilisation. The classicists claim for ancient history a special pedagogical value for two reasons; first, because the history of the ancient classical world may be studied as a completed whole,* and secondly, because unity and simplicity are (as Guizot has so well pointed out†) the distinguishing characteristics of ancient civilisation, just as variety and complexity are of modern. Thus not only are the essential principles of ancient civilisation more certainly known than those which underlie the present incomplete cycle of development, but they are more readily apprehended by the youthful mind. The comment of the objectors to the classics amounts to this, that so far as the study of ancient history can be profitably pursued in school at all, the advantages indicated can be obtained without a knowledge of the sources in the original. In studying other periods of history we trust to translation, and "why," asks M. Ivanovski, "cannot a translation of Cæsar or Livy give us what is given by a translation of Dante or Erasmus?" As to the comparative simplicity of ancient civilisation, it may be a positive disadvantage to accustom young people to suppose that the problems of social life are simple and easy of solution. M. Ivanovski is, however, presenting an extreme and possibly an individual view when he observes that the supposed simplicity of ancient history, and the ancient world is "to a large extent founded on a misapprehension. It is not the ancient world itself which is simple, but its presentation for

* Granovski puts this point very well in an article on the "Decay of Classical Teaching," written in 1855:—

"Of all the departments of ancient history the Græco-Roman alone presents a closed cycle, complete in itself. In it alone we find a complete development of national life from its infancy to its decay and final dissolution. We may say that every important phase of this protracted life-process was accomplished in the daylight of history, and before the eyes of the rest of mankind. This is why the destinies of Greece and Rome have always been and will long remain a favourite subject for the thought and study of great historians, and reflecting minds which seek in history laws of the same kind as nature obeys. The phenomena of modern Christian history are still far from having reached their culmination; every one of them may in its last consequences furnish a painful revelation of the falseness of the judgments which have been passed upon it. Through all the events which constitute the content of the last fifteen centuries, which separate us from Constantine the Great, there runs a living thread, whose ends are in the hand of God. The organic thread, by which the events of the pagan world were connected, was broken short by Christianity."

† "Histoire Générale de la Civilisation en Europe" (Second Lecture)

school purposes" (*ego shkolnaia pererabotka*). He would appear to hold, in fact, that the view which Guizot has presented to us of the simplicity of ancient civilisations is an illusion of perspective which would be more or less corrected by historical study, but this is probably true only within narrow limits.

Much of the indictment against classical teaching resolves itself into the charge of *bookishness* and *estrangement from life*. "The opponents of the classical system," says M. Ezerski in the "*Russkaia Shkola*" for December, 1900, "reproach it with isolating the student from actual life, carrying him away into an ancient far-off world remote from modern conditions, chaining him to the study of the dead letter, and stifling with its scholasticism the free play of thought under the pretext of developing the logical faculties." And again: "The fundamental defect of classicism is that it is concerned exclusively with the *book*. If a book is always a dead thing, it is doubly dead when written in a disused language and dealing with a long-vanished world." This accusation of bookishness, of course, derives its whole weight from the alleged excessive preponderance of the classics in the curriculum of the gymnasium, since all would presumably admit that book-learning must in any case enter largely into any modern scheme of studies. The gravamen of the charge is that the classics absorb so much of the school time that the pupil is not brought into real contact with the actualities of contemporary life; and that modern languages and the mother tongue, geography, and the physical sciences must all be more or less sacrificed so long as the classics are maintained in their present privileged position. It may be noted that both "the insufficiency of the instruction given in the Russian language, literature, and history, and the defective acquaintance of the pupils with the physical world around them," were among the subjects of complaint against the secondary schools, for which the late Minister of Public Instruction, in his circular of the 8th July, 1899, admitted that there existed a certain measure of justification.

The questions of intellectual discipline and culture which we have been discussing are intimately related to another matter which has played an important part in the classical controversy in Russia, viz., the use of the classics as an intellectual and moral corrective. This point needs to be considered not only in its general bearings, but also in relation to the particular circumstances which preceded the legislation of 1871, and determined its spirit. The political and intellectual unrest which attended the break-up of the old social system, had, as we have already seen, taken shape in the revolutionary movement known as Nihilism—a movement to which in many of its characteristic aspects history presents few, if any, parallels. Its protest against every existing form of social and political organisation; its scornful negation of all accepted beliefs; its contempt for the legacy of the past; its crude materialism; its utter lack of positive ideals; its angry demand for the *tabula rasa* in everything; such were the distinctive features

of this extraordinary movement which spread like an infection among the impressionable Russian youth in the sixties and seventies. Other revolutionary movements have had some sort of philosophical basis, some defined creed, some positive program. Nihilism was frankly negative and destructive. It was no wonder that the Russian Government should grow alarmed at the spread of such ideas, nor that it should fall back upon the school as its instrument for counteracting their influence. The use of the school for the purpose of influencing opinion on social and political questions is a less familiar idea to Englishmen than the use of the school to influence religious opinion; but it is no strange phenomenon in countries with a more centralised system of State education than we possess, and it follows naturally enough from the thesis that the State has the right to control the education of its citizens in its own interests.

What, then, were the qualities which made the classical languages seem to the Russian Government, in view of the circumstances of the time, to be specially suitable to form the principal subject of study in the gymnasia? Chiefly, their remoteness from modern ideas, interests, and controversies. All humanistic study inevitably brings the student, at any rate when a certain stage is reached, into contact with large questions of social and political philosophy, of religion and ethics; it is important, therefore, that such study should be pursued in a serene atmosphere, high above the strife and passion of contemporary parties and the confusion of contemporary opinion. This high, serene atmosphere could be afforded only by the classics.* Modern literatures, not excluding that of Russia herself, are by their very nature largely concerned with questions which are still the subject of debate. The teaching of modern history, again, affords opportunities for the most various interpretations of political events and social and philosophical movements. The physical sciences were regarded with suspicion for other reasons which have already been explained. Classics

* No student of the history of Prussian education can have followed the trend of thought in the Russian educational world during the sixties and seventies, without being reminded of the similar part which considerations of the kind described above played in school politics in the time of Friedrich Wilhelm IV. But this view of the effect of classical teaching has not been consistently or universally held. The connection which Taine sought to establish between classical teaching and the events of the French Revolution, and the view held by Nicholas I. of Russia as to the influence of the classics in spreading republican opinions, are at least evidence that the question has two sides.

It may be here noted that the fear of the *pagan* influence of the classics, which troubled so many minds in the middle of last century in Germany (where it was the natural reaction against the spirit of the New Humanism), and which found expression in France in such works as that of the Abbé Gaume (*Le ver rongeur des sociétés modernes, ou le paganisme dans l'éducation*, Paris, 1851), has never been strongly felt in Russia. This is naturally explained by the fact that the ethical ideals of classical antiquity, have at no time exercised on Russian minds the attraction they had for such men as Winckelmann, Goethe, Wolf, and other apostles of the New-Humanistic movement in Germany.

and mathematics alone could give no cause for offence, the former for the reasons above indicated, the latter because of its abstract character. These two subjects were therefore placed in a pre-dominant position in the curriculum of all schools which prepared their pupils for the Universities.

The pedagogical justification that may be claimed for this measure is clear. If it be true that the Russian mind lives too much in the present and the actual, that it lacks the steady influence of long national traditions, that its very quickness and versatility render it especially liable to be carried away by sudden waves of thought or sentiment, surely the study of classical antiquity would seem to be peculiarly well adapted to hold these tendencies in check. *Cæteris paribus*, a man imbued with classical culture will certainly be less at the mercy of modern catchwords and shibboleths, political, philosophical, or religious, than one whose intellectual horizon is bounded by the thought of his own time. From this point of view a better knowledge of classical antiquity may be held to be as desirable for a Russian as a greater acquaintance with contemporary foreign thought is for an Englishman. And if these considerations be generally well founded, they acquire a double force in relation to the exceptional conditions which prevailed in Russia in the sixties. An antidote to subversive ideas might reasonably be sought in attempting to fix the minds of young people upon the great civilisations of the past, which are in so many ways the source of living influences in the present; and in thus showing them that the course of events and especially the life and growth of political societies are not the result of blind chance, or of arbitrary acts of power, but are subject to historic laws, which cannot be violated with impunity.

The reply made to this may be thus summarised. In the first place, it is said that the conditions which influenced the action of the Government in 1871 were temporary in their nature, and have since been greatly modified, and that it is now time to reconsider the whole position in relation to present needs. And again, granting that the considerations above adduced give the classics a special claim to a permanent place in Russian education, it has still to be shown that they are entitled to the exclusive and preponderating position now assigned to them. Arguments of the same kind as those which have been put forward on behalf of classics may be used in favour of other subjects also, since classical culture has certainly no monopoly of power to enlarge the mind, and to lift it above passion or prejudice. If a knowledge of classical antiquity enlarges and emancipates the mind in one direction, ignorance of modern literature and physical science fetters and enslaves it in another. Sober, well balanced, and reasonable minds are not produced by artificially confining them during the period of growth to a single field of intellectual activity. While no one would claim that the school should take all knowledge for its province, it is nevertheless desirable, in view of the great and

increasing complexity of the problems of modern life, that the school should at least give such guidance to the youthful mind as will enable it to find its bearings in all the main departments of human knowledge.

So far our review of the classical controversy has been concerned with the intrinsic value of the classica as an educational instrument. This review, brief and imperfect as it has necessarily been, will have served to reveal how fundamental are some of the differences which divide the opposing parties. This is not to say that in the course of nearly half a century of discussion there has not been some progress towards agreement. No one can have paid even a superficial attention to the history of educational opinion in Russia without observing that the ground which is common to the contending schools of thought bears a sensibly larger proportion to the whole area of controversy than was the case a generation ago. It is rare now to find a Russian educationist of standing who would hold, with the realists of the seventies (or with our own Herbert Spencer, who seems to have greatly influenced them), that the physical sciences should succeed to the preponderating position actually occupied by the ancient languages in secondary education. The best representatives of both sides are now in substantial agreement that the curriculum of the secondary school should have a broadly humanistic basis.* Many who criticise severely the existing system would nevertheless admit that there is a distinct place for the classics, or at any rate for Latin, in a wisely-framed scheme of secondary studies. The classicists on their part are not indisposed to certain concessions in points of detail. The main issue, however, is not whether the classics have or have not an educational value for school purposes, but whether their value is such as to entitle them to remain the principal subject of study in the privileged secondary school. On this question it cannot be said that there has been any real approach to agreement. To a large extent, the differences between the two parties depend upon a difference in standpoint, the advocates of a modern education tending to argue the question as though it turned upon the relative values of different kinds of knowledge, the classicists maintaining, on the other hand, that there is a prior question to be considered, namely, the relative values of discipline and knowledge. And even if it could be agreed that discipline, intellectual and moral, is the chief object of school education (either in some cases or in all), there would still remain a wide difference of opinion as to how the best discipline may be secured, whether by concentration on a single subject, for which a general disciplinary value is claimed, or by study of several

* See the Resolutions of the Moscow Pedagogical Society as to the educational system of the secondary school, paragraph 4: "There should be only one type of secondary school giving a general education, and this school should have a humanistic course, and give access to all higher educational institutions."—*Transactions*, Vol. I, sec. iii. p. 59. This Society has a membership of about 1,500, and is more broadly representative of the party of reform than any other educational organisation in Russia.

subjects, each of which may possess a special disciplinary value. These are fundamental questions which it would seem almost hopeless to decide on purely *à priori* grounds. There remains, however, one criterion to which they may be submitted, namely, that of experience. The appeal to experience is, in fact, made by both sides with equal confidence, and, ever since Katkov started in the *Moscow Gazette* his famous polemic in favour of classical teaching, it has bulked largely in the controversy. There is this difference, however, between the classicists and their opponents, that the appeal of the former is made for the most part to the experience of the West, while the latter rely on the experience of Russia herself.

The position of the classicists may be thus formulated. The classical system has on its side all the authority of use and wont. Latin from time immemorial, and Greek more or less since the Renaissance, have formed the main subjects of instruction in the schools of Western Europe, and in spite of the competition of more modern studies, still for the most part maintain their ground there. It is argued that this remarkable persistence of the classical tradition in education must be based upon experience and conviction of the unique value of the ancient languages as educational instruments. It is said, again, that modern civilisation itself owes its rise to the revival of classical letters; that the nations which have made the most striking contribution to the advance of science, letters and art in modern times, *e.g.*, the French, the Germans, and the English, are precisely those which have assigned to the classics the largest place in their educational systems; and that in proportion as the classical languages have fallen into neglect in any country, the general level of culture in that country has tended to sink, as it did, for example, in Russia itself after the blows dealt at classical learning in 1849 and 1851. From these premises the conclusion is drawn that the classical school is an essential condition of the highest intellectual progress in any and every direction, whilst some go so far as to argue that the maintenance of classical studies in their present position is necessary as a guarantee of the intellectual independence of Russia, which would be endangered if the living tongues of the modern Western nations were to take the place of the dead languages in Russian education. Thus by a seeming paradox, classical culture, the value of which consists, *ex hypothesi*, in its being the source of Western civilisation, comes to be regarded at the same time as a bulwark against denationalising influences entering Russia from the West.

The objectors reply in effect as follows. As to the general question of the relation between intellectual progress and the classical school, modern culture is far too complex a thing to be referred to a single cause. However important a part classical letters may have played in the advance of European civilisation, it is an unproved assumption that they are a permanent condition of progress for all times and all countries. The reasons which gave to Latin its peculiar place in mediæval education were an accident of history; Latin was studied throughout the Middle Ages from

motives which were practical and utilitarian as well as scientific, and, being strictly relative to the conditions of the time, had very little in common with the considerations put forward by the modern apologists of classical instruction. So long as Latin remained the recognised medium of communication between the learned of all countries, so long as it was the language of contemporary literature and science, no education was, of course possible without it. It was the only key to the storehouse of mediæval knowledge, and it was, therefore, studied not as an end in itself, but as a means to an end; that is to say, it was acquired by students of all nationalities for precisely the same reasons as now make it necessary for Russians to learn French and German. Generally speaking, in their attitude towards literature the Middle Ages were intent on matter, and uncritical of form; and in this sense, at least, it may be claimed that the mediæval point of view in education was nearer to that of the modern realist than to that of the modern classicist. When the Renaissance had awakened the dormant sense of literary beauty, the classics began to be studied as models of artistic excellence. This gave a strong, indirect impulse to literary creation in the vernacular tongues of Europe, which ultimately destroyed or greatly weakened the motives which had led men to the classics both in the Middle Ages and in the period of the Renaissance. For in proportion as the modern European languages developed the capacity for literary expression, the results of thought and research tended more and more to pass into their custody. The relative importance of Latin was proportionately diminished; its use, both in speech and writing, everywhere decreased, lasting longest where, as in the Germanic countries of the continent, the literary development of the modern vernacular tongues was slowest. New reasons for the predominance of the classics in the schools had then to be sought, and they were found in the advantage of a knowledge of Latin and Greek for mental gymnastic, for historical or philological research and the like. From the historical point of view, therefore, the classical system appears to many persons to be a mere accidental survival from an order of things which has long since passed away, and the reasons now alleged in its support to be in large measure an after-thought of modern times. Moreover, the anti-classicists have not failed to point out that in those countries of the West which have been the special homes of classical culture, the position of Latin, and to a still greater extent that of Greek, is becoming more and more insecure; and that the trend of recent events in Scandinavia, in France, and even in Germany, has materially weakened the force of the argument from Western example. A considerable literature has, in fact, grown up upon this subject. The trend of educational opinion abroad in favour of a wider curriculum than that afforded by the old classical schools is eagerly noted by the Russian advocates of reform; and in particular much interest has been aroused by the changes recently introduced into the curriculum of the secondary schools of the Scandinavian

countries, which in their geographical and historical conditions are held to present many close analogies with Russia.*

But—it is argued—even admitting that the success of the classical system in other countries has been as great as is pretended by its most enthusiastic supporters, that would not be sufficient in itself to justify its introduction into Russia. The success of any educational system must be judged in relation to local and national conditions ; for in so far as those local and national conditions are essential, the system will not bear transplantation into any environment in which they are not reproduced. Now in all the countries of the Latino-German world there have existed certain conditions which have peculiarly favoured the success of classical teaching. Such are the traditional hold which the classics have there retained over educated society ; the pride which these nations have always felt in tracing their intellectual ancestry back to Greece and Rome ; and, most important of all, the resulting confidence which Society on the whole has felt in the prevailing system of education. These things cannot be transplanted at will. They are the very soil in which all the best fruits of classical education have grown to perfection. Even those who believe with Katkov that classical learning is the “root of science” should pause to consider that roots will not thrive in a soil that is unsuited for them.

But why—continue the objectors—why this constant reference to the experience of Western countries ? Have we not our own experience, not so long certainly as that of Western peoples, but long enough to enable us to form an adequate opinion as to the value of the classical system for Russia ? The study of the ancient languages in other countries may have all the wonder-working power that is claimed for it ; it may train and strengthen the will, cultivate the taste, and act as a whetstone for the wits ; the fact remains that it has worked none of these wonders for us. “The classical system,” says a report adopted by the Moscow Pedagogical Society,† “which was introduced with such generous promises from its supporters, has suffered shipwreck complete and unparalleled in the history of the Russian school. Its failure is vouched for not only by the testimony of the professors of different universities, it is openly admitted by directors of gymnasias and by teachers of the classical languages themselves. Various opinions are expressed as to the reasons for this failure, but all, advocates and opponents of classicism alike, unanimously acknowledge that the classical gymnasias have not justified the hopes which were entertained of them, and that the teaching of the classical languages not only does not introduce the pupils to an understanding of ancient culture, not only does not give them the formal development that was expected, but does not even give them a thorough knowledge of Latin and Greek grammar.” Others take the argument a step further and point out that Russian literature and thought reached

* See Professor Paul Vinogradoff, “*Bor'ba za shkolu na Skandinavskom Siverie*,” p. 6.

† Transactions, Vol. I., sec. iii., p. 32.

their highest point of development during the middle decades of the nineteenth century, and that the classical system introduced in the seventies has so far done little to provide successors to the men famous in letters and life who cast lustre on the reign of Alexander II. It is certainly true that the "makers" of modern Russia—in the political as well as in the literary sense—have as a rule known "little Latin and less Greek," though many of them have been thoroughly conversant with the literature and thought of the modern nations of Europe.

To this indictment the classical party are not without an answer. They admit that the classical system has not yielded all the results that were confidently expected of it; but they maintain that it has never yet had a fair chance. The experiment has been tried under the adverse conditions created by the ferment and unrest of the seventies and eighties, which disturbed and unsettled the minds of young people to an unprecedented degree; by the unwise policy pursued at the same time of importing from abroad classical teachers who were imperfectly acquainted with the Russian language;* by the lack of good text-books and other accessories of instruction, from which the gymnasia long suffered; by the predominance of mechanical aims and methods in teaching; and, finally, by the insufficient remuneration of many of the teachers, which, by obliging them to undertake private tuition or other extraneous duties, has prevented their full efficiency. A reformed classical gymnasium staffed by better-paid teachers working according to improved methods is accordingly the remedy proposed by the classicists for all the admitted evils of the existing system.

Naturally their opponents do not accept this as an adequate solution of the difficulty. "Let us not be told," says the Report

* For many of the defects above noted the state of educational opinion in influential circles during the sixties and seventies must bear the chief blame. Katkov's views on educational method were mechanical in the extreme. To him the subject was the only thing that mattered, not the personality of the teacher. "The compulsory subjects of instruction in the school," he says in one passage ("Moscow Gazette," 12th December, 1865), "should be such that the essential part of the teaching shall depend as little as possible on the choice or personality of the teacher. Such subjects are mathematics and the classical languages." Katkov's attitude was shared by some whose own practical experience might have taught them better. Skvortsov ("Neduzi nashego uchebnago diela," p. 148) mentions the case of a "former educational worker of some thirty years ago," who held that "for him, as a headmaster, a teacher was like a compositor or a maker-up, and that even to the pupils it could not matter in the least whether they were taught by a Russian or a foreigner, provided they were taught the subject." The prevalence of views such as these goes far to explain the adoption in the seventies of the policy of entrusting the classical teaching in the gymnasia to non-Russian Slavs. It is interesting to note, however, that this particular measure received the powerful support of Slavophiles like J. S. Aksakov, whose attitude was by no means sympathetic towards Count D. Tolstoi's general administration. See Aksakov's article in "Rus," No. 9, 1881. Dostoevski, on the other hand (*Zapiskaia Knizhka*, pp. 367, 368) protested against the introduction of Czech teachers of classics, on the ground that they were "cold, unsympathetic, and hostile" to Russian youth, and regarded the Russian language with a certain disdain.

above quoted, "of improved methods, of a change of aim in the teaching of the ancient languages, of the training of teachers, or of the panacea supposed to be offered by an increase in their salaries. Our experience has been too wide and too long-continued to allow us to rest content with these new promises. Many gymnasia have had classical teachers better equipped for their work than any special institution can equip the average teacher—professors and directors, for example, who were fully acquainted with every method of instruction and whose financial position was fully assured. Nevertheless, it would appear that not a single gymnasium has been shown to have attained the aim set before it. What kind of material position, what kind of training must we provide, in order that ordinary teachers of average capacity may attain results which are not now attained by the most fortunately placed, talented and distinguished masters? It would be extremely risky to rest any hopes upon a change in the fundamental aims of classical teaching, because in this respect, too, we have already an experience which is as painful as it is amply sufficient" (the reference is to the changes made in 1890, which have been described above). "It is evident that if the classical school can be successful anywhere, it is only in exceptional circumstances and with specially gifted and trained teachers. For this reason, especially in Russia, it cannot be the school of the State. The State needs for its service a large number of persons who have received a thorough (*serioznoe*) general education, and the classical school, however ideally placed it may be, can give only isolated units What is needed, then, is to create a new school, which shall not be classical."*

A word of comment upon the last two sentences in the passage just quoted may fitly close this account of the classical controversy in Russia. It is obvious that the value of the classics as an educational instrument will be very differently appraised according as the best result of a liberal education is to be sought in developing to a high degree of capacity a small number of specially gifted minds, that is, in the training of a guiding or governing class, or in diffusing intelligence as widely as possible among the mass of society. To state the question shortly, is education to be aristocratic or democratic in its aim? Here we touch what is perhaps the most fundamental of all the questions of principle which affect secondary education, not only in Russia but in other countries also. In our own educational practice, at any rate in so far as regards the schools to which our cultivated classes send their sons by preference, we have been frankly aristocratic; and perhaps it would not be too much to say that the aristocratic principle is implicit in the classical system everywhere. But with us the classical system, whatever may be said against it, does ultimately rest upon the consent or acquiescence of society, and is subject to free competition; what the Russian opponents of the classics affirm is that the aristocratic principle should not control

* *Loc. cit. ibid.*, pp. 32-34.

a State system, which monopolises the whole field of intellectual training, and whose function it should be to provide for the due cultivation of every possible variety and degree of mental aptitude to be found within the nation. Such a system of education, say they, should have in view not only the training of a few leaders of thought and action, but should aim at raising the general intellectual level of the country, which is determined at any given moment by the state of education of the mass of the people ; and this is especially important in the case of Russia, whose interests imperatively demand that the number of educated persons in proportion to the whole population should be largely increased. It is this consideration which leads some Russians, who fully admit the high educational value of the classics, to hold that, as things are at present, classical instruction is an intellectual luxury in which Russia cannot afford to indulge, and that she should therefore rest satisfied for the present with what are confessedly lower forms of humanistic culture.

VI.—OTHER PROBLEMS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION.

In the preceding section we have attempted, so far as the nature of the subject would allow, to treat the classical question in isolation. But, as we have already had occasion to indicate, this question cannot in practice be treated apart from the whole problem of secondary education, to every part of which it stands in the closest possible relation. The controversy as to the place to be assigned to classics in the secondary school turns out to be in fact a conflict between two competing ideals of culture. Both these ideals assume the possibility of framing a canon of secondary studies which shall provide for the intellectual training of all who aim at obtaining a general education ; the only question at issue between them is as to the way in which this canon shall be constituted. One school of thought deprecates interference with the existing canon, claiming for it a kind of oecumenical authority on grounds expressed in a formula very familiar in another connection—“*quod semper, quod ubique, quod ab omnibus*” ; the other denies that any such permanent and universal value can be claimed for the accepted canon, declares that the authority it once possessed has been superseded by the advance of science, and demands that a place of equal or greater honour shall be assigned to subjects more closely touching modern life and thought. The general aims of the latter school are well expressed by Professor Paul Vinogradoff, who defines the ideal of general education as consisting “on the one hand in a many-sided and at the same time thorough acquaintance with the elements of the main branches of knowledge, and on the other in the elementary development of the main faculties of the human spirit. A man who has gone through the secondary school of general education should have the power, when he enters on the path of specialisation, to avail himself of any of his mental powers, without the risk of being checked by a kind of atrophy proceeding from the neglect of certain intellectual faculties in youth. . . . No less important is the second requisite of general education,

viz., that a man should be provided with a certain fund of knowledge and interests in the numerous branches of intellectual life, which stand apart from the main course of his existence.”*

To define the fundamental principles which underlie the positions assumed by these two opposing schools of thought is a more difficult task than to describe the systems and proposals in which these principles take practical shape. We have, however, said enough in the preceding section to indicate that the predominating aim of secondary education is generally assumed by the more conservative school of thinkers to be intellectual gymnastic; though individuals belonging to that school also attach great importance to other aims, such as the cultivation of taste and literary judgment, the development of the historic sense, and the like. It is natural to feel considerable diffidence in attempting to define the aim of secondary education as understood by the party of reform, since that party is by no means homogeneous, and even if it were, a general agreement as to the direction which reform should take is not incompatible with very divergent views on abstract questions of educational theory. We may, however, take the Moscow Pedagogical Society as adequately representing the standpoint of the Extreme Left in the party of reform. In the report of this Society, from which we have already quoted,† the fundamental ideas of the scheme of secondary instruction put forward by the society are thus stated:

“The doctrine of mechanical concentration . . . should give place to the demand for harmony, for a well-adjusted balance of studies, which shall develop the various sides of the human spirit. The idea which reconciles the apparent diversity of subjects and of individual lessons is that of man in his relations to himself and to the world about him, the development of reason and consciousness in these relations. In the lower classes this idea cannot always be expressed with adequate clearness and force, and in relation to it the course of these classes must sometimes serve merely as a preparatory stage. . . . In the middle and higher classes, taking advantage of the material already accumulated, and of the higher development of the pupil, we may aim at the concentration of his knowledge about those fundamental principles which determine a man's outlook upon the world. This concentration will assume special forms and expressions in accordance with the content of the various subjects of study. The teaching of facts should therefore be illuminated by those general ideas of the particular science which go to form the basis of a man's philosophy of life. Such, for example, are the ideas of law in history and literature; of beauty in poetry; of the conservation of energy, of the indestructibility of matter and of mechanical causality, in physics and chemistry; of the organism and its relations with its environment in the biological sciences; of the interaction of man and nature in geography; of the unity of consciousness and the development of the mind in constant interaction with its environment in psychology; of the relation of thought to speech in philology; of exact knowledge in mathematics; of providence in the teaching of religion. Such ideas should pervade the whole teaching and form the connecting links between the individual lessons. Thus the thought of the pupil will not dissipate itself in various directions, but will be concentrated upon those fundamental propositions of each subject of study upon which the educated man's view of life is based.”

* “*Bor'ba za shkoln.*,” pp. 18 and 19.

† Proceedings of the Society for 1900 “On the Organisation of the Secondary School of General Education,” pp. 43 and 44.

It must be admitted that the words we have just quoted embody a logical and consistent theory of secondary instruction, resting upon a firm philosophic basis and corresponding to an ideal of culture which is both true and attractive. If a firm grasp of, and a delight in, general ideas are not the supreme tests of culture, they are at any rate constant characteristics of the cultivated mind; and any system of instruction which really succeeded in bestowing upon its pupils that wide outlook upon men and things which every true kind of culture involves, whilst at the same time adequately disciplining and developing their intellectual powers, would thereby establish unassailable claims upon the attention of educators. The plan of the Moscow Pedagogical Society aims at doing this, first, by selecting the subjects of study in such a way as to bring the pupils into contact with all the main branches of human knowledge; and, secondly, by concentrating attention in each of these subjects upon the fundamental laws and general principles about which individual facts and phenomena group themselves. Its authors reject as inadequate the ideal of formal development as the chief aim of secondary instruction, and demand that the mind shall be furnished with ideas as well as made capable of receiving them. Moreover, they insist that school education shall be mainly concerned, not with the facts and ideas of a dead world, but with the interpretation to the child of the actual human and physical world in which he lives. The controversy no longer turns upon the relative claims of the humanities and the physical sciences as objects of instruction; on the contrary, the Moscow scheme fully recognises, and, indeed requires, that the basis of secondary education shall be humanistic, in the sense that it shall be mainly concerned with man in his relation to his fellowmen and to the physical universe. The Society is equally emphatic in dissociating itself from all sympathy with purely utilitarian aims in secondary education, or rather in desiring that such aims should be subordinated to the ideal of general culture. The central principle of its proposals is in fact a protest against what George Eliot calls somewhere "an excessive retention and dexterity without any insight into the principles which form the vital connections of knowledge," and it is one of the counts in the indictment which it brings against the existing classical school that, while nearly one-half of the whole available school time has perforce to be devoted to "modern" subjects, these subjects, having been introduced into the curriculum from purely utilitarian considerations, are not taught with the scientific breadth necessary to make them serve the ends of intellectual culture, even from the point of view of formal development alone. The Society would, therefore, have no subject admitted into the course of the secondary school to which sufficient time cannot be devoted to make of it as real an instrument of liberal education as the older humanistic studies are claimed to have been. Thus the study of the mother tongue and its literature should develop in the pupil's mind "ideas of the relation of speech to thought and of thought to the historic *milieu*" in which Russian literature has grown up; the study of modern languages will serve to widen

his intellectual horizon, whilst at the same time securing the mental discipline which is afforded by practice in the transference of ideas from one national idiom to another ; mathematics will give precision to his habits of thought ; the physical sciences will teach him to observe the causal relations between the phenomena of nature, and to generalise correctly from the facts observed ; the study of history will reveal to him the general laws of human progress, and so on. It is maintained that such a course of instruction is well within the powers of the average pupil attending the Russian gymnasium ; that it will strengthen his will, train his reasoning faculties, and develop his taste and imagination at least as effectually as the existing classical system, and that, in addition, it will afford him an equipment of positive knowledge such as the present curriculum does not even promise to him.

The Moscow scheme has been selected for special mention, partly because it gives logical and consistent expression to ideas which have long been afloat in Russian society, and partly because the principles which underlie it appear to have had great influence upon the proposals of General Vannovski as Minister of Public Instruction, which, if they had been finally adopted, would have put an end once and for all to the predominance of the classics in the secondary school. But it is not intended to suggest that the Moscow scheme represents more than one phase of opinion, though a very important one, of the many which find acceptance among those who are dissatisfied with the system of instruction now in vogue in the Russian gymnasia. Generally speaking, all the critics of the existing system agree in desiring that greater prominence should be given in secondary instruction to the Russian language and literature, to modern foreign languages, and to the physical sciences ; and the conviction that the aim of instruction in all subjects is to enrich the mind with ideas, and not merely to discipline the intellectual faculties, may almost be said to pervade all contemporary Russian thought on education. But the point of view from which reform is urged varies indefinitely. Many, even of those who value most highly the ideals of classical instruction, nevertheless realise that the classical system has largely failed in practice to attain its end as an instrument of liberal culture, and are convinced that this end would be more naturally and easily reached in the case of the average boy, especially so far as the development of taste and judgment is concerned, through the native language and literature, supplemented by the study of modern foreign tongues and possibly of translations from the classics. Others are impressed with the relatively unimportant place assigned to national elements of culture in the present curriculum, and desire that the teaching of the Russian language and of the history of Russia should be strengthened with the view of bringing the pupil into more conscious relation with his national environment ;*

* The references made in the text to the teaching of the Russian language and literature perhaps call for a little further explanation. The present programs in this subject are criticised from two points of view ; first, as

whilst the physical sciences are too congenial an object of study to the Russian intellect not to find many advocates of their claims for their own sake.

We shall endeavour further on to give some account of the proposals for reform to which these various currents of opinion have given rise ; but before doing so, it is necessary to touch briefly on some other important questions which affect the discussion of the general problem of secondary school reform. These are the questions of (1) specialisation ; (2) the large percentage of those who fail to complete the full course of the secondary school ; (3) overstrain ; and, finally (4), the relations of the secondary school to the universities on the one hand and the primary schools on the other.

(1) The question of specialisation presents peculiar difficulties in Russia, difficulties which are partly a necessary consequence of the accepted views on the subject of general culture as the aim of secondary education, and are partly inherent in any highly centralised system of educational administration. We have referred above to the prevalence among Russian educationists of the belief in a universal canon of secondary studies. There is, of course, another view of the functions of secondary education, a view which is implicit in much of the educational practice of Great Britain and America, and which rests essentially on the assumption that in education no such thing as a universal canon

giving too much attention to the older literature, much of which has a purely antiquarian and historical value, and too little to the literary masterpieces of modern times ; and secondly, as aiming rather at the study of grammar and style than at the comprehension of the subject matter of the authors read. If we may venture on an English parallel, it is almost as though the Anglo-Saxon and Middle English writers were to receive more attention in our secondary schools than those who have flourished since Shakspeare—not, by the way, a purely hypothetical case. Of the Russian authors read in the gymnasia and real-schools the only one of universal repute is Pushkin, and the course stops short at Gogol, taking no account of the great literary movement which began with the forties, and has continued down to our own time. The reform party urge that suitable works of later writers such as Belinski, Turgenev, Gonoharov, Ostrovski, L. Tolstoi and others should enter into the curriculum, and should be studied from the point of view of content rather than of form. This raises a question which cannot be decided on purely pedagogical grounds, namely, whether modern literature dealing largely with matters of contemporary interest is a suitable subject of instruction in schools. The difficulties involved in this question have never become acute in this country, partly because we have so wide a field from which to select our subjects of study ; some of the most fruitful periods of our literature lie far back in time and abound in masterpieces dealing with subjects which are either not controversial in their nature or which from the lapse of time have lost their explosive quality. Russia is not in this position. Much of the best Russian literature is modern in date, generally realistic-in treatment, often *tendencious* in spirit. The life which it reflects is the life of the nineteenth century, the interests which underlie it are in large measure those of the present generation. With indiscreet treatment it is always possible that the study of this literature may raise questions too delicate and difficult to be discussed with advantage in the class-room. The official policy has therefore been to exclude the more modern productions altogether

is possible, that the necessities of the human spirit being infinitely various, equal degrees of culture may be attained by many different paths, and that method in teaching is more important than subject-matter, and the spirit of the teacher than the method he follows. This individualistic ideal of teaching has much in common with the educational theories of Count Leo Tolstoi. But it cannot be said that the educational thought of Russia has moved to any great extent along such lines as these. For the most part Russian pedagogical science assumes it as axiomatic that the secondary studies of all who would be accounted educated persons should, in respect of their general content, be the same, or at most admits but two paths leading to general culture. And here pedagogical theory finds itself for once in harmony with administrative convenience, for it must be obvious that a system of instruction minutely differentiated to individual requirements would be incompatible with a highly centralised administration such as exists in Russia.

There is nevertheless a widespread demand in Russia that the utmost extension compatible with the aim of general culture shall be given to the principle of individualisation in teaching and training. It is complained that the existing system takes no account of the personality of the pupil, and allows too little room for the develop-

from the curricula of boys' schools (they are by no means so rigidly excluded in those for girls). Thus the study of Russian literature stops short at the precise historical moment when the interest of the subject begins to be transferred from questions of literary form and the development of style to be underlying ideas of the subject matter. The existing programs in the Russian language and literature are in fact a consistent application of the principle of isolating the secondary school as far as possible from the interests and controversies of contemporary life. Those who oppose this principle as embodied in the classical system are bound to challenge it also as applied to Russian literature. It is easy to see how the preference for questions of grammar and style on the one hand and for periods of literary adolescence on the other offends those who reject the principle of formal development and hold that ideas should form the main subject matter of education. It is perfectly possible (say the critics of the existing system) to select works by such modern writers as Turgenev and Tolstoi, which are free from politico-social motives of a controversial kind (e.g., the *Diary of a Sportsman* and *War and Peace*) but even if this were otherwise, "is it," they ask, "the function of the school to ignore the problems of modern life? Ought it not rather to aim at giving to its pupils such guidance as is possible towards a right judgment concerning these problems? The school cannot, and does not, prevent the pupil from becoming acquainted with the modern literature of his native land. What it can do, and ought to do, is to give a scientific basis to his knowledge and so to preserve him from the errors and prejudices into which ignorance of historical facts might lead him." It will thus be seen that the question of the place to be assigned to modern literature in the secondary school involves principles of the most fundamental kind, and becomes almost as much a test question of educational politics as the question of the position to be assigned to classics.

[Since the above note was written, the Ministry of Public Instruction has sanctioned the study of certain works of the following writers in the eighth class of the gymnasium and the seventh class of the real-school; prose writers, Turgenev, Goncharov, Ostrovski; poets, Maikov, Count A. K. Tolstoi, Th. I. Tiutchev, A. A. Fet.]

ment of any special capacity he may possess. The possibility of framing a general curriculum which would provide adequately for all average cases is taken for granted. But what of the boy with peculiar gifts? It is highly desirable, not only for his own sake, but also in the interests of the nation, that such gifts should be developed to the utmost. It is the weakness of a rigid governmental system of instruction that it does not easily lend itself to modification to meet these exceptional cases. Even those who hold most strongly to the ideal of general culture in education would readily admit it to be desirable that a child of exceptional endowments should be allowed to concentrate his energies on such studies as would best promote his individual development, though they would insist that he should not neglect other branches of knowledge to such an extent that he would be unable to find his bearings in them in after life. The difficulty of reconciling such a measure of individualisation with the maintenance of the ideal of general culture is, in fact, less than the practical difficulty of realising it in a centralised state like Russia. Who is to decide when a deviation from the ordinary curriculum is desirable in the interests of a particular pupil? The idea of leaving the decision to the parent would not be so much as entertained in Russia. It is obviously a matter which lies outside the proper sphere either of the central government or of the provincial administration. There remains only the "pedagogical council." Of their competence to decide such matters under all ordinary circumstances there can be no reasonable doubt, and a strong feeling exists in favour of giving them the power to do so. It is nevertheless easy to understand the reluctance of the central government to grant to the teaching staff of a school an authority which, if loosely used, might disorganise the whole secondary system, and it may be presumed that if it be decided to delegate this power to the pedagogical council, it will be hedged about with many restrictions and limitations designed to prevent its abuse in practice. The practical difficulties of carrying out such a measure of individualisation are, however, in any case great enough to constitute an effective check upon any disposition to make too free a use of it. It is comparatively easy to allow a boy to specialise in the ordinary sense, as is so frequently done in English schools—i.e., to give up certain subjects entirely and devote the whole time thus gained to a single object of study. This, however, is not proposed in Russia, nor would it be held to be compatible with the ideals of general culture which are common to all schools of educational thought in that country. The difficulty we have in view is how to enable a boy who drops, say, one hour out of every four which his class devotes to French or German to take part henceforth in the work of the class on anything like equal terms or with any advantage to himself, the subject in question being one towards which, *ex hypothesi*, his special gifts do not incline him? Practical difficulties of this kind may well make the liberty to individualise seem almost incompatible with the idea of class teaching. And if this be the case with regard to the intellectual side of

education, what shall we say of its moral aspects? "A school to teach and train every boy" with due regard to his particular idiosyncrasies of mind and character is doubtless a great ideal, and under favourable circumstances not an unrealisable one; but it is possible only at a cost of time, money, energy and self-sacrifice, such as under average human conditions cannot always be reckoned on.

The Russian educationists who are most anxious to see introduced into the national system a certain liberty to specialise in the sense just indicated are at the same time agreed in deprecating another kind of specialisation which actually exists—namely, the enforced early specialisation which is the result of the difference between the curricula of the real-school and the gymnasium from the lowest classes upward, and of the consequent necessity of making a choice which will affect a boy's whole future career before his natural inclinations and capacities have had time to declare themselves. Speaking generally, the course of the gymnasium leads towards the Universities and the learned professions; that of the real-school towards commerce and the professions which rest upon the applied sciences. A boy admitted to the lowest class of a school of one or the other type is, so to speak, predestined to a corresponding career at the age of ten. If at a later stage in his school course he wishes to change from a school of one type to a school of the other, he can only pass the necessary examination by the help of special coaching in the subjects which are not common to the curricula of real-school and gymnasium alike. The undesirability of this state of things is pretty universally admitted. The only effectual remedy is, of course, to make the curriculum of the two types of school identical, at any rate in the lower classes. Here, however, the supposed necessity that those who are to make a serious study of the classics should begin Latin at least at the age of ten or thereabouts stands in the way of any such compromise. But of late the conviction has begun to spread that the commencement of Latin may be safely and even profitably deferred until the third or fourth class has been reached, by which time it is maintained that the intellectual powers will have undergone a degree of general cultivation which will enable them to grapple all the more successfully with the difficulties of an ancient language.*

(2) Another matter in connection with Russian secondary education, which is of importance from the social as well as from the educational point of view, is the large proportion of those who leave the secondary schools of general education before they have completed the full course. Out of every four pupils who enter either kind of secondary school, roughly speaking, only one succeeds in obtaining the leaving certificate, and the majority of the remainder leave from the lower classes. Certain deductions have, however, to be made before the precise bearing of these statements can be grasped. It does not at all follow that as many as three-

tion—since the above paragraph has been in type, the decision has been taken by the Russian Government to defer the commencement of Latin in the

* S^r. of the gymnasias until the third class.

fourths of the pupils of the secondary schools can be reckoned as educational failures. Doubtless a certain proportion who cease attendance at a particular school afterwards obtain admission at another; and there are always a considerable number of pupils who leave school owing to no lack of ability to profit by the instruction there given, but for purely domestic reasons, such as poverty. But when all due allowance is made for these circumstances, the fact remains that a considerable number of young people, who have at one time had the ambition to enter a profession or to qualify for higher positions of various kinds, fail to attain their object, and are driven to seek a livelihood in humbler spheres of life, as artisans, tradesmen, or clerks. Bearing in mind what has already been said as to the extraordinary value set upon the professions and positions in the public service in Russia, it is easy to understand how bitter must be the sense of disappointment in the case of those who have failed in their efforts to attain such positions. Disappointed ambition is, unfortunately, no uncommon phenomenon outside Russia, and cases in which young men have vainly sought to better their social position by means of education are by no means rare, even in England. But the circumstances of the two countries are in this respect widely different. With us, between the professions and trade there is no such gulf fixed as in Russia. A boy who finds a profession beyond his abilities and turns to business does not necessarily lose caste in England, and if he is fortunate he may even find in trade a surer way to social advancement than in a profession for which he was not specially fitted. Moreover—and this is a still more important point of difference—secondary education is a private matter in England, and no civic rights or privileges are made dependent upon it; an English boy, therefore, who fails to attain the degree of education requisite for admission to a profession may blame his school, his teachers, his examiners, or himself, but he will never think of blaming the State or the social order in which his lot is cast. But this is precisely what a Russian youth under similar circumstances is disposed to do. Finding himself an object of general commiseration for his failure to obtain the certificate which would have opened to him the portals of the higher places of learning, he too often blames not himself for his want of ability or diligence, nor his parents for their want of judgment in selecting for him a career for which he was unfitted, but the Government which has imposed the conditions he has been unable to satisfy.*

The danger of this state of things is one of the standing arguments of the advocates of reform in the existing system of secondary education. Sometimes it is used as a weapon in the hands of the

* "As the larger half of those who leave the gymnasias do not succeed in obtaining admission to any other educational institutions, it follows that society yearly receives into itself from the gymnasias alone a mass of young people who consider themselves justified as it were in murmuring at the existing order, and the injustice which has encountered them at the dawn of their life, and has ruined their existence."—Modestov, "*Shkolny Vopros*," p. 55.

anti-classicists, who maintain that the predominance of the classics is the one great hindrance to the successful completion of the course of the gymnasia ; but the force of this contention is very much diminished by the fact that the percentage of failures in the real schools is nearly as great as it is in the gymnasia. Much more effective is the argument in favour of so arranging the curriculum of all secondary schools of general education as to provide a completed course of instruction by the time the fourth class is reached, so that those who for any reason are obliged to leave at fourteen or fifteen may find an honourable door of exit open to them and escape the ignominy of being accounted "failures" (*neudachniki*). This proposal of course incidentally cuts at the root of the classical system of instruction, as it is quite clear that no complete kind of classical training can be given to the average boy between the ages of ten and fourteen. Another method of reducing the proportion of *neudachniki* would appear to be to raise the standard of attainment required for admission to the secondary schools. The present low standard of requirement certainly has the effect of causing the lower classes of the gymnasia or real-schools to be crowded with children, many of whom had much better have been sent to a good Urban School. The increase of professional and technical schools may be also expected to draw off a large contingent of those pupils who in default of such schools being available have been entered at a secondary school of general education.

(3). A few words must also here be said upon a subject which has received of recent years a good deal of attention in the educational press of Russia, viz., the question of over-pressure in the public secondary schools. This is not a question which can be fully discussed without reference to a number of matters over which the school has little or no control, such as the poverty and consequent under-feeding of many of the pupils, and the conditions under which their home-life is spent. So far as the writer's observation and study of the subject have gone, the pressure upon the pupils would appear to be most severely felt in the lower part of the school and in the highest or "graduating" class, while the intermediate classes are comparatively free from over-strain. Such over-pressure as exists is, however, less the result of too much overloading of the curriculum than of the arrangement of the hours of lessons which is necessitated by the circumstances of the case. Practically the Russian boy who attends a secondary school is at work in school from nine in the morning to three in the afternoon, with only short breaks, none of which is long enough to allow of organised games being played in the open air, even if, as is rarely the case, the necessary playgrounds existed. Not only is it trying to work so long together with little opportunity for refreshment, but the present arrangement has the additional disadvantage that it allows little chance of preparation between lessons. All the work of preparation has consequently to be done in the evening, and it seems to be generally agreed that the average time required for this work is not less than three, whilst in some classes it may be as much as

five hours a day. Bearing in mind that the Russian secondary schools are for the most part day-schools, that they are sometimes attended by pupils living at a considerable distance, that in the depth of the Russian winter the daylight fades early and that the streets of many Russian towns are ill-lighted and badly paved, it is difficult to say that the present arrangement is not the best possible; but it certainly involves a heavy strain upon the physical powers of the boys concerned. As a set-off against those disadvantages, it must be remembered that the frequent festivals of the Orthodox Church have the effect of very greatly increasing the number of school holidays, and must correspondingly lessen the strain upon the pupils. With a school year shorter on the average by some fifty days than that of English secondary schools it would, in fact, seem at first sight strange that the cry of over-pressure should be so much louder in Russia than with us, if we did not allow for the influence of two causes which, in the writer's opinion, go quite as far towards accounting for the over pressure complained of in Russian schools as even the arrangement of the hours of work or the absence of playgrounds and organised games. The first of these two causes is the intimate relation between the pupil's career in after-life and his success at school. When we consider the complaints as to over-pressure in the Russian secondary schools in the light of the fact that cases of nervous breakdown are in England rare in the secondary schools, though they frequently occur at the Universities, the conclusion is inevitably suggested that anxiety with reference to the future is one of the chief causes of failure of health among the students of both countries. The Russian boy is compelled to preoccupy himself with the question of his career from the moment he enters upon his school course; if he fails to get through his examinations at school, and to obtain the leaving certificate, his career is broken irretrievably. He has no chance to recover lost ground at the University, as an English boy might hope to do, since admission to the University is made absolutely dependent upon his holding the certificate of maturity from his school. Success at school, therefore, becomes the sole avenue to success in after life, or at least to the kind of success which is most prized by Russian boys. We can hardly wonder that the nervous tension which is inevitable under these circumstances involves a strain which the more highly-strung temperaments are unable to bear. Much has been done of recent years to diminish this strain by reducing the number of obligatory examinations, but it seems impossible to eliminate it wholly without a radical alteration in the existing system, such as is not seriously proposed in Russia. The second cause of over-pressure to which we have referred is the prevalence of the subject-system of instruction. Great as the merits of this system undoubtedly are, it certainly has one distinct disadvantage as compared with the system of form masters—it renders difficult the adjustment of the claims of competing subjects of study upon the pupils' time and energy. Where all the instruction is in the hands of specialists, each teacher is naturally disposed to assign

great, and it may be disproportionate, importance to the subject for which he is responsible. He can hardly be expected to know how far the demands he makes upon his class are compatible with what is required from them in other subjects; and the result is that the aggregate amount of work imposed is sometimes beyond the powers of all except the specially strong or exceptionally gifted. The pedagogical council can, doubtless, do something to moderate the evil by encouraging conferences between its individual members; but so long as the subject-system prevails—and its advantages are so manifest that the opinion of Russian educationists would be strongly opposed to replacing it by anything like the English system—it must continue to some extent to cause over-pressure in individual cases.

The existence of over-pressure in the schools has done much to bring into prominence questions concerning the physical conditions of school life. The scientific treatment of such questions has been greatly facilitated by recent advances in experimental psychology and especially by studies in the physiology and psychology of childhood. A large and increasing literature in the Russian language is concerned with these important subjects, and the educational authorities have of late devoted much attention to the question of making the physical conditions under which the work of the schools is carried on as healthy as possible, and of improving the physique of the pupils. A recent circular of M. Sānger deals exhaustively with the subject, gives increased liberty to the pedagogical councils in the matter of holidays and intervals between lessons, and recommends the organisation of games and other physical exercises, stricter attention to ventilation and other hygienic conditions, and the provision of meals for pupils at or under cost price.

(4) We have lastly to consider the question of the relation of the secondary schools to the Universities on the one hand, and to the primary schools on the other. We have already referred incidentally to the first matter, viz., the relation of the secondary schools to the universities; but the reader may here be reminded that two questions are involved in the discussion of this subject, viz.: (a) What kind of school shall prepare for the University? and (b) How far shall the curriculum of the school be determined by the function thus imposed upon it?

(a) No subject is more keenly debated in Russia, and none arouses more feeling, than the question whether admission to the Universities shall be open as heretofore only to those who have completed the course of the classical gymnasium, or shall be granted with or without certain restrictions to the pupils of other types of school also. The cry for reform generally takes the shape of a demand that those who have passed through the course of the real-school shall have access to the physico-mathematical and medical faculties of the Universities, as well as to the higher technical colleges. We have already seen that the great, if not the only, obstacle in the way of the realisation of this aim is the con-

viction which has hitherto obtained in official circles that classical study is the one necessary formative influence which fits a man for higher scientific pursuits. So long as this principle continues to hold the field, the Russian Government is only acting logically in refusing to admit to the State Universities any who do not hold a certificate testifying to their having completed a full course of classical study. If, on the other hand, this principle is given up by the Government, the inevitable consequence will be that, while a classical training may still be considered indispensable for those who intend to pursue their studies in the faculties of history and philology or of law, it will no longer be required in the case of those who wish to devote themselves to the physical sciences or mathematics; and therefore access to the faculties concerned with these subjects will be permitted to students who have completed the course of the non-classical State schools. This was, in fact, the gist of the proposals made by General Vannovski in 1901; but succeeding administrations have shown no disposition to make any similar concession to the wishes of the advocates of a non-classical education.

(b) Supposing the question discussed in the preceding paragraph to be decided either in favour of allowing the gymnasium alone, or other types of school along with it, to prepare its pupils for the University, the further question still remains, How far shall the requirements of the University be allowed to affect the curriculum of the schools preparing for it? Hitherto the aim of the gymnasia has been legally defined to be two-fold, viz., to give a general education and to prepare its pupils for the University. But in practice the second aim has completely overshadowed the first, and this seems to have been the aim of the Katkovichian circle from the first. The curriculum of the gymnasium has been framed almost solely with a view to the requirements of those pupils who were proceeding to the University, and with very little regard to the interests of those who might wish to find in its course a complete and adequate intellectual training for the duties of life. Nevertheless, the trend of opinion during the last generation has been very distinctly in the direction of making general culture the controlling aim of the secondary school, leaving preparation for places of higher learning to occupy a subordinate place; and there are not wanting those in Russia who would heartily subscribe to the opinion of the American Committee of Ten (pp. 50, 51 of their Report) that "A secondary school programme intended for national use must be made for those children whose education is not to be pursued beyond the secondary school. The preparation of a few pupils for college or scientific school should be the incidental and not the principal object." This is, for instance, precisely the view expressed by the Moscow Pedagogical Society in the report from which we have already quoted several times: "We most concern ourselves with what is necessary for general education, and not with what is required for the special aims of a particular institution. If these institutions require anything of such a kind that it does not naturally result from the general education received in the

secondary school, it is for them to look after their own interests. But for the secondary school there is and must be only one interest—general education and the development of the man" (p. 37). The general adoption of the view of secondary education set forth in this passage, and especially its recognition by the Government, would almost amount to an educational revolution at the present time; but it would nevertheless mark the culminating point in a long evolutionary process, the starting point of which was the conception of national education as essentially a means of preparing officials for the service of the State.

Of the relations between primary and secondary education something has already been said in the preceding chapter. Here we need only note that many educational reformers would desire to see the organic relation which existed previously to the reign of Nicholas I. between the two grades of schools restored by making the requirements for admission into the secondary school correspond to the curriculum of the ordinary primary school, and by admitting into the lowest class of the former without examination those who have completed the course of the latter. Some would go still further, and facilitate the passage of scholars from the Urban Schools into the middle classes of the secondary schools by making the course of the Urban School equivalent to that of the lower classes of schools of the grade above them. The possibility of realising any such scheme of co-ordination between primary and secondary schools greatly depends upon the position which the classical languages are allowed to occupy in the latter; but if, as is now proposed, the commencement of Latin be deferred until the third class of the gymnasium, there would be little difficulty in so widening the course of the Urban School by the addition of optional subjects in its higher classes as to make it afford a complete education of the higher primary or lower secondary type, while at the same time serving as a preparatory school for the gymnasias or other places of secondary instruction. The unsatisfactory character of many of the private schools of the third grade, which at present prepare for the gymnasias, makes it especially desirable to bring the better types of primary school into close relation with the secondary school of general education.

A word or two should here be added on the subject of private schools of the secondary type. The right to open these schools is at the present time pretty freely given, since the Government sees in them a valuable means of supplementing the State provision for secondary instruction. The movement for reform in their case expresses itself in a plea for more freedom in the framing of curricula. At present, the programmes of instruction in private schools have to be submitted to the Curator for approval, and once they are approved of by him no deviation from them is permitted in any particular. It is urged that some relaxation of these restrictions upon initiative would react beneficially on educational progress, since the private schools might then serve the purpose of pedagogical laboratories where experiments might

be tried which, if found successful, might be adopted in the State schools. As it is, reform has to be based too much on purely theoretical considerations, or at best, on the experience of foreign countries, not on practical experience gained from the working of Russian schools. Here, however, a difficulty arises from the fact that the best private schools enjoy "the rights of State schools," that is to say, that pupils completing their course in such private schools have precisely the same privileges with reference to admission to the universities, or the like, as those educated in secondary schools maintained by the State. It is inevitable that over schools enjoying these rights the State should claim to exercise precisely the same kind of control as over the State gymnasia, since only thus can it ensure that the amount and kind of knowledge entitling to the privileges in question are approximately the same in each case. This difficulty, however, does not affect private schools which do not possess the rights of State schools. In their case, it is maintained that the State might well leave the individual schools free to settle their curriculum without interference, resting content with the very adequate guarantees against the misuse of this freedom which a vigilant system of inspection is able to afford. Judging from communications which have recently (1903) appeared in the public Press, the Government is now on the eve of some such concession to private schools as that just indicated.

VII.—PROJECTS OF REFORM—CONCLUSION.

The foregoing account of the problems which now await settlement in connection with secondary education in Russia will have helped to place the reader in a position to understand the main features of the projects for the reorganisation of the secondary schools which have been put forward in recent years. That some kind of reform of the secondary system is needed is agreed on all hands; but as to the precise direction which reform should take and the extent to which it should be carried there is much difference of opinion. The more conservative school of reformers approach the question from the standpoint defined by Bogolepov in his circular convening the Commission of 1900, their aim being to remove such defects as have been shown to exist in the present system whilst preserving the system itself in all its essential features. They would, for example, maintain the dualism of the existing system, and would continue to reserve to the gymnasia the exclusive right of preparation for the Universities. But they would introduce better methods of teaching, improve the financial position of the teachers, transfer still further the centre of gravity in the teaching of classics from grammar to the study of authors and the like. Others would go a step further, while still maintaining the general character of both the existing types of school. In addition to the reforms just mentioned, they would reduce the number of hours devoted to

classics in the lower classes of the gymnasia, and would even defer the commencement of Latin teaching to the third or even the fourth class, Greek being begun at a still later stage. The advantages of such a scheme would be that it would not only allow of the strengthening of such subjects as Russian, modern languages, and nature study in the lower classes, but would also permit the curriculum of these classes in both types of secondary education to be made practically identical, and would thus much facilitate the passage of pupils from one kind of school to the other and defer specialisation of study for several years beyond the period at which the final choice of school must now be made. A special form of this proposal aims at throwing together the real-school and gymnasium into one institution, making their curricula identical in the lower classes, and allowing specialisation on classical or modern lines, say from the fourth class upwards.

All these proposals for reform, much as they may differ from one another in details, have one important feature in common, viz., they all aim at the preservation in some form or other of the existing dual organisation of secondary schools. In this respect they stand in sharp contrast to the scheme of secondary instruction advocated by the adherents of the "common school" (*edinaia shkola*), the fundamental principle of which is the abolition of the dual system and the establishment in its place of a single type of school the curriculum of which shall be in essentials the same for all who desire general, as distinct from technical or professional, education. This scheme is of course merely the logical application of the principle which we have observed to underlie so much of the educational thought of Russia, viz., that general education can be but *one* in respect of its content as well as of its final aim. And historically speaking, the "common school" is but the inevitable result of carrying out another tendency of Russian educational thought to its logical consequences, namely, the tendency to approximate the curriculum of the gymnasium and that of the real-school by broadening the basis of the former whilst making the latter more humanistic.

Theoretically there is of course nothing to prevent a "common school" being organised on a strictly classical basis, since it is possible to hold, as is in effect done by the ultra-classicists, that a scheme of secondary instruction which excludes the classics lacks the essential mark of a liberal education. As a matter of fact, however, the present-day advocates of the "common school" in Russia are to be found almost to a man in the ranks of the anti-classicists. The scheme of the Moscow Pedagogical Society, which is based upon the principle of the "common school," excludes these classical languages from the curriculum altogether. The proposed scheme of General Vannovski admitted them only as optional subjects. The curriculum of the latter proposal has already been described on p. 158; it may be of interest to give here that of the Moscow Society, for purposes of comparison.

	Classes	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.	Total.
Religion - -	-	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16
Russian - -	-	6	4	3	4	4	4	5	5	35
Psychology - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2
Mathematics - -	-	3	4	5	4	5	3	3	3	30
French - -	-	-	5	4	4	3	4	4	2	26
German - -	-	5	4	4	3	3	3	2	2	26
Physics - -	-	-	-	-	-	3	3	5	-	34
Chemistry - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	{5}	
Natural History - -	-	-	-	} 4	2	2	2	3	2	
Geography - -	-	3	3		} 3	-	-	-	-	
History - -	-	-	-	3		3	4	3	4	4
Drawing - -	-	2	2	2	2	-	-	-	-	8

It will be observed that while the advocates of the retention of the dual organisation of schools have somehow to solve the problem of what rights in respect of admission to the Universities are to belong to each type of school, those who are in favour of the "common school" would cut the Gordian knot by the proposal to admit to the higher places of learning all who had passed through the secondary school. The scheme of General Vannovski, however, proposed to reserve the right of admission to the historico-philological faculties of the University to those who had elected to study classics in the higher classes of the secondary school and to those who, having studied Latin only at the secondary school, had also passed an examination in Greek. His scheme also provided for the division of the school course into two cycles of studies, one ending with the third class and forming a complete course in itself, the other extending from that class to the end of the full course. This arrangement of the curriculum, which is based on a principle most ably advocated by Professor Vinogradoff of Moscow,* was intended to provide a fairly all-round general education for the boy who was compelled for whatever reason to leave school at fourteen or fifteen without branding him as a *neudachnik*, or "failure." As we have already said, the fact that under the classical system no such honourable door of exit can be provided midway through the school course constitutes one of the gravest objections to that system in the eyes of many Russian educationists. The "common" school with

* As we have mentioned Professor Vinogradoff's name in this connection, we ought, perhaps, to explain that according to his view (as incidentally explained in his pamphlet entitled "*Bor'ba za shkolu na Skandinavskom Severie*"), the first cycle of studies should end approximately at 16, that is, a year or two later than was proposed under the Vannovski scheme. He points out in support of this proposition (1) that boyhood ends and youth begins about sixteen; (2) that the lower cycle of studies should afford adequate preparation for the simpler professions; and (3) that it should last long enough to allow of a complete elementary course of instruction being given in history and literature. Professor Vinogradoff, as the recognised exponent in Russia of the principle of the "common" school, presided over a Sub-Commission which was appointed in connection with the famous Bogolepov Commission of 1900, and which formulated a scheme for the organisation of a "common" school of general education. The proposals of this Sub-Commission have not been published, but are understood to have had great influence upon the scheme afterwards adopted by General Vannovski.

its two "cycles" of studies provides such a door of exit for those who can only complete the first cycle, whilst in the case of those who are proceeding further with their studies it delays specialisation and the choice of career until the second cycle is begun.

Between the position of those who hold by the present dual organisation of secondary schools and limit their ideas of reform to a mere reorganisation of classical teaching in the gymnasia and the advocates of a non-classical "common school," there is of course room for many intermediate phases of opinion. We need only mention here the view which is held by a considerable number of people in Russia, that the salvation of secondary education is to be sought in a return to the Uvarovskian schools of the forties. That is to say, the present gymnasia should be replaced by schools with Latin only, or with Greek merely as an optional subject. The prestige and repute which the Uvarovskian schools enjoy in the history of secondary education in Russia make this proposal undoubtedly attractive to many minds. The compromise embodied in the Imperial Order of July 20th, 1902, in accordance with which, the system of secondary education is now being administered actually does place most of the gymnasia on an Uvarovskian basis; and the Imperial Order of March 15th, 1903, would appear to contemplate a very general extension of the system of schools with Latin only. But side by side with schools teaching Latin only, or including Greek as an optional subject, a certain number of gymnasia are still retained with a fully classical curriculum; and the real-schools also remain as the representatives of a distinct type of secondary instruction. Such an arrangement is far indeed from the principle of the "common school," which only a few years ago seemed on the verge of recognition as the basis of the State system of secondary education; none the less the adoption of such a compromise by the Government implies the definite abandonment at least of the exclusively classical system which had held the field for more than thirty years. It is quite certain that no such compromise will really satisfy either of the two extreme parties. The classicists will regard it as unsatisfactory from the point of view that the decay of the teaching of Greek would affect the scientific prosecution of studies, *e.g.*, in the early history of Russia and the Russian Church, which depend upon a knowledge of that language. Their opponents, on the other hand, will hardly be placated by the sacrifice of one only of the languages the predominance of which in the school blocks the way in their opinion to any real measure of educational reform. But in any case a fair trial of the present compromise cannot fail to yield experience which may help materially towards a final settlement of current controversies. Meantime, the proposed establishment of a new type of secondary schools with six classes would appear to be a very important step towards satisfying the needs of the numerous aspirants for secondary education, who now find the course of the gymnasium or real school beyond their powers; and if, as may be presumed, the course of these lower secondary schools is to be entirely non-classical, they will also

constitute a substantial concession to the demands of the advocates of a modern education.

This review of the problems of secondary education in Russia has of necessity been largely concerned with the statement of conflicting opinions upon a subject in respect to which few definite conclusions have been reached and few leading principles can be said to be generally accepted. Secondary education is everywhere passing through a period of transition. Old principles are being questioned, old beliefs shaken, old standards of judgment abandoned; and, as usually happens in such cases, the positive work of construction has hardly kept pace with the destructive work of criticism. Nowhere is the unsettlement of ideas in the domain of secondary education so marked as in Russia, which lacks the historic environment in which many hitherto accepted principles of education have been developed. The task of forecasting the future of Russian secondary education is rendered doubly difficult by the rapidity of social and economic change which is the most striking characteristic of the life of modern Russia. But if the writer may be allowed to hazard a personal opinion as to the probable trend of events in the not-distant future, it certainly seems to him from all present indications that Russia, which in matters of education has so long been content to wait upon the Western world, is now on the way towards finding an independent national solution of the educational problem before her. Such a solution may not be immediately reached, and meantime an intermediate stage of uncertainty and experiment may have to be passed. It may well be that the result of this testing process will be to sift out the useful grain from the mere chaff of theory and precedent and to leave Russia in possession of a system of education more precisely suited to her national needs than she has ever yet possessed. As Professor Vinogradoff finely says, using a metaphor which would appeal vividly to the imagination of his Russian readers: "We are face to face, we may say, at this moment with a kind of *débâcle* (*ledokhod*), in which the old order of things is being broken up and swept away; but therewith the way is being cleared for the free movement of the stream. It is a difficult and a dangerous time; but we must remember that, without the breaking-up of the ice, in this northern clime of ours there is no spring." (*Por'ba za shkolu, ad fin.*)

CHAPTER IV.—APPENDIX.

NOTE ON

SECONDARY EDUCATION FOR GIRLS.

In view of the great relative interest and importance of the problems affecting the secondary schools of general education for boys, the foregoing chapter has been entirely taken up with the discussion of those problems to the exclusion of those which concern the general education of girls. It is owing to no disposition to underrate the importance of girls' education in Russia that this course has been followed. On the contrary, the interest which attaches to the subject has been repeatedly dwelt upon in the preceding pages, and enough has been said in the first chapter to show how closely interwoven the movement in favour of girls' and women's education has always been with the general social progress of Russia. The main purpose of this Report, however, is to describe the actual conditions of education in Russia at the present time: and it must be conceded that, however great may be the social and historical interest which belongs to the subject of girls' education, the questions which arise in connection with it at the present time are neither of such intrinsic importance nor of such controversial interest as those which concern the secondary schools of general education for boys.

This explanation of this difference between boys' and girls' schools lies in the historical fact that the curricula of the latter represent in the main the educational ideas of the sixties, before the Katkopian doctrine of concentration had prevailed over the opposing principles of many-sided development and the balance of intellectual interests. Girls' education was subject to none of those disturbing influences which affected the boys' gymnasia and the real-schools in the seventies, and has consequently developed steadily along those national lines from which the classical movement initiated by Count D. Tolstoi is now held by the majority of educated Russians to have constituted a departure. Moreover, the process of centralisation by means of the minute regulation of the details of instruction, which was characteristic of the same régime, has never been applied to girls' schools with anything like the same consistency as to those for boys. Thus all the main influences which have made secondary education for boys the subject of such keen controversy in Russia have largely passed the girls' schools by. The demand of the reform party in Russian education for a wider basis of instruction, more freedom of initiative, and greater recognition of the modern elements in education is one which has always been very much more completely satisfied in girls' secondary schools than in those for boys.

But though the problems affecting girls' education are neither so urgent nor so fundamental as those which relate to secondary education for boys, there have been of late many signs that increased interest is being taken in the former, both in official circles and in general society. This interest has been much stimulated by the recent publication of several books dealing with the subject among which should be specially mentioned the excellent "History of the Education of Women and Girls in Russia" of Miss Likhacheva. The recent opening of Higher Women's Courses in Moscow and Odessa has also had the effect of directing attention to the whole problem of female education.

No detailed discussion of the questions affecting girls' education will be attempted here. So far as these questions relate to matters of curriculum and internal management, many of them are closely allied to the problems already discussed in the foregoing chapter. For example, the plea for a

wider recognition of the national elements in education (especially Russian literature and history), for a larger place to be assigned in the curriculum to scientific teaching (especially on nature lore and hygiene), for improved methods of teaching foreign languages, for better training in the elements of philosophy and logic, and the like, is just as valid in relation to girls' schools as to boys'. Again, all questions of reward and punishment have a special interest for those concerned in girls' education. The mark system is criticised very strongly in its application to girls' schools; and some girls' schools (e.g., that of Mme. Stoinin in St. Petersburg) have carried out the principles advocated by the advanced school of educationists by abolishing rewards and punishments altogether.

One tendency, however, which is observable in the recent history of girls' education calls for special notice—namely, the movement for increasing the influence of women on the teaching and managing staffs of girls' schools. We have explained in the second chapter the principle of dual control in Russian girls' schools, by which the administrative and educational sides of the schools' work are largely supervised by men, while the function of the directress is more or less confined to matters of discipline and moral training. In the case of the girls' gymnasia under the Ministry of Public Instruction, the Pedagogical Council is actually presided over by the local Director of the boys' gymnasium, who may possibly have little or no interest or experience in the special problems of girls' education. Only in the Warsaw Educational District are special Directors appointed to the charge of the girls' schools under this Ministry. Again, the teaching staff of the upper classes is also largely composed of men. Until recently, in fact, the girls' schools of the Ministry of Public Instruction were not permitted to employ women teachers in the higher classes, while they were frequently unable to obtain the assistance of the best male teachers, owing to the fact that the salaries paid are, as a rule, lower in girls' schools than in those for boys. However, by an Imperial Order of the 29th September, 1901, the Ministry obtained the right to admit at its own discretion women holding a diploma from the Higher Women's Courses as teachers in all classes in their schools, and also to allow those who had themselves completed the course of a secondary girls' school to teach foreign languages in such schools. The Department of the Institutions of the Empress Maria has gone a step further in granting the right to teach in the upper classes of its gymnasia without further conditions to those who, after obtaining the title of "Domestic governess," have completed a course of study in connection with the Higher Women's Courses. The further progress of this movement will greatly depend upon the number of women who are able to obtain an education of the University type, and this will depend in its turn on the extent to which opportunities of study in connection with Higher Women's Courses or otherwise are multiplied in the future. But there seems to be no reason why, as the facilities for higher education for women increase, male directors and inspectors, as well as teachers, should not in the future be largely replaced by women in girls' schools.

(The reader who is acquainted with Russian will find a further discussion of this subject in an article by P. Zabolotski in the "*Russkieshkhola*" for February, 1904.)

CHAPTER V.

THE UNIVERSITY QUESTION.

I.—SOME GENERAL CONDITIONS OF UNIVERSITY LIFE IN RUSSIA.

The question of the reorganisation of the universities, which recent events in the history of higher education in Russia have rendered urgent, presents difficulties quite as serious and perplexing as those connected with secondary instruction; but there are important points of difference between the two cases. Whereas the problems of secondary education are mainly pedagogical, those which await solution in relation to the universities are primarily administrative, being concerned with questions of external organisation and control, which, however, directly affect instruction at many points.

Any reform of the existing university system must necessarily be based on a more or less thorough revision or modification of the University Statute of 1884, the provisions of which have already been described in the Historical Sketch. This chapter will, consequently, be largely devoted to a discussion of the points in which this Statute has led to unsatisfactory results, and therefore stands in need of amendment. But before entering on this discussion, it will be well to follow the precedent set in the last two chapters, and to direct the reader's attention to certain general conditions of university life in Russia, which are by no means the product of any particular statute, but depend upon historical causes, and stand in intimate relation with the general social and political life of the country.

The position of the Russian universities is, in many respects, unique in Europe: They are entirely the creation of the autocracy, which has been free from the first to impress its own stamp upon them, to mould them to its own purposes, to grant them a measure of autonomy or to withhold it from them at its own will, unhampered by any previously existing traditions of academic freedom. Not only have they never known anything like the freedom from State interference enjoyed by our British universities alone among similar institutions in Europe; they are themselves an integral part of the State organisation. They have been built, so to speak, into the structure of the huge edifice of bureaucracy by which the Russian Empire is administered. From this point of view, each Russian university is simply one subdivision of a great Department of State which acts as the organ of the autocratic power in its self-assumed capacity as educator of the nation.

This is not, of course, the only point of view from which the work of the Russian universities must be regarded. However great may have been the share of the State in the establishment of places

of higher learning, once they are called into existence, they are subject not only to the law of the State, but to those higher laws of intellectual development and social progress which the most strongly organised of States has only a limited power to control. The history of the Russian universities furnishes a sufficiently striking example of the difficulty or impossibility of setting artificial bounds to organic intellectual growth. They have served the purposes of the State, it is true, and, as we shall see immediately, they have done so with great efficiency; but they have also formed independent scientific traditions: they have become centres of social and intellectual influences acting independently of the State: they have initiated great intellectual movements which have in the event reacted powerfully upon the policy of the State itself. This twofold aspect of the work of the Russian universities must never be left out of view. In origin, and to a large extent also in function, they are State institutions; but by the very law of their being they are something more. They are, as has been well said, "organised social forces," whose relative importance in a State where such organised social forces are few can hardly be overestimated.

Nevertheless the State control of higher education is a factor of the very utmost significance even in the intellectual life of the universities. In the first place, it explains the predominance given in Russia to the conception of the university as a training place for future State officials. In a highly centralised Empire like Russia, where little scope is left for local self-government or voluntary public service, the State requires an enormous number of educated persons for the purposes of administration; and these it is one of the chief functions of the universities to supply. In order to ensure that its officials shall possess the education requisite for the intelligent performance of their duties, a diploma from a university, or other place of higher learning recognised as equivalent, is made a necessary qualification for every responsible post in the public service. The effect of this is to crowd the universities with future candidates for employment by the State, since only a privileged few are able to choose the easier mode of access to the public service offered by the special aristocratic schools. A similar influence is exerted by the provision which opens the doors of the learned professions only to those who have obtained a diploma in the corresponding faculty. The inevitable tendency of such arrangements must be to obscure more or less the significance of the universities as places for the pursuit of learning for its own sake. We do not, of course, mean to assert that purely scientific ideals do not appeal strongly to a large number of Russian students, for such an assertion would be belied by a whole series of actual and historical facts. But it is an inevitable consequence of the close connection of the university diploma with the student's future career that the material and practical advantages of education should bulk largely in the eyes of the majority of university students. This fact has exercised a determining influence on the history and character of the Russian universities. Great as have been the

services rendered by the universities of Russia to the advance of scholarship and science, the services they have rendered to the Russian people in raising the level of education among its official and professional classes have been immeasurably greater; and it is therefore the latter merit even more than the former which constitutes their special historical claim to distinction.

The distinction made between the diploma and the degree stands in intimate relation to this twofold function of the university as a training place for the official and professional classes on the one hand, and as a nursery of pure learning on the other. The English reader should here be reminded that the terms "diploma" and "degree," as used in the Russian universities, do not bear the meaning which attaches to them in England or in Germany. The diploma of the "first" and "second grade" may be equated with our Honours and Pass Degree respectively: to the Russian "learned degrees" of magister and doctor we have no precise equivalent, as they represent a level of intellectual attainment much higher than is required for the degrees bearing the corresponding names at any of our British universities. Learned degrees are sought by comparatively few of the students attending the Russian universities; broadly speaking, only by those who are looking forward to a career of study or to occupying teaching posts in the universities or other places of higher learning: the great majority are satisfied with the diploma which opens the doors of the public service and the professions. It is important to bear this distinction in mind, because it explains why the State, especially in recent years, has maintained so strict a control over the diploma examination, while it has been content under every revision of the University Statute to leave learned degrees to the decision of the faculties themselves. All university education in Russia is regarded as a function of the State; but the interests of the State being more widely involved in the diploma examination than in the examinations for degrees, the inducement to exercise direct control over the former is correspondingly greater.

The State origin and bureaucratic character of the Russian universities go far to explain another distinctive feature of the university system—namely, its lack of corporate life. The students of a Russian university are conceived by the legislature as individual units for whom the State provides higher instruction. The professors are State officials whose function it is to impart information on a given subject. The idea of the university as a corporation within the State uniting teachers and taught by means of scientific interests common to both is absent. The idea of the students as forming by themselves a corporate body is not only foreign to the whole spirit of Russian legislation, but is expressly guarded against by the university regulations. The idea of the professorial body as a corporation with common interests is not entirely absent, but it is not strongly developed, and the history of the last twenty years has tended to weaken rather than strengthen it. We must guard ourselves here against misapprehension by

saying that an unrecognised, extra-academical corporate life does exist among the students, and of this we shall have much to say later on. For the present we are considering only those features of the university system which are normal expressions of academic life.

Another general characteristic of the Russian university system which it is important to bear in mind is the social *status* of the students. In this respect the Russian universities present a striking contrast to those of our own country which draw their students mainly from the aristocratic and well-to-do classes. The great families of Russia do not, as a rule, send their sons to the universities, preferring to have them educated at select aristocratic schools, such as the Alexander Lyceum, the School of Law, or the Corps de Pages. The universities have, therefore, never had any such share in the training of the ruling caste as has fallen to the lot of Oxford and Cambridge in this country. There have, of course, been very brilliant examples of men of university training who have held the highest offices under the Crown; notable instances in recent times have been M. Witte, formerly Minister of Finance, and M. Plehve, the late Minister of the Interior. But, speaking broadly, the function of the universities has rather been to supply the State with administrators of a lower rank, and also to form a recruiting ground for the learned professions. Social reasons therefore, as the term is understood in reference to our older universities, play no part whatever in attracting students to the Russian universities, which are, on the other hand, crowded with young men belonging to a class which in England (whatever may be said of Wales and Scotland) does not usually seek university education at all. The advantages directly or indirectly dependent on the possession of a university education in Russia are so great as to make it an object of ambition to numbers of young men who are quite unable, without assistance from some outside source, even to pay the comparatively low fees charged at the Russian universities. Many eke out their resources by coaching; others depend on bursaries given by the State or public bodies, or founded by private benevolence; others receive grants from the societies for assisting poor students which exist in connection with every university. Finally, the clubs and co-operative societies formed by the students themselves, *c.g.*, for providing meals at cost price, serve in many cases to lessen considerably the cost of living to individual students.

Enquiries instituted some twenty-five years ago by M. N. Ch. Bunge, then rector of the Kiev university, and afterwards Minister of Finance, pointed to the conclusion that some sixty per cent. of the whole number of university students at that time depended on some kind of outside assistance for the means of prosecuting their studies; and this must be regarded as an extremely moderate estimate. Of these a certain number were living in extreme poverty, without even the money to buy necessary books, or sufficient food to maintain them in good bodily health. Instances were found in which students spent only three to five farthings a day on food.

This was the class of students of whom Count D. A. Tolstói spoke in 1880 as "leading a roving kind of existence, making a shift to live from day to day," and with reference to whom he said that "left to themselves without moral supervision of any kind, they live, heaven knows how, associate with heaven knows whom, and frequently form centres of discontent and exasperation, which give occasion of trouble to the Government and society." In spite of the steps taken by the Government during the reign of Alexander III. to close the gymnasia (from which the students at the universities are almost exclusively drawn) to certain classes of the population, the state of things described by M. Bunge and Count Tolstói remains substantially unchanged at the present time; while the raising in 1887 of the fees payable by each student to the university has not reduced the numbers of the poorest class of students, though it has added considerably to their difficulties. It is important to add that the universities (in contradistinction to the special aristocratic schools), are all non-residential. The students, as a rule, live in lodgings chosen by themselves, though recently a special effort has been made by the State, as we have noted in the first chapter, to provide hostel accommodation in connection with each of the universities, where students can live a normal life in common under the supervision of the authorities.

From the intellectual point of view, an important difference between Russian and English universities arises from the great uniformity in the previous training which Russian students have undergone before admission to the university. Whereas at an English university it is a matter of indifference what school a candidate for matriculation has attended, or whether he has attended any at all, provided he can pass the entrance examination, every university student in Russia must (with very few exceptions) have passed through the course of the classical gymnasium. The reservation of this monopoly to the gymnasia has, and cannot but have, important effects on the intellectual life of the Russian universities. On the one hand, it produces a considerable evenness of attainment and capacity, a large area of common intellectual ground among the students; their general intellectual average may not be higher than that of English undergraduates, but the differences they exhibit in tastes, interests and ideals are less wide, and there are certainly, fewer students at Russian than at British universities who are hopelessly incapable of profiting by a university course. On the other hand, the closing of the doors of the university to all save those whose secondary education has been of a particular type throws an enormous weight of responsibility on the secondary school selected for the privileged position; and any defects under which this school suffers in respect of organisation, teaching or general influence cannot but seriously affect the universities, and through them the whole intellectual life of the country.

Finally, it should be noted that the Russian universities, with the exception of Dorpat, have no faculties of theology, and that they have no faculties in the applied sciences, except in the case of medicine.

Hence, there are at most of the universities no students who are being educated either for the Christian ministry or for the technical professions. The preparation of candidates for Holy Orders is undertaken in Orthodox Russia exclusively by the theological seminaries and academies. Higher technical instruction of various kinds is given by the special technical colleges attached to different ministries. It would be interesting to discuss how far the absence of these two classes of students from the universities deprives the life of the latter of valuable elements of intellectual influence, and, in particular, how far the separation of future members of the clerical profession from their fellows during the formative period of their lives affects the general intellectual outlook of the clergy themselves, and their relations with educated laymen in after life. Here we must be content to note the fact of their absence as one of very considerable importance in its bearing upon the social life of Russia.*

II.—WORKING OF THE UNIVERSITY STATUTE OF 1884.

Such are some of the general conditions of Russian university life which it is important to bear in mind in considering the effect of the modifications which were introduced into the university system by the Statute of 1884. We have already described fully the provisions of this Statute and need not here recapitulate them in detail. Briefly speaking, its objects were to increase to the utmost the control of the State over both the instruction and the administration; to sweep away all elements of self-government which had previously existed, and thereby to reduce greatly the significance of the professorial body in its corporate capacity: and to accentuate the position of the students as a mere collection of individuals attending the university for purposes of study. The Statute aimed at accomplishing these objects (a) by taking administration and discipline out of the hands of the university council and placing both in the hands of persons appointed *ad hoc* and directly responsible to the State; (b) by taking the ultimate control of instruction out of the hands of the faculties and placing it in the hands of State-appointed examining commissions to whose syllabuses of examination requirements the schemes of study drawn up by the faculties had to be adjusted; (c) by taking the appointment of professors and other university officers out of the hands of the university councils and entrusting it to the Ministry of Public Instruction.

* The absence of faculties of theology in the Russian Universities is due to the historical fact that the foundation of Theological Academies preceded the establishment of universities. The absence of faculties of applied sciences is on the contrary due to the deliberate policy of the Government, which, after trying the experiment of establishing chairs in these sciences at the universities (e.g., university professorships in agricultural sciences were established by Uvarov), finally adopted the principle of reserving the universities for the study of pure science, whilst providing for higher instruction in the applied sciences in special institutions.

The Statute of 1884 left the legal status of the students unchanged, but its effect was to isolate them from the professorial staff, and to subject them to a strict system of bureaucratic control exercised over them by special university officers (inspectors, sub-inspectors and the so-called *pedelias*) and also by the ordinary police. The regulations issued in accordance with the Statute emphasised still further their position as individuals without corporate rights.

Let us now consider how the Statute of 1884 has actually worked during the nineteen or twenty years which have elapsed since its introduction. In doing so, it will be convenient to distinguish between instruction and administration.

I. EFFECT OF THE STATUTE UPON INSTRUCTION.

Generally speaking, the effect of the Statute upon instruction has been smaller than might have been anticipated. The transfer of the control of instruction from the faculties to the State commissions did undoubtedly affect very seriously the scope and content of the instruction, though mainly, as we shall see, in the direction of less specialisation and greater superficiality; and the State also obtained the power to influence the spirit of university teaching by retaining the appointment of professors in its own hands. But the interference of the State with instruction was limited by circumstances not wholly within its power to control. The main reason for this is found in the fact that there is not in Russia a large choice of persons competent to fill teaching posts in the universities.

No provision of the Statute of 1884 was subjected to so much adverse criticism during the discussions which preceded its confirmation by the Emperor as the proposal to entrust the appointment of professors to the Minister. It was pointed out (*e.g.*, by the St. Petersburg University Council) that a Minister could hardly be abreast of scientific knowledge in each subject concerned, and in that case everything would depend on the particular view which might be presented to him, sometimes by interested parties; that the traditional system of election by the Councils offered guarantees, such as no alternative method could possess, that the persons appointed were men of the highest qualifications for their particular posts; and that it was in the last resort solely due to the elective principle that students were able to look upon every word of the professor as the expression of his genuine conviction and independent judgment. It must be admitted, however, that the apprehensions implied in these criticisms, however well founded in principle, could only be realised under conditions which did not as a matter of fact prevail in Russia. The event has shown that, in view of the small number of persons available for professorial posts in Russia, it makes very little difference in practice whether the appointment to such posts is made by the university councils or by the Minister. Little or no change therefore took

place in the teaching *personnel* on the introduction of the new Statute, and such change as has since taken place has been so gradual as not to involve any violent breach with the traditions of the professorial bodies. For the same reason, the composition of the State examining commissions has been almost entirely academic: in practice they have consisted of professors with a State-appointed functionary from outside acting as president. The effect of this has been that professors do as a matter of fact examine upon their own courses almost to the same extent as under the Statute of 1863; and therefore the "divorce of examinations from current instruction," which was announced as one of the main objects of the existing Statute, has been only imperfectly attained. Even with respect to smaller details of the organisation of instruction the arrangements made by the Statute of 1884 have either been observed in a merely formal manner or have been replaced by arrangements approximating to those previously existing. The provision which made the "counting of half-yearly terms" (*zachety polugodii*), dependent on the student's attendance at lectures, examinations, and practical work has been reduced more and more to a formality; the half-yearly terms have been replaced since 1890 by yearly terms or sessions, and the intermediate faculty examinations, which were at first held only at the end of a student's second year, have now become annual (except that no examination is held in the third year of the course). Thus for all practical purposes the former system of yearly examinations held by the faculties has been resumed, the only difference being that these examinations do not count towards the university diploma, but are mere sessional tests corresponding to the college examinations of Oxford, Cambridge, and some of our provincial universities.

Another provision of the Statute of 1884, the intention of which was proclaimed to be not to limit freedom but to enlarge it, has also proved abortive in practice. We mean the recognition of the German principle of *Lernfreiheit* in the Russian universities, to the extent of granting to the students the right to attend lectures in other faculties than their own, and to obtain the sanction of the Dean of their Faculty to deviations from the obligatory scheme of studies framed by the faculties and confirmed by the Minister. The former liberty has been used only to a slight extent, since to the majority of Russian students the extra fees which must be paid for attending lectures outside their own faculty prove prohibitive. The latter has not been used at all; in practice, deviations from the obligatory schemes are neither asked for nor sanctioned.

So far as they have already been described, the effects of the Statute of 1884 upon instruction may appear to have been almost entirely negative. It has, however, also had positive results of a decided kind. We may sum up the positive effects of the Statute upon instruction and the criticisms to which they have given rise under three heads.

In the first place, the faculties are no longer at liberty to frame

their courses of lectures in accordance with their own views of the requirements of the students, but must be guided by the State programs of instruction which are issued from the Minister's bureau in St. Petersburg and are common to all the universities in the Empire. The effect of this arrangement is to "normalise" university teaching, that is, to make it conform to a given pattern, to an extent for which there is no parallel elsewhere in Europe. It is complained that this leaves no room for individuality of teaching; that it confines professors of European renown to the beaten paths of the commonplace and the elementary, thus causing a waste of energy without any compensating advantage; and that it makes it difficult for university teaching to keep pace with the advance of science. It is curious to recall, in connection with this point, that one of the main grounds alleged in justification of the transfer of the control of instruction from the faculties to the State was that the former system discouraged individuality on the part of the students, by binding them down to a course of study framed by the faculty on identical lines for all the students concerned. Hence the proposal to correct this defect by connecting a certain measure of *Lernfreiheit* with the system by which the organisation of instruction was undertaken by the State. We have already seen that any real choice of studies, such as was advocated in the seventies by the critics of the Statute of 1863, does not exist in practice; and we are therefore left with this positive result, that the courses of study framed by the educational authorities are as binding on the individual student as ever, while the ultimate control of the scope and content of university teaching is decided by a non-academic, instead of an academic, body.*

* The inherent difficulties of a system under which University professors are subject to the dictation of a non-academic body not necessarily composed of persons of high scientific standing are well brought out in an article by Professor Budde on the University question. Speaking of the heart-searchings which the University Statute of 1884 caused to professors from this point of view, he says:—

"It was natural to suppose that the framing of programs of University lectures even in general outline was the proper work of doctors of various branches of learning of similar standing to the University professors. But none of us could take our stand on this hypothesis, since, in the first place, no University professor, no Doctor in any branch of Science, no true scholar will venture to recommend his own program for the guidance and edification of professors who are of equal standing with himself, and may often be more worthy representatives of higher learning than he is; and, in the second place, the content of the actual programs (which are even now [1901] in use at the University) left no doubt in our minds that they could not be the work of a learned body, since they do not reflect the actual condition of knowledge at the time of their composition, nor do they contain any general leading scientific idea running through a series of disconnected and individual points; and, finally, the absence in the program of the philosophic element in every subject of study raises serious doubts in the minds of those who have to carry them out as to their suitability for University use. Besides all this there are in Russia so few persons of the rank of doctor that it would be hard to find unattached persons not occupying university chairs whose scientific knowledge has reached a point from which wider horizons are no longer visible and from which their particular science may be treated as a dead mass of

In the second place, it is contended that the system of direct State control has led to a lowering of academic ideals. The goal now placed before the student is the mere satisfying of examination requirements, not the pursuit of learning for its own sake. The professors, on the other hand, are reduced to the position of civil servants fulfilling a particular duty to the State which has appointed them. It is maintained that this not only diminishes the moral influence of the professors, and undermines their scientific authority, but is wholly incompatible with the very idea of a university. For it is of the essence of a university, as distinguished from a mere training college or a higher technical school, that it shall encourage independent thought and work, shall give scope to original enquiry and research. This element in university work is not adequately recognised under present conditions. It is true that the Statute requires as a condition precedent to admission to the State examination that each student shall present a satisfactory thesis written during the last year and a half of his university course, on a subject approved by his Faculty, and falling within the scope of the examination requirements; and that a second thesis is made a necessary condition of obtaining the diploma of the first grade. It is also true that special stress is laid by the Statute upon practical work done during the course. But these things have, in actual practice, comparatively little influence in determining a student's place: the centre of gravity still falls upon the oral and written examination. Moreover, the enormous importance attached to a *single* examination, viz., the State examination at the end of the university course, not only tends to kill all scientific interest on the part of the students, and to discourage independent work, but makes the examination itself a mere test of memory, or nerves, or adroitness in answering. The "divorce of examinations from current instruction" may, or may not, be a defensible academic ideal; it is, at any rate, certain that the whole trend of English educational thought is towards the opposite conclusion, viz., that examinations are defensible only so long as they are *not* divorced from current instruction, and the practice of Russia in the domain of secondary instruction is based on precisely the same principle. Be that as it may, any system under which a student's fate is decided, almost exclusively, by one examination held at the end of his course is clearly open to all those grave objections which led the authorities of the University of Cambridge during the eighties to modify their scheme of examinations in precisely the contrary sense to the principles which guided the authors of the Russian Statute of 1884.

Thirdly, the present system has very greatly contributed, as we

knowledge capable of being confined within the strict limits of a program, and of remaining within those limits without movement for a period of seventeen years. . . . It is obvious that such programs . . . converted professors into simple teachers, carrying out programs imposed from above and remaining unchanged in spite of the progress of science."

(*"Russkaja Shkola,"* Sept. 1901, pp. 111, 112.)

have already indicated, to give to university teaching a superficial and encyclopædic character, which is deplored by many of those most competent to judge as being highly detrimental to the interests of Russian learning. The gist of the indictment brought against the autonomous régime prevailing under the Statute of 1863 was that the organisation of instruction by the Faculties led to too great specialisation. It was maintained that the interest of particular professors in some special branch of study or research caused disproportionate emphasis to be laid on certain subjects of the curriculum to the detriment of others of equal scientific importance; and that the only way to remedy this defect, and to ensure that all subjects should be taught "in their full range," was to deprive the professorial body of the right to determine the scope of the knowledge required from candidates for a university diploma. Whatever justification there may have been for the criticisms directed against the teaching of the universities under the former régime, it is certain that the tendency under the Statute of 1884 has been to develop defects of a precisely opposite character. We hear no more complaints of excessive specialisation; what is alleged, and without serious contradiction, against the present system is that the effort to include in the instruction every detail that may be asked for by the examining authority necessarily leads to mere superficial cram without thorough mastery of any branch of the subjects studied, and that this deprives university studies of all their value as an intellectual and moral discipline. M. Cyril Yanovski puts this point strongly in a passage occurring in his "Thoughts on Education and Teaching." (SPB., 1900.) He says:

"Every scientific truth can be considered the intellectual possession of a man only when it has been consciously, thoroughly and profoundly assimilated. The superficial acquisition of this or that scientific truth cannot be considered of any use; rather is it hurtful, because in failing to accustom its recipient to serious intellectual labour it develops in him shallowness and levity of character, excessive self-conceit and empty vanity. Unfortunately, our places of higher education for the most part turn out young men not distinguished by profound knowledge of the subjects they have studied there. Seldom do they show any love for their studies; and still more seldom do they continue them after leaving their Alma Mater. Our universities and other places of higher instruction very frequently find difficulty in obtaining persons competent to fill vacant chairs, because the professors who have occupied these chairs, sometimes for twenty years or more, have not been able during this long period of time to train up worthy successors to themselves."

The whole blame, however, for the encyclopædic character of Russian university teaching must not be laid upon the requirements of the State examinations; some share of it must also be borne by the faculties themselves, who in drawing up their schemes of studies show a strong tendency to travel outside the limit of what is either necessary or practicable. The lately appointed professor of Jurisprudence at Oxford, Dr. Paul Vinogradoff, has a passage in an article published in the *Vestnik Evropy* (October 1901), which bears on this point and is doubtless based on the writer's own experience as a professor at Moscow.

Faculty meetings for the drawing up of schemes of studies are of a peculiar character—it is as though they were preparing for a long journey, and were packing their trunk with everything which could ever under any circumstances be needed! Of course the young student of letters must attend lectures in history, Russian and general, and in the history of literature, Russian and general. But for a student in the historico-philological faculty a considerable acquaintance with the classical languages is essential—he must therefore devote attention to the classics. He must have a thorough philosophical training—that means so many hours assigned to philosophy, and the history of philosophy. From the methodological point of view it is important that everyone should make the acquaintance of the most scientific of the sciences in this department of learning, comparative philology. But it would ill become a Russian scholar to remain unfamiliar with the Slavonic world; he must attend a course in Slavonic Grammar and Slavonic knowledge. Apart from the natural desire of every professor to defend the interests of his own subject, other considerations come into play. Some respected Emeritus Professor remembers very well what a beneficial influence upon his own development was exercised by the study of some related subject or other, or by attendance at the lectures of some teacher famous in the history of the Russian universities. This will be a weighty argument for the inclusion of the subject in question on the list of those which are obligatory. And in the end we get a scheme of study which it would take a good eight years to master, if all its instructions were conscientiously and uniformly followed out. Everything has been provided for—except the fact that there are limits to the amount which a student's head can carry."

How are these encyclopædic requirements dealt with in practice by professors and students? In another part of the same article Professor Vinogradoff supplies the answer to this question. After remarking that the scientific treatment of such courses as those described would demand time which no teacher has at his disposal, and receptive faculties such as no student possesses, he goes on, "Some professors aim at the encyclopædism prescribed for them by diluting their courses to such an extent that these latter lose their university character. Others concentrate their attention upon certain sections of the subject, selected for their importance and typical character, omitting all else or giving to it only a cursory treatment; in this case it is necessary to have recourse to various legal fictions at the final examination. Others again leave their students to prepare themselves not by means of lectures, but by abridged text books, and in this case the final examination loses all character of 'finality' and simply takes away the student's attention from real university work." As to the students themselves, he tells us that "It would hardly be a mistake to assert that no good student follows a faculty scheme in its entirety. All take the examinations, but each frames his own scheme of work as far as possible, not intending thereby any lack of respect to his professors and to the subjects in which he does not attend lectures, but with a view to concentrate his energies upon what suits his bent and is within the scope of his powers."

By way of summary of much that has already been said, we may add here a quotation from a thoughtful article by M. V. Mikhalevich, which contains a critical estimate of the results of the present system of university teaching looked at in the light of

fifteen years' experience of the working of the Statute of 1884. M. Mikhalevich says :

“Our universities give neither an adequate special training nor a wide general education : what they do give is a general education in a wide range of subjects embracing a whole division of human knowledge. The Statute of 1884 does, it is true, grant the faculties the right to frame ‘several schemes of study,’ allows students to deviate from these with the sanction of the dean, permits attendance at lectures in other faculties on payment of the usual fee ; but all these are simply ideas which have never been realised in practice. The introduction of several ‘schemes of study’ (for which, besides, the sanction of the Minister is required) has not been realised at all, if we leave out of account the traditional division of the physico-mathematical faculty into sections of physical science and mathematics, and that of the historico-philological faculty, from the third year onward, into three sections (classics, literature, and history) and at St. Petersburg even into four (namely, the three just mentioned, and the Germanic and Romance section) ; deviations from the obligatory schemes are not sanctioned at all ; attendance at lectures delivered in other faculties and adapted to the special study of faculty subjects certainly takes place, but only to a very trifling extent, especially as it imposes fresh financial burdens on the students. As far as regards inter-faculty courses of a general character, they have been of rare occurrence in recent years, and still more rarely have they existed for a considerable time. The crowding into a single program of a mass of the most diverse subjects is equally prejudicial to special and general studies of a serious kind, and such a diversity of subjects constitutes at the present moment a deplorable feature in the academic life of the university. Doubtless it is still possible to find among those who graduate at our universities persons of good general culture and thorough knowledge of a special subject, but they owe this almost exclusively to themselves and not to the university. They use the university after their own fashion—they do not attend all the obligatory lectures of their faculty, they find their way to those of other faculties, and instead of attending a large number of lectures they work in the laboratories, observatories or museums, and they study at home. And the results attained are not such as would follow from the punctual observance of university rules.”

(*Pravo*, 27 October, 1899.)

It is constantly asserted by critics of the Statute of 1884 that the standard of university teaching has steadily depreciated since it came into operation. “The scientific and educational level of our universities,” says the author of the article just quoted, “falls year by year ; one after another professors, prominent lecturers and scholars of talent sink into the grave or retire from the chairs of Russian universities for reasons independent of their own will, and their places remain unoccupied.” It is also affirmed that the decline in teaching power has been accompanied by an equally marked decline in scientific interest on the part of the students. Those who hold this view point significantly to the fact that for the first time in the history of the Russian universities the revolt of the students against the authorities took in 1899 the form of a general “strike” against lectures. The way in which the university Statute acted to the prejudice of scientific interests is thus described for us by Professor E. Budde in the article from which we have already quoted.

“The professor was bound to become demoralised under the influence of the Statute of 1884 or to choose for himself some other career outside the university. He felt that he was not being made responsible for the advance of

science, and for the training of the instruments necessary for the State, and lost heart, undeservedly deprived as he was of his share in the enlightenment of the country, whilst all the time convinced that the most competent persons for this work could be the professors and no one else. The reform of 1884 had two disastrous consequences: like a scourge with a double lash, it struck the professors on the one hand, lowering their ideals, undermining their prestige, and inspiring them with a new spirit of officialdom which destroys with its formalism that living sympathy between the professor and his students which depends upon the exchange of thought and the development on both sides of a mutual personal respect; on the other hand it struck the students, who after the reform of 1884 felt themselves once more in the gymnasium instead of in a place of higher learning, once more in the position of persons bound to attend lectures by order, instead of being free to follow their own bent or predilection. Respect for the personality of the professor was henceforth undermined not only in high quarters, but also among the students, who, having made themselves acquainted with the program, naturally bided their time and narrowly watched the professor's lectures, in order to decide whether they needed professors of the new type as living guides of their scientific work and aspirations, or whether they could do without professors and confine themselves to text-books, which amply sufficed for the passing of the intermediate or final examination. In regard to this question (a burning one for both sides) the students came to a speedy, and, it must be admitted, a sufficiently just decision. The question was in fact this: 'Either the professor is capable of heroism in defence of freedom of scientific investigation, and in that case he will depart from the program, will act illegally and fall a victim to his scientific convictions, or he will prefer the part of a walking text-book, and then he will become unnecessary to the lecture room, though satisfactory in the eyes of the Government.'

(*Russkaja Shkola*, September, 1901, pp. 112, 113.)

Leaving the above extract to speak for itself, we may note in this connection one fact which is not without importance, namely, that the number of Russian scholars of European reputation now engaged in the universities of their native country is nothing like as large as it was twenty years ago. It would be rash to say that this circumstance may not be accounted for by many other causes besides the State control of the Russian universities, and the method by which their chairs are filled, for there are barren intervals in the history of every university and every country, and it must not be forgotten that one of the most brilliant periods in the life of the Russian universities—the forties—was one during which they flourished in spite of a very rigid bureaucratic control. But at least one Russian scholar of world-wide repute might be named whose services would not have been available for the English university which has welcomed him to its midst, had the Russian universities been in possession, at this moment, of an autonomous constitution.

The general effect of the criticism levelled at the Statute of 1884, so far as instruction is concerned, may therefore be stated as follows: It provided no effective remedy for the defects of instruction which were alleged as the results of the older system; on the other hand, it has tended to lower academic ideals, to restrict the freedom and individuality of instruction, to diminish the scientific authority of the professors, to give to university studies a superficial character, and generally to reduce educational efficiency, and retard scientific progress in Russia.

II. WORKING OF THE STATUTE OF 1884 IN RESPECT TO ADMINISTRATION.

We now proceed to consider the effect of the Statute of 1884 on the administration of the universities. If instruction was less affected by the changes introduced by this Statute than might have been expected, the same cannot be said of administration. Here, the changes effected amounted to a complete revolution, and have had the most important consequences in practice, though not altogether in the direction predicted by the authors of the Statute. The arguments which were alleged in favour of abolishing the system of 1863, by which administration and discipline were placed in the hands of the university council, were that a college of professors was not a proper body to be charged with disciplinary powers over the students; that it acted too slowly and irresolutely, with the result that disorders which might have been promptly checked by the exercise of firmness and decision were allowed to extend over a wide area; and that, as a matter of fact, the discipline of the universities had been unsatisfactory under the autonomous régime. Hence it was decided to revert to the older system in use before 1863, under which the university council was confined to purely educational functions, discipline being placed in the hands of an inspector appointed by the curator and responsible to him alone. It is interesting, however, to note that this older system, which had existed only since 1849, had been found ineffective for the purpose of checking disorders, and was abolished by the Statute of 1863 on the express ground that it prevented the professors from throwing the full weight of their influence into the scale on the side of order and discipline. "The learned corporation of professors" says an official document of the time, "which, under other conditions, might have anticipated and checked disturbances, had no opportunity of co-operating to this end, because, with the withdrawal of autonomy from the university, and the subordination of the students in matters of conduct to the curator and the inspector, the moral bond between the professors and students was broken, and the professors became not guides of youth and living members of the university organism, but merely officials charged with the duty of delivering lectures and holding examinations. The university police on the other hand, consisting of persons not belonging to the university, and possessing no moral influence over the students, were clearly not in a position to restore order by normal pedagogical methods."

It was this system, tried and found wanting during the fifties, which was reintroduced in 1884 in the hope that, administered with greater consistency and rigour, it would yield results which it had previously been found incapable of producing. The inspector was provided in each university with a certain number of sub-inspectors, and was also assisted by a new class of subordinate officers, the so-called *pedelias*, corresponding in status, though with much wider and more arbitrary functions, to the proctors' "bull dogs" at our older universities. In addition to this the Statute of 1884 expressly stated (Section 123) that "outside the university buildings the

students are subject to ordinary police control ; but the fact that they are under the supervision of the police does not free them from the obligation of obedience to the educational authorities." Detailed regulations as to the conduct of the students were issued by the Minister of Public Instruction ; and by Section 125 of the Statute it is laid down that the decision in regard to offences committed by the students rests, according to the gravity of the offence, with (a) the inspector (b) the rector (c) the *pravlenie* (which consists of the rector, inspector, and the deans of Faculties) ; but in cases involving severe punishment the award requires confirmation by the curator. " Conduct-lists " (*konduitnyia spiski*) are kept by the inspector with regard to the individual students, based on information collected by his subordinates ; and these conduct-lists play a great part in all questions involving the assignment of punishment for particular offences.

It must be admitted that in point of thoroughness at any rate this system of direct supervision exercised over students by the State authorities leaves nothing to be desired. Since 1884 the system has, in fact, been put into operation with a whole-hearted consistency of purpose for which there were few precedents in the history of the Russian universities ; and no stone has been left unturned to ensure the success of the experiment. And yet it has not been successful. Discipline has not improved since 1884 : it has on the contrary grown steadily worse, and the students' riots of 1899 and 1901 were the most serious ever yet known. It is officially acknowledged that it is the occurrence of these disturbances which has raised the whole question of university reform. It therefore becomes necessary to look a little more closely into the causes of these disturbances, and to consider how far they are necessarily connected with existing conditions of university life.

The author of the official brochure entitled " *Die Reform der russischen Universitäten nach dem Gesetz vom 23 August, 1884,*" gives a brief résumé of the causes of students' riots, which is at any rate interesting as representing a bureaucratic view of the matter. He attributes these disturbances (1) to a certain frivolity of disposition on the part of the students which rendered them not averse to a brush with the authorities ; (2) to the effect of the social reforms of the sixties and the ferment of ideas which accompanied them, calling forth exaggerated sentiments of human rights and dignity ; (3) to the physiological fact that the youth of the eighties were " the offspring of the generation in whose veins glowed the fever of the reform period ; " (4) to defects of religious and moral training ; and (5) to the effect of half-understood passages from Buckle's writings, and to the influence of the native literature with its tendency to exalt and glorify the lower classes, all of which produced in eager and uncritical youthful minds an exalted notion of their own mission as the saviours of society. Some of the reasons here given have obviously a temporary significance only, and others are hardly assigned their just share of influence ; but the passage may nevertheless serve as a con-

venient starting point for a fuller consideration of the causes of the chronic unrest among the students of the Russian universities.

Among these causes we must certainly assign a large place to considerations of temperament and intellectual and moral characteristics. The Russian student exhibits in an intensified degree all the distinctive qualities of the nation to which he belongs. He is unusually receptive of new ideas, and easily carried away by them; jealous to a fault of his own dignity and that of his comrades; with quick sympathies and highly developed social instincts; impulsive, enthusiastic and capable of great sacrifices for an ideal. Unlike the English university man who retains many of the characteristics of boyhood throughout his college life, the Russian student develops quickly, and is a man before he enters the university. He carries with him from the school benches a strong sentiment of *esprit de corps*, dashed with a tradition of defiance to constituted authority, and he finds existing at the university a body of traditions which he quickly absorbs and which serve to reinforce this corporate feeling and give it a more ideal application. These traditions teach him to regard himself as a member of a body, unrecognised indeed within the State in its corporate capacity, but bound together by the closest community of interest and sentiment, a body marked off from the people by the possession of intellectual culture, but in other respects feeling its identity with them, a body which all its members idealise as the hope of the future, as the fresh virgin force which is to bring new life into the body politic and sweep away all the abuses of the existing social order. This conception of the saving mission of youth survives every disillusion, springing up into new life among every generation of university students, and is as strongly held to-day as it was seventy years ago in the early days of the reign of Nicholas I. Along with it is naturally found a very keen sense of personal rights and dignity, and a disposition to resent any infringement of them on the part either of individuals or the State.

We may name, then, as the three most salient characteristics of Russian university students the sense of comradeship, the sense of personal dignity, and the conviction of the special vocation of educated youth for the regeneration of the society of the future. It need hardly be pointed out that these characteristics are sufficient in themselves to constitute the Russian student a standing problem in a State which does not permit unrestricted liberty of thought, in which the rights of the individual as against itself are imperfectly acknowledged, and in which freedom of association is hedged about with all manner of restrictions, and, so far as university students are concerned, is entirely prohibited.

But there are other factors to be taken into account, and, in particular, the influence of political or revolutionary ideas. Here we must draw a sharp distinction between the influence of the organised revolutionary or socialist propaganda, and that of liberal

or constitutional ideas, which involve, doubtless, more or less disaffection to the existing order of things, but which have nothing to do with revolutionary aims or methods. Only a small minority of the students are affected by the revolutionary propaganda, though it does, undoubtedly, enlist the more restless spirits on its side. But the majority stand aloof from the party of revolution, and the fear of being identified with them exerts a distinctly restraining influence upon the students in their periodical collisions with the civil power. It is doubtful, for example, whether the disturbances of 1899 would not have been still more widespread and serious if it had not been for the fact that the more moderate and conservative element among the students feared to become identified with a movement to which political aims were attributed. But though ideas subversive of the existing social order obtain but a limited acceptance in the Russian universities, it remains true that any political discontent which exists in Russian society is immediately reflected among the university students, and is expressed by them in an intensified form. And it must also be borne in mind that in a certain sense political aims may be attributed to any movement which involves the assertion of individual or corporate rights not acknowledged by the Russian Government. Thus the mere act of meeting together to discuss grievances involves the assertion of a political right—the right of association. In this sense it is undoubtedly true that political aims play a great part in connection with students' disturbances in Russia; and the result is that, however little a student may be disposed to sympathise with the party of revolution, his position before the law may, nevertheless, be a very precarious one in times of disorder.

And this leads us to consider a very fruitful source of trouble in the Russian universities—the contrast between the *de jure* position of the students and the conditions and necessities of their actual life. The position of the Russian university student in the eye of the law may best be shown by a short extract from the official "Rules for Students" which are common to all the universities, and are issued under the sanction of the Minister of Public Instruction.

13. Students are considered as individual members (*posetiteli*, lit. visitors) of the university, and therefore no action is permitted on their part which bears a corporate character. On this account the presentation of addresses and petitions signed by several persons, the sending of deputations, the exhibition of any notices whatever in the name of the students, are forbidden.

N.B.—No notices may be put up without the signature of the inspector or his assistant.

14. Within the buildings, courts, and grounds of the university the organisation of students' reading rooms, dining or food clubs, and also of theatrical representations, concerts, balls, and other similar public assemblies not having a scientific character, is absolutely forbidden.

Obs. The organisation outside the university for the benefit of students, of concerts, theatricals, readings and other public assemblies are subject to the operation of the general regulations issued with reference thereto.

15. Students are forbidden to hold any meetings or gatherings for deliberation in common on any matters whatsoever or to deliver public speeches, and they are likewise forbidden to establish any common funds whatsoever.

16. Students are forbidden to take part in any secret societies or clubs such as *zemliachestva* and the like, even though these may have no criminal object, or even to join any legally recognised society, without obtaining express permission in each individual case from the authorities of the university concerned.

Such is the *de jure* position of the Russian student. He is forbidden to combine with his fellows for any purpose whatever, literary, scientific, social or economic. *De facto*, Russian students do combine for all these purposes, and for some of them the necessity for associated action arises out of the very conditions of university life. This is the case with regard to literary and scientific associations for purely academic purposes; it is still more so in connection with the so-called *zemliachestva*.

In an article entitled "*Universitet i Studenchestvo*," which appeared in the April number of *Russkaia Mysl* for 1897, Prince S. N. Trubetskoi divides students' associations for academic purposes into two categories, one comprising those with a purely scientific object, and the other including all which pursue the aim of general culture; and he maintains that the necessity for both arises out of defects in the existing organisation of university teaching, which neither encourages specialised study within the range of the subjects of the State examination nor allows scope to the students' desire for self-culture outside that range. He therefore suggests that scientific "circles" should be legalised because they tend to supply the former of these deficiencies, and associations for self-culture because they aim at supplying the latter. Whatever value may be assigned to this particular plea, it need hardly be insisted on that voluntary associations of students for the discussion of scientific or literary questions are under all circumstances an indispensable adjunct of university teaching, and that the inevitable effect of disallowing them is to place the universities in the false and anomalous position of appearing to be unfriendly to the interests of culture. We shall see later on that the Russian State authorities have recently recognised the legitimacy of associations with a purely scientific aim, and have sanctioned them under certain conditions, which, however, deprive them of their character as associations of students pure and simple.

The *zemliachestva* stand on a different footing, but equally with the associations which have just been discussed, are a natural outgrowth of the conditions of university life. Their primary purpose is economic; they may be described as societies for mutual

aid formed in each university among students belonging to a particular district. It has already been explained that a large number, probably the great majority, of Russian students come to the university insufficiently provided with the means of subsistence. It therefore becomes necessary for them to find some way of supplementing their resources during their university course. A student in this predicament naturally turns for help and advice to some senior comrade whom he has known at home, and by him he is introduced to the *zemliachestvo* formed by the students of his particular district. Through it he obtains temporary financial assistance, is put in the way of employment as a coach, obtains the loan of text-books and the like. All these are extremely useful and perfectly innocent functions for a society to perform, and for a long time the *zemliachestva* would appear to have confined themselves to such functions, and to have acted in fact as mutual benefit societies or insurance clubs. But the last few years have witnessed a remarkable development in their activities. In every university of Russia there has been a movement towards federating the separate *zemliachestva*. Wherever such a federation of *zemliachestva* has been formed, it acts under the direction of a Joint Council (*Soiuznyĭ Sovet*); and finally the Joint Councils of the various universities enter into relations with each other and act together for certain purposes. Thus out of a number of separate associations existing for purely economic purposes has grown a compact organisation extending throughout the whole country, and embracing within the sphere of its operations every university and possibly most other places of higher instruction. In proportion as the process of consolidation has advanced, the *zemliachestva* have shown an increasing tendency to travel outside the objects for which they were originally founded; they have, e.g., attempted to dictate to the authorities of their universities on matters of internal administration; they have established an independent system of discipline for their members with regular sanctions; and generally speaking, have set up an authority of their own replacing that constituted by the State.*

We are now in a position to understand in the first place how students' disturbances arise, and in the second place why they have increased so much in gravity of recent years. The rightless position of the students *de jure*, which is so far from corresponding to the condition of things *de facto*, contains in itself innumerable possibilities of collision between the students and the authorities. The occasion of collision may be trifling or otherwise, but if it is such as to rouse the students to united action in defence of one or more of their comrades, serious trouble is sure to ensue, and al-

* It is interesting to note that the first occasion of such interference with the university authorities generally arises out of the economic aim of the *zemliachestva*. These latter claim a voice in the award of bursaries on the ground that they alone are in a position to judge of the relative need of applicants. This question of bursaries is of course one of prime importance in view of the poverty of the greater part of the students.

though the last word must always rest with the authorities, backed up as they are by irresistible force, the students' organisation is sufficiently compact and powerful to make the struggle a prolonged and disastrous one. In the classic instance of the disorders of 1899, the occasion of the outbreak was given by the ill-advised action of the St. Petersburg police, who lost their heads among a crowd of students and lashed at them with their whips. Two days later the students declared the university closed and pledged themselves to abstain from going to lectures until the instructions guiding the police and the administration generally in their relations to students were published, and a guarantee of personal inviolability was given to all university students of both sexes in Russia. Within a week all the institutions of university rank in St. Petersburg had joined the movement, which quickly spread to every university in Russia. The struggle between the students and authorities lasted three whole months, and was at last ended only by the advent of the vacation and by the employment of the severest repressive measures, including the imprisonment of the leaders of the movement and the expulsion of large numbers of those implicated in it.

The difficulties arising from the causes already mentioned have been much aggravated by the methods of judicial procedure which were introduced under the Statute of 1884, to deal with offences committed by students. The University Court created by the Statute of 1863 was abolished, and its place was taken, as far as all serious offences were concerned, by the *Pravlenie*, or administrative council of the university. Both the constitution of this body, considered as a court for the trial of offences, and its procedure have been subject to much criticism, and from both points of view the chief grounds of complaint are connected with the position occupied by the inspector upon it, and the predominating influence exercised by his report as to the conduct of the students concerned. If it be true that the procedure of the old University Court was too dilatory, that of the Court of the *Pravlenie* has certainly erred in the opposite direction of being too summary and arbitrary. The accused person had frequently no opportunity of self-defence, and sometimes was not even subjected to examination. The Court depended upon the opinion of the inspector, and the inspector's opinion was based on the information contained in the conduct-lists, which in their turn were largely compiled from the reports of the *pedelia* as to the general conduct of the student, his attendance or non-attendance at lectures, his participation in meetings of students, his relations with prohibited societies, and the like. The practical result of this system has been that students have been punished not so much for the particular offence alleged against them as on the ground of the opinion of their character formed by the members of the inspectorial staff. This method of procedure has been a fruitful source of irritation and dissatisfaction on the part of the students; it is alleged that it has frequently led to the punishment of quite innocent persons, and certainly such

miscarriages of justice are more than probable where so important a part is played by the information supplied by uneducated men, like the *pedelia*, the *bona fides* of whose evidence is, moreover, not always above suspicion.*

But a student is not only subject to the jurisdiction of the university authorities: he is also the object of close supervision on the part of the police. It not unfrequently happens that a student dismissed from the university is "administratively" banished from the university town by the police; cases have even occurred in which a student, though not dismissed by the university authorities, has been banished by the police for offences properly falling under the jurisdiction of the university. The interference of the police becomes especially marked at times of serious disorders within the university. Moreover, the numbers of persons concerned in these disorders render difficult the observance even of the ordinary rules of procedure. Students are dismissed by the university authorities by the score or the hundred; administrative banishments follow on a large scale: in 1899 the extreme measure was taken of closing all the universities, *i.e.*, of dismissing *all* the students and only re-admitting them on the presentation of a request by each student individually. Such drastic measures enable the Government to gain Pyrrhic victories for the time being—Pyrrhic in the sense that they are obtained at an enormous sacrifice of the intellectual interests of the nation; but they leave behind them in the minds of the students and their friends a feeling of exasperation which is a fruitful source of trouble for the future.

III.—PROPOSALS FOR REORGANISATION.

The fact that the Russian Government is now fully alive to the difficulties which have arisen from the absence of any recognition of corporate life among the students, and from the abnormal character of the existing university tribunal explains the significance of certain measures adopted with regard to the universities since 1901. Such, for instance, are the attempt to organise the students in courses under the guidance of "tutors" (*kurator*) chosen by the university council from the teaching staff; the legalising of "circles" of students for scientific and literary purposes, and especially the establishment of a temporary "disciplinary court of professors." These are, however, only interim measures. The whole question of the re-organisation of the university system is now under consideration, and the above-mentioned acts of the administration are chiefly important as indications of the direction which a complete scheme of legislative reform is likely to take.

The deliberations on this important matter are still proceeding, but it is known that the university councils, and the corresponding bodies of other places of higher instruction, on being consulted on the subject by the Ministry, have declared with remarkable

* Since 1901 *pedelia* have ceased to be employed.

unanimity their conviction of the necessity of reverting to the principle of autonomy in the organisation of the universities and of legalising students' associations. In coming to these conclusions they have but voiced the prevailing opinion in Russian society, which has had before its eyes in recent disturbances a striking object lesson on the results of relieving the professorial college from all responsibility for the maintenance of order, and has also clearly perceived that the logic of events has rendered untenable the accepted official view of the legal status of university students. Nothing in fact has been more striking in connection with the students' disorders of recent years than the insignificant rôle played by the professors. The latter have simply been passive and impotent spectators of the unequal struggle waged between the students and the civil power, though their official position would seem to mark them out as the natural mediators in such a conflict. It has become clear that the whole policy of isolating professors from students, and students from each other, has failed in its aim. The first object has indeed been attained, but the second has not; and to fail in the latter while succeeding in the former is worse than useless, since it simply means that the Government is deprived in times of turbulence and stress of a most valuable moderating influence.

If, therefore, the Government decides to be guided by the opinion of its academic advisers, the result can only be the reversal of the policy adopted twenty years ago and a return to the principle of university autonomy. The advice of the university councils, however, goes further than this, and includes the adoption of a principle never yet recognised in university legislation—namely, the legalisation of students' associations. It is not difficult to divine the reasons which have led the councils to couple this recommendation with their advocacy of the principle of autonomy.

In the first place, students' disturbances have occurred under all forms of university government, and the mere restoration of autonomy to the universities will not suffice to avert such disturbances entirely, however much it may help to reduce their frequency and gravity. The main cause of these disturbances is felt to consist, in the great majority of cases, in the refusal of the right of association to the students; and if this be admitted, it will follow that by granting liberty of association with proper safeguards against its abuse, the root of disorder will be removed. As it is, by refusing the right of association, the State really defeats its own end. For many of the associations which the average student wishes to join exist, as we have seen, for purposes which are perfectly legitimate in themselves. They are, nevertheless, illegal associations in the eye of the law; and a student who joins them accustoms himself to the idea of belonging to a secret society, and *pro tanto* becomes an eligible recruit for the party of revolution. Even apart from this, the very fact that students' associations do maintain themselves in spite of all prohibitions induces a certain attitude on the part of their members towards the law which is neither natural nor healthy.

Moreover, the refusal of the right of association, in fact, only affects the more timid and conservative spirits. The bolder and more revolutionary associate themselves in any case; their opponents remain isolated, and, consequently, the revolutionary element possesses an influence in the universities out of all proportion to its numerical strength. And finally, professors can exert no moderating influence upon the spirit of these associations, since they cannot have any relations with secret societies, whether harmless or otherwise.

If we ask what reasons can be alleged against legalising students' associations, two considerations present themselves as likely to weigh with the Russian Government. The first is the fear of encouraging the spread of revolutionary or socialist opinions. It cannot be said that there is no ground for such a fear. The Russian student is naturally inclined to radical views, and also shares, in a marked degree, the national disposition to carry all views to the extremity of their logical conclusion. To point, as some Russian liberals do, to the fact that in English universities, where free discussion is allowed, conservative opinions prevail among the students, is to argue beside the point, since the deep-lying differences between the circumstances of Russian and English universities render any comparison between them in this respect almost futile. One might just as well argue from the Alexander Lyceum or the Corps de Pages to the University of St. Petersburg. Another consideration is based on the fact that freedom of association and discussion has hitherto been regarded as incompatible with the autocratic régime; and it might, therefore, be held to be difficult to grant such freedom to students while refusing it to other citizens. This objection, however, would not apply to the legalisation of such associations as the *zemliachestva* under similar conditions to those insisted on in the case of ordinary societies, learned or otherwise.

In respect to the whole question of university reform, it is obvious that what is really involved is a decision between the two opposing principles, between which an unequal warfare has been waged in every domain of public life in Russia during the last forty years—the principle of local self-government, and the principle of centralisation. To restore autonomy to the universities would mean extending once more to the field of higher education the application of the principle which created the *zemstvos* and the organs of municipal self-government, and gave them the right of initiative in certain strictly defined matters of public concern. If the initiative in all matters of internal administration were left to the university councils, the curator interfering only when the action of any council could be shown to be illegal, *ultra vires*, or contrary to the public interest, this would involve no principle not already recognised in Russian legislation. But the extension of this principle to university administration would, nevertheless, be a very significant act. The situation is not what it was, when the autonomous Statute of 1863 became law. Then the grant of self-government to the universities was part and parcel of the general policy which lay at the base of the "great reforms" as a whole. But the trend of

policy has been of recent years as distinctly in the direction of greater centralisation and stricter bureaucratic control as the trend of the early years of Alexander II.'s reign was towards the opposite principle of local initiative and responsibility. From the point of view here indicated, the decision of the Russian Government in the university question will be awaited with special interest.

But a still more fundamental question of principle is involved, viz., whether the State shall or shall not assume the right to control university education in its own interests. The right of the State to control the aims of education, to direct it towards a preconceived social or political end, is one of the burning questions of modern educational politics in other countries besides Russia; but if we gauge the trend of European opinion aright, there is more disposition to look with approval on the intrusion of State aims into the field of secondary and elementary education, than to recognise their relevance in relation to university teaching. The reason for this difference of attitude is surely to be found in the conviction that the function of a university is not only to communicate knowledge, but to enlarge its domain by independent inquiry and research; and the whole teaching of history is that to intellectual progress, freedom of thought and investigation is as the very breath of life. So far, then, as the object of universities is the advance of science, a State might well conceive that its own highest interests lay in the direction of abandoning all control over their independence. But the problem before the Russian Government is not quite so simple. As we have already pointed out, one of the main purposes which the Russian Universities serve is the training of an educated bureaucracy; and the State is therefore vitally interested in the kind of education which its future officials receive at these places of learning. As long as this interest remains it is vain to expect that the State will not retain a measure of control, amply sufficient for its own purposes, over the aims and methods of university teaching.

Now, the grant of autonomy to the universities means handing over the organisation and immediate control of instruction to bodies not appointed by the State and only in an ultimate sense responsible to it. More than this, it means entrusting to these bodies the conduct of the examinations by which the instruction is regulated. How can effective control by the State be made compatible with a real measure of academic freedom?—that is the problem which any government resolved on granting autonomy to the Russian universities will have to solve.

Some Russian writers on this subject would cut the Gordian knot by transferring from the universities to the State itself the conduct of all examinations for rights connected with the public service or the learned professions. This is an idea borrowed from the practice of Germany with reference to the *Staatsexamen*; but it by no means follows that what is good for Germany would be equally so for Russia. It seems certain that in the actual conditions of Russian life the effect of making entry to the public service

and the professions independent of a university education would be rapidly to deplete the universities, a result which would be greatly deplored by all who believe that universities serve the intellectual interests of the nation quite as much by the spread of general culture as by the training of a small band of finished scholars and advanced students ; while the State could hardly be expected to look with favour on a measure which would tend to lower the standard of education in the public service. For these reasons it seems improbable that any such breach with the historic traditions of the Russian Universities will take place. It is much more likely that State and professional rights will continue to be dependent on university examinations, but that any grant of autonomy will be accompanied by the reservation to the State of extensive powers of veto which would ensure to it the ultimate control over both instruction and examinations, while giving the initiative in both to the university councils.

It does not fall within the purpose of this report to attempt to forecast the solution of the university question which will ultimately be arrived at by the Russian Government. The object of the foregoing paragraphs has simply been to indicate the chief conditions of the problem before it. It may be remarked, in conclusion, that the theoretical difficulties in the way of granting autonomy to the universities may very easily be exaggerated. It should not be forgotten that the traditions of the universities during the century which has elapsed since their foundation (the earlier history of the university of Moscow is here left out of account) have been preponderatingly autonomous ; and that a certain measure of autonomy was preserved to them even during the greater part of the reign of Nicholas I. And indeed the staunchest believer in centralisation may well hold without inconsistency that methods of government which are applicable to the ordinary affairs of public life may be entirely out of place in the sphere of intellectual and scientific interests. There was a time in the history of the Russian universities when even such questions as that of the correct pronunciation of the Greek η had to be decided by Imperial authority. There has been progress since then ; and there seems to be no reason in the nature of things why this progress should not continue until all purely scientific questions are left to be settled by the universities themselves, the State interfering only when its own interests are directly prejudiced.

IV.—OTHER PROBLEMS OF UNIVERSITY TEACHING.

There are a certain number of problems affecting the organisation and methods of university instruction which may be discussed quite apart from the general questions of principle dealt with above, and may conceivably receive some kind of solution independently of any thorough-going revision of the Statute of 1864. In saying this we do not mean to imply that the solution reached would not be different according as the matters in question were decided directly by the

Ministry of Public Instruction, or by the autonomous councils if such are created.

We have already seen that one of the commonest criticisms directed against the present system of university instruction in Russia is that it encourages superficiality of knowledge while failing to serve the interests of general culture. The Faculties have tended more and more to become isolated special schools without vital connection with each other. In so far, therefore, as a student confines himself to the subjects comprised within his own Faculty—and, we have seen that under the existing system it is difficult for him to do otherwise—the intellectual training provided for him at the university, although covering a wide range of subjects, is, nevertheless, of a one-sided character. While the aims of general culture are thus insufficiently provided for, anything like a thorough special knowledge of a particular subject is rendered equally impossible by the requirement that each subject shall receive equal attention, or, as the phrase runs, shall be studied in “its full range.” Thus it is maintained that the interests of general culture and the interests of special study are alike neglected.

The isolation of Faculties from each other is, of course, not a specially Russian phenomenon. It is the result of the ever increasing specialisation of science which makes it no longer possible, as it still was in mediæval times, for the individual student to take all knowledge for his province. The division into Faculties is at best a rough practical attempt to map out university teaching in accordance with the supposed natural divisions of knowledge. But such an organisation of studies ever tends to become antiquated as new fields of study are opened up, as new sciences claim recognition, and as the divisions formerly supposed to exist between one branch of science and another are recognised to be fictitious or imaginary.

The fact is that the specialisation of studies, however much it may appear at first to replace unity by diversity, is in its ultimate effects the very reverse of a disintegrating process. For although for a time the sense of the many-sidedness of knowledge may prevent the due recognition of its essential unity, and may cause the erection of artificial boundaries in the field of science, the further advance of knowledge ultimately corrects this tendency by filling up the gaps which apparently separated one science from another and revealing the vital connections between them. The connection of law with history, of history with ethnology, of ethnology with physiology; the interdependence of the two sciences of physiology and psychology; the relation of psychology to language, and the bearing of the facts of language upon historical investigation are familiar examples which may serve to show how purely formal are the barriers which separate one domain of science from another, and how real a thing after all the underlying unity of knowledge is. From this point of view any hard and fast organisation of university teaching by Faculties is seen to be unscientific, because it assumes the existence, so to speak, of water-tight compartments in human

knowledge. Carried out to its logical issue, any such organisation of academic work is fatal to the very idea of a university, regarded as a *universitas studii*, especially if its whole intellectual life be conceived as confined to the lecture room, and the free exchange of thought between students of various Faculties be discouraged or ignored.

Of course, in so far as the aim of the Russian universities is to prepare their students for special careers, such as those of law or medicine, or certain branches of the teaching profession, Faculty instruction either of the existing or a more specialised type may serve the purpose sufficiently well. It is a perfectly tenable theory that while general culture should be the aim of the secondary schools preparing for the universities, the latter should confine themselves to special studies aiming at mastery in one subject or group of subjects. Such a theory naturally commends itself to those persons in whose eyes the chief function of the Russian universities is to train their students as efficiently as possible for particular posts in the public service or for the professions. Hence, one school of Russian writers is disposed to advocate a much greater specialisation of university studies than exists at present with a view to more definite preparation for the student's calling in after life. This appears, for example, to be the view of M. Cyril Yanovski, who in the book from which we have already quoted, takes the ground that the final or State examination should be confined to those subjects which are necessary for the efficient discharge of certain duties in the public service.

Such a theory of university teaching is open to the objection that it places the Faculties on precisely the same level as special schools training for particular callings; and few Russian scholars of standing would be found to agree that university instruction can properly be narrowed down to this function, important though it may be. The prevailing view rather appears to be that, while special studies, such as are required both for the practical purposes of particular callings, and also for the advance of abstract knowledge, should be developed by the universities in as many directions as possible, every university course should also provide for general culture to some extent; and that the two aims are entirely compatible with each other, because while the primary aim of general culture is to enlarge the mental outlook of educated men and women in the ordinary affairs of life, it is none the less necessary for the special student or the professional man, both of whom need to keep alive an interest in every branch of knowledge which may have a bearing on their own studies or pursuits. Those who hold this view would maintain that, so far from a narrowly specialised curriculum being required by Russia in view of the needs of the public service, such a system of university instruction is less suitable for Russia than elsewhere, since for all the general purposes of administration a broad mental outlook is at least as important as the possession of special knowledge.

How, then, can the existing system of university teaching be modified so as to produce men of higher general culture, and more accurate special knowledge? We may note three suggestions which have been made by responsible educationists. The first, which is associated with the name of Prince S. N. Trubetskoi, is to the effect that there should be greater specialisation of subjects within each Faculty, coupled with greater liberty to the student to attend lectures outside his own Faculty, especially such as make for general culture. The objection to this seems to be that it is to some extent self-contradictory, since in so far as Faculty courses were made more special, they would *ipso facto* cease to serve the ends of general culture.

A second suggestion, which has frequently been made in various quarters, is that a great extension should be given to the system of inter-faculty courses on subjects such as logic, philosophy, psychology, and general literature. This idea is developed still further by M. Mikhalevich, who proposes that at the base of all university instruction should be placed a Faculty of General Culture, branching out into special Faculties in the student's third or fourth year. An essential feature of this proposal is that there should be a minute specialisation of Faculties, providing for every possible branch of science, though in the interests of the best possible equipment it should not be necessary that every such special Faculty should exist in each university. This, however, would involve a very radical change in the traditions of Russian university teaching, and might subordinate special study too much to general culture.

A more conservative suggestion, which is, perhaps, open to criticism from the precisely opposite point of view, is put forward by Professor Paul Vinogradoff, who proposes a more flexible distribution of subjects within each Faculty, the student being required to concentrate upon one special subject and to take a group of others as subsidiary, while at the same time he would have full freedom to attend lectures in other subjects taught in the university. The exact nature of Professor Vinogradoff's proposal will best be seen from the following scheme of studies suggested by him for the Historico-Philological Faculty.

- (1.) *Classical Languages and Literatures*, Comparative Philology, History of Ancient Philosophy, Ancient History.
- (2.) *Slavonic Dialects*, Slavonic Knowledge, Comparative Philology, History of Literature (general or Russian).
- (3.) *Russian*, History of Russian Literature, History of General Literature, History of Philosophy, Russian History.
- (4.) *Germanic (or Romance) Languages*, Comparative Philology, History of General Literature, History of Philosophy, General History.
- (5.) *History* (general and Russian) History of Philosophy, Classical Languages (or Russian Language and Literature, or History of Art).

(6.) *Philosophy*, History of General Literature, General History, Classical Languages.

(7.) *History of the Arts*, History of Philosophy, General History, History of General Literature, Classics.

In each group the student's chief attention would be given to the subject printed in italics. Logic and Psychology would be taken by all.

All suggestions for the reorganisation of university instruction have, of course, to be considered in the light of the connection subsisting between the university examinations and the rights conferred by them with respect to the public service and entry to the professions. It would be impossible, for example, on the strength of their university examination, to open the doors of the teaching profession to students who had not taken at the university the subjects they would have to teach at school. There would be no difficulty from this point of view in adopting in Russia a carefully constructed system of elective studies, such as obtains in the American universities. A highly specialised scheme of university instruction on the other hand, would place difficulties in the way of intending teachers—difficulties which would have to be met by the institution of supplementary State examinations in subjects in which the right to teach was desired.

The American system of elective studies would appear, in any case, to be more in harmony with Russian conditions than the much-discussed system of *Lernfreiheit*, which possesses a considerable attraction for those Russian students of pedagogy who find their ideal in the educational arrangements of Germany. The question of introducing this feature of the German University system into Russia was very fully debated in the seventies, when the project of the existing Statute was under consideration, and many of the objections to its adoption which were then stated, particularly by Count Delianov, have by no means lost their force. The differences between Germany and Russia, in respect of national character, temperament, and traditions, make it very difficult to argue from the one nation to the other with regard to a matter so sensitive to national influences as education. The Russian proverb, "*to, chto Nemtsu zdorovo, to Russkomu smert*" (the German's meat is the Russian's poison), seems to be here particularly in point. *Lernfreiheit* is peculiarly a product of conditions which obtain in Germany and hardly anywhere else; it is made possible only by the national love of learning and capacity for taking pains, by the excellent intellectual training given in the secondary schools, and, lastly, by the fact that it has behind it a national tradition which secures it against serious abuses. Such a system, one would think, would suit Russia as little as it would suit England. Even in Germany its success largely depends upon the abundant supply of teaching power in every subject, which enables a healthy competition to be maintained between professors and privat-docents in the same university, or between

professors in different universities equally accessible to the student. None of these conditions exist in Russia to the degree which would make *Lernfreiheit* in anything like the German sense of the word possible.

For the development in Russia of another feature of German university life—the Seminar system—there is much more to be said. Seminar methods were adopted with great success by many Russian professors as far back as the seventies; and the Russian educational authorities have recently given great encouragement to this type of university instruction, not only for scientific reasons, but also because the Government saw in them a means of bringing students together for purely intellectual purposes under the guidance and oversight of the professors. There has lately been a disposition to exalt Seminar methods at the expense of lectures and to anticipate the speedy coming of the time when the latter shall give place almost entirely to the former. M. Cyril Yanovski makes himself the exponent of this view in the second chapter of his "Thoughts on Education and Teaching." His main contention is that the lecture system is a mediæval survival which the invention of printing has rendered obsolete, that it encourages the mere passive reception of knowledge, and does not sufficiently stimulate the student's own intellectual initiative. He would permit lectures only as supplementary to Seminar methods of instruction, except in connection with the experimental sciences, and generally those subjects in which demonstrations are necessary. Other Russian writers on education, as, for example, Professor Vinogradoff, in the article already quoted, while fully in sympathy with the development of Seminar methods, deprecate such a wholesale condemnation of the lecture system. It is in any case certain that any far-reaching change in the method of university teaching cannot be effected by a mere stroke of the pen, but must be brought about, if at all, by a process of competition in which at least as much will depend upon the personality of the teacher as upon the intrinsic superiority of one of the rival methods over the other.

With respect to examinations, we need add little to what has been already said or implied in considering the criticisms upon the Statute of 1884. It will suffice to note the fact that the reforms generally demanded are two in number. (1) That the single final examination, on which the diploma is at present granted, shall be replaced by several periodical examinations each counting towards the final result; and (2) that independent work shall have a larger share of importance assigned to it.

We may conclude this chapter by briefly enumerating some important questions connected with the extension of opportunities of higher education to persons who now find them beyond their reach. Here by far the most important place must be assigned to the question of the higher education of women. For reasons which have already been discussed, Russia has recently lagged

behind in this matter, in which at one time she seemed likely to set an example to the rest of the world. At the present moment women's higher courses exist only in the two capitals and Odessa.* This is not because the demand for university education amongst women has slackened during the last twenty years; on the contrary, the number of applications for admission to the higher courses which have to be refused year by year is a sufficient proof both of the keenness of the demand and the inadequacy of the provision for its supply. There can be no doubt that if similar courses were established in other university towns or great centres of population they would be eagerly sought after, and would stimulate still further the demand for higher education for women. So far, however, the Government has not seen its way to any extensive forward movement in this direction. Meantime, the difficulty of meeting the increasing demand for higher education for women has raised anew a question which was decided in the negative sense in the sixties, viz., whether women may be admitted as "hearers" to the ordinary university lectures. They were so admitted for a short period as the result of a special ruling of the Professors' Councils, but this privilege was revoked in 1908, when M. Schwarz was Minister of Education.† In one way or another it is to be hoped that the desired facilities for instruction of the university type will be extended to the women of Russia. Another matter which is sometimes keenly discussed in educational circles is the possibility of introducing into Russia something analogous to our University Extension Lectures. There are, however, great difficulties in the way of the success of any such movement, so long as the present restrictions on free speech and the right of public meeting continue in force.‡ Meantime, the work of University Extension is to some extent being done by the Home Reading movement which we have described in the second chapter.

* The Odessa courses referred to are the recently started Pedagogical Courses. Notices have appeared in the press to the effect that Women's Higher Courses of the type existing at St. Petersburg and Moscow are shortly to be established at Kazan; but no mention of such courses appears in the Report of the Ministry of Public Instruction for 1904.

† Later in the year another Decree was issued, re-admitting the women students.

‡ For an account of the difficulties which beset any attempt to extend higher education by means of public lectures the English reader may consult an article by Dr. Paul Vinogradoff in the *University Extension Journal* for November, 1902, entitled, "University Extension in England and Russia." See also p. 187 of this Report.

CHAPTER VI.

TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION.

I.—INTRODUCTORY.

The preceding chapters of this Report have been devoted in the main to a discussion of questions affecting the various types and grades of general education in Russia. Our task in this chapter and the one which succeeds it will be to attempt some account of the provision made for professional education, whether of the technological or the commercial type, and to indicate the nature of the special problems which arise in connection with the organisation of these kinds of instruction.

It should be premised that many of the larger questions which have already been discussed in relation to the schools of general education and the universities necessarily affect the professional schools and colleges also, in so far as the conditions prevailing in both kinds of institutions are the same. The questions of the kind and degree of control to be exercised by the State, of the legal position and rights of students, and of academic freedom, are matters of as vital moment to the technical colleges as they are to the universities. The same difficulties and problems, again, that we have seen to confront the gymnasia and the real-schools in respect to internal administration and discipline, arise also in connection with the technical schools, although, as we shall show in the next chapter, the commercial schools under the Ministry of Finance have solved many of them with a considerable measure of success. Such questions as these, therefore, will not be further discussed in this chapter, which will be devoted solely to matters which concern the technical schools and colleges as places of special and professional instruction.

II.—HISTORICAL.

The organisation of technical education in Russia in the form which it assumes to-day stands in such intimate relation to the growth of the modern industrial movement that a brief glance at the conditions which have determined the rise of industrialism in Russia must necessarily precede any attempt to describe the recent development and actual condition of technical instruction in that country. In a certain limited sense, technical education has a very long history in Russia. The schools and colleges founded by Peter the Great were essentially technical institutions, in which the aims of general culture were purposely subordinated to the special object of producing the skilled engineers, naval constructors, builders, architects, mechanics and artisans who were required by

the State. But this system of technical education, called into being by the overmastering genius of one man for the furtherance of a specific purpose, hardly survived its author. After the death of Peter the curricula of the schools which he had founded inevitably took on a more general character. The technical education movement of the eighteenth century resembles a river which loses itself in the sand. It stands in no historic relation whatever to the development which has taken place in the same direction during the last fifty years, and the reason for this breach of continuity must be sought in the causes which held back the progress of Russia during the whole of the eighteenth century, and indeed until the commencement of the reign of the second Alexander.

These causes are in their turn intimately connected with the general social history of Russia. Peter the Great encouraged native manufactures (e.g., cloth and linen industries, sail-making, the manufacture of arms and ammunition) in order to provide for the needs of his army and navy without depending on foreign sources of supply. The iron industry of the Ural region, which still flourishes in spite of conservative methods and certain natural disadvantages, owed its origin entirely to the policy of Peter. The industries established in Russia at this time were of two kinds, *State* and *private*, analogous respectively to the *manufactures de l'État* and the *manufactures royales* which had grown up in France during the preceding century under the system of State protection instituted by Colbert. The State factories, mines and ironworks were actually founded by the Government, and for some time worked as State concerns; in the sequel, however, the State, finding that it could not carry on such undertakings profitably, handed them over one by one to private persons. Other concerns, however, were, like the *manufactures royales* of France, under private management from the first, though the State encouraged their establishment by the loan of money without interest, by supplying them with machinery, and by the grant of all kinds of privileges, such as exemption from military service, the free import of raw material, remission of taxation, etc. Under the less enlightened successors of Peter these privileges degenerated into a system of monopolies and concessions which, while they laid the foundation of a few colossal fortunes, did much to arrest the natural growth of industry.* In spite of these obstacles to progress, however, the number of industrial undertakings continued steadily to grow between the death of Peter the Great and the accession of Catherine II. From the middle of the eighteenth

* One example may be given to show how the system of monopolies worked in practice. In the reign of Elisabeth Petrovna, Baron Sievers presented a petition to the Senate, praying that the paper-mill of one Olkhin might be destroyed, on the ground that his own (Sievers') mill turned out better paper and was sufficient to supply the whole province. The Senate stopped short of the drastic procedure desired by Sievers, but issued an order forbidding Olkhin to extend his useless mill! See article *Russia* in Brockhaus and Ephron's Encycl., vol. 54, p. 277.

century onwards the most noteworthy feature in the industrial history of Russia is the great increase of spinning and weaving factories on the great estates of the nobles, especially in those regions of Central Russia where agriculture was relatively unprofitable. The labour required for these estate factories was supplied by the ordinary peasants attached to the estates, and indirectly their establishment gave a great impetus to the development of cottage industries, owing to the increased diffusion of industrial skill among the serf population.

The political theories professed by Catherine the Great were irreconcilable with the system of monopolies, and more than one enactment of the earlier part of her reign bears witness to her desire to establish freedom of industry. Under the reactionary influences of her later years, however, her policy took a precisely opposite direction. In 1785 the right to open factories was placed under such restrictions as practically to confine it to the great capitalists among the nobles and merchant class. It was not until late in the reign of Alexander I. that the right of opening factories was really extended to all orders in the State. The reign of his successor (1825–1855) was a period of considerable advance, at any rate in a limited number of industries. At the close of the reign of Nicholas the number of workmen employed in factories was about 380,000, of whom some two-sevenths were engaged in cotton-spinning or weaving. The development of the cotton industry, which is to be noted as the great achievement of the reign of Nicholas, was due in great measure to the initiative of foreigners (particularly of the German, Ludwig Knoop), though the rise of great Russian firms like the Morozovs is a sufficiently striking evidence of the part borne in this work by native enterprise.

The great obstacle to the development of industries during the whole period above treated of was the institution of serfdom. So long as the peasants, the only possible class from which industrial workers could be drawn, were chained to the soil, and labour could not move freely from place to place in response to economic requirements, Russian industries were bound hand and foot. To a certain extent this was the case even with regard to agriculture, the fertile black-soil regions of the south suffering from a lack of labour, while the more barren districts of the centre had more population than they could support. In the eighteenth century various extraordinary means were employed by the State in order to supply the factories with labour. Serfs from the State and Crown lands were regularly allotted, sometimes temporarily, sometimes in perpetuity, to the factories established by the Government, and the right to acquire villages with serfs was specially granted by the Legislature throughout the eighteenth century to the factory-owners.* Other sources of supply were mendicants and criminals drafted off to the factories by way of punishment, very much as in

* This right was considerably restricted in 1802, and finally abolished in 1816.

the days of Pitt similar classes of persons were pressed into the service of the British navy, runaway peasants (who under Peter the Great could not be reclaimed by their masters if they had found employment in a factory), prisoners of war, orphans and foundlings reared in public institutions, even wives of soldiers on service. The mines were to some extent supplied with labour from abroad. Devices of this casual and uncertain nature could do little towards providing labour on a scale commensurate with the vast natural resources of Russia, or calling into existence a permanent industrial population such as in every other country of Europe has proved to be the condition of the highest manufacturing success.

The factories established upon the estates of the nobles were in the most advantageous position with regard to their supply of labour, since the right to own and acquire serfs belonged to the *noblesse* without restriction. Not only could the landowners employ their own serfs in their factories, but they were also able to hire additional serf labour from the smaller proprietors who had no factories of their own. By the beginning of the nineteenth century this practice of hiring serfs from other estates had attained very considerable proportions. But factory work was most unpopular with the peasantry, and the method of supplying the factories with forced and generally unremunerated labour was as inefficient and wasteful as such a method has always proved itself to be. The rise of the *obrok* system, by which a fixed money payment in lieu of compulsory service was exacted from the peasant by his lord, greatly improved the conditions under which Russian industries were supplied with labour, and led to a considerable increase in the technical skill and productive power of the workers. The *obrok* system was especially widely developed in the more northerly districts. Peasants belonging to estates in these districts roved away in large numbers to the towns and there engaged for a time in artisan or industrial occupations. Many of the serfs thus released on *obrok* were very successful as manufacturers, and amassed great fortunes; in such cases it was particularly to the advantage of their masters to encourage them to engage in industry, since they were thus enabled to take toll of their serfs' wealth in the shape of *obrok*. But although the difficulties which serfdom opposed to the development of industries might thus be minimised, the existence of these exceptional cases could not alter the fact that the essential condition of serfdom—the *adscriptio glebæ* of the serf—is the precise antithesis of that free and abundant supply of labour in the open market on which modern industrialism depends. Accordingly it was not until the abolition of serfdom in 1861 set labour free that Russian industries were placed in a position to develop in all the directions indicated by the economic requirements of the country.

It was not only serfdom *per se* which retarded the growth of industries during the pre-reform period. Many other causes inherent in the social conditions to which the institution of serfdom

corresponded also contributed to the same result. Such were the absence of a native middle class; the scarcity of money and consequent lack of purchasing power, in a community where trade was still carried on largely by means of barter; and, not least, the smallness of the demand among the people at large for the appliances of civilisation, which resulted from their widespread ignorance and their low standard of material comfort. All these conditions were in their turn profoundly modified, some directly, some indirectly, by the emancipation. For the land assigned to the peasants the squires were paid by means of redemption bills which were negotiable: the ready money thus put into circulation gave a great impetus to commercial transactions: and a portion of it was invested in the new industrial undertakings which were now made possible by the increased supply of voluntary labour. Foreign capital also began to flow freely into the country; railways were built; constructive works of every kind were undertaken; great centres of population sprang up; * in a word, all the characteristic phenomena which mark the life of the modern industrial state rapidly appeared among a population which only a generation earlier had been almost purely agricultural. In 1861 there were in Russia (including Poland) 14,060 factories with a yearly output of the value of 290 million roubles; in 1881, their number had risen to 35,160 with an annual production of 1,305 million roubles.

Until the year 1877 the financial policy of Russia was one of moderate protection, and State encouragement of industry largely took the form of improving the means of internal communication and of establishing banks and other institutions for facilitating the supply of capital. During the tenure of office of Von Reutern, Minister of Finance from 1862 to 1879, forty-five commercial and industrial banks were founded and more than 1,800 versts of railway were built. Near the end of the reign of Alexander II., however, the aims of the Government became more and more protectionist, and with the accession of the third Alexander, a system of high protection became an integral part of the national policy. That system owed its development chiefly to I. A. Vyshnegradski, Minister of Finance from 1887 to 1903. As Vyshnegradski was also the originator of the scheme of technical instruction, of which we shall have to speak immediately, and which was framed under the influence of the same leading ideas, it becomes necessary here to say something as to the general principles which underlay the protectionist system of Alexander III., and its relation to the dominant nationalism of the time.

The importance of nationalism as a factor in the policy of Alexander III. has already been referred to in the first chapter. But nationalism as a political and social creed had by this time taken on a much wider meaning than it held for the early Slavophiles, who

* Between the years of 1867 and 1897 the aggregate population of seven great manufacturing centres (St. Petersburg, Moscow, Tula, Warsaw, Lodz, Odessa, Vilna), rose from 1,290,875 to 3,884,446.

were its first prophets in Russia. With them its motive had been mainly religious and cultural; in the hands of the Pan Slavists of the sixties and seventies it had been applied to international politics; it was now extended—as Pan Slavists like Ivan Aksakov had always demanded that it should be—to the domain of national economy. The ideals of the new nationalism were no longer purely religious, intellectual or even military; they no longer turned exclusively towards an actual or ideal past; they were concerned rather with the great part to be played by Russia in the future as a nation among the other great nations of the world, and their realisation was held to depend on the efficient organisation of all the nation's forces, economic, moral, physical and intellectual, towards a common end. From this point of view the industries of Russia came to be regarded as a national concern which needed to be controlled and directed in the interest of the Russian State for precisely the same reasons as the military and civil services were so controlled and directed; and the workers of Russia were looked upon as a vast national army which, being entrusted with national interests of the utmost moment, must be placed by the State in a position to defend and promote those interests to the best advantage. It was this central idea which supplied one of the main motives, not only for the movement towards protectionism which was characteristic of the eighties and which reached its culminating point in the tariff of 1891, but also for the organisation of the technical instruction of the country, of which we shall speak later on. In its essence, of course, this widening of the conception of nationalism to embrace the economic sphere is an international phenomenon; but it was of relatively greater significance in Russia, because it there fell in more completely than elsewhere with the political and social tendencies which were shaping the general policy of the State.

The part which protectionism was called upon to play in the furtherance of the nationalist idea is obvious. The aim of the Government was to make Russia a self-contained Empire capable, not only of providing all the raw material required for the development of her industries, but of manufacturing everything necessary to supply the material needs of her population. Russia possesses, probably in a greater degree than any other country except the United States, all the natural advantages which are necessary to the success of such an enterprise. The extent of her territory is so vast, the range of climate and soil in the regions included within the Empire is so wide, and her mineral wealth is so great, that there is hardly any kind of raw material required for the more important industries, which she is incapable of producing within her own borders. By means of high duties upon manufactured articles imported from abroad, and upon raw materials (such as cotton and jute) which could be produced at home, it was hoped to stimulate the home production both of raw materials and manufactured articles to the point at which Russia should become practically independent of imports from foreign countries. But

the nationalist aims of the Russian Government went further than the mere adoption of a system of high protective duties. Russian industries had been largely built up by foreign capital and foreign enterprise. The raising of the import duties had even increased this tendency, since it had induced foreign manufacturers to establish factories in Russian territory. The town of Lodz in Poland, which sprang rapidly into existence as a great seat of the textile industries, owes its importance almost entirely to the enterprise of Germans, and German influence upon these industries is apparent everywhere in Russia. The part borne by British enterprise in the creation of the iron industry of South Russia has been equally prominent; we need refer only to the great iron-works established by John Hughes of Dowlais and his sons, round which the important town of Uzovka has grown up. The effect of all this was to give to Russian industry a foreign character which suited ill with the nationalising aims of the Government. With foreign capital had come in the foreign factory-owner, the foreign manager, the foreign foreman; hence the directing brain of the Russian industrial army was largely foreign, though the main body of the rank and file might be composed of native Russians. This state of things had always been viewed with natural concern by the Russian Government, and the history of the older technical colleges furnishes abundant proof of their disposition to look to education as the remedy for it. One of the principal aims of the scheme of technical instruction which received legislative sanction in 1888 was to carry out in a still more systematic way the policy of training up a generation of Russian engineers and skilled industrial workers who would be capable of replacing foreign by native control. The details of this scheme of technical instruction form the subject of the next section of this chapter.

The high tariff of 1891 was somewhat modified from 1894 onwards by the effect of the Russo-German Treaty of Commerce, but the policy which it embodied was steadfastly maintained by Vyshnegradski's more famous successor at the Ministry of Finance, M. (now Count) Witte. Basing his action upon the principle that economic independence cannot be attained by any State which is not industrial as well as agricultural, Witte made it his first object to develop native industries, even at the cost of raising considerably the price of manufactured articles to the consumer, and thereby increasing the economic difficulties of the agricultural population of Russia. He maintained that "the best protection that can be afforded to agriculture consists in assuring for it a market at home for its products, and remunerative wages for labour which finds no occupation on the land." As strongly as his predecessor he held that "the ultimate aim of the protectionist system is to enfranchise our national production from its dependence alike upon foreign labour and foreign markets, and to raise our country to an economic unity of an independent importance." But he differed from other Russian protectionists in regarding the protectionist system as a temporary or "educational" measure only, which

should be abandoned as soon as its object was attained. In order therefore that "the present (protectionist) phase might be traversed as quickly as possible," he held that a large amount of foreign capital must be attracted into Russia, and employed upon the development of Russian industries, the extension of railways, and other productive enterprises. If foreign manufacturers could be induced to start factories and other works in Russia, so much the better, as the effect of this would be to reduce by competition the high prices for manufactured goods, which are the result of a protectionist system. That this policy would tend to the perpetuation of the foreign control over Russian industries, which it had been Vyshnegradski's aim to eliminate by means of a national system of technical education, was to Witte's mind a necessary evil which must be borne with patience until Russia had become in the economic sense self-sufficing. Meantime the temporary condition of things was in itself "a school for our young industry" which not even the most perfect system of technical instruction could wholly replace.*

Industrial progress was undoubtedly much accelerated by the measures taken by M. Witte to carry out his policy. The total value of articles manufactured in Russia rose from 1,339,499,000 roubles in 1887 to 2,839,144,000 roubles in 1897, the increase being pretty evenly spread over the whole field of industry. The number of workmen employed in factories rose during the same period from 1,315,044 to 2,096,262. In 1900, however, a reaction set in as the result of over-production and reckless Bourse speculation. The consequent depression in trade and in industrial activity has been still further accentuated by the Russo-Japanese War and the internal troubles of the country, and the advance of industrialism has for the present received a severe check. There can be no doubt that much of the progress accomplished under the Witte régime was artificial and unreal in character, inasmuch as production was stimulated far in advance of the economic needs of the country. But when all reserves are made on this account, it is impossible not to admit that the administration of M. Witte gave a very considerable, and probably lasting, impulse to the industrial development of Russia.

We have been at pains to distinguish the successive phases of the industrial history of Russia, especially during the nineteenth century, because to each of these phases corresponds a definite period in the history of Russian technical education. As in the history of Russian industry, so in that of technical education, we have to draw a sharp dividing line between the period previous and that subsequent to the emancipation. And as the forty odd years of the industrial history of Russia which have elapsed since the emancipation fall into two unequal halves, distinguished by the greater

* The passages in inverted commas in the above paragraph are quoted from the translation of a speech by M. Witte given in Ch. 2 ("M. de Witte and his Policy") of Sir Henry Norman's "All the Russias."

influence of nationalist and protectionist ideas which marked the latter half, so the same years in the history of technical education fall into two similar periods, of which the later is distinguished from the earlier by the increased centralisation of State control.

As regards the pre-reform period of the history of technical education, a few words will suffice. Here, as in the case of places of general education, the provision of Higher Technical Colleges preceded the provision of Intermediate or Lower Technical Schools. The primary object of all the Higher Technical Schools established during this period was not the promotion of private industries, but the supply of engineers for the State service. We have already spoken of the technical institutions founded by Peter the Great. A Mining Institute was founded by Catherine II. and an Engineering School of Ways and Roads by Alexander I. The progress of technical instruction during the reign of Nicholas I. owed much to the efforts of Count Kankrin, who was Minister of Finance from 1823 to 1844. The Technological Institute was opened in 1831, and the School of Construction in 1843, both at St. Petersburg. The first efforts towards a system of intermediate technical instruction were also made by Count Kankrin, who established Schools of Drawing, Navigation, and Agriculture, and also prevailed upon Uvarov to institute "real" sections with a technical and commercial course in connection with some of the gymnasia and district schools. These sections, however, were not a great success, and their period of existence was short. The Ministry of Public Instruction did much on its own initiative to further technical instruction in Poland during this reign. An Institute of Rural Economy and Forestry was founded at Marimont in 1840, and an Art School at Warsaw in 1844.

The expansion of industry in Russia after the emancipation was naturally accompanied by an increased demand for technical education. During the sixties and seventies there was a rapid growth in the number of institutions preparing their pupils either for employment in industrial concerns or for occupying administrative posts under the Departments of State specially concerned in the development of industries. The majority of the Higher Technical Colleges now existing in Russia were established during the sixties, and the provision made for higher technical instruction in Russia at this period would have borne favourable comparison as regards quantity or quality with that existing in any country of Western Europe. A considerable number of technical schools of various kinds and grades were also established at various points throughout the Empire. All these places of education came into existence as local needs required, they were placed under the control of various Ministries, and were administered each under its own special Statute and according to curricula specially sanctioned for each individual case. They were, however, very unevenly distributed over the country, and, though their establishment represented an important step in advance, they were very far from constituting a national system of technical education, even when supplemented

by the technical classes attached to the real-schools under the law of 1872. Such was the condition of things up to the closing years of the reign of Alexander II. This period in the history of technical education in Russia may therefore be distinguished from the one which followed it as the *period of uncoordinated effort*. But in a country like Russia where the trend of the administration is always strongly in the direction of centralised control, this phase could be a temporary one only. Towards the end of the seventies, the lack of a unified scheme of technical instruction began to attract the attention of the Government. It was decided that the time had arrived for such a reconstruction of the existing system of technical education that all the schools and colleges throughout the country should form parts of one organic whole, and as the first step towards this end, that the administration of intermediate and lower technical instruction should be concentrated in the hands of a single Ministry. As it was held that the expert control and direction which was necessary could best be exercised by a State Department specially concerned with education, all technical schools of the intermediate and lower grades were (with some exceptions) transferred in 1881 to the Ministry of Public Instruction. The Higher Technical Colleges remained, as before, under the control of the various Ministries in connection with which they had been founded, and which were specially interested in the quality of their output.

With the eighties, then, begins *the period of centralised control* over technical instruction. It was the work of the early years of Alexander III.'s reign to formulate a general scheme of intermediate and lower technical education. It is a significant fact, as we have already mentioned, that the name most prominently associated with the elaboration of this scheme is that of I. A. Vyshnegradski. Vyshnegradski was in the early eighties a Professor of the Technological Institute and Member of the Council of the Ministry of Public Instruction, and was recognised as the foremost expert of his time in Russia in all questions of technical education. His ideas and proposals remain on record in the "General Plan" for the organisation of technical instruction, which he presented to the Ministry of Public Instruction in 1884, and which has since been published in the official "Collection of Materials relating to Technical and Professional Education." Vyshnegradski's "General Plan" was not adopted without considerable modification in minor details: it suffers to some extent from the usual Russian defect of doctrinairism; but it nevertheless merits close attention as having formulated for the first time certain leading ideas which have ever since influenced Russian policy in the matter of technical education. We proceed to note some of the most important of these ideas.

As regards the objects of technical instruction, the influence of the nationalist ideas of the time is manifest on every page of the "General Plan." The necessity of making Russian industry "national"—i.e. of replacing foreign guidance and control by

that of native Russians—is repeatedly insisted on. We have already pointed out to what an extent, as the result of the part played by foreign capital and enterprise in the industrial development of Russia, the posts of responsibility in industrial concerns, from the chief engineer or general manager down to the foreman, were filled by foreigners, while the less skilled forms of labour only were supplied by native Russians. The disadvantage of this state of things for the development of Russian industry is thrown into strong relief in the "General Plan." For instance, on p. 29 we read, "Foremen are at present either recruited from the ranks of specially gifted or competent workmen, or are obtained from abroad. The latter case, which is the one of most frequent occurrence, especially in the great industries of production, constitutes one of the weakest points of our industrial system, and is the reason why it has developed slowly, and has constantly remained a foreign growth transplanted to our soil, instead of becoming a national interest, as in Western Europe. To blame the heads of great industrial undertakings for this is hardly fair, as they naturally cannot rely on our self-taught foremen, who, though they frequently possess very remarkable capacities, are unable, owing to their lack of sufficient knowledge, to adapt themselves to novel circumstances, and find difficulty in taking the necessary steps to introduce improvements; whereas it is these improvements which, in these days of increased competition, are the nerves of industry, and any industrial establishment, which is backward in applying them to its production, quickly suffers economic defeat, when it places its goods upon the market."

Again on p. 44: "It is impossible not to take into consideration that in Russia even now the technical experts in great industrial establishments and the foremen who superintend different parts of the works are for the most part foreigners, who only in the rarest and most exceptional instances are favourably inclined towards native Russians who desire to gain in the workshops such practical knowledge as might enable them to take the place of foreigners. The instinct of self-preservation on the part of foreigners, their close connection with relatives and friends abroad, the desire to make the latter their successors, and not to surrender their posts even after their death to Russians, is a most familiar phenomenon which meets us at every turn in our industrial system: it is, though not the only, certainly the chief, reason why the Russian recruits of industry drawn from our schools do not meet with that friendly reception which would facilitate, or at any rate render possible, for them the acquisition of practical knowledge and skill. On the contrary, these young people are met as a rule with open hostility, which instead of correcting the unavoidable mistakes made by a novice at the outset, finds a malicious pleasure in exhibiting these mistakes to the proprietor, and founding upon them a decisive verdict adverse to the young aspirant. Under such conditions the hope that the practical training of aspirants to the post of foreman can be successfully carried out in our industrial

workshops will certainly not be realised, and in Russia more than anywhere else it is necessary to arrange for this training to be given in separate establishments which are not subject to the inconveniences described."

The considerations advanced in the two passages above quoted will furnish the key to the preference shown by the Russian Government for the system by which training in the principles underlying an industry or trade is made to precede actual experience in industrial workshops. This is the system which is coming more and more into favour in America and which in England also finds many advocates as against the older system, according to which a boy entered a factory or works as soon as possible after his general education was completed and obtained his grounding in the principles of his trade either *pari passu* with his practical training (in an evening technical school), or subsequently (in a day technical school or college). Russia has decided (though not without hesitation) against what may be called the older English method of training,* but it is worthy of note that her decision has been influenced less by a conviction of the superiority of the one plan to the other, than by the necessities of her position, which compelled her to devise a system of technical instruction whereby she could train up a generation of young Russians capable of developing Russian industries without having recourse to foreign skill or intelligence, and thus of breaking the foreign monopoly of control in her industrial establishments.

... Another leading principle laid down in the "General Plan" was that there should be such a differentiation of function as between various types of technical schools as would correspond in general with the recognised grades and ranks in the industrial army. Vyshnegradski's ideal for the rank and file of workers was a universal system of manual training to be given as part of the general education of the primary schools, this again to be supplemented by evening classes or in some localities by special Trade Schools. The technical training of foremen was, according to this scheme, to be obtained in Trade Schools, to which only those were to be admitted who had been through the course of a new type of Higher Grade School, to be specially created for the purpose. For the intermediate positions of responsibility between the foreman and the general manager or chief engineer he proposed to provide a special training by means of upper departments of the existing real-schools, when reorganised as five-class schools. The highest officers of all, the engineers, skilled chemists and other experts who were to form the brain of the industrial army, would receive their training in the Higher Technical Colleges. In certain details the actual scheme adopted differs somewhat from that adumbrated by Vyshnegradski.

* Evidence of the hesitation referred to above is to be found in the provision by which admission to all grades of technical schools below the college is open to persons who have spent two years in actual work in a factory, even though they may not possess the educational qualification otherwise required.

but the general principle of the differentiation of schools in correspondence with the organisation of industry has been adopted by the Russian Government; and here again it is worthy of note that the Russian system is more in harmony with American or German ideas than with those prevailing in this country.

Finally, Vyshnegradski laid the utmost stress on the necessity in every grade of technical instruction for a basis of general education sufficiently wide and firm to bear the weight of the superstructure of technical knowledge to be raised upon it. His minimum demand for the ordinary worker was a preliminary education equal to that given in the Urban School or the two-class primary school, with the addition of the training of hand and eye by some form of manual work. For foremen he thought the education given in these schools insufficient, and therefore proposed the creation of the new Higher Grade Schools above referred to. Technical education of the intermediate grade should, he thought, be based on a five-years' course in the real-school; while the full course of the gymnasium should precede admission to a Higher Technical College. The principle thus laid down is fully recognised in the existing system of technical education; but it was seen from the first that the requirements of general education for ordinary artisans and foremen were pitched by Vyshnegradski far too high under existing conditions. Even now the bare ability to read and write cannot be said to be universal among the artisan population: in the eighties, it was even less widely diffused, and in demanding for the working classes in Russia a higher standard of general education than was attained even in the more advanced countries of Western Europe, Vyshnegradski was undoubtedly setting up an impossible ideal. Moreover, the demand for some kind of manual training in every primary school in Russia was, as Vyshnegradski himself recognised, incapable of being realised until a sufficient number of teachers should have been trained to give instruction in this subject; and Russian experience has shown that this is a slow and difficult process.

III.— ORGANISATION AND WORK OF THE TECHNICAL INSTITUTIONS.

The organisation of technical education which finally received legislative sanction in 1888, and was carried into effect by the Commission of 1889, has already been described in outline in the first two chapters of this Report. The reader should here be reminded that the object of the legislation of Alexander III.'s reign was not so much to create an entirely new system of technical education, as to organise and supplement one that already existed. Consequently the reforms then introduced affected only very slightly the Higher Technical Colleges, further than to take them into account as a ^{highly} important part of the national system of education. In addition to these colleges, three main types of technical schools of ^{intermediate} or lower grade were in 1888 created or recognised, ^a ^{decidedly} ^{distinct} from each other in function, and distinguished in respect of condition ^{according to} the degree of preliminary general education the post of

required for admission, and according to the more or less advanced character of the instruction given in each. These four kinds of technical institutions, supplemented a few years later by two further types of lower schools to be hereafter described, constitute together the Russian system of technical education, as it exists at present.

At the summit of the system stood the Higher Technical Colleges intended for the training of industrial leaders, engineers, skilled chemists and administrative experts. Admission to these colleges was obtained by competitive examinations, which were open to all those who had completed the full course of the gymnasium, real-school, or other secondary school recognised as of equal rank, or that of the Intermediate Technical School. University graduates were admitted to the colleges without examination.

Next in grade came the Intermediate Technical Schools, which were intended to impart the knowledge and skill necessary to the subordinate officers of the larger industrial establishments, the men who act under the chief engineer or the general manager, but are superior to the mere skilled artificer or foreman. But in view of the fact that only a small minority of factories and works in Russia are large enough to require a staff of supervisors of the two grades above mentioned, it was also intended that the Intermediate Technical School should provide such a training as would fit its recipients to undertake the independent management of smaller industrial concerns. Admission to the Intermediate Technical School is open to boys who have passed at least through the first five classes of the real-school or (with a supplementary examination in certain subjects) the corresponding classes of some secondary school recognised as equivalent in status to the real-school. But persons who have worked at least two years in a factory or other industrial establishment are also admitted without any evidence of previous intellectual training; and the Intermediate Technical Schools of Agriculture are also open without examination to men who have completed the course of the teachers' seminaries, and even to teachers of village schools who have not taken the seminary course.

Below the Intermediate School came the Lower Technical School, the aim of which was to give the knowledge and skill required by persons desiring to become foremen in factories. For admission to these schools the preliminary training afforded by the full course of the Urban School, District School, or two-class primary school was required; but as in the case of the Intermediate Technical School, persons who had worked for two years in a factory were also qualified for admission, whatever their previous education had been.

The fourth type of technical school was the Trade School. The function of the Trade Schools was to prepare skilled workers in wood or metal for employment in great industrial concerns or to give to such persons the necessary knowledge and skill for undertaking the management of smaller workshops or foundries of their own. Candidates for admission to these schools must have com-

pleted the course of the one-class primary school, or have already worked for a couple of years in some industrial establishment.

The main outlines of the system of technical education having been thus settled by the creation of three different grades of school below the technical colleges, it remained to decide what different types of instruction should be prescribed in each grade. This question had, of course, to be decided by a consideration of the actual needs of Russian industry. Two types of school were clearly needed to correspond with the two great industries concerned in production, viz., *agriculture* and *mining*. Manufactures, again might be considered in two categories, according as the processes employed in them were mainly *chemical* or mainly *mechanical*. Lastly, the building industry was sufficiently important to demand consideration by itself. Thus five main types of technical instruction were needed in view of the industrial conditions of Russia: viz., agriculture, mining, chemistry, mechanics, and building construction. The Commission of 1889, to whom was entrusted the carrying out of the details of the system, decided that schools representing each of these five types were necessary in the intermediate grade, three only (mechanics, chemistry and building) in the lower grade; but that the Treasury need concern itself only with mechanical industries in furthering the establishment of Trade Schools. They came to the latter conclusion on the ground that four-fifths of the existing Trade Schools were actually concerned with working in wood or metal, and that carpenters' and smiths' work was admittedly the most important to the development of industry generally.*

So far we have considered only the type of technical school contemplated by the law of 1888. We have still to say something of two supplementary types called into existence by later legislation, viz., the Lower Trade Schools and the Schools of Apprentices.

* The relative importance of different manufacturing industries in Russia will be seen from the following comparative table of values referring to 1897.

	per cent.
1. Textile industries - - - - -	33·3
2. Food products - - - - -	22·8
3. Mining - - - - -	13·9
4. Metal working - - - - -	10·9
5. Animal products (leather, soap, etc.) - - - - -	4·7
6. Working in wood - - - - -	3·6
7. Ceramic manufactures (including cement, glass, etc.) - - - - -	2·9
8. Chemical products - - - - -	2·1
9. Paper making - - - - -	1·6
10. Other manufactures (e.g., tobacco, lead pencils, carriages, etc.) - - - - -	4·2
	100·0

It appears from this table that the first four categories of productions account for 82 per cent. of the total industrial output, and that therefore technical schools were chiefly needed to supply engineers, artisans and skilled labourers for the cotton and woollen mills, brewing and sugar refining, machine making, and the coal, iron and steel industries. •

The idea of establishing Lower Trade Schools was due to a suggestion made by the United Department of Laws and State Economy during the consideration of the project for Trade Schools. The motives underlying this suggestion perhaps need a few words of explanation. The admitted aim of the Trade Schools was to meet the requirements of the larger industrial centres. Now, there is in Russian society a very widespread dislike to the modern industrial régime in so far as it rests upon capitalism and the factory system; and this feeling—which is shared by Socialists and Conservatives alike—commonly reveals itself in a disposition to demand legislative encouragement for the peasant industries which still compete more or less successfully with the big mills and factories. These peasant industries are of very ancient origin, and in some parts of Russia they are extremely important and highly developed. They are carried on for the most part in the winter, when field work is suspended, and they not only form a valuable additional source of income to the peasants employed in them, but they actually tend to the benefit of agriculture by enabling the peasants to improve their stock and to rent additional land. The number of persons regularly engaged in these petty industries in Russia is certainly not less than 7,000,000, as against 2,000,000 who are employed in factories. It is no wonder, therefore, that persons of very diverse views in Russia should be disposed to look to these peasant industries, especially when developed on co-operative lines (to which the Russian *artel* system so easily lends itself) for deliverance from the admitted evils of the factory system. It is from this standpoint that we must understand the action of the United Department in asking the Ministry of Public Instruction to consider whether in the interest of the development of peasant industries some trade schools ought not to be started in the villages, so as to afford the peasant population the opportunity of technical instruction without taking them out of their usual rural surroundings. There was obviously a great field of usefulness for Trade Schools established in villages which would teach peasant artisans how to improve their method of production so as at once to economise time and labour and turn out a better finished article. The Ministry of Public Instruction, however, in carrying out the suggestion of the United Departments of Laws and State Economy, came to the conclusion that Lower Trade Schools of the same kind as those required in villages would serve an equally useful purpose in many small towns, and even in some of the larger centres of population; and the Statute by which they were established consequently makes no attempt to define the places in which they are considered desirable. The Lower Trade Schools are open to boys between thirteen and fifteen years of age who are able to read and write. The course lasts four years, the last year being entirely devoted to practical work. The trades which the schools are designed to teach are such as are largely in the hands of peasants' co-operative associations: e.g., metal-working trades (smith's work of various kinds, watch and clock making, etc.); working in wood (cabinet-

making, carpentry, carving, cooper's and wheelwright's work, etc.); binding and cardboard work; shoemaking, saddlery, paperhanging; tailoring of all kinds; basket and brush making, manufacture of articles of horn, toy-making, etc. Much attention is given in the Lower Trade Schools to subjects of general education, the teaching in these subjects being of a very practical character.

The Schools of Apprentices, established under the Statute of 20th December, 1893, are intended by a three years' course to prepare boys of from eleven to fourteen years of age for the more intelligent comprehension of the methods of the workshop. Their object is not to give a complete training in a particular craft or trade, but to occupy a portion of the period usually spent in private apprenticeship by more systematic instruction in the general methods of the trade to be learnt than would be possible in a private workshop. But it is intended that the apprentices on the completion of their course should proceed to a private factory or workshop to complete their training. As in the Lower Trade School, much attention is devoted to general subjects, and drawing is made a subject of special study.

The six types of technical institutions which have been above enumerated—Higher Technical Colleges, Intermediate and Lower Technical Schools, Trade Schools, Lower Trade Schools, and Schools of Apprentices—form, so to speak, the backbone of the system of technical instruction, as it exists in Russia to-day. The schools and colleges comprised in these six categories do not, however, represent the full provision made for technical education in Russia. Apart from the schools administered under special Statutes by the Ministry of Public Instruction, there are still a number of technical schools, especially of the more elementary type, under the control of other Departments of State. These have been fully enumerated in the second chapter of this Report (pp. 200–204); but we may mention here, as being specially important, the Intermediate and Lower Schools of Agriculture administered by the Ministry of Agriculture and Imperial Domains; the (Lower) Railway Technical Schools under the control of the Ministry of Ways of Communication; and the "Rural Workshops" established by the Ministry of Finance. Of these the Intermediate and Lower Schools of Agriculture are important enough to call for further description here.

Under the Law of the 26th May, 1904, the schools of the Ministry of Agriculture fall under four distinct categories, viz., (a) Intermediate Agricultural Schools; (b) Lower Agricultural Institutes (*uchilistcha*)*; (c) Lower Agricultural Schools (*shkoly*)*; and, (d) Practical Agricultural Schools. The full course of the Intermediate Schools lasts six years, the two lowest classes being occupied entirely with general subjects, and the four highest being

* The word *uchilistcha* means simply "schools," but in practice is used in a rather more dignified sense than *shkoly*.

devoted to subjects specially connected with agriculture. Admission to the lowest class is by competitive examination on the course of the two-class school of the Ministry of Public Instruction; but pupils are admitted to the first special class if they have gone through a course corresponding to that of the first four classes of a real-school, or have completed the course of an Urban School of not less than three classes. The following subjects must enter into the curriculum of a six-class Intermediate Agricultural School: religion, Russian, one modern language, geography, history, mathematics, drawing, natural science, land-surveying, rural economy in its various branches, bookkeeping, and law so far as required by persons engaged in agriculture. Schools with special classes only have a curriculum adapted to local requirements in each case. A second modern language, music and singing may be taught as optional subjects in all schools. In the Lower Agricultural Institutes the full course is of three years. In some cases, however, the course is shortened by a year, and a special curriculum is sanctioned for such schools in accordance with local requirements. In schools taking the full course the curriculum includes religion, Russian, arithmetic, the essentials of geometry, drawing, land-surveying, geography, Russian history, the elements of natural science, agriculture with special attention to such branches of the subject as are of local importance, and general notions of the chief laws affecting rural life. As far as possible, some instruction is also given in crafts connected with agriculture. To obtain admission to a Lower Agricultural Institute a pupil must be familiar with the course of the two-class primary school.

The Lower Agricultural Schools have a more directly practical aim than the Institutes. They are of two grades, differing according to the scope of the instruction. The curriculum in both grades presupposes the course of the one-class primary school; but the schools of the first grade carry on the general education of the pupil to the level of the two-class primary school; those of the second grade simply aim at confirming the knowledge of general subjects already acquired by the pupil. The course of both includes the following special subjects: measurement of land, the necessary elements of natural science, agriculture with some of its subsidiary branches, and knowledge of the main laws affecting agriculture. Here again provision is made for special schools with a course of two years or even one year and a curriculum specially framed to meet local needs.

All the above kinds of schools may have preparatory classes attached to them, and supplementary classes of a technical character may be superadded to the ordinary course. Practical work is an essential part of the instruction in all. In the Practical Agricultural Schools, which are intended for workmen engaged in various branches of agriculture, including gardening, viticulture, butter-making, the rearing of cattle and sheep, etc., the curriculum is mainly of a practical nature, general education entering into it only so far as is practicable and necessary. The course in these schools varies from one to three years.

IV.—PROBLEMS OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

Before proceeding to discuss the special problems of technical education in Russia, it is perhaps necessary to remind the reader that the object of the legislative work of the eighties, which has just been described, was simply to *settle the lines* on which the development of technical instruction should proceed for the future—in other words, to determine the needs of Russian industry, and the method by which they would best be satisfied. This was in itself no inconsiderable or useless achievement; it was, on the contrary, necessary in order to prevent the waste, overlapping, and want of co-ordination from which English education so frequently suffers. But the legislation of the eighties did not call into actual existence a single technical school; it simply indicated the kinds of schools which were needed, leaving it to the State or to private individuals or communities to supply them as circumstances demanded. The provision actually made is not—as will be seen by reference to the statistics given in the second chapter—in-significant in amount. We shall see presently, however, that it is still inadequate in relation to the actual needs of Russia; but before dealing with this question, it will be well to discuss some of the more general conditions of technical instruction in Russia.

The fundamental weakness of the whole system undoubtedly consists in the low level of culture among the ordinary individual workers. The effect of these conditions in retarding the industrial progress of Russia is fully recognised in such official documents as the "General Plan" of Vyshnegradski and the official memoranda and projects which sprang directly out of his proposals. Though all educational experts in Alexander III.'s reign were not disposed to follow Vyshnegradski to the extent of postulating an Urban School education or its equivalent for every worker, and higher grade elementary instruction for every future foreman, it is nevertheless certain that none of those responsible for the technical legislation of the eighties doubted that a sound basis of general knowledge in the ordinary worker was a necessary condition of the highest industrial success. But it was precisely this general basis of culture which was most conspicuously absent, if not in the larger centres of population, certainly in the smaller towns and rural districts. It is impossible not to reflect that, if it had been found possible during the period immediately succeeding the emancipation to establish a system of universal primary instruction throughout the Russian Empire, many of the difficulties which now hamper the progress of technical education would have been solved in the natural course of things.

It may seem at first sight, since the provision of primary education is so much more complete in the larger towns, and especially in the industrial centres, than in the rural districts, that the general intelligence of the artisan population of the towns, at least, ought to be sufficiently high. Such a conclusion, however, is unwarranted in view of the actual conditions under which Russian in-

dustries are supplied with labour. The settled population of the towns as yet contributes only a small contingent of the workers needed in Russian industrial establishments. A very considerable proportion, on the other hand, consists of immigrants from the country, who do not even intend to settle permanently in the towns, but work in a factory until they have earned a little money, and then return to their native villages, generally at the approach of the harvest season. To such an extent is this the case that some Russian factories close altogether in the summer; others reduce their output considerably. Mill-owners often pay higher wages in summer than in winter in order to retain their hands.* In some Governments as large a proportion as two-fifths of the male population annually leave home in search of employment elsewhere. It is difficult to obtain accurate statistics as to the extent of this migration over the whole of Russia. M. Vladimir Kovalevski (in "Russia at the End of the Nineteenth Century") says that the number of persons who seek this kind of casual employment exceeds five to six millions annually; but Professor Miliukov ("Russia and its Crisis," p. 452) tells us that "in 1900, 14·2 million peasants of both sexes left their villages in search of employment, or 32 per cent. of the whole population." The larger proportion of this migratory population no doubt consists of peasants from the north who wander southwards to help in the harvest in the corn-growing regions. But the extent of this migration to purely industrial pursuits may to some extent be gauged by the great preponderance of men over women in the chief industrial centres; for example, the proportion of women to men is in Moscow only 80 per cent.; in St. Petersburg and Kiev 83 per cent.; in Odessa 86 per cent.

This constant flow of population between town and country has of course a very important influence upon the level of culture in the places affected by it.† On the one hand, it favours the circulation of ideas and raises the standard of intelligence among the adult population of the country. Statistics show that the percentage of recruits able to read and write is always highest in those rural districts from which there is most migration to non-agricultural employment. But on the other hand this method of recruiting the industrial population tends correspondingly to depress the level of culture among the factory workers of the towns, and therefore to decrease their economic value. It also keeps the average of technical skill among industrial workers low. The same peasant does not necessarily seek the same kind of industrial employment in two succeeding years; consequently the special skill required in

* This state of things is in fact closely parallel to that which prevailed in England during the period of "domestic industry," when spinning and weaving stopped altogether in some districts during the harvest.

† It should be stated that this wholesale migration in search of temporary employment in industrial concerns is a purely Russian phenomenon. It does not, for example, affect Poland or the Baltic Provinces.

a particular industry is rarely developed.* There are signs of a slow but steady growth of a settled artisan population in the towns, and it is important to observe that the second generation of this artisan population, who have grown accustomed to the conditions of factory life from childhood, show a notable advance in technical skill and the power to handle complicated machinery.† But so long as Russian industry continues to depend as largely as is now the case for its labour upon casual immigration from the country, the backward state of education in the rural districts cannot fail to react disadvantageously upon the general intelligence of the workers employed in Russian industries.

But it is not only from the point of view of the workers in the great centres of population that the backward state of primary education in rural Russia is to be deplored. The greatest Russian industry is, and will probably always continue to be, agriculture. More than four-fifths of the whole population of Russia live by the land, and two-thirds of the agricultural land in the country is tilled by small peasant proprietors. There is no class in Russia which stands to gain more, even from a purely material point of view, by improved education, whether of a general or technical kind, than this class of small peasant land-holders. A factory worker has after all a strictly limited task to perform, and he may acquire by practice the mechanical skill necessary to perform it to the satisfaction of

* Cp. Baron E. von der Brüggen, "Das heutige Rus-land," Ch. 4, p. 57:—

"What can you make of these people?" said one of the leading factory owners of Moscow once to me. "Why, they are all landed proprietors. The best of them learns in the course of a few years the management of a machine in my mill, he becomes worth something to me, and I pay him rather more than the wretched wage which the ordinary mill-hand earns. In a few years he has put by two or three hundred roubles; then he asks me to release him, and off he goes. In his own village he is the rich man from the capital and a very important person as long as his savings last. A year or two goes by, and Triphon turns up again, bows down to the ground, and asks for employment. "Little Father, Karl Ivanovich, old Triphon is back again," and again he bows down to the ground. But meantime new machinery has been introduced, and Triphon has, besides, lost something of his skill during the two years and has to begin to learn his work over again. So he seldom manages to improve his position."

A striking comparison between the skill of Russian and English workers in the textile industries is quoted by Mr. L. Villari ("Russia under the Great Shadow," p. 235) from Professor Mendeleev. "16·6 men are needed for 1,000 spindles in Russia, while in England three suffice, or even less. In a few mills, however, the number has been reduced to ten or twelve, and in some of the Polish mills and in the great works at Narva to a little over six. For 1,000 mule spindles seven Russians are required to 2·47 Englishmen." Statistics nevertheless show that the average production per workman has greatly increased during the last forty years; according to some authorities it has even trebled in the leading industries. How much of this increase in productive power is due to improved machinery, and how much to increase of technical skill in the workman, we have no means of judging.

† The effect of recent regulations (such as the ukazes of 12th March, 1903, and 20th October, 1906) allowing the peasant to sever his connection with his commune and abolishing the collective responsibility of the commune for Government *zad zemstvo* taxes, must be to favour greatly the growth of a permanent industrial population in the future.

his employer with very little intelligent appreciation of the relation in which his work stands to that of his fellows or to the finished product. It is a commonplace of economics that division of labour is less applicable to agriculture than to other industries, and that small farms admit of it less than large estates. The peasant's task is therefore much more complex than that of the industrial worker. He is responsible both for processes and results: he has to deal not with one machine, but with several: he has constantly to meet unforeseen emergencies, to decide on a course of action in face of a new combination of conditions. The extreme importance in the interest of the agricultural industry of a sound and widely diffused system of primary education in the rural districts is therefore obvious, and the action of successive Technical Congresses held during the past few years in recommending the introduction of universal primary education as the preliminary condition of any further extension of technical instruction, needs no explanation.

The fact is that the ignorance of the peasant stands in the way of the economic progress of Russia at every turn. His farming implements are obsolete; his methods of tillage are the same as those employed in France up to the time of the Revolution or in England before the Enclosure Acts. The open-field system predominates nearly everywhere. The yield of wheat to the acre is only 28 per cent. of what it is in Sweden, and 45 per cent. of what it is in Canada. Meanwhile the exhaustion of the virgin soil in the *Cherno-ziom* (or black-earth region), and the reduction in the size of the holdings of communal land owing to the increase of population—the average allotment was in 1861 six acres and a fifth, and has now sunk to three acres and a half—make the adoption of intensive and scientific methods of agriculture more than ever urgent. Education is by no means a panacea for all the social and economic evils from which the Russian peasant is suffering, but it is certainly a condition upon which the success of any other measures for his benefit largely depends. Of this the history of the efforts made by the *zemstvos* and squires to improve the farming methods employed by the peasants has furnished frequent proof.* Moreover, the poverty of the Russian peasant, which is the result of his ignorance combined with the causes indicated above, is a most effectual check upon the development of the great manufacturing industries, which, finding little or no market for their products abroad, are directly dependent for their success upon the purchasing power of the mass of the poor population. And it need hardly be pointed out how greatly the progress of peasant industries is hampered by the backward state of education in the rural districts, and how easily the peasant-artisans, owing to their ignorance of the world, and their inability to organise for their own protection, become the prey of

* Cp. Mackenzie-Wallace, "Russia," Vol. II., pp. 230-232. The results achieved by some of the *zemstvos* in spite of manifold difficulties have been really admirable. We may perhaps mention as an example the success of the Moscow *zemstvo* in improving the cultivation of clover and other grasses, especially in the Volokolamsk district.

the middleman, who exploits their industry to its great disadvantage. Thus from every point of view we see that the defects of primary education in Russia react with disastrous effect upon the improvement of technical instruction and the progress of industry.

If the general position of primary education, regarded as a basis for technical training, is unsatisfactory, the progress made by manual work as an element of general education is still more so. In spite of the great place occupied by this subject in the deliberations of the Ministry of Public Instruction during the eighties and later, the total number of classes for manual training attached to primary schools of all kinds in 1904 was only 644. (The subject has been taken up with more enthusiasm in the Cadet Corps than in any other kind of schools!) Still, statistics show that the movement in its favour is steadily growing, and it is an encouraging sign for the future of manual training in the Primary Schools, that it forms part of the curriculum in one half of the seminaries and institutes for the training of teachers.

We turn now to consider the problems which affect the technical schools and colleges. We begin with those of the lowest grade, viz., the Trade Schools, Lower Trade Schools, and the Schools of Apprentices, to all of which admission depends on the completion of the course of the ordinary primary school. Here we are confronted at the outset by a series of questions analogous to those which have just been discussed, and arising from a similar cause, viz., the defects both in quality and quantity of the general education given by the primary school. The difficulties arising from this cause are least severely felt in the Schools of Apprentices, where the class-work consists of little more than a recapitulation of the course of the one-class primary school, with special attention to drawing. But the shortness of the course of the primary schools and the superficiality of the attainments of its pupils, constitute a real difficulty in the case of the Trade Schools, the course of which includes such subjects as geometry, technology and physics. The existing regulation fixes the age of admission to the Trade School at from eleven to thirteen, the intention obviously being to prevent any break between completion of the course of the Primary School and entrance to the Trade School. But this arrangement obviates one difficulty only to create more serious ones. For not only are the class subjects taught in the Trade School beyond the intellectual grasp of an average child of eleven or twelve, but such a child—especially in the towns, where the Trade Schools are without exception situated—rarely possesses the requisite physical development for work in the school workshops. For this reason there is a general demand on the part of the teachers of these schools that the age of admission should be raised by two years, that is, that no boy should be admitted below thirteen, nor above fifteen years of age (except in the case of those who qualify for admission by two years' previous work in a factory).

The difficulty that would be created if this proposal were carried into effect is aptly illustrated by the actual experience of the

Lower Trade Schools, where the statutory age of admission is already from thirteen to fifteen. Here, also, there are frequent complaints of insufficient preparation in general subjects, but the reason commonly assigned is that an interval of one or two years often elapses between the completion of the primary school course and admission to the Lower Trade School, and that during this interval the pupil has time to forget all that he has previously learnt. The fact is, that the difficulties we are discussing are inherent in a system under which the primary school course lasts only three years, and is commonly completed at the age of eleven, and that they would disappear at once if attendance at the primary school could be compulsorily prolonged to the age of thirteen. As there is little reason to suppose that any such measure is possible in the immediate future, it is to be feared that the difficulties of the technical schools, which depend for their supply of scholars upon the output of the primary schools, are for the present, irremediable. In any case the remedies often suggested by the heads of the Trade Schools—the establishment of schools intermediate between the primary schools and the Trade Schools, or of a preparatory department in connection with the latter, or the institution of an entrance examination—hardly appear to be practicable.

Similar difficulties arise in connection with the Lower Technical Schools, which admit pupils between thirteen and fifteen years of age who have completed the course of the Urban School, the District School, or the two-class rural Primary School. The preliminary training afforded by the last-named school is found in practice to be inadequate, and in view of the unevenness of attainments shown by pupils entering from the various kinds of schools above named, the demand is frequently made that admission to the Lower Technical School shall be by examination. Furthermore, it is sometimes complained that the age of entry is too low, since the older the pupils are when they finish the course of the Lower Technical School, the more easily do they find posts, and the more responsible the posts to which they are appointed. Under present conditions, however, it would appear to be advisable that they should not complete their course at a later age than eighteen or nineteen, since at twenty-one they are liable to be drafted off for military service, and it appears to be agreed that at least two years' continuous employment in a factory or works is needed by the graduates of the Lower Technical School in order to deepen and strengthen their knowledge and learn how to apply it in practice. The privilege granted in 1896 to pupils of the Intermediate Technical Schools to defer their period of military service to the age of twenty-four has not yet been granted to the alumni of the Lower Technical Schools, though the Railway Technical Schools, which are of the same grade, have recently obtained this boon.

The Intermediate Technical Schools have been from the first beset by peculiar difficulties. Owing to certain accidental circumstances they have been placed in an anomalous and disadvantageous position in respect to the sources from which they draw their

pupils. When the scheme for their establishment became law, it was intended that the real-schools should be re-organised with a course of five years only, and become the regular feeders to the Intermediate Technical Schools, whilst the Higher Technical Colleges were to depend on the output of the gymnasia, in addition to any students from the Intermediate Technical Schools who might wish to go to the more advanced college course. The scheme was afterwards abandoned, and the reorganised real-schools of 1889 retained their seven classes, the completion of which gave the right of access to the Higher Technical Colleges, while the completion of five classes was made the qualification for admission to the Intermediate Technical Schools.

The consequences of this change of plan have been very unfortunate for the Intermediate Technical Schools. Since access to the Higher Technical Colleges is open to the pupils of the real-school, all the most ambitious and clever boys make every effort to complete the full course, in the hope of gaining admission to the higher institution, and eventually obtaining their engineer's or chemist's diploma with all its attendant rights and privileges. The Intermediate Technical School has consequently to fill up its vacancies from those who have either failed to obtain admission to a technical college or have left the real-school after passing through the fifth or sixth class; in either case, the material upon which the Intermediate Technical School has to work is almost necessarily secondary in quality, as well as limited in quantity. Moreover, the course of the first five classes of the real-school does not constitute a completed course of general education; it is, for instance, very defective as regards literature and history. The course of the first six classes of the real-school is much less open to criticism from this point of view, and many headmasters of Intermediate Technical Schools have therefore urged that admission to these schools should be confined to those who have passed through six classes of the real-school. This, however, would make the total course of a student who passes from the real-school to an Intermediate Technical School extend to ten years, or only one year less than is needed to obtain a diploma from a Higher Technical College. There are, in fact, two Higher Technical Colleges—the Moscow School of Engineers and the Commercial Section of the Riga Polytechnic—which, by offering a three years' course, enable the student to obtain his college diploma after a ten years' course of general and special instruction. No student would willingly rest content with the leaving certificate of the Intermediate Technical School so long as he could obtain a diploma from a Higher Technical College in the same period of time, and the effect of the adoption of the proposal mentioned above would simply have been to reduce still further the number of candidates for admission to the Intermediate Technical Schools. The comparatively small number of real-schools in Russia has proved another source of difficulty. If the strict letter of the law be adhered to, according to which the course of the Intermediate Technical School presupposes a five years' course in a real-school, an Inter-

mediate Technical School can, as a rule, only be established in a place where a real-school already exists. But it often happens that technical instruction of the intermediate type is greatly needed in a town where there is nothing but a gymnasium, or perhaps no secondary school of general education at all. In places of this kind, the only practical way by which the local demand for technical instruction can be met is by establishing either a Lower Technical School or a secondary school of the mixed type, combining general with special instruction. This practical obstacle to the spread of intermediate technical education is a direct, though unforeseen, consequence of the policy adopted by Tolstoi in the seventies, by which the real-schools were placed in an inferior position to the gymnasias, with the result that their number was artificially depressed and the quality of their output depreciated.

The general result of all these unfavourable conditions has been to make the Intermediate Technical Schools dependent on very precarious sources for their supply of pupils, and the letter of the law with respect to conditions of admission has had frequently to be disregarded in their case. Their doors have been opened to candidates who had not even completed the fourth class of a school of general education, and of late even pupils who had simply gone through the course of the Urban School have been admitted into them, or at any rate into preparatory classes established in connexion with them. Experience has, in fact, shown that there is no room in Russia for an Intermediate Technical School drawing its pupils from the secondary schools of general education. There is an almost universal tendency in Russia to regard secondary education simply as a stepping stone towards higher education at the University or elsewhere; and in face of this general aspiration towards education of the type higher than secondary, it is difficult to see what useful purpose is served by the continued existence of the Intermediate Technical School as a distinct type of educational institution.

The realisation of these facts has led the Ministry of Public Instruction, acting on the advice of a Departmental Commission appointed in 1902, to the decision to abolish the distinction between Intermediate and Lower Technical Schools altogether and to create in their stead a single type of technical school, to which access shall be given by the leaving certificate of the Urban School. The details of reorganisation are at the present moment under the consideration of the Ministry of Public Instruction, but it is understood that the new schools will rank as secondary schools, but will have a course intermediate between those of the two superseded grades, and that they will remain open to pupils from secondary schools of general education who for any reason are unable to proceed to the Higher Technical Colleges. The new departure, though it involves little more than giving legislative sanction to an existing state of things, is nevertheless significant, because it definitely recognises that the intermediate ranks in the technical professions must be principally recruited from the masses of the people. It may also fairly be said

that the new organisation of technical instruction will correspond rather more closely than the old to the actual organisation of Russian industries, which, speaking generally, are not highly enough developed to find employment for two grades of technical experts between the skilled artisan who is the product of the Trade Schools and the highly trained engineer or chemist who has obtained the diploma of a technical college.

Whilst, however, the Intermediate Technical Schools of the normal type created under the law of 1888 are doomed to disappear in the near future, this is by no means likely to be the case with the Secondary Schools combining general and technical instruction, of which the Lodz School of Manufacturing Industries and the Kommissarov School at Moscow are perhaps the best examples. On the contrary, this type of school is not unlikely to receive a very considerable extension. In the first place the schools of this type which already exist have been uniformly successful, and in the case of some of them (*e.g.*, the Lodz School, founded in 1869) their successful career has extended over a considerable number of years. For this reason they have found a consistent advocate in M. Anopov, whose familiarity with the problems of technical education in Russia is unrivalled by that of any living authority. Then, again, they are a particularly convenient type of school for those districts (of which there are many in Russia) with highly developed industries, but with no adequate provision for secondary education, either general or technical. The Government is also likely for another reason to favour the establishment of this kind of school, even in localities already supplied with secondary schools of the regular type. Schools of a mixed general and technical character would be very popular in Russia, because of the relative preponderance in them of subjects with a directly practical value. They would, therefore, draw off a large contingent of pupils, who at present crowd into the existing schools of general education, but having no particular vocation for studies of a literary or scientific character, fail to complete their course and are flung upon the world without resource. The social danger arising from these waste products of the ordinary secondary schools has made the Government increasingly favourable to the establishment of schools in which the curriculum should stand in close relation with the needs of practical life. The very considerable success which, as we shall see in the next chapter, has attended the establishment by the Ministry of Finance of schools combining general with commercial instruction is also certain to influence the Government strongly in the direction of establishing schools of mixed curriculum with a strongly technical bias.

Before leaving the subject of the Intermediate and Lower Technical Schools, a word or two should be said as to the working of the regulation which permits persons who have worked in a factory for two years to enter a technical school without possessing the special educational qualification required for all other candidates for admission. The introduction of this regulation into the Statute

was a concession to the view that practical work ought to precede rather than follow theoretical instruction in technical subjects. Whatever may be the advantages of this method as the basis of an independent scheme of technical training, it would certainly appear from the testimony of Russian teachers in technical schools that there is little to be said in its favour when interpolated into a scheme which in the main proceeds on the precisely opposite principle. The headmasters of technical schools are nearly unanimous in their complaint of the backwardness of the pupils admitted under this regulation, of the unevenness of their attainments, and of the difficulty of teaching them effectively along with pupils of better general education.*

In treating above of the Intermediate Technical Schools we have referred to the fact that the tendency to seek advanced education, either of the University or the technical type, is practically universal among the pupils of the State Secondary Schools of general education. The existence of this tendency gives rise to one of the standing problems of higher education in Russia, viz., the difficulty of finding places for all who desire admission to the Higher Technical Colleges. Practically all who finish the course of the real-schools apply for entrance at a Higher Technical College. But the Higher Technical Colleges have barely as many vacancies every year as there are realists finishing their course: and apart from the output of the real-schools, the doors of the colleges are besieged every year by an ever-increasing number of gymnasists, ex-pupils of the Cadet Corps, the commercial schools, the technical schools, and other places of secondary and higher education.† The statistics of admissions for 1898 are interesting and typical. In that year the total number of applicants for admission to the Higher Technical Colleges was 2,164. Of this number 1,234 were admitted, 930

* One curious result of the admission of these students to the Intermediate Technical Schools is worth noting here. Many of them are naturally approaching manhood before they think of seeking admission to a technical school. Every male Russian is liable to be drawn for military service at the age of twenty-one. But by a decree dated 14th May, 1896, if a young man thus drawn is at the time a student in an Intermediate Technical School he is allowed to postpone his military service to the age of twenty-four. Unless, therefore, an intending student has actually entered the Intermediate Technical School before the age of twenty-one, he may find that he has to postpone his theoretical training for three years. The above-mentioned decree does not apply to Lower Technical Schools, the alumni of which have to commence their military service immediately on completing their course, which deprives them generally for three years of the possibility of applying their theoretical knowledge to practical work in factories. This disadvantage has given rise to much complaint, but, as the distinction between Lower and Intermediate Technical Schools is about to disappear, the privileges accorded by the decree of May, 1896, will probably be extended to the new schools which are to take their place.

† A comparatively small, but very valuable, contingent of candidates for admission to the Higher Technical Colleges are University graduates who have, as a rule, qualified for their diploma in the Mathematical Faculty. These candidates are admitted to the Higher Technical Colleges without examination.

were rejected. In the same year 1,375 pupils finished the course of the real-schools, of whom 1,350 sought entrance to a technical college, and of these less than two-thirds obtained admission.

One of the most striking features in this general aspiration towards advanced technical instruction is the extraordinary small part that the choice of speciality plays in it. The ambition of the Russian candidate for admission to a technical college is for higher technical education of some kind: if he cannot obtain admission to a School of Mechanical Engineers he is perfectly willing to be trained as a mining engineer, or to study agriculture or technical chemistry! This peculiarity was brought into striking relief by the system under which the competitive examinations for admission were, until recently, conducted in St. Petersburg. The various technical colleges of the capital held their examinations at different times, with the result that *all* the candidates of the year presented themselves at the college whose examination was fixed earliest. This particular college having made its selection, the unsuccessful candidates turned up in a body at the next, and so on until all the vacancies at all the colleges were filled up. This system, of course, involved an extraordinary strain upon the physical powers of a large number of the candidates: and its inconveniences are now avoided by holding a simultaneous examination at all the colleges of the capital, on the result of which a list of successful candidates is published in order of merit, and the choice of college is permitted to candidates according to their position on the list.

With a view to decreasing the number of realists seeking admission to the Higher Technical Colleges and so far as possible diverting the less capable into the Intermediate Technical Schools, the Ministry of Public Instruction in 1896 raised the standard required for promotion from the sixth to the seventh class of the real-school. This measure proved, however, entirely ineffectual. The number of realists completing the course of the seventh class continued to increase in spite of it; and the fact that from 30 to 40 per cent. of these picked pupils of the real-schools are unable to satisfy their ambition for higher education has been a source of increasing embarrassment to the State authorities. The latter, have nevertheless shown great reluctance to relieve the difficulty by the obvious method of throwing open the Faculties of Medicine and of Physics and Mathematics in the Universities to those who have completed the course of the real-schools. It appears certain that, if this course were adopted, the immediate result would be to draw off to the Universities a considerable number of those who now seek admission to the technical colleges, thus opening up to them the chance of an honourable career in directions specially suited to their previous training.

But the central fact of the situation is that the permanent requirements of Russian industry demand not the limitation but the increase of the number of persons receiving higher technical education, and it is difficult to see how this demand can be met

otherwise than by an increase in the number of technical colleges. The fact cannot be disputed that the output of the existing technical colleges is quite inadequate to the demand for persons with advanced technical knowledge. It must be borne in mind that the demand on the colleges is threefold. They have : (a) to provide teachers of applied science for the technical schools and colleges ; (b) to supply officials for administrative posts requiring technical knowledge ; * and (c) to cope with the ever-increasing demand for persons fitted to occupy responsible positions in factories and works. From every side comes evidence to show that the colleges are quite unable to satisfy fully this triple demand for their output. Their Directors complain that they are overwhelmed with requests for engineers which they cannot possibly satisfy. Ministry after Ministry has placed it on record that there is the greatest difficulty in filling administrative posts with properly qualified persons. The Ministry of Ways of Communications found it impossible to obtain a sufficient number of engineers for the construction of the Siberian Railway, and in spite of very considerable financial inducements many responsible positions had to be filled by persons who were not qualified as engineers and were insufficiently trained for their work. The Ministry of Agriculture and Imperial Domains has found equal difficulty in obtaining mining engineers for the Government mines and other State undertakings under its control, and in view of this difficulty, a clause was inserted in 1896 in the new Statute of the Mining Institute (which the Ministry controls), to the effect that all students in receipt of State bursaries should be obliged to enter the service of the State. The Ministry of the Interior complains of the dearth of candidates for posts requiring an expert knowledge of construction. All the great Departments of State which have establishments for technical education under their control join in the cry that it is impossible to fill vacancies for teachers as they occur. †

Nor does it appear that this great demand for the graduates of the Russian technical colleges is due to any considerable diminution in the number of foreigners employed in Russian industries. In spite of the increase in the number of technical experts of native origin which has taken place during the past twenty years, the number of foreigners occupying leading positions in the industrial world in Russia is probably as great, both absolutely and relatively,

* The number of Government posts in Russia requiring scientific and technical knowledge reaches dimensions which are seldom realised abroad. It has been pointed out that the Russian State manages the largest business in the world. To say nothing of posts and telegraphs, which are State-owned in many other countries—the Russian State is the largest owner of agricultural land, of forests, and of railways in the world. Two-thirds of Russian soil in Europe belongs to the State, and the Crown lands in Asia are also immense. The State owns 38,250 kilometres of railway, on which no less than 339,000 persons are employed.

† The statements of the above paragraph depend for the most part on information given by M. Anopov in a brochure published in 1897. It is probable that the establishment of several new Technical Colleges has by this time (1904) done something to supply the demand for persons of higher technical education

as it ever was. This has been one of the results of M. Witte's policy of encouraging the influx of foreign capital in order to stimulate the industrial development of Russia. The Baku oil industry may serve as a good example of an industry which is largely carried on by foreign capital and under foreign management. But there are plenty of districts nearer the centre of the Russian Empire where the proportion of foreign managers and engineers is equally great. Such is the condition of things, for example, in the Government of Podolia, a province of Little Russia, concerned largely in the manufacture of cloth, the production of wine, sugar refining and milling. Mr. Anopov in a report upon the need of technical education in the region tells us that *all* existing factories and mills there are in the hands of foreign specialists or of self-taught persons "which certainly has an unfavourable influence on the development of industry in this region so highly favoured by nature." The same conditions, he adds, prevail in the neighbouring Government of Volhynia.

The need for a largely increased provision of higher technical education in Russia is therefore patent. If further proof of this need were required it would be furnished by the number of Russians who yearly seek technical education abroad owing to the impossibility of obtaining it in their own colleges and polytechnics. The difficulty of satisfying the demand is purely a financial one. Technical education of the highest grade is necessarily expensive. The cost of such education in the six Higher Technical Colleges of St. Petersburg is stated at 330 roubles per student: and the total cost of these colleges to the Imperial Treasury is 1,000,000 roubles per annum. In view of the many calls on the Treasury which have been made in connection with the provision of technical education of all grades during the last twenty years, the State authorities have several times raised the question whether higher technical instruction could not be provided by some other means than by the establishment of technical colleges; for example, by the institution of Faculties of Applied Science in connection with the Universities. The discussions which have taken place on this subject are especially interesting and instructive, in view of the movement in the same direction which is proceeding in our own country.

In the middle nineties the proposal to establish Technical Departments in connexion with the physico-mathematical faculties was repeatedly put forward in educational circles, and formed one of the subjects of discussion at the Second Technical Congress held in 1895-6. The section to which the subject was referred, and on which professors both from the Universities and the Technical Colleges were strongly represented, pronounced against the proposal by an overwhelming majority, and even declared that common courses for students of pure and applied science were impossible in such subjects as mathematics, chemistry, and physics, in view of the necessary difference in the aim of the instruction. The same question was raised once more previously to the establishment of the Tomsk Technological Institute in 1900. The Ministry of

Public Instruction referred the consideration of the question to a Special Commission, who were asked to report—

(1) Whether the course of the physico-mathematical Faculty in the existing University of Tomsk could not be so extended by the inclusion of instruction in technical sciences as to supply the demand felt in Siberia for persons with higher technical education.

(2) Whether the same object could not be attained by establishing a separate engineering *Department* (in addition to the two Departments already existing in the Faculty, viz., that of physics and mathematics, and that of natural history) and by the addition of special practical laboratories and workshops. Also, whether such a Department would be likely to attract a sufficient number of students to justify the expenditure involved.

(3) Whether a separate institution should be created, and if such an institution were placed in more or less intimate connexion with the University, what the nature of that connexion should be.

The reply of the Commission to the first question was that any mere extension of the programmes of instruction would be insufficient for the purpose in view. Even as things were, theoretical and practical mechanics, agronomy and technical chemistry entered into the course as supplementary subjects, and as such had their uses; but the Commission considered it to be no part of the business of the Faculty to turn out engineers, agricultural experts, or technical chemists. As regarded the creation of a separate Technical Engineering Department or Faculty with properly equipped workshops and laboratories, the Commission was of opinion that this would be equivalent to the establishment of a separate Technological Institute, since the instruction in technical subjects could not proceed with advantage alongside the instruction in other Departments. Moreover, such a Department would have to be conducted on "University principles," i.e., would be limited for its supply of candidates to ex-pupils of the gymnasia and ecclesiastical seminaries, and the pupils of the latter institutions were not sufficiently well grounded in mathematics to enter with good prospects of success upon a course of engineering science. The Commission referred to the history of similar experiments in America and Germany, and decided that there existed no satisfactory foreign precedent for the establishment of such a Department or Faculty in connexion with a University. They therefore decided in favour of a separate Technological Institute, with two Departments of Engineering and Chemistry, in which special attention should be paid to electro-technics and metallurgy; but they expressed the opinion that for certain subjects in which the requirements of students at the University and an Institute would be identical, common professorships might be established.

The suggestion contained in the last sentence indicates a possible line of advance, wherever Universities and technical colleges

exist side by side. Even if common courses are decided to be impossible, it does not at all follow that the proximity of a University is of no use to a technical college. The courses may be different, but the professors may be shared in common. This should be especially practicable in the first two years of the technical college course, when the attention of the students is chiefly given to those general subjects, such as physics, mathematics and natural history, which lie at the foundation of any special technical course.

Another proposal, recommended by the authority of M. Anopov, is that in every town which possesses several technical colleges a common Polytechnic should be established in which all students who intend to take a course of higher technical instruction should be taught together for the first two years. The existing technical colleges would then be limited to a three years' course, which should be severely specialised, and students would be distributed according to their speciality among the various technical colleges, after the completion of their two years' course in the Polytechnic. The adoption of this plan would have the effect of doubling the capacity of the technical colleges to accommodate the more advanced students, and consequently of doubling the output. Such a system, however, would involve a very complete reconstruction of the existing system of higher technical education.

Reference has incidentally been made above to another great difficulty which confronts the Higher Technical Colleges, and to some extent the Intermediate and Lower Technical Schools also—viz., the difficulty of obtaining competent professors and teachers. The Technical Schools and Colleges, but especially the latter, are in this respect at a great disadvantage in comparison with places of general education, because they are exposed to the competition of industrial establishments, which can offer the most distinguished graduates of the colleges higher salaries than they would obtain as teachers in the service of the State. This, of course, is a difficulty not peculiar to Russia; it is keenly felt in every country where the college-trained man is in demand to fill responsible posts in the industrial world. It would hardly be practicable in Russia to allow professors, as is done in the United States, to undertake private practice as consulting engineers, and the like; for though there may appear no greater reason in principle why teaching and private professional work should not be combined in the case of an engineer than in the case of a physician, the prestige of a State professorship would certainly be regarded in Russia as giving the technical expert who held it an unfair advantage in his profession. At present the State meets the difficulty as far as possible by attaching the obligation of State service to the receipt of the bursaries given to students during or on the completion of their course in the technical colleges.

The adoption of the system of employing as professors men actually engaged in the practice of their profession would go far to establish that connexion between higher technical education and the industrial life of the country the lack of which is now

acknowledged to be the great defect of the technical colleges. In order that these institutions may remain abreast of industrial progress, both professors and students need to be kept in constant touch with the actual work of the factory, the mine, or the workshop. It is acknowledged that at present this connexion is not as close as it might be, and the means of bringing the colleges into closer relation to practical work formed one of the most interesting subjects of discussion at the third Technical Congress, held in St. Petersburg, December, 1903, to January, 1904. The suggestions made included frequent visits by students to factories in the neighbourhood of the colleges, more consultation of professors by the heads of industrial establishments, and more employment of practical working engineers as teachers and demonstrators in the colleges. On the other hand, the Congress placed on record its opinion that the Higher Technical Colleges should do everything possible to assist practising engineers and other technical experts to extend and supplement their technical knowledge by the organisation of special lectures and laboratory courses, as well as by the use of their libraries, etc.

Whilst, however, a widely extended sphere of usefulness is open to the Technical Colleges in the directions just indicated, the same can hardly be said, under present conditions, of one whole field of manufacturing activities in Russia—the peasant industries of the villages. With full freedom to appoint travelling lecturers or to organise extension courses, the Technical Colleges might render invaluable services in the way of improving and developing these village industries on the technical side, especially if the needs and conditions of such industries were made a special branch of the studies pursued in the colleges. It is abundantly clear from the resolutions passed at the Technical Congress of 1903–4 that the colleges are ready and anxious to undertake this work; but they are prevented from doing so by the difficulties which have already been discussed in connexion with the general subject of University extension. At present the State does something for the encouragement of peasant industries by sending trained teachers round the villages during the winter. But in view of the great importance of these industries, in which nearly four times as many persons are employed as in the factories—and in view of the great future which they appear to have before them when worked on the co-operative principle—it is of the greatest importance to Russia that the best educational resources at her disposal should be placed at their service.*

* The last twenty years have seen a striking development in the principle of co-operation as applied to peasant industries—a development which has undoubtedly done much to enable such industries to maintain themselves in competition with the large factories. The success with which the co-operative industries of the peasants have been carried on led the well-known chemist Professor Mondoleev to express, the opinion a few years ago that "for Russia the last word has not been pronounced in the struggle between large and small enterprises, and there is every reason to hope that it will soon appear again most profitable and expedient to carry on a large part of

V.—CONCLUSION.

In attempting to draw to a point the various considerations suggested in the preceding pages of this chapter, we have to ask in the first place what is the function of education in relation to industrial development in a country like Russia, and then to inquire how far this function has been fulfilled in her case.

The factors of industrial progress in any country are of two kinds, material, and human. The material factors are an abundance of the raw products of nature (including, in the case of agriculture, a fertile soil), and a sufficiency of capital for their exploitation. The human factors are labour and skill; and in practice, particularly in the case of the manufacturing industries, we have to distinguish between directing intelligence on the part of the leaders of industry and skilled labour on the part of the manual workers. These two sets of factors are both equally essential to industrial development. The richest country in the world is economically on a level with the poorest until human industry has been employed upon its natural sources of wealth; and the success with which labour is so employed is dependent upon the intelligence by which it is directed. If we may adapt a well-known phrase of Montesquien, and enlarge its scope so as to make it apply to all productive work no less than to agriculture, we may say, "Les pays ne sont pas cultivés en raison de leur fertilité, mais en raison de leur intelligence."

In the light of these considerations, how did Russia stand at the commencement of her modern industrial period?

The *raw material* of industry is abundant in Russia. In spite of her vast tracts of unproductive land, such as the arid wastes of the Aral-Caspian region, or the *tundras* of the ice-bound north, Russia is nevertheless a country of great potential wealth. One-fifth only of her total area is under cultivation, but the cultivated tract includes some of the finest grain-producing land in Europe. Flax and hemp, cotton and jute, tobacco, beet-root, and the vine are cultivated with success in Russia. She is rich in coal, iron, oil, and the precious metals. But the exploitation and development of these natural resources by the methods of modern industry demanded an enormous expenditure of capital, and this Russia, as was inevitable in a country in which commerce was so little developed, possessed in insufficient quantity. In modern times, however, capital crosses all frontiers. The needs of the growing industries of Russia were supplied by foreign capital, with the incidental result that her industries, having been largely created by foreigners, were also largely controlled by them.

So much for the material factors. The *directing intelligence* required by the industries of Russia was to some extent supplied

the industries on a small scale, leaving only a portion of them to be handled by large enterprises, which will eventually probably pass into the hands of the Government, as in the case of the railways." (Quoted from Mr. F. H. E. Palmer's "Russian Life in Town and Country," end of Ch. XX., on "Industrial Co-operative Associations.")

from native sources, since Russia had long since been forced, by the very fact of the possession by the State of lands, mines, and forests, to establish Higher Technical Schools for the training of experts to manage these properties. But to a much greater degree the leaders of Russian industry came from abroad, bringing with them the technical methods and trained intelligence of the countries of their origin, and thus providing, to use Count Witte's phrase, "a school for the young industry of Russia." As time went on, the number of technical colleges and schools increased, and we have seen how important a factor in promoting the increase of these institutions during the last two reigns has been the desire of the Government to replace foreign control of Russian industries by that of native Russians. The rapid growth of industries, and the continued need of foreign capital, particularly under the Witte *régime*, have prevented much progress being made towards the realisation of this desire.

If capital and expert direction could be imported from abroad, it was otherwise with *skilled labour*. Russian industries have had in the main to depend for their supply of labour upon a peasantry lately emancipated from serfdom, in many cases illiterate and for the most part totally lacking in experience of modern industrial methods. It cannot be a matter for surprise that the technical skill of workers drawn from this source has hitherto been, and still is, on a much lower level than that of the corresponding class in England, Germany or America. This, then, is the main defect from which Russian industries suffer, and the question for consideration is, how far it is in the power of education to remedy this defect.

We are, perhaps, in England, too much inclined to depreciate the part which schools may play in the development of technical skill. We remember that the modern industrial movement in this country reached a very advanced stage before elementary education of any kind was widely diffused, and when technical schools did not exist. But we forget too often that in England, as in France and some other Western countries, arts and crafts were old and carried to a high pitch of perfection centuries ago, and that what we know as the industrial revolution in this country was only the culminating phase of a long and gradual process of evolution which led up to and prepared for it. The advent of the industrial revolution found existing in England a population among which technical skill was hereditary and technical knowledge transmitted from generation to generation; and yet it has taken England another century and a half of slow development to reach the position she now occupies as an industrial nation. Before the English precedent can be applied to Russia, we must ask how far the conditions of the two countries are similar.

Up to a certain point, mechanical aptitude is very widely spread in Russia. According to those who know him well, the Russian peasant is amazingly clever with a few simple tools, such as the axe. Moreover, as we have seen, 7,500,000 of the population of

Russia are employed in petty industries, in some of which the technical skill required is very considerable. Comparisons in matters of this kind are difficult, but on the whole we may say with confidence that mechanical aptitude is as widely diffused among the Russian peasantry as it was among the population of England at the beginning of the industrial revolution. The conditions of Russian agriculture, again, are not dissimilar to what they were in France about the same period. There is assuredly no reason to suppose that Russians would make less progress either in the manufacturing or agricultural industries than Englishmen or Frenchmen have done in a similar period of time.

But therein lies the crux of the situation. Russians have no intention of letting another century or more go by before their country takes the place in the industrial world to which its vast natural resources and the native capacity of its people entitle it. It is for this reason that the example of England is less instructive to Russia than that of later comers in the industrial field, such as Germany (or perhaps better, Japan), among whom industrial progress of a very striking kind has been compressed into a comparatively short space of time. Now the part played by education as a factor in the industrial progress of these countries is very apparent. Does anyone now doubt that the rapid advance made by Germany during the last forty years in the textile, iron and steel, or chemical industries is due in the first place to the high average level of intelligence among her people, and in the second, to her admirably organised system of technical instruction? The recent history of Austria, Switzerland, Denmark, and the United States is full of instances in which an advance in technical skill and progress in manufactures have followed improvement in general education, or in which particular industries have been stimulated by a well-devised system of technical schools. The conclusion can no longer be resisted that, while schools are not the only instruments of technical progress, they are the best means yet discovered whereby backward peoples can make up lost ground and abridge for themselves the slow evolutionary process through which more advanced nations have reached their present stage of industrial development.

If this be so, it follows that there is no country in Europe in which education is called upon to play a more important part in furthering industrial progress than in Russia. She has entered the industrial field later than any other of the great nations of Europe, and she has been, and is, heavily handicapped, not so much by any lack of mechanical aptitude in her people, as by the defective condition of elementary education among the classes from which her industrial workers are drawn, and also by certain peculiarities of her social organisation, such as the communal system of the *mir*. In Russia, therefore, more than anywhere else, it is the task of the schools and colleges to make up national arrears, and thus to place Russia industrially on a level with her more advanced Western neighbours.

When we examine the actual provision of instruction, whether technical or general, which has already been made by Russia, we see how far short it still falls of being adequate to the great task thus imposed upon it. With higher technical colleges Russia is comparatively well equipped, though we have seen that the output even of these institutions has proved insufficient to meet the growing needs of Russian industries, and that young Russians in considerable numbers are seeking in foreign polytechnics the training which they are unable to obtain at home. The need for technical instruction of the intermediate and lower grades is much more severely felt. In spite of the considerable progress made during the last decade or two in the supply of instruction of this kind, the technical schools of Russia are still far from satisfying the requirements of the natural industries. We make no attempt to compare the actual provision of technical schools in Russia with that made in Western Europe or America; for comparisons are apt to be misleading where circumstances differ widely. It is in any case clear from what has been already said that Russia has not yet placed herself in a position to supply from her technical schools all the minor officers required for her industrial army. Until she does so the foreign manager or foreman will continue to be necessary, while native Russians are confined to the rôle of Gibeonites in their own country—a state of things with which no great nation can, or ought to, rest permanently content.

But behind all these problems of the supply of special instruction lies the great question which overshadows every other in importance, even for the technical progress of Russia—that of better general instruction for the working classes. It is impossible not to agree with the repeatedly expressed opinion of the Technical Congresses, that the first condition of improved technical skill among the workers in Russian industries is not direct instruction in technical processes, but the introduction of a system of universal primary education, which should have as its object to raise the level of general intelligence among the masses; and that only when this first condition is secured will it be possible to establish technical classes for the further instruction of industrial workers with good hope of success. In this opinion the Technical Congresses are supported by the whole weight of modern experience. It is no paradox, therefore, to assert that the fundamental question affecting the future industrial development of Russia is the provision not of technical but of general education.

CHAPTER VI.—APPENDIX.

CURRICULA OF TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.

CURRICULUM OF THE KOMMISSAROV TECHNICAL SCHOOL AT MOSCOW.
(SCHOOL COMBINING GENERAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION.)

SUBJECTS.	Classes.						
	i.	ii.	iii.	iv.	v.	vi.	vii.
Religion - - -	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
Russian - - -	6	6	5	2	2	-	-
Mathematics - - -	5	6	5	6	6	2	2
Book keeping - - -	-	-	-	-	-	2	2
Physics - - -	-	-	-	2	3	2	2
Mechanics - - -	-	-	-	-	-	5	5
Technology - - -	-	-	-	-	-	4	4
History - - -	-	-	2	2	4	-	-
Geography - - -	2	2	2	2	-	-	-
German - - -	6	5	4	3	3	-	-
Elementary Linear Drawing - - -	-	-	2	2	2	-	-
Technical Drawing - - -	-	-	-	-	-	6	6
Calligraphy - - -	3	3	2	-	-	-	-
Drawing - - -	3	3	3	3	3	-	-
Total - - -	27	27	27	24	24	24	24
Practical Work - - -	-	-	-	18	18	18	18

CURRICULUM OF THE INTERMEDIATE TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.

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SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION.	Mechanico-Technical School.					Chemico-Technical School.					Technical School of Architecture.				
	Classes.				Total.	Classes.				Total.	Classes.				Total.
	i.	ii.	iii.	iv.		i.	ii.	iii.	iv.		i.	ii.	iii.	iv.	
Religion	1	1	1	1	4	1	1	1	1	4	1	1	1	1	4
Mathematics	3	3	—	—	6	3	—	—	—	3	3	—	—	—	6
Natural History	—	—	—	—	—	2	2	2	—	6	—	—	—	—	—
Physics	3	3	—	2*	8	3	3	—	—	6	3	3	—	—	6
Chemistry	3	2	—	—	5	3	3	4	—	10	3	2	—	—	5
Mechanics	5	2	—	—	7	5	2	—	—	7	5	2	—	—	7
Machine Construction	—	2	8	—	10	—	2	2	—	4	—	2	2	—	4
Mechanical Productions	—	2	3	6	11	—	—	—	3	3	—	—	—	—	—
Chemical Productions	—	—	—	3	3	—	—	6	8	14	—	—	2	—	2
Architecture	—	3	—	—	3	—	3	—	—	3	—	4	7	6	17
Surveying and Levelling	3	—	—	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	—	—	3
Commercial Geography and Political Economy	—	—	2	1	3	—	2	1	—	3	—	—	—	—	—
Book-Keeping and Commercial Correspondence	—	—	2	2	4	—	—	2	2	4	—	—	2	2	4
Law	—	—	—	2	2	—	—	—	2	2	—	—	—	3	3
Total	18	18	16	17	69	17	18	18	16	69	18	17	14	12	61
DRAWING SUBJECTS :															
Geometrical Drawing	6	6	—	—	12	4	4	—	—	8	6	4	—	—	10
Technical Drawing	—	—	6	12	18	—	—	4	4	8	—	—	6	—	6
Architectural Drawing	—	—	3	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	2	3	10	20	35
Drawing (<i>risobanie</i>)	3	3	—	—	6	4	2	—	—	6	10	8	6	4	28
Total	9	9	9	12	39	8	6	4	4	22	18	15	22	24	79
PRACTICAL WORK :															
In the Mechanical Workshops	9	9	9	9	36	9	—	—	—	9	6	10	6	6	28
In the Chemical Laboratory	—	2	—	—	2	—	18	10	—	28	—	—	—	—	—
In the Techno-Chemical Workshops	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	20	28	—	—	—	—	—
Total	9	11	9	9	38	9	18	18	20	65	6	10	6	6	28
Grand total of hours	36	38	34	38	146	34	42	40	40	156	42	42	42	42	168

* These two hours are devoted to Electro-Technics.

Curricula of Technical Schools.

CURRICULUM OF INTERMEDIATE TECHNICAL SCHOOLS OF RURAL ECONOMY
(AGRICULTURE).

Subjects of Instruction.	Classes.				Total
	i.	ii.	iii.	iv.	
Religion - - - - -	1	1	1	1	4
Physics and Meteorology - -	4	2	-	-	6
Natural History and Entomology	6	3	2	-	11
General and Agricultural Chemistry - - - - -	4	3	2	2	11
Technology of Rural Economy -	-	4	3	2	9
Architecture as applied to Rural Economy - - - - -	-	-	2	2	4
Agriculture (general and special)	3	3	3	3	12
Management of Cattle - -	-	2	2	-	4
Implements and machines of husbandry - - - - -	-	-	3	2	5
Agricultural Economy and Book-keeping - - - - -	-	-	-	2	2
Surveying and Levelling - -	-	-	-	2	2
Law - - - - -	-	-	-	2	2
Total - - - - -	18	18	18	18	72
<i>Drawing Subjects.</i>					
Instrumental Drawing - -	-	2	4	4	10
Freehand Drawing - - -	4	2	-	-	6
Total - - - - -	4	4	4	4	16
<i>Practical Work.</i>					
In the chemical laboratory - -	-	8	8	8	24
In techno-chemical workshops or factories giving instruction -	20	12	12	12	56
Total - - - - -	20	20	20	20	80
Grand total of hours - -	42	42	42	42	168

CURRICULUM OF INTERMEDIATE TECHNICAL SCHOOLS OF MINES.

Subjects of Instruction.	Classes.				Total.
	i.	ii.	iii.	iv.	
Religion - - - - -	1	1	1	1	4
Mathematics - - - - -	3	3	-	-	6
Physics - - - - -	3	3	-	-	6
Natural History - - - - -	2	3	-	-	5
Chemistry - - - - -	3	2	4	-	9
Mechanics - - - - -	5	2	-	-	7
Machine Construction - - - - -	-	-	2	2	4
Mining - - - - -	-	-	2	2	4
Metallurgy and the Technology of Metals - - - - -	-	2	3	5	10
Chemical Production - - - - -	-	-	4	4	8
Mine Surveying - - - - -	-	2	-	-	2
Book-keeping and Commercial Correspondence - - - - -	-	-	2	2	4
Law - - - - -	-	-	-	2	2
Total - - - - -	17	18	18	18	71
<i>Drawing Subjects.</i>					
Instrumental Drawing - - - - -	2	4	6	6	18
Freehand Drawing - - - - -	4	2	-	-	6
Total - - - - -	6	6	6	6	24
<i>Practical Work.</i>					
In the chemical laboratory - - - - -	-	8	8	8	24
In techno-chemical workshops and factories giving instruction - - - - -	18	10	10	10	48
Total - - - - -	18	18	18	18	72
Grand total of hours - - - - -	41	42	42	42	167

CURRICULUM OF THE LOWER TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.

SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION.	Mechanico-Technical School.				Chemico-Technical School.				Technical School of Architecture.			
	Classes.			Total.	Classes.			Total.	Classes.			Total.
	i.	ii.	iii.		i.	ii.	iii.		i.	ii.	iii.	
Religion	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	3
Arithmetic and Algebra	4	3	—	7	4	—	—	4	3	—	—	3
Geometry	4	2	—	6	4	2	—	6	4	2	—	6
Physics	4	2	1	7	3	3	—	6	4	—	—	4
Chemistry	3	2	—	5	3	4	—	7	4	4	—	8
Mechanics	—	2	4	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Natural History	—	—	—	—	3	—	—	3	—	—	—	—
Machine Construction	—	4	6	10	—	2	5	7	—	—	—	—
Mechanical Productions	—	2	4	6	—	3	—	3	—	—	—	—
Chemical Productions	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	3	—	—	—	—
Building Works and Materials	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	8	—	—	—	—
Subsidiary Apparatus	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6	8	6	20
Land-Surveying and Laying out of Buildings	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	3	5
Book-keeping	—	—	2	2	—	—	2	2	—	1	2	3
Total	16	18	18	52	18	18	16	52	18	18	16	52
DRAWING, ETC. :												
Drawing	4	2	2	8	4	2	2	8	6	6	6	18
Geometrical and Technical Drawing	4	4	6	14	4	4	4	12	4	4	4	12
Calligraphy	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	2	—	4
Total	8	6	8	22	8	6	6	20	12	12	10	34
PRACTICAL WORK :												
In the Mechanical Workshops	20	20	20	60	18	—	—	18	—	—	—	—
In the Chemical Laboratory	—	—	—	—	—	10	6	16	—	—	—	—
In the Techno-Chemical Workshops (or factories giving instruction)	—	—	—	—	—	10	18	28	14	14	18	46
Total	20	20	20	60	18	20	24	62	14	14	18	46
Grand total of hours	44	44	46	132	44	44	40	136	44	44	46	134

CURRICULUM OF THE TRADE SCHOOLS.

Subjects of Instruction.	Classes.			Total.
	i.	ii.	iii.	
Religion -	1	1	2	4
Russian -	2	2	2	6
Arithmetic and Book-keeping -	3	2	2	7
Geometry -	3	3	-	6
General notions of Physics -	-	2	4	6
Technology of Wood in Joinery Department -	-	2	1	6
Technology of Metals in Fitters' Department -	-	2	1	
Total -	9	14	12	35
Calligraphy -	2	-	-	2
Drawing -	4	2	2	8
Geometrical Drawing -	3	2	-	5
Technical Drawing -	-	2	5	7
Total -	9	6	7	22
Practical work in workshops -	24	24	24	72
Singing -	-	-	-	1
Grand total of hours -	42	44	43	130

CURRICULUM OF THE LOWER TRADE SCHOOLS.

Subjects of Instruction.	Classes.			
	i.	ii.	iii.	iv.
Religion - - - -	2	2	2	—
Russian - - - -	2½	2	—	—
Arithmetic - - - -	2½	—	—	—
Technology of the trade taught - - - -	—	—	2	—
Account-keeping - - -	—	—	2	—
Drawing - - - -	6	8	6	—
Total - - - -	12	12	12	—
Practical Work - -	37½	37½	37½	49½
Sum Total of Hours	49½	49½	49½	49½

CURRICULUM OF A SCHOOL OF APPRENTICES.

(School for Carpenters and Locksmiths.)

Subjects of Instruction.	Classes.		
	i.	ii.	iii.
Religion - - - -	1	1	1
Russian with Slavonic and Calligraphy	3	2	½
Russian History - - - -	—	2	—
Geography - - - -	2	—	—
Arithmetic - - - -	4	3	1
Practical Geometry - - - -	2	2	2
Account-keeping - - - -	—	—	1
Elementary Physics - - - -	—	2	2
Technology of Metals and Wood - - - -	—	—	3
Drawing - - - -	4	2	2
Linear Drawing - - - -	2	4	4
Practical Work - - - -	29	34	34
Singing - - - -	1½	1½	1½
Total of Hours - -	48½	53½	53½

CHAPTER VII.

THE COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS UNDER THE MINISTRY OF FINANCE.

I.—INTRODUCTORY AND HISTORICAL.

The development of the Commercial Schools under the control of the Ministry of Finance forms one of the most striking and instructive episodes of the recent history of education in Russia. The statistics already given in the second chapter (p. 205) will have served to show how valuable an addition to the educational resources of the Empire has been made by means of these schools during the last few years. In a country still poor in educational facilities, the establishment of some 200 new schools, capable of providing instruction, of the secondary and lower grades, to some 100,000 pupils, is in itself an event of far-reaching importance, especially as the instruction given in the Commercial Schools proper, and, to a certain extent, in the others also, is rather of a general than of a specially commercial character. But it is not only the fact of their rapid multiplication which constitutes their significance. The principles which underlie their organisation, and the spirit in which they are conducted; the partial breach which they have effected in the bureaucratic and centralising tradition; the recognition which, in contrast to the older secondary schools, they have given to modern ideals of education; and, lastly, the extent to which they have reflected certain tendencies of modern Russian thought, politico-social as well as educational, all combine to give these schools a very special interest for the student of Russian education. Starting free from the traditions which have hampered all efforts for the reform of the older schools, developing during a period in which thought on educational subjects has been especially active, and enjoying, moreover, unusual liberty of local initiative and freedom from governmental interference, they represent more perfectly than any other type of Russian school the ideas and tendencies to which the future of Russian education seems to belong.

As in the case of the technical institutions discussed in the preceding chapter, the recent movement for the establishment of commercial schools is one of the results of the commercial and industrial expansion of Russia. In its beginning, however, commercial education in Russia dates back to the reign of Catherine the Great, when the first school of the kind was founded at Moscow by Prince P. A. Demidov. This school, transferred a quarter of a century later to the northern capital, still exists as the St. Petersburg Commercial School. Two new schools, now known respectively as

the Moscow Commercial School and the Moscow Academy of Commercial Sciences, were established in the reign of Alexander I. In the reign of Nicholas I. attempts were several times made to establish "real" sections, giving instruction mainly in commercial subjects, in connection with the gymnasia. These attempts, however, being dictated chiefly by the desire to draw pupils of non-noble birth from the gymnasia and the Universities, met in every case with failure. The three independent institutions already named satisfied the need for commercial instruction until the seventies, when a fresh advance was made by the establishment of Commercial Sections in connection with the real-schools created under the law of 1872. The Peter School was also founded at St. Petersburg in 1872, the Alexander Commercial School at Moscow in 1885, and five other commercial schools (three in Odessa) at various times between then and 1896.

The provision thus made was, however, both inadequate in quantity and in many respects too unsatisfactory in quality to meet the growing demand of the commercial classes for a thoroughly efficient modern education for their children. The Commercial Sections were poorly organised, equipped, and taught, and never attracted the confidence of society; they suffered under the disadvantage of being attached to the most disconsidered type of secondary school in Russia, and in consequence of the lack of privileges attending the completion of their course they failed even to attract the more promising pupils of the real school.* The special Commercial Schools were few in number and were confined to three cities, the two capitals and Odessa. From the beginning of the eighties, therefore, it became obvious that the whole existing system of commercial education would have to be reorganised. As early as 1880, in his capacity as member of the Council of the Ministry of Public Instruction, Vyshnegradski had sketched out a plan for establishing under that Ministry a system of commercial schools on much the same lines as that which now exists under the Ministry of Finance. The unsettlement consequent on the assassination of Alexander II. prevented this project from being carried into effect. The general question of commercial education is fully discussed by Vyshnegradski in his "General Plan" of 1884, the scheme there advocated being the reorganisation of the existing real-schools into schools of commercial and industrial education. This part of the General Plan was, however, abandoned; and when Vyshnegradski in 1887 became Minister of Finance, he reverted to his original idea of a separate system of commercial schools, and took the preliminary steps towards the establishment of such a system under his own Department. The actual execution of the plan, however, belongs to the Ministry of M. (now Count) Witte. During his administration and

* In 1897 only 195 pupils finished their course in the Commercial Sections of the real-schools, though in that year the total number of the schools was

that of his successor all but two of the commercial schools existing previously to 1896, as well as all those established since that date, have been placed under the control of the Ministry of Finance. In this important instance, therefore, the policy adopted in Alexander III.'s reign of centralising all control of secondary and primary schools giving professional instruction as far as possible in the hands of the Ministry of Public Instruction has been reversed under the present Emperor, and the opposite principle has been affirmed of entrusting the oversight of commercial education to the Department of State principally concerned in its efficiency. In this respect Russia followed the example of France, Prussia, Italy, and most of the smaller countries of Europe in which commercial education has received a large share of attention. That the experiment has been completely justified by its results is largely due to the circumstance that the organisation and administration of the new commercial schools has been in the hands of exceptionally able men—Vyshnegradski, Witte, Kovalevski, Anopov, and others, who were all keenly interested in the work, and realised its profound bearing upon the economic progress of their country.

II.—PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING THE ORGANISATION OF THE COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS.

In order to understand the principles underlying the legislation of 1896, it is necessary first to endeavour to understand the particular conditions of the problem of commercial education as they exist in Russia.

The question of the subject matter of commercial education is the question of what is the best equipment for life of those who will form the trading classes of the next generation. To this question more than one answer has been, and is, given in Russia and elsewhere. Some would tell us that the most valuable service which the Commercial School can render to its pupils is to communicate to them the special knowledge and the particular aptitudes which are directly useful in commercial life, to familiarise them beforehand with mercantile transactions and with the arithmetical processes employed therein, to practise them in the forms of commercial correspondence, to impart to them an encyclopædia of information as to merchandise and exchange, markets and prices, and the laws affecting commerce in a particular country, to make of them expert book-keepers or shorthand writers. Others, on the contrary, hold that, while all these special aptitudes and acquirements are of undoubted service to the future trader, he needs first of all alertness of mind, keen power of observation, a disciplined imagination in the service of a trained intelligence, the power of clear and logical expression in his own and other languages, and such a wide outlook upon the world as is given by a study of history and a knowledge of foreign countries, their peoples, manners, customs, products, and industries. In other words, the first condition of success for the

merchant, no less than for the scholar or the professional man, is a wide basis of general mental culture, which should not exclude, but rather involve, an adequate equipment of positive knowledge of men and things.

Between these two views there is no irreconcilable opposition. They correspond rather to two different aspects than to two competing types of commercial education. Whether general or special instruction shall predominate in the commercial schools of a given country is a question which must be decided in accordance with the special circumstances affecting the trading classes of that country, such as their general level of culture, the degree of development of the commerce of the country, and the provision otherwise made for general education of all grades. In France, Germany, and other countries, where on the one hand efficient secondary education has been brought within the reach of all who desire it, and where, on the other, the operations of commerce are widely ramified and highly organised, commercial instruction of a highly specialised kind is not only possible but necessary. The *écoles supérieures de commerce* of France, the *höhere Handelsschulen* of Germany, and the *höhere Handels-Lehranstalten* of Austria are all special schools, which by means of a two or three years' course aim at supplementing a good general education by such special knowledge as a young man must sooner or later acquire if he is to understand the complicated relations of commerce or to bear his part in the keen struggle for the possession of the world's markets in which all the progressive nations of Europe, America, and Asia are now engaged.

But if in the Western countries of Continental Europe, with their cultured middle classes, their efficient systems of general education, and their highly organised trade, commercial education has for the most part assumed a special character, with Russia the case is entirely different. Here the conditions which have elsewhere necessitated a wide development of commercial education of the purely special kind do not yet exist. Russian commerce, at any rate in its higher developments, is of very recent origin, and traditions of culture have not yet had time to grow up among the Russian trading classes. The growth of such traditions has been retarded by the lack of sufficient provision of modern secondary schools which in its turn has been the result of the preoccupation of the Ministry of Public Instruction with the education of the official classes.

During the reign of Nicholas I. the gymnasia and the Universities were reserved to the *noblesse*, or were open only under exceptional conditions to the children of merchants of the First Guild; no schools at all above the elementary grade were provided for the daughters of merchants. All class restrictions in reference to admission to the schools were removed in the reign of Alexander II., and the provision of secondary education both for boys and girls was largely increased. Nevertheless, as we have seen above, the need for instruction suitable for the trading classes was not fully

satisfied. With few exceptions, therefore, and these confined to the great towns and the highest commercial circles, the Russian merchant is both more ignorant and less enterprising than his Western *confrère*. His outlook upon life is narrower; his habit of mind is less flexible. If this be true even of the heads of mercantile houses, it is still more so with regard to their employés. Comprehensive statistics of the degree of education of the assistants engaged in Russian mercantile houses are not to be obtained, but an investigation recently conducted in Odessa, certainly not the least advanced city in the Russian Empire, showed that while most of the shop assistants in that city could at least read and write, and a fair proportion had passed through the primary or Urban School, hardly any had received secondary instruction. There were indeed certain branches of business (the colonial stores and the iron-mongery trade) in which about one assistant out of five was illiterate. Facts like these would certainly indicate that the pressing need of the trading classes in Russia at the present time is for general education with a practical bent, rather than for a highly specialised form of commercial instruction.

If we turn to consider the actual conditions of Russian trade, we shall find reasons for coming to much the same conclusion. Russian trade is neither highly developed nor well organised. Its methods are simple, slow, and old-fashioned. It lacks the push, the foresight, the enterprise, and the combination which have opened up the markets of the world to the wares of German commerce. There are no Chambers of Commerce in Russia. Russian manufacturers complain that they cannot rely on the enterprise of the merchants of their country to bring producer and consumer together. If information is needed as to the markets or the commercial conditions of Manchuria or of Persia, it is not the Russian trader who procures it, but the agent of the Government. The Russian merchant waits in the good old-fashioned way for his customers to come to him. He has, or thinks he has, no need for the army of highly trained, alert, enterprising commercial travellers of whom his German brother makes such effective use. There is not even a native word in Russian for commercial traveller. When such a person is referred to, it is by his French name *commis-voyageur*. To some extent, no doubt, this condition of things is due to the careful way in which Russian trade has been protected by the Government against external competition; it is still more the result of general historical causes affecting the whole social life of Russia. But whatever reasons may be assigned for this comparative lack of organisation it is obvious that in the present stage of the development of Russian commerce there would not be a sufficient demand for the output of a large number of special commercial schools.

Finally, the inadequacy of the present provision for general education of a modern type made it impossible to contemplate the establishment of a system of commercial education of an exclusively special kind. Had the organisation of general education in Russia been so far developed as to secure the existence of a good

real-school or Urban School in every town where commercial education in a special sense was in demand, it would have been possible to satisfy this demand by making a short course of commercial instruction—say of two years—follow the completion of the general course of the secondary or higher primary school, as the case might be. The existing schools of general education were far too few to make this practicable; and to have taken such a course would have entailed the same disadvantages as we have seen to confront the secondary technical schools, which did actually presuppose a course of instruction in the secondary school of general education.

The main considerations which may be presumed to have guided the Ministry of Finance in framing the law of 1896 will now be clear. By that law four types of institutions giving commercial instruction were established, viz., Commercial Schools,* Business Schools, Business Classes, and Courses in Commercial Knowledge. The Commercial Schools are schools of the secondary grade, intended mainly for the training of the heads of mercantile houses. They are of two kinds, one comprising seven classes, and providing for both general and special instruction; the other with three classes only, which were intended to correspond to the three highest classes of the seven-class school and to provide special commercial instruction only. In practice, as will be readily understood from what has just been said, the demand for three-class schools giving special instruction only has hitherto proved very small, and the great majority of the schools which have been established have been of the seven-class type. The Business Schools provide instruction of a lower grade, such as is required by clerks and other subordinates in business houses. The model for these schools was found in the French *écoles pratiques de commerce*; but, like the Commercial Schools, they were intended to be of two kinds, comprising respectively one and three classes. In Business Schools, special subjects received a relatively large place, but even here, especially in three-class schools, general instruction was by no means left unprovided for. The provision for the establishment of one-class schools has hitherto proved a dead letter, all the Business Schools so far established being of the three-class type. The Business Classes were intended as a kind of *Fortbildungsschule* for persons already employed in business houses, for whom they provided instruction in special subjects useful in commercial life. They are held in the evening or at such other times as do not cause interference with the ordinary employment of the persons attending them. The Commercial Courses stand on an entirely different footing from any of the three categories of schools just described. They are open only to persons who have received at least a

* As it will be convenient in the course of this chapter to use the term "Commercial schools" in reference to institutions giving commercial instruction of all grades, Commercial Schools in the special sense (viz., the *Kommercheskija Školy* established under the law of 1896) will, whenever referred to, be distinguished by the use of capital initial letters.

secondary education, provide advanced instruction in specially commercial subjects, and are chiefly intended for the training of the teachers of such subjects who are required in the Commercial and Business Schools. These Classes constitute the only provision at present existing in Russia for higher commercial instruction, with the exception of the Commercial Section of the Riga Polytechnicum which has a three years' course open to pupils who have completed six years at a Secondary School.

It will be seen, therefore, that in deciding between the claims of general and special instruction the authors of the legislation of 1896 followed a middle course. On the whole they would seem to have held to the theory that the particular function of the new schools was to give special instruction in commercial subjects; but they wisely abstained from rigid definition and so left the field open for a liberal interpretation of the intention of the law. With regard to the most important type of school established by the law of 1896, the seven-class Commercial School, it is definitely laid down that its aim was to give both general and commercial education. The law contained no regulation as to the distribution of school time between general and special subjects. It certainly directed (Sec. 4) that in all types of commercial schools the preponderance should be given to "subjects of commercial education." But the term "commercial education" is obviously capable of a wide interpretation; and we shall see, when we come to discuss the curricula of the commercial schools, that the interpretation usually given to this provision of the Statute has been rather in favour of a practical treatment of general subjects than of giving preference to special subjects over general.

While settling by the legislation of 1896 the main lines of the curricula of the commercial schools of all grades, the Ministry of Finance took a step of the utmost importance to Russian education in leaving details of instruction and organisation to local initiative. There were undoubtedly strong special reasons for this departure from ordinary precedent. It was impossible for the central authority to fix beforehand the precise type of curriculum which would suit each individual town in which it was desirable to establish a commercial school. In a great Empire like Russia the conditions of trade vary widely from place to place. The difference, *e.g.*, between a town of Asiatic Russia, which forms the centre of exchange for a primitive or nomadic population, and the great cities of European Russia, where material civilisation more nearly approaches the level attained in the countries of the West, is such as to affect the whole question of trade methods. Apart from this, there are the usual differences between retail and wholesale trade, between internal and foreign trade, between trade with the East and trade with the West. There is also the difference between the training required for employment of the counting-house or actuarial type (*e.g.*, by bankers, financiers, actuaries, accountants and clerks) and that which is needed by persons actually engaged in the distribution of merchandise (*e.g.*, merchants, produce brokers, com-

mercial travellers and the like). The existence of these differences called urgently for variety and flexibility in adapting a general system of commercial education to local requirements; and the Ministry of Finance, which of all Russian Departments of State is probably the most closely in touch with the actual conditions of the country, had the best reasons for recognising its powerlessness to provide for local educational needs without the assistance of local advice. The decision of the number of hours to be assigned to a particular subject, the relative value to be assigned to general and special instruction, and the drawing up of the program of instruction generally—all of which matters are, according to the usual bureaucratic methods, arranged by the central authority itself—were therefore, in the case of commercial instruction, left in the first place to local initiative. It is true that the statute of each school has to be sanctioned, and its program approved, by the Ministry of Finance, but to Russian teachers, accustomed to a system under which not only control but initiative rests with the central authority, the right to draft curricula and programs and submit them to the Ministry for approval represented a very welcome degree of freedom. Moreover, the concession of this right involved the manifestation of a new spirit in the administration of Russian education. It meant that the central authority was willing to be guided by local experience in settling the form which commercial education should take, and it implied, moreover, that teachers and local authorities were to be looked upon as colleagues and co-workers with the officials of the central authority and not merely as subordinates bound to obey orders.

But it is not only with reference to the framing of the program that the Government allows considerable scope for local initiative in the commercial schools. It has also given a much wider extension to the principle of local control in matters of organisation and administration than exists in any other type of Russian school. Except in private adventure schools, there has been created by the law of 1896 for every commercial school a local governing body, called the Council of Curators (*popechitelnyĭ sovet*), to which is entrusted the immediate supervision and control of the school. The functions of this body are not precisely defined by Statute, but they were evidently intended to embrace, and do in fact embrace, all the responsibilities usually exercised by an English Governing Body, including control over the staff and the instruction as well as over finance and general administration. The selection of the Headmaster (whose appointment has, however, to be confirmed by the Minister of Finance) is one of the most important privileges reserved to the Council of Curators, and one which goes far to make its control over the work of the school a real thing.

An equally significant difference between the commercial schools of the Ministry of Finance and other Russian schools lies in the much greater liberality shown by the former in respect of the admission of Jews. Whereas in the schools of general education

the proportion of Jews admitted is strictly limited by law and cannot exceed 10 per cent. even within the Pale, no such limit is imposed by general legislation in the case of commercial schools. Here again the principle of local initiative comes into play, the matter being left to be determined by the statutes of individual schools. Some of these statutes impose a limit, others (business schools for the most part) do not. Where a limit is imposed it is in a few cases quite as rigid as in the gymnasium or real-school, or even more so. Two Business Schools in Moscow admit no Jews at all. At one school in Kiev, a town within the Pale, the limit is 10 per cent., although the Jewish commercial establishments of Kiev enormously outnumber those owned by Christians (there are 365 Jewish merchants of the first Guild to eleven Christians). Generally, however, the maximum fixed by the school statutes is much higher, as will be evident by the fact that, according to an official report relating to the year 1903-4, the proportion of Jews to the whole number of pupils in commercial schools of all kinds was 26·5 per cent. and in the Commercial Schools proper 31 per cent. Of the pupils who had finished the course at the Business Schools of Vilna and Kishinev by the end of 1904, 90 per cent. were Jews. The corresponding proportion at the Warsaw Business School was 50 per cent. Whether the exclusion of Jews from the schools which afford access to the State service and the professions is justifiable or not is a question upon which we can here offer no opinion, but bearing in mind the prominent part played by Jews in the commercial life of Russia, it is a matter of great importance that the door of entry into the commercial schools, at any rate, should have been so much more widely opened to them.

To sum up, the *differentia* of the commercial schools created by the law of 1896 are the absence of enforced uniformity and of minute regulation by the central authority, the freedom of individual schools to frame (though not finally to determine) their own curricula in accordance with local requirements, the delegation of a measure of control to local governing bodies, and, generally, the more liberal spirit in which the schools are administered and conducted. It should be observed, however, that the State has not in the last resort parted with any of its authority under the law of 1896; in retaining the exclusive right to sanction curricula and confirm statutes for individual schools, it has reserved to itself in full measure the ultimate control over instruction; while the local administration of the schools with which the Councils of Curators are entrusted is always exercised subject to the control of the Ministry of Finance and its officials. It has only associated with itself for purposes of consultation, and to some extent of administration, persons standing outside the bureaucracy: as a Russian would put it, it has given a limited recognition to the principle of *obshchestvennost'*, that is, the participation of society itself (*obshchestvo*) in the work of administration. But the significance of this action on the part of the State lies in the fact that it is a concession to a demand which has of late been made with ever-

increasing insistency in relation to every department of public life. It is this fact which makes the experiment of the Ministry of Finance in relation to the schools under its control so full of interest to the student of Russian education and Russian social life. Further on in this chapter we shall consider the results of this experiment, so far as they can be judged by the experience of a decade.

In connection with what has been said above as to the relation of the State on the one hand, and of the local governing bodies on the other, to the commercial schools, it is important to emphasise the fact that these schools are only to a very small extent State-supported institutions. The Law of 1896 lays it down very explicitly that commercial schools of all kinds "are to be maintained by the bodies or communities establishing them, or by means of voluntary contributions from other sources. In case local resources are insufficient and the establishment of a commercial school is considered specially necessary, the Ministry of Finance may assign a State contribution either for the establishment or the annual maintenance of such a school, or in exceptional cases may throw the whole maintenance upon the Treasury." In practice, the State has assisted Business Schools and Business Classes almost exclusively, but of the total amount spent on commercial schools of all kinds the State, according to recent statistics, has contributed only 1.5 per cent. It must not be supposed, however, as it is perhaps natural for an English reader to do, that the exceptional amount of local control exercised over the commercial schools is the consequence of the modest limits within which State aid to such schools has been confined. As we have more than once said or implied in previous chapters, the control of education by the State in Russia has nothing whatever to do with the question of State aid. The majority of real-schools receive no more financial aid from the State than the Commercial Schools, but of local control in the case of the former there is none.

The position of the State with reference to State aid to commercial schools was made quite clear in a reply given by M. Witte to a request of the Commercial Schools Conference of 1901 "that loans on easy terms might be made by the Treasury for the erection of suitable buildings in cases where the schools were at present being carried on in hired premises, since the sums received from commercial societies and municipalities were all absorbed by current expenses." M. Witte replied that "the State not only did not refuse grants-in-aid for special purposes, but made very considerable grants to schools opened from considerations of State necessity. Schools, however, which were established in the interests of merchants' societies or municipalities ought, in his opinion, to be assisted by these bodies. Societies who approached the Ministry of Finance with proposals for the establishment of schools ought, he thought, to state whether they proposed to build and maintain the school at their own expense or intended to apply to the Government for aid, especially as the Government considered that at the

present time the object of raising the level of education among the mercantile classes would be best served by giving support to Business Schools, since in them were taught children of less well-to-do parents, who were unable to establish schools at their own cost. There ought to be more Business Schools than Commercial Schools, because in the business world there were more subordinates than heads of business houses, and, moreover, the fees in Business Schools were so small that they could not be maintained with due efficiency, if left to their own resources." It may be appropriate here to remark, by way of comment upon M. Witte's speech, that while Russian merchants, manufacturers, and merchants' societies have given large sums of money for the erection of Commercial Schools—many of which are sumptuously housed and equipped—they have contributed comparatively little towards the establishment of Business Schools. The former class of schools are attended by their own children, the latter by the children of their employés. Some discrimination between the two kinds of school would therefore appear to be natural.*

III.—CURRICULUM.

In discussing the course of instruction in the Russian Commercial Schools, we can do little more than indicate certain general tendencies and characteristics, since the curricula of different schools vary considerably in details. The subjects which must find a place in the curriculum of every school are indeed defined by law. The subjects which must be taught in every Commercial School with seven classes are those named in the model curriculum below (it should, however, be explained that the choice of modern foreign languages is not limited to French and German, but depends on local conditions). Optional subjects taught in the Commercial Schools are Shorthand, Singing, Music and Dancing. The curriculum of the three-class Business Schools comprises, as obligatory subjects, Religion, Russian, Book-keeping, Commerce (for the definition of this subject, *see* below), Commercial Arithmetic, with the necessary notions of Algebra, elementary Geometry, Russian History and the Commercial Geography of Russia, Commercial Correspondence, knowledge of the wares of local commerce, Calligraphy. Modern languages may also be taught in Business Schools. The subjects

* But that the commercial classes of Russia are capable of generous and public-spirited action in the cause of education is abundantly proved by the remarkable history of the Business Classes established and maintained during the past few years by the Moscow Society for the Spread of Commercial Education. On the 1st of January, 1904, 2,777 persons of both sexes, principally employés in business houses, attended these classes. In addition to these classes, the Society has since 1897 founded a Boys' Commercial School attended by about 500 pupils, a Girls' Commercial School (opened in 1903), and Courses in Commercial Knowledge, giving instruction in 1904 to 183 persons. The success of the educational movement started by the society is largely due to the active interest displayed in it by the well-known Moscow banker A. S. Vishniakov, who is president of the Committee of the Society, and also of the various Councils of Curators which supervise its educational work.

taught in Business Classes and Courses in Commercial Knowledge are not precisely defined by law, and nothing in the nature of an obligatory curriculum is laid down for them. The remarks which follow will therefore apply exclusively to the curricula of the Commercial School and the Business School.

The curricula of two Commercial Schools are given on pp. 294-5 of Chapter II. We add here a model table of lessons drawn up by the Ministry of Finance for a Commercial School of seven classes.

MODEL CURRICULUM SUGGESTED BY THE EDUCATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE MINISTRY OF FINANCE FOR A SEVEN-CLASS COMMERCIAL SCHOOL.

SUBJECTS.	CLASSES.						
	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.
Religion - - - - -	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Russian - - - - -	6	5	4	4	3	2	2
German - - - - -	9	4	4	4	3	3	3
French - - - - -	-	8	5	5	4	3	3
Arithmetic - - - - -	4	5	3	-	-	-	-
Algebra - - - - -	-	-		2	2	2	2
Geometry and Trigonometry - - - - -	-	-	2	2	2	-	
Geography - - - - -	2	2	2	2	-	-	-
History - - - - -	-	-	2	3	2	3	-
Natural History - - - - -	-	-	2	2	3	-	-
Physics - - - - -	-	-	-	2	3	4	-
Graphic Arts - - - - -	4	4	4	2	1	-	-
Chemistry - - - - -	-	-	-	-	3	2	-
Knowledge of Merchandise - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	2	4
Commercial Arithmetic - - - - -	-	-	-	-	2	2	-
Book-keeping - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	3	5
Commercial Correspondence - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Commercial Geography - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	2	2
Political Economy - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
Law - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
Practical Work in Chemistry and Knowledge of Merchandise - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
Total - - - - -	27	30	30	30	30	30	32

This table has been put forward by the Ministry in the most tentative way, and has by no means been generally followed in every detail; in its main features, however, it may be taken as typical of those in actual use in most Commercial Schools.

It will be noticed that in none of the tables of lessons which are given in this Report are special subjects begun earlier than the sixth class; and there seems to be general agreement that the first four years of the course should in any case be devoted entirely to general education. But opinions differ greatly as to the place which special subjects should occupy in the fifth or higher classes.

General subjects are as a rule continued to a greater or smaller extent until the end of the sixth year, and there is a tendency to continue them right up to the end of the course, especially in schools which send up a strong contingent of their pupils to compete for admission to the higher technical colleges against candidates from the gymnasias and real-schools.

As regards the general subjects of the curriculum very little need be said. In the main the ground covered and the methods of instruction in these subjects in the Commercial Schools are much the same as in the corresponding classes of the real-schools. A few differences may, however, be noted here. In the first place, a much higher value is set on the power of expression in the mother tongue, methodical and precise statement being one of the chief ends kept in view, not only by the teachers of Russian, but by those entrusted with other subjects. The study of the literature of the pre-Petrine period is consequently reduced to a minimum; modern writers, such as Turgenyev, Belinski, Goncharov, Dostoievski, Ostrovski, L. Tolstoi, are much more read than in the schools of general education; and there is a tendency to throw the teaching of Church Slavonic entirely upon the religious instructor. In modern languages, the preference is given to German, which is begun earlier than French, as being the foreign language most needed for commercial purposes in Russia; foreign languages and their literatures are, however, studied mainly from the point of view of general culture, commercial correspondence in German or French being considered as a special subject to be taken up near the end of the school course. As regards history, many teachers of this subject in Commercial Schools appear to be in favour of devoting attention chiefly to the history of trade and industry and of economic and social development; but to what extent this view has been carried into effect in actual practice it is difficult to say. The natural sciences are studied not only with a view to their general educative effect, but also as giving the necessary basis for the scientific knowledge of merchandise, which forms one of the main subjects of special study during the later years of the school course.

The standard of attainment in general subjects which is aimed at in Business Schools is of course relatively low in view of the shortness of the course, the lack of previous preparation of many of the pupils,* and the specialised character of their occupations. The question whether a modern language should or should not be taught as an obligatory subject in Business Schools has caused considerable difficulty. On the one hand, some knowledge of foreign languages is very desirable for an employé in a Russian business house; on the other, a course of three years gives an ordinary pupil little chance of

* It is assumed by the Law of 1896 that the pupils of the Business Schools will be recruited chiefly from the two-class Primary Schools; but the number of these latter is too limited to supply a sufficient contingent of pupils, and in practice it has been found necessary to start a considerable number of preparatory classes with a course of one or two years in connection with the Business Schools themselves. *

acquiring a thorough mastery of the language learnt. Nothing like a scientific or literary study of the foreign language is in any case possible in the Business Schools. All that can be attempted is to enable the pupil to understand the foreign speech, to read simple correspondence, and perhaps write an invoice in it. If more than this is desired, the pupil must supplement the instruction of the Business School by attendance at evening courses in modern languages, such as exist in some of the larger towns of Russia. Generally speaking, the whole of the instruction in general subjects necessarily bears a more practical and utilitarian character in Business Schools than in Commercial Schools.

Of the special subjects taught in the two grades of schools, three only call for special notice, viz., Knowledge of Merchandise,* Commerce (replaced in most Commercial Schools by Political Economy and Law) and Book-keeping.

Knowledge of Merchandise (*tovarovedenie*) is in its nature a very indefinite subject of instruction, which affords scope for the most various methods of treatment, the more empirical methods tending to predominate over the more scientific. The wares of commerce are so numerous, and the modes of their preparation are so diverse, that anything approaching an exhaustive treatment of the subject is out of the question, even in the Commercial Schools. What is usually taught under the head of *tovarovedenie* is simply a mass of information borrowed from all the applied sciences as to the quality of wares and the most approved methods of testing them. Moreover, a selection has always to be made in respect of the wares to be studied. In the Commercial Schools, the considerations guiding selection are partly pedagogical—those groups of merchandise being studied which lend themselves best to exposition of methods—and partly practical, the wares of local commerce being studied by preference. The localised treatment of the subject is positively enjoined upon the Business Schools by the law of 1896. It is obvious that the subject may be taught in the Commercial Schools from a much more scientific standpoint than in the Business Schools; and with this end in view the course in Natural History, Chemistry, and Physics, on which any scientific knowledge of merchandise must always be based, is in the Commercial Schools arranged so as to finish at the point where *Tovarovedenie* is taken up. Moreover, the natural sciences are, so far as possible, taught with a view to their practical application to the course of *Tovarovedenie* which is to follow; this, however, is only possible when teachers of physics or chemistry, who are well acquainted with the applications of their respective sciences to commercial uses, can be found, which is not always the case. In the Business Schools the treatment of the subject has necessarily to be more empirical. At best, the instruction given can hardly go beyond certain general notions of the products of the various kingdoms of nature, the typical modes of

* The Russian term thus rendered is *tovarovedenie*, for which the German *Waarenkunde* gives a precise equivalent. No equally convenient and exact English term seems to be available.

manufacture, simple methods of determining the quality of goods and the causes of their deterioration, and the like.

Under the head of Commerce (*Kommertsia*) as a subject of instruction in Business Schools, is comprised a mass of information on all points of mercantile practice and commercial law with which a merchant or tradesman needs to be familiar in the conduct of his business. All matters, for example, which affect the organisation of trade, the formation of joint-stock companies and syndicates with laws relating thereto: fairs,* railway tariffs, rates and taxes, insurance, Stock Exchange operations, etc., may come within the purview of the subject. The program of instruction varies considerably in different schools, inclining sometimes more to the economic, and sometimes more to the juridical point of view. In the existing Statute instruction in mercantile and industrial law is specially mentioned as forming part of the course in the subject: on the other hand, a model program of Commerce drawn up by a Sub-Commission of representatives of Business Schools at the Conference of January, 1905, gives decided preference in the teaching of the subject to an acquaintance with practical commercial transactions, treating commercial law and custom as subsidiary branches of study. A more detailed treatment of the subjects taught in Business Schools under the head of Commerce is attempted in Commercial Schools, but here the economic subjects are definitely separated from the juridical, Political Economy being held to include such subjects as Commercial Geography, History of Political Economy, Statistics, Finance and Economic Politics; while Law as taught in Commercial Schools, includes general knowledge of Law, State Law, general notions of Criminal Law, and a short course of International Law.

Book-keeping is taught in all Commercial and Business Schools. There is, however, a good deal of difference of opinion as to whether only the general principles of the subject should be taught, or whether special applications of it—*e.g.*, the book-keeping needed in banking or in the conduct of industrial concerns—should be included in the instruction. Some schools have gone in for this kind of specialisation, though the report on the subject presented at the Third Technical Congress showed that the specialisation was not always determined by local needs. In one school a practical direction is given to the teaching of book-keeping by allowing the pupils to keep the books of the school itself. At the Moscow Commercial School the work in this subject is carried on in German as well as in Russian.†

*It must be remembered that fairs still retain in Russia much of the commercial importance which belonged to them in Western Europe three or four centuries ago. But even in Russia they are losing their importance with the extension of railways and the improvement of the means of communication generally.

†Some Business Schools are divided into two sections, known as the Book-keeping and the Merchandise Sections. The former, which is intended specially for future clerks and accountants, provides a more advanced course of practical book-keeping; the latter, which has in view the needs of those who desire to become salesmen or buyers, offers more detailed and scientific instruction in

IV.—DEVELOPMENT OF THE COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS.

Ten years have now elapsed since the promulgation of the law under which the existing commercial schools of various types have been established. This is not too short a period in which to judge of the success of the new departure and to form some general conclusions as to the directions in which they have tended, or are tending, to develop.

One of the most remarkable features in the history of the Commercial Schools has been their tendency to transform themselves into schools of general education. We have seen that the Law of 1896 left the relations between general and special instruction in these schools undefined, though it contained an expression of opinion in favour of the predominance of commercial subjects. We have also remarked on the tendency to give to general subjects a special bent so far as this could be done without detriment to their value as instruments of culture. But side by side with this practical tendency, which is highly characteristic of Russian thought, in educational matters, the ideal of general culture has been jealously guarded; special and technical subjects have not been allowed to encroach on general; on the contrary there has been a marked disposition to extract the maximum of general culture out of these subjects and even to sacrifice them in their more technical aspects to the interests of general education.

Several special causes have certainly been at work to produce this result. In the first place the absence of a sufficient number of schools of general education of the ordinary type, or the dissatisfaction commonly felt with the way in which such schools are conducted, has caused the new schools to be crowded with a large number of pupils who are not definitely intended for a commercial career: * and the interests of these pupils have to be considered. Many of them, for example, come to the Commercial Schools to be prepared for the entrance examination to the Higher Technical Colleges, in which they have to compete against candidates from the secondary schools of general education. Moreover the pupils of the Commercial Schools belong for the most part to the more well-to-do classes, and can therefore afford to defer specialisation to a comparatively late period in their school course. Again, no inconsiderable proportion of private and public Commercial Schools have been started by persons who had no special interest in education of a strictly commercial type, but were attracted by the greater freedom of instruction enjoyed by schools under the Ministry of Finance and the more liberal spirit in which they were administered. Finally, the general tendency of the instruction given in Commercial Schools has undoubtedly been affected by the circumstance that there are at present no teachers specially trained to

* It is stated, for example, that the Polish aristocracy, who held aloof from the older Secondary Schools, send their children more readily to the Commercial Schools; and that in Central Russia the children of professional men and officials attend them largely.

serve in Commercial Schools,* which have, consequently, had to avail themselves of the services of persons who have been accustomed to teach in the secondary schools of general education.

But while these accidental causes have powerfully reinforced the trend towards general education, they do not account for it entirely. That the motive of the tendency is in the main a purely pedagogical one is clear from the official reports of the schools published by the Ministry of Finance. Take, for example, the following expression of opinion received from the Libau Commercial School, and printed in the Report of the Education Section of the Ministry relating to the year 1903-4 :—

“It is impossible to consider the Commercial School purely as a professional school. Starting from the position that no school, even a professional one, can or ought to take upon itself the task of turning out young people fully prepared for practical life, and that the main aim of every school should be to teach its pupils to understand the world in which they live and to develop in them a will and ability to act, the Libau Commercial School gives a general training in the first five classes, supplementing it by special instruction in the two highest classes. Thus, whilst aiming at producing intelligent and well-educated business men and manufacturers, the school at the same time seeks to increase the number of educated persons generally, who, when they leave school in the narrow sense of the word, and enter the great school of life, shall be able to profit by its lessons and act in harmony with its requirements.” The ideal of a liberal modern education could scarcely be more explicitly stated.

That the above is not a mere doctrinaire or professional view there is abundant evidence to show. A convincing proof of this statement is afforded by the report of a Sub-Commission on Special Subjects in Commercial Schools which was appointed by the Conference of 1901, and numbered among its members several laymen of practical experience as well as teachers. The Sub-Commission reported as follows :—

“An examination of the Model Time Table constructed by the Education Committee (see p. 516) shows that the time allotted to the whole number of special subjects, except French and German correspondence, to which no special lessons are assigned, is thirty-eight hours a week. Adding to this an hour each for French and German correspondence, we get a total of forty hours, which is distributed in the Model Time Table among the three groups of commercial subjects as follows :—To the group of office subjects (Commercial Arithmetic, Book-keeping and Correspondence in Russian and foreign languages) are assigned fifteen lessons : to Chemistry and Knowledge of Merchandise with practical work, fifteen lessons : while to juridical and economic subjects (Law, Political Economy, and Commercial Geography) only ten hours

* The Commercial Courses have as yet done little or nothing towards providing such teachers.

are allowed. This distribution is considered by the Sub-Commission not to represent a proper balance nor to correspond to the importance of individual subjects for the training of an educated business man. Too much time is given to special and technical subjects, like Book-keeping, to which are assigned eight hours, and Knowledge of Merchandise, which with practical work occupies ten hours; and the teaching of Political Economy and Law which has not only a practical, but also a high educational, value, is correspondingly depressed. All the practical men, representatives of governing bodies, who attended the session of the Sub-Commission, unanimously expressed the opinion that the teaching of Book-keeping in Commercial Schools should not be extended, that it was sufficient for the future business man to grasp the general principles of the system of double entry, that practical work should be concerned only with a few fundamental operations, and that the teacher should not aim at the impossible ideal of training a book-keeper able to keep the books of any kind of business without further guidance. Such book-keepers can be trained only by practical life, certainly not by the school. In view of the close connection of book-keeping with commerce and in order to economise time, the wish was expressed by many members that book-keeping should be taught jointly with Russian correspondence, no special lessons being assigned to the latter. For the thorough study of both these subjects the majority of the members thought a total of six lessons amply sufficient, instead of the nine contemplated by the Model Time Table. The time thus set free the Commission thought would be more profitably devoted to instruction in Political Economy and Law. Political Economy should be regarded as the main and fundamental subject of commercial education, both because of the practical importance of the knowledge it imparts to everyone engaged in financial matters, and also because of its great educational importance in the formal development of its students. The teaching of law should also, in the opinion of the Sub-Commission, receive more serious attention, since an acquaintance with the fundamental laws of the country and with the principles of State and civil law is necessary for every educated citizen, while for those engaged in commerce or industry it is, besides, extremely important to be familiar with the basis of mercantile and individual legislation, and with the laws relating to bills of exchange and proceedings in bankruptcy."

After laying down the proposition that "the intermediate commercial school cannot undertake to prepare for any separate or particular vocation in the industrial or mercantile world—it cannot, for example, train book-keepers, accountants, commercial agents, or inspectors of merchandise—but should rather aim at turning out young persons who would learn with ease any special line of business in actual practice," the Sub-Commission proceeded to make several recommendations which need not be quoted here in detail. Their views on the subject of model counting-houses such as are established in connection with business-practice classes in

America and elsewhere, possess special interest. "The establishment of model counting-houses is considered a measure difficult to carry out in practice, and one which fails of its object, because the main work of an actual office consists in relations with other firms and individuals, and these it is impossible to establish. Thus the time spent in conducting a model counting-house would be largely lost. The pupils would be under the delusion that they had received a practical training, which cannot really be obtained by means of fictitious operations of this kind. Instead of work in model counting-houses established in connection with the school, it is rather considered desirable that the pupils on completing the first special class should obtain practice during the holidays in actual business offices or financial establishments."

The tendency to emphasise the claims of general education in the Commercial Schools frequently gives rise to a demand for an additional year to be added to the ordinary seven years' course. This addition of a year the Ministry of Finance has statutory power to sanction where it thinks desirable. However much special subjects may be sacrificed to general, they cannot be entirely omitted in any school administered under the Law of 1896. On the other hand, there is a general conviction in Russia that a complete general education of the secondary type cannot be given in less than seven years; and if this be granted, it follows that an eight years' course at least is required wherever special instruction is superadded to general. So far, however, only a minority of Commercial Schools have a course lasting eight years.

The trend towards general education also makes itself felt in the Business Schools, which, like the Commercial Schools, attract a certain contingent of pupils who want education, but for whose needs there is no suitable provision made elsewhere. Many, probably most, Business Schools have now provided a preliminary course of general education for those pupils who come to them without previous training; and as this preliminary course is frequently found in practice to afford insufficient preparation for the study of the special subjects of the ordinary course, there is a tendency to increase the proportion of time given to general instruction in the later years. Here again the demand is frequently made for the extension of the course by a year in order to give time for adequate training both in general and special subjects. The conversion of the Business Schools into schools of a predominately general character would, however, be clearly against the intention of the legislature and the influences making in favour of such a change are by no means as strong as in the case of the Commercial Schools.

It is a curious and interesting fact that even the Business Classes afford evidence of the same tendency to substitute general education for special. These classes have not been conspicuously successful, and the reasons for their lack of success are not far to seek. The shop assistants, for whose benefits they were instituted, are too ill-paid to be able, in many instances, to afford the fees necessary to support the classes, and their hours of work are too long (thirteen

to sixteen hours, often without a regular break for meals, is quite a common day's work in a Russian place of business) to enable them to spare the time to attend them. Such classes have, however, been established with some success at Moscow and a few other places; but it is significant that the Moscow classes, which are much the most successful, have sought and obtained the permission of the Ministry of Finance to devote their main attention to general subjects.

It is not only in relation to these broad questions of curriculum that the history of the Commercial Schools has been full of interest. The large measure of liberty allowed to the teaching *personnel* in the details of their work has awakened initiative and quickened thought; and in this connection it has been of enormous advantage to the Commercial Schools that their rise should have fallen entirely within a period when interest in the reform of secondary education was fresh and keen. During the last ten years the stagnant atmosphere of routine and formalism which was so depressing to the educational life of Russia has been stirred by the inrush of new ideas. The schools of the Ministry of Finance have caught up and applied these ideas with a rapidity only possible to institutions starting afresh and unfettered by the traditions of the older régime.* New interest has also been added to the work of the teachers by the knowledge that they are free to strike out new paths, and most of all, perhaps, by the fact that the programs according to which they are working are not arbitrarily imposed upon them from above, but represent their own convictions as to what is best for their pupils in view of local and other circumstances. The beneficent effect of these conditions on the intellectual side of the work of the commercial schools is already manifest. But it is perhaps in relation to those aspects of school life which make for moral influence and the formation of character that the enlarged freedom granted to the teachers of these schools has been most fruitful of important results. The essential point to observe is that this freedom has placed the teachers in an entirely new relation to the pupils and their parents. It has enabled them to get rid of, or largely to modify, all that machinery of control and discipline consisting of examinations, marks, rewards, and punishments which created so much friction in the older secondary schools, and has consequently long since, whether rightly or wrongly, fallen under the ban of public opinion. Examinations for promotion have gone altogether in some schools; in others they have been retained only in the case of doubtful pupils, or in the case of those subjects which are finally completed in the class from which the pupil is to be promoted. Marks have been largely replaced by verbal reports or "characteristics," though the educational authorities of the Ministry of Finance still insist on marks being given at

* The introduction of the study of nineteenth-century writers of periods later than Pushkin and Gogol into the programs of Russian language and literature will serve as a typical example of the way in which Commercial Schools have adopted the ideas of the party of educational reform.

stated intervals. Punishments have been reduced to a minimum ; and supervision out of school has been abolished. Many of these changes are due to the natural rebound from the older system, and not all, perhaps, are equally good. But it is a point of minor importance whether they are bad or good. What is chiefly important is that new methods may be freely tried, and that Russia possesses in the Commercial Schools what she has never had before—a wide field of educational experiment in which theories may be brought to the test of practice, and valuable experience gathered for national use.

An important complementary measure to the freedom allowed to the schools has been the institution of periodical conferences of teachers and managers of Commercial Schools, summoned by the central authorities, and held at St. Petersburg, under the presidency of a high official of the Ministry. In view of the fact that the Commercial Schools are so largely concerned with general education the discussions of these conferences have been of great interest to educationists generally. In Russia, where the right of public meeting has been, until the most recent times, almost non-existent, all opportunities for the discussion of educational values and for the collation of experience in teaching work, have a value and importance which can hardly be fully appreciated in the West.

Not less encouraging upon the whole have been the results of entrusting a measure of control over the schools to local Councils of Curators. There is a great amount of testimony to the fact that the existence of local control has acted as a strong stimulus to public interest in the schools, and has done much to restore that link of sympathy between school and home which it was the misfortune of the older secondary schools so often to see broken. The Councils of Curators are at present largely composed of the persons who have actually founded the schools, and their interest in the schools under their care is naturally very keen. Instances in which this interest is feeble or absent and the director manages everything by himself occur but rarely. Of course the new system has not been established absolutely without friction ; but friction occurs precisely where it was most natural to expect it. Directors, it appears, do not always find it easy to reconcile themselves to the loss of the autocratic position which their confrères enjoy in the schools of other Ministries, and sometimes chafe under the control of the Council of Curators. Teachers complain of the lack of pedagogical knowledge on the part of the latter. The Ministry of Finance is grumbled at for supporting the Council of Curators against the staff, and so on. These occasions of friction are inevitable wherever professional work is subject to lay control. They could hardly be expected not to occur in a country where such control is a new thing in the national experience. Instances of conflict or misunderstanding are, however, exceptional. Generally speaking, it is abundantly clear that the Councils exercise their duties with tact and consideration, and that Directors and teachers understand that the advantages of local control cannot be obtained

V.—CONCLUSION.

The Commercial Schools of the Ministry of Finance are distinguished among all the educational institutions of Russia by the extent to which they have won the sympathy and confidence of the unofficial public. Certainly no other type of secondary school can claim in this respect to be named beside them. The rapidity with which commercial schools of every type have sprung into being in every part of the Empire during the last ten years, almost entirely without the aid of the State, is unique in the history of Russian education. The reasons for this popularity are not far to seek. To a certain limited extent it is due to the need for instruction of a specially commercial type. This need actually existed, and in view of the increasing commercial interests of the Russian Empire, the demand for special commercial instruction was rapidly becoming more urgent. But the satisfaction of this demand by the new Commercial Schools is one of the least of the reasons for the welcome that has been accorded to them. A more real explanation lies in the fact that in addition to special commercial instruction they have also provided a liberal modern education of a type which has always been specially in harmony with public opinion in Russia. But even this explanation is not by itself sufficient. The deepest and most fundamental reason for the success of the Commercial Schools is to be found in the relation in which they have been placed to their local environment, in the comparative freedom allowed them by the State, in the tempering of central control by local supervision, and in the flexibility and adaptation to local needs, which distinguish these schools from all others in Russia. The older secondary school, even when created and maintained by local funds, is exclusively controlled by the State, it stands apart from local interests, its influence tends to be regarded as the influence of the State exerted from outside upon the life of the local community. The new school stands in organic relation to the local life, it is sensitive to local needs, it reflects local opinion in educational matters and reacts healthily upon it. All this has given the local public an interest in the Commercial School which no other type of secondary school has ever awakened. It is *their* school, and not merely a school of the State established in their midst. If to this be added that the new schools have profited to the full by the humane spirit which distinguishes modern educational thinking, we shall have before us an adequate explanation of the unique place which they occupy in the regard of the Russian public.

The success of the Commercial Schools is indicative of a profound change in the attitude of Russian society towards education. Hitherto the desire for education, at any rate of the secondary and higher grades, has been largely influenced by the fact that the *Gymnasias* and the *Universities* are the avenues to the State service with all its attendant advantages of rank and status. It is this consideration which has always tended to overshadow in

the public mind the ideal of education as a means of human development, which has filled to overflowing the classical schools in spite of the unpopularity of their curriculum, and which has crowded the Universities with hundreds of needy scholars clinging to the hope of a Government post and ready to become a social danger if their hopes were disappointed. Ever since the gymnasia and the Universities were thrown open to all classes this immoderate aspiration towards the State service has been an evil which every thoughtful Russian educationist has deplored. The advent of the Commercial Schools has been important in two ways. It has facilitated access to other careers than those of the State service; but it has also afforded an unexpectedly strong proof that the old ideal of the State service as the chief end of secondary and higher education is losing its former hold upon the public mind. Here is a school which, though intended to serve the interests of special instruction, has developed under the pressure of the conscious needs of society into a school of general education. It offers no privileges in respect of access to the State service; at most the pupils who complete its course obtain the title of "Candidate of Commerce" and the rank of "Honorary Citizen," both of which are distinctions void of social value. Yet in ten short years this school has won for itself a place in public esteem which a century of privilege has not sufficed to secure for the State schools. What can this mean save that traditional points of view are being abandoned, that the idea of intellectual culture as an end in itself has made its way to an unexpected extent among the rank and file of Russian society, that the conception of education as a qualification for State service is giving place to the wider ideal of education as a training for service to the community?

Both from the educational and the social points of view, then, the rise and progress of the Commercial Schools is full of significance. Educationally, their importance may be said to be threefold. First, they constitute a very remarkable addition to the provision made in Russia both for general and for special education. Secondly, they have furnished a noteworthy proof of the reality and seriousness of the Russian preference for education of the modern type as compared with that given in the more privileged classical schools. Thirdly, they have given the lead to other schools in the adoption of new methods and new ideas and have signalled the spread in the public at large of a higher conception of educational aims. But socially their significance is more striking still. For over a century before the establishment of the Commercial Schools the whole trend of events in the history of Russian education had been in the direction of centralising all control, of secondary instruction at any rate, in the hands of the Government. It matters little that the motive for this change of policy in 1896 was economic and not political, for it is a commonplace of history that economic considerations are among the chief controlling forces of politics. Judged by English standards the measure of local control allowed has perhaps been small, while its tenure is no doubt precarious,

for nothing would be easier than for the central authority to reduce it to a nullity at any moment. But the important point is that the Government should have adopted the principle, and the eagerness with which the change has been welcomed and made the most of, furnishes a significant indication of the hold which the ideal it represents has taken upon the convictions of Russian society.*

* The influence of the example of the Commercial Schools appears very clearly in the Law of the 26th May, 1904, under which the schools of the Ministry of Agriculture are administered, especially in respect of the constitution of the local governing bodies of these schools. The supervising Committee (*Nabliudatelnyi Komitet*) of the Agricultural Schools has very much the same functions as the Council of Curators of the Commercial Schools, and is similarly appointed in all cases where the individuals, societies, or public bodies establishing the schools bear not less than half the burden of maintenance. When the Treasury maintains an Agricultural School entirely, or contributes more than half the cost of maintenance, the president and ordinary members of the Committee are directly appointed by the central authority, the contributory *zemstvos* or other body having simply the right of nominating one member. Another point in which the Agricultural Schools differ from the Commercial Schools is that side by side with the supervising Committees Curators are appointed with independent powers to supervise and report on the schools.

CHAPTER VIII.

HISTORICAL SUMMARY AND GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

It may be well in conclusion to recapitulate briefly the main historical facts with regard to higher, secondary and primary education respectively, and to note some general characteristics which belong to the history of education in Russia, and more or less distinguish it from the history of education in other lands.

(1) In the case of University education, the crucial question has always been that of *organisation* and *control*. We have seen how the provision of University teaching was first rendered necessary by the demand of the State for trained officials. But for a long time the needs of the State in this respect were in advance of the spontaneous demand for higher education existing in society at large; and this circumstance determined the whole attitude of the State towards higher education in the eighteenth century. The University of Moscow, the only one existing in this period, was placed in a privileged position in the State, and though subject to a very definite system of State control, enjoyed also a large measure of internal autonomy. Under the liberal régime of Alexander I, the autonomous principle received a wide extension in the government of the Russian Universities, which were also entrusted with the administration of all lower grades of education. With the conservative reaction which followed the accession of Nicholas I, this system, already undermined in practice, was formally abolished; the principles of University autonomy and of the control of schools by the Universities were replaced by the principle of direct State control of all educational institutions. This State control, at first co-existing with a certain measure of self-government within the Universities, increased in strictness as time went on, until it reached its climax after the revolutionary year of 1848. Meantime, the demand for University instruction had steadily grown in society, and was now so far in advance of the requirements of the State that measures were taken to restrict it. By the liberal legislation of Alexander II, these restrictions were removed; autonomy was restored to the Universities, which retained their privileges until the beginning of the next reign, when the advancing tide of anti-liberal reaction, which had already overtaken the secondary schools, reached the Universities also. By the Statute of 1864, the Universities were deprived of their autonomy, and the principle of State control was applied to them with a thoroughness and consistency to which their previous history affords no parallel. The history of higher education in Russia has thus been largely determined by the conflict between the two opposing principles of autonomy and State control; and

it cannot be doubted that the pending reorganisation of the Universities will involve some new attempt at adjusting the relations between these two principles.

Secondary instruction for boys can hardly be said to have been properly organised before the beginning of the nineteenth century; but during the hundred years which have elapsed since the establishment of the Alexandrian gymnasia, the fortunes of secondary education have closely followed those of the Universities; with this difference, however, that whereas in the case of the Universities the critical questions have been those which concerned external organisation, the controversy in the case of the secondary schools has turned mainly on questions of curriculum. From the first the issue is between "classicism" and "realism," though these terms began to be familiar in Russia only after the middle of the century. The secondary curriculum of 1804 was the reflection of the "philosophism," in which Alexander himself had been trained, and was essentially framed on "real" lines; the classical influence came in a few years later through Uvarov, who had been affected by the New Humanism of Germany. Uvarov's influence as an educationist was also sufficient to secure a considerable development of classical instruction throughout the greater part of the succeeding reign; but classicism, nevertheless, received a severe blow after 1848. Now began in good earnest the struggle between "real" instruction and classical teaching. The former was for the moment in possession of the field, but in 1864 a compromise was arrived at, by which the principle of duality was for the first time introduced into the Russian secondary educational system. Classical schools and "real"-schools were recognised side by side as being, each in its own sphere and degree, capable of giving a liberal education, but preference was assigned to the classical schools in respect of the right of admission to the Universities. This did not satisfy the classicists, now reinforced by the conservative section of Russian society, who were convinced that the spread of the anti-social doctrines of Nihilism was the result of the predominance of "realism" (that is, of materialism) in school instruction. The polemic of Katkov in favour of the classics resulted in 1871 in the recognition of the classical school as the school of the State *par excellence*. Real-schools continued to exist, but were placed in a position of decided inferiority in respect of State aid and right of access to places of higher education. The settlement thus arrived at lasted in all essential respects for thirty years; but it has recently been severely criticised from various points of view and important modifications of it are now contemplated, and have been in fact, to some extent, already introduced.

The history of primary instruction in Russia has followed a different course from that of higher and secondary education, and has been determined by entirely different conditions. Here the controlling facts were the abolition of serfdom and the creation of local organs of self-government in town and country. Even in pre-reform days there were sporadic efforts to provide instruction

for the people, who also sought satisfaction for their own educational needs in schools unsanctioned by the Government. But the first general organised effort in this direction dates from the sixties, and was the work of the newly-created organs of local self-government, the State supplying the machinery of control, and for the rest contenting itself with the establishment of some model schools in the country, and higher grade schools in the towns. After the reforms of the sixties a policy of centralisation and strict bureaucratic control again gained the upper hand, disposing the Government to look coldly on the educational work of the *zemstvos* and towns, and to favour the movement for the revival of Church schools, which was set on foot in the seventies. By the Regulations of 1884, the Church schools received a regular organisation and State aid; later on the clergy also obtained the control of the *shkoly gramotnosti* and under certain conditions of all Sunday Schools thenceforth to be established. The question was even raised of transferring all schools into their hands. This question was, however, decided in the negative sense, and the two competing systems of primary schools appear now to have established themselves permanently side by side. In spite, however, of the activity both of the *zemstvos* and the Church, primary instruction has not yet been made accessible to all who desire it, and one of the problems of the immediate future in Russia is how to extend the existing educational provision so as to approximate to that ideal of universal primary instruction which, even so far back as the sixties, was acknowledged to be the goal towards which the efforts of the friends of educational progress should be directed.

Between the history of the Russian Universities and schools for boys on the one hand, and that of the corresponding institutions for women and girls on the other, there are some striking differences, which are due in the main to the circumstance that the needs of the State have been less of a disturbing factor in the case of the latter than the former, and that the establishment of girls' schools has been largely due to private initiative. We have seen how the creation of Universities and places of special training for the public service preceded the provision of secondary schools for boys. The history of girls' education, on the other hand, has followed what would seem to be the natural course of development, elementary education (as the term was understood in pre-Catherinian days) preceding secondary, and secondary instruction in its turn creating a demand for higher. The extension of educational opportunities has developed along equally normal lines, descending further and further in the social scale, so as to reach successively the four great classes into which Russian society was traditionally divided—first the nobles (institutes of the department of the Empress Maria), then the clergy (ecclesiastical schools, of Nicholas' time), then the trading classes (day-schools of the beginning of Alexander II's reign),* and, finally, the peasantry and lower orders generally

* These schools were, of course, open to all classes, and have been largely attended by the daughters of officials and members of the liberal professions.

(primary schools established by the zemstvos and the Holy Synod).

The higher education of women in Russia owes even more to private initiative than the secondary schools for girls; but whereas the history of the latter has had a smooth and uneventful course, little disturbed, even by purely pedagogical controversies, the places of higher education for women have undergone many vicissitudes. The rise of higher education for women dates back only to the reign of the second Alexander, and stands in intimate relation with the economic and social changes of the sixties. Its history thus falls entirely within a period of unprecedented stress and intellectual unrest, and it is therefore no matter for wonder that the places of higher education for women have been affected by the same influences as the men's Universities, and have to some extent shared the fortunes of the latter in respect of administration and control.

The technical schools of Russia, by the circumstances of their origin, stand apart from all the kinds of institution treated of above. They represent in education the industrial phase of the modern history of Russia. Higher technical education has, it is true, a longer history than technical instruction of the intermediate and lower grades, since the State very early began to require technical colleges to supply the public service with specially-trained administrative officials. But broadly speaking, the movement which has given to Russia her present system of technical education is of purely modern origin; it forms part of the modern industrial movement which has wrought so profound a change in the life of Russia during the last half-century. The technical schools correspond to a conception of education which has grown up with the growth of industrialism; they belong to a new social order; they answer to the needs of a new class. The commercial schools established during the last eight or nine years are an even more characteristic product of modern Russia. During the short period of their existence they have made good their claim to be regarded as *par excellence* the schools of the newly formed middle class; and the rapidity with which they have multiplied in number has furnished an undeniable proof of the existence of a widespread appreciation among that class of the benefits of instruction.

(2) One of the first things which strikes a student of the Russian system of education is the relative insignificance of the part taken by the Church in its development. That among a people so devout and so genuinely attached to Orthodox Christianity as the Russians the Church should have been content with so subordinate a part is doubtless at first sight paradoxical; but only those who are ignorant of the historical relations between Church and State in Russia will find it surprising. It does not fall within the scope of this report to describe those relations in detail. It must suffice here to recall the fact that in Russia, no less than in the West, learning was for centuries confined to the Church, and that the first schools were founded by her. For a time the monopoly of

instruction remained in her hands ; but before she had had time or opportunity to make an educational provision commensurate with the needs of the nation, her monopoly was set aside by Peter the Great. Side by side with the ecclesiastical academy, he created the secular school. The ecclesiastical schools continued indeed to exist, and to flourish, and in course of time they influenced secular education greatly to its advantage and have left a distinct impress on the general intellectual life of Russia. In respect of all education higher than primary the possibility of rivalry between the two kinds of schools was excluded by the fact that they provided for the needs of different orders in the State, the ecclesiastical schools existing for the children of the clergy, the secular schools for those of the laity. The field of primary instruction was left open to the clergy, and theoretically it was always held to be part of the functions of their office to instruct their flocks in the elements of learning, so far, at least, as tended to their religious edification. That this was never effectively done on a large scale until recent times was the consequence partly of the social organisation which was based on the institution of serfdom, and partly of the economic position of the clergy themselves. We have seen how at the time of the abolition of serfdom the policy of entrusting primary education entirely to the clergy was discussed and finally rejected. Hence it happened that even as regards primary education the secular authorities were already to a large extent in possession of the field when the Church under the energetic guidance of M. Pobedonostsev began, less than twenty years ago, to throw herself with a zeal which she had not heretofore shown into the work of educating the masses of the population.

There is thus, in reference to the whole question of the relation of the Church to education, a fundamental historical difference between Russia and Western Europe. In all the countries of the Latino-German world the Church was the first to occupy the field of education, and wherever a struggle between Church and State has resulted it has been due to the determination of the State to replace the control of the Church by its own. In Russia, on the other hand, where any sort of rivalry between Church and State has been impossible at least since the days of Nikon, and where clericalism in the Western sense of the word is unknown, there is no reason why the Government should seek to diminish or subject to secular control the part taken by the clergy in education. In point of fact, the Church has never had any control over the instruction, other than religious, given in the State secondary schools and Universities ; and the increased activity shown in recent years by the clergy in the domain of primary instruction has been directly due to the initiative of the State, which saw in the revival of Church schools the best means of permeating popular education with its own ideals. Thus the competition or rivalry which has arisen between the schools of the Church and those under the Ministry of Public Instruction is of a kind which has no exact parallel in the countries of the West. It is not a rivalry between State schools

and Voluntary or private schools, since all kinds of elementary schools which exist in Russia stand in precisely the same relation to the State, though they are governed by different ministries; nor is it even a rivalry between secular and religious schools in the meaning attached to these terms in Western Europe, since there are no schools in Russia which are secular in the sense of excluding religious instruction from their curricula; nor finally is it a rivalry between two political parties, each striving to make its own social and political ideals prevail in the schools, for there are no organised political parties in Russia. The difference between the two kinds of schools is nevertheless one which touches both religion and politics—the religious difference finding expression not so much in the content of the teaching as in its general spirit and aim, the political difference manifesting itself in the ideals which underlie the organisation of the Church schools and those of the *zemstvos* respectively.

(3) If education in Russia owes comparatively little to the initiative of the Church, it has been more influenced by the action of the State than in any other country of Europe. Not that even in Russia, the State has been the sole factor in the creation of the national system of education. Here as elsewhere, the existing educational provision has grown up as the result of two factors, State initiative on the one hand, and social and individual initiative on the other; and much of the interest of Russian educational history lies in distinguishing the parts played by these two antithetic influences, in tracing their interaction upon each other, and in following the steps by which the State has been able either to absorb social and private initiative, or to subject it to its own control. And here it will be convenient to discriminate between the higher grades of education and the lower, and also between the education given respectively to the two sexes, as well as between the earlier period of the modern history of Russia and the later. The English student has also to keep in mind throughout how widely the Russian conception of the relation between initiative and control differs from that which prevails in England.

In respect to University education and secondary instruction for boys Russia presents a striking contrast with Western Europe, and especially with England. Amongst us the work of education was for centuries left in large measure to private initiative in various forms, and though this private initiative was more or less controlled or modified at different times by the attitude of the central government, the main traditions of secondary and higher education were determined by it. The precise opposite happened in Russia. The higher grades of Russian education were almost wholly the creation of the State. From the time of Peter the Great it is the State, which on its own initiative takes every important step in the direction of educational progress, providing the schools and settling the curricula in accordance with its own views and requirements. Private schools spring up, it is true, side by side with the official institutions; but in the early period

they are kept by foreigners and are in other respects little adapted to form the basis of a national system of education; in the later period they are completely controlled by the State and assimilated to the State schools. This State origin of Russian education must never be lost sight of if we would understand the peculiarities of its history and character. Thus only can we see, for example, why, contrary to the usual course of things, special and professional teaching should flourish in Russia for generations before the idea of a liberal education took root in society, and why the provision of University education should precede that of primary and secondary instruction. The requirements of the State in the matter of engineers, men of science, and administrative officials supply the key to the problem in each of these cases. The fact of the State origin of the schools and universities also goes far to explain why the educational system of Russia has struck its roots so much less deeply into the national soil than is the case where these institutions are the result of the spontaneous action of social initiative.

But whilst the share of the State in the creation of Universities and secondary schools for boys has been preponderatingly great, it is to the action of social and private initiative that we must ascribe the chief credit for the provision of the means of education, both higher and secondary, for women and girls, and of primary instruction for the masses of the people. The absence of the special motives which impelled the State to organise and develop the education of boys and young men accounts for the fact that the present provision for girls' and women's education is for the most part an achievement of private initiative. In saying this, we do not ignore the eminent services rendered to the education of girls by the Empress Catherine II. and during several succeeding generations by ladies of the Imperial family, notably by the Empresses Maria Feodorovna, Alexandra, and Maria Alexandrovna. It was indeed largely owing to the warm personal interest taken by these august ladies in the matter that the provision for girls' education in Russia stood for several generations far in advance of that made by any other State of Europe. But since the sixties, at least, the advance made alike in the secondary education of girls and the higher education of women has been mainly the work of private enterprise and social initiative, and the part taken by the State in furthering this work has been comparatively unimportant.

In the field of primary education the balance inclines still more decidedly to the side of social initiative. It is hardly too much to say that primary education in Russia is entirely the result of social and humanitarian impulse. In the sphere of elementary education, just as in that of the higher education of girls, the interests of the State as such have played a comparatively inconspicuous part. This is natural, since in an autocratic State, in which the rulers have not to justify their acts before the people, much less depends from a political point of view on the degree to which enlightenment is diffused among the masses than in a democratic state. Hence

it has happened that the motive power for the spread of popular instruction has in Russia been supplied by humanitarian sentiment to a greater extent than elsewhere. Accordingly, it is precisely at the times when humanitarian sentiment and the instinct of social service have been strongest that all the chief movements for the enlightenment of the masses have taken place. The capital instance of this is the movement in favour of popular instruction which began with the reforms of the sixties, and owed so much to the zeal and public spirit of the zemstvos and municipalities. The activity of these local bodies in the building-up of a system of popular schools deserves to be signalised as one of the most striking manifestations which have occurred in Russia of that independent social initiative the significance of which in a bureaucratic State lies in the fact that it is the very antithesis of the bureaucratic idea. But it must be added that the sentiment in favour of popular education has of late been strongly reinforced, on the one hand by considerations of a material kind, among which the connection between popular education and economic efficiency has played a prominent part; and on the other hand by religious and ecclesiastical motives, which have led the Orthodox Church to throw its whole influence into the scale in favour of a wide diffusion of popular instruction based on religious principles.

In attempting to assign their respective shares of influence to the State and society we must, as we have already said, draw a clear distinction between earlier and later times. During the eighteenth century, and in a lesser degree also in the early part of the nineteenth, all the most important educational movements are originated by the State. Social initiative is represented, it is true, in the closing years of the eighteenth century by such efforts as those of Novikov and the Moscow Freemasons for the spread of enlightenment among the people, and in the first two decades of the nineteenth by a number of more obscure educational movements. But all these efforts at social service are feeble and short-lived, easily crushed during periods of reaction, and at the best of times dwarfed and overshadowed by the initiative of the State. Throughout the whole of this period it is the State which takes all the important forward steps towards the creation of a national educational system, brooking no rival in the work, and having indeed no serious rival to encounter. And when we speak of the part taken by the State in the early development of Russian education, it is important to emphasise in particular the personal influence exercised at all important crises by the monarch. In regard to her educational progress Russia has had much for which to thank her earlier rulers. For a hundred years at least, all the great creative influences in education came from the Imperial family itself. Peter the Great, Catherine II., Alexander I.—these are the names associated with the forward movements in Russian education, and that by no courtly historical convention, assigning to the ruler credit which is properly due to his ministers. In the case of all these monarchs, it is not the Imperial office, but the personality of the individual which counts for most; they give the lead which others

follow; they supply the initiative, the reforming spirit, or the humanitarian impulse. In so far as they are able to act effectively, it is because they are themselves intellectually on a level with the best thought of their time. We may go further and say that the partial failure of the earlier sovereigns to realise their educational ideals was the inevitable result of their being in advance of the opinion of the society among which it was their lot to act.

But as the nineteenth century advances, influences independent of the State or its representatives become increasingly important. At the very time when the State was consolidating its power more and more by means of the bureaucracy, a new power had arisen in the nation itself, resting on moral and intellectual bases alone, but destined to dispute, albeit with varying success, the claim of the bureaucracy to monopolise the whole field of national education. By the forties educated society has become sufficiently strong and numerous to make itself felt as an independent force in intellectual matters; and henceforth we observe an increasing tendency on the part of the cultivated classes to organise themselves for educational and other social purposes independently of the bureaucracy. This tendency, traceable only as a strong social undercurrent during the reign of Nicholas I., rises to the surface with the accession of his son Alexander, and for a time becomes one of the great determining forces of educational reform. All the great achievements of social initiative—understanding by that term the manifestation of public spirit by private persons acting individually or in association—in the domain of education have taken place since the sixties. The education of girls and women, the promotion of Sunday schools for the poorer classes, the spread of popular education in various ways, have been the fields in which this social activity has most signally manifested itself. Many of these movements were arrested during the seventies and eighties, while the autocracy was fighting its duel to the death with the forces of anarchy; and the same period witnessed an increase of centralisation and an extension of the power of the bureaucracy which could only take place at the expense of independent social initiative. But the work begun in the sixties by the zemstvos and the towns goes on nevertheless: and with the nineties comes a new outburst of educational interest in society at large, embodying itself in a variety of movements aiming at the spread of popular enlightenment.

Finally, it is important not only to note the respective contributions made by the State and other agencies to educational progress, but also to take account of the process by which the State has established a monopoly of external control over all educational movements and institutions not due to its own initiative. In the foregoing pages we have described the successive steps in this process, which began in the reign of Elizabeth Petrovna, and has gone steadily forward with little interruption until the present time. The result has been that the control exercised by the State has become practically the same for all kinds of educational institutions, whether due to private enterprise, the public spirit of

communities, or the action of the State itself. The State can, however, at any given moment decide the limits within which social and private initiative in the work of education shall legally act. The organisation adopted by the Ministry of Finance in 1896, and still more recently by the Ministry of Agriculture, for the schools in their respective departments, derives much of its interest from the fact that it shows an increasing disposition on the part of the Government to give a wide scope to the action of local initiative and control.

(4) In the preceding two sections we have endeavoured to estimate the influence of the various factors—the Church, the State, the action of social and private enterprise—which have been concerned in the building up of the national system of education in Russia. We have now, furthermore, to ask how far the history of Russian education has been affected by contemporary intellectual movements. In point of fact the developments of education stand in much more obvious relation to the movements of contemporary thought in Russia than in England. Educational practice in England at any given moment tends to be, not the reflection of current educational thought, but the crystallised expression of former phases of thought; it is therefore hampered in its very efforts at progress by its own traditions. In a country like Russia, where traditions have had less time to harden, and where opinion is consequently more fluid and receptive, education is much more readily affected by intellectual influences from outside. Illustrations of this fact might be drawn from every period of Russian educational history. It is not an accident that Lomonossov, the founder of Russian literature and science, should also have had so large a share in the founding of the first Russian University; nor that the brilliant, but somewhat superficial and mechanical, character of the thought of Catherine's time should have impressed itself upon the schools she created; nor that the educational system of Alexander should have reflected the philosophical ideas of the eighteenth century, while that of his successor was affected by the revived interest in classics which had lately sprung up in Germany. We might also point to the influence of the ideas of Slavophilism upon the spirit of the educational administration of the forties, to the influence of progressive ideas upon the framers of the educational statutes of the sixties, and to many other similar instances. But here an important distinction must be made between the period preceding and that subsequent to the great reforms. In the earlier period educated society is small and comparatively homogeneous; the deeper cleavages of opinion have not yet revealed themselves; the influences acting upon the school from outside are uniform in tendency, and the task imposed upon it is the comparatively simple one of supplying the State with the limited number of persons it requires for its various purposes. But with the sixties a new period begins in Russian education, as in Russian life. Educational problems become more complex in correspondence with the increasing complexity in social and economical

conditions. The industrial development of the last third of the century makes necessary a wide extension of technical and professional education, whilst indirectly affecting the whole conception of educational aims. The public press becomes an important educational force. The universities and other educational agencies established by the State itself become the sources of intellectual movements of the most diverse kind. Hence the most important phenomenon of the time may be said to be the growth of a public opinion, no longer content to accept the guidance of the autocracy, but revealing itself as an independent force, with which the autocracy has to reckon. The old unity of thought and sentiment, which had its roots in the simplicity and uniformity of the old social organisation, has passed away along with the causes that produced it; in its place appears the same bewildering variety of cross-currents of opinion and tendency which characterises the modern life of all civilised peoples. Nowhere is this state of things more marked than in the domain of education. Hence has arisen a condition of unrest, especially in relation to questions of university and secondary education, which is partly the reflex of similar disturbances of opinion in Western Europe, and partly the result of special circumstances in the modern educational history of Russia herself. The solution of the problems of higher and secondary education which was adopted by the Government in the seventies and eighties was not the one approved by the general opinion of Russian educated society, which was consequently driven into opposition and debarred from exercising any influence on the course of events except by way of criticism or protest. But this protest has gathered volume and strength as time has advanced, and has finally obtained from the Government an acknowledgment that some modification of the existing system is needed. The discussions of projects of reform which are now proceeding in official circles are nothing else than efforts to find a concordat, or at least a *modus vivendi* between the views hitherto accepted by the Government and the various demands of public opinion.

(5) To sum up what has already been said, the history of Russian education is very largely concerned with the aim of the State to organise the intellectual forces of the nation under its own immediate control. In the realisation of this aim, the State has had no rivalry to fear from the Church; but its action has been limited and modified to an ever-increasing degree by the very conditions of the task before it, intellectual forces not being merely passive material with which the State can deal at its will, but reacting at all points upon the State's conception of its own functions. Moreover, it has found a competitor in those independent social forces which the advance of culture inevitably calls into being and whose energy has in one way or another to be utilised in the service of the community. The burning questions of Russian educational politics are all at the bottom aspects of the one central problem of the share which the State shall allow to these independent social

forces in the work of education. We have been content, in the foregoing pages, to state these questions without attempting to suggest solutions to them. But it will not be out of place to indicate here some characteristic tendencies of Russian educational thought, which appear to be of permanent significance, not only as throwing light on the past history of Russian education, but also in relation to the probable direction of progress in the future.

(a) We have first to note the constant tendency towards unity of aim and organisation in the educational system of Russia. This is a characteristic which has its roots deep in the national character itself, and may therefore be regarded as a permanent condition of the educational life of Russia. The idea of a general basis of mental culture which is presumed to be the same for all fully educated persons has always dominated educational thought and practice in Russia. It is of course the same idea as has had so great an influence in Germany, and the phrase used in Russian to describe this general basis of culture (*obstchee obrazovanie*) is an obvious translation from the German *allgemeine Bildung*; but the idea itself is too characteristically Russian to permit of the assumption that it was borrowed from Germany along with the phrase. Even in Germany the belief that general culture can be but *one* has not held its ground with such tenacity as in Russia. We have seen with what difficulty the principle of allowing two types of school giving a general education to exist side by side established itself in the sixties, and in how inferior a position one of these types (the real-school) was placed by the educational settlement of the seventies. It is a superficial view of the matter to attribute this state of things solely to considerations of State policy or bureaucratic convenience, though, undoubtedly, the simplicity of such a system greatly facilitates administration and control by the State. The idea of "general culture" is held in common by Russians of all shades of educational opinion, even by those who are most critical of the existing system of instruction. One of the most advanced schools of reformers demands that the present dual system of gymnasias and real-schools shall be replaced by a "common school" (*edinaia shkola*), the curriculum of which should be the same for all pupils desiring a general secondary education; and we have seen that this solution of the question was actually adopted in principle by a recent Minister of Public Instruction. The fact is that Russian opinion does not really differ as to the necessity for a common basis of general culture, but rather as to what the constituent elements of this common basis ought to be. Many Russians would doubtless go so far as to admit that, in the existing state of uncertainty as to what general culture should consist in, a small number of different types of schools may be allowed to exist side by side as temporary experiments; but only in order that the fittest among them might survive while the rest became extinct. The idea of an indefinite number of educational systems and curricula existing permanently side by side on an equal footing in the same State, and recognised as pos-

sessing equal values, would seem to most Russians absurd; and it is this which makes our own educational conditions so incomprehensible to the Russian mind.* Here, in fact, there comes into view a deep-lying difference between Russian and English habits of thought. We are accustomed in all the relations of our social life—in politics, in commerce, in religion, no less than in education—to regard the stress and rivalry of competing and even conflicting ideas as the antecedent condition of the evolution of intellectual truth and social progress. The Russian is accustomed to demand uniformity in all politico-social relations; his instinct is for one State, one Church, one language, one school; and the state of things permitted with us (as in the case of our secondary schools) or legalised (as in the case of our primary schools), is apt to appear to him as something very like anarchy. This consensus of opinion as to the essential oneness of education will appear the more remarkable if we consider the variety of social and racial conditions prevailing over the vast Russian Empire, and the ever-increasing complexity of life within it.

(b) Another noteworthy tendency is the progress observable in Russian thought towards a conception of education as being above all concerned with the development of the individual. In this respect the movement of ideas in Russia has been curiously opposite to that which has taken place in the history of English educational thought. This difference in direction results naturally from the difference in the starting-point. We started with the individualistic conception of the school's function, and have only gradually awakened to a sense of its civic responsibilities. With the Russians the civic aim of the school was the starting-point, and the conception of school or college as a place for the development of the individual was long in sinking into the national consciousness.

Three conceptions of the aims of education can be clearly distinguished as prevailing at different times in Russia, though the predominance of one conception has perhaps never involved the entire exclusion of the rest. According to these three conceptions, the object of education is to serve either the interests of the State

* The remark in the text is well illustrated by some articles in the "*Russkaja Shkola*" for 1897 on the Report of the English Royal Commission on Secondary Education. These articles are from the pen of M. Mizhnev, a writer who has done much to instruct and interest the Russian public in English education. Particularly deserving of notice are his comments in the July-August number on section 76 of the Recommendations of the Commission, which contain the passage, "Technical instruction must be regarded not as the rival of a liberal education, but as a specialisation of it." On this M. Mizhnev remarks that the idea that technical instruction may be so organised as to form a branch of "general culture" is entirely new to the Russian reader, to whom it will seem a mere *contradictio in adjecto*. The same writer's remarks on the views expressed by the Commissioners as to the scope of secondary education on pp. 135-6 of their Report are also interesting from the same point of view. After quoting the whole passage, he says (September-October, p. 83), "Much of the above will seem incomprehensible to a Russian reader, and with some of the views we have quoted scarcely anyone will be found to agree."

or the interests of learning, or the good of the individual. It lies of course in the very nature of a system of education deriving entirely from the State that the civic aim in education should always have great prominence, and especially that the primary function of all places of learning should be conceived as being to provide the State in the first place with efficient public servants, and in the second place with intelligent and loyal citizens. This view of the function of education by no means excludes the conception of knowledge as desirable for its own sake, and in fact leads naturally on to it. For the advancement of knowledge is also a State interest, though it is an interest of a nobler kind than the mere encouragement of learning for professional and utilitarian purposes, and, moreover, has the advantage, from the point of view of the individual student, of supplying a motive which is purely disinterested and objective. But a wholly different plane of thought is reached when education is regarded as a means to the development of the individual member of the community. In Russia these three stages of development have been reached historically very much in the order in which we have stated them. The educational institutions of Peter the Great had in view, purely and simply, the provision of instruments of State; and the establishment of the Moscow University in the reign of Elizabeth Petrovna was dictated by precisely similar considerations.* Their two great successors, Catherine II. and Alexander I., do not limit themselves to this point of view; with both of them the interests of the individual are placed on a level with those of the State, and in the theory of Catherine they are paramount. But both monarchs are in advance of public opinion in this matter, and the intentions of the Government are in fact neutralised by the persistent tendency of society at large to look upon education solely as a preparation for a career in the public service. This purely professional and utilitarian view of education harmonises completely with the policy pursued in the reign of Nicholas I. During this period the interests of the State again became the chief consideration; hence such measures as the limitation of the output of schools and universities by the actual requirements of the State, the differentiation of education in correspondence with existing social divisions, and the like. The early years of Alexander II.'s reign are marked by a strong reaction from the views prevalent in his father's time. Nothing is more characteristic of the discussions which led up to the school legislation of 1864 than the frequent insistence on the principle that the proper aim of education is the "training of the man" (*vos-pitanie cheloveka*). In regard to university teaching, on the other hand, the ideal of "learning for its own sake" (*nauka dlia nauki*) now comes into prominence, and for the time overshadows the popular conception of the university as a training ground for officials. The period from 1860 to 1880 is the golden age of the history of the Russian Universities, viewed as nurseries of learning

* See *Sbornik Postanovlenii*, III., 1079.

and centres of historical and scientific research. But in the seventies the claims of the State again reassert themselves in relation to all grades of education. The gymnasia are now regarded as existing primarily to prepare their pupils for the higher academic studies, whilst the desire to bring the latter into harmony with the interests of the State finds expression in the University statute of 1884. During the last twenty years the pendulum has swung back once more; the educational ideas of the early sixties—freedom of learning as the aim of the University, individual development as the aim of the school—have again become predominant. The present drift of opinion is strongly in the direction of the view that the supreme interest of the State itself is not the training of officials or scholars, but of men; and that any system of education which develops adequately the intellectual, moral, and physical powers of the individual will *ipso facto* serve the highest interests of the body politic as a whole and provide the best guarantee for the advancement of learning and science within the nation. Not only does this tendency to give prominence to the individualistic ideal in education find expression in recent pedagogic literature, it is reflected also in official documents such as M. Bogolepov's circular of July, 1899. A certain measure of agreement as to the proper aim of education does not, of course, exclude a very wide divergence of opinion as to how this aim is to be attained. These divergent views have been discussed in the preceding chapters: here it need only be added that the prevalence of individualistic ideals in education has had some important indirect effects in several directions. It has for example tended to foster antagonism to any system of instruction under which high attainments on the part of a few pupils are secured at the expense of the development of the many—which is the fault charged against the classical schools of Russia. It has also lent a great impetus to the demand for the extension of primary instruction; and, finally, it has caused increased emphasis to be laid on the moral side of school training. The last named tendency is particularly shown by the greater attention now being paid by Russian students of pedagogy to systems of education which, like our own, are predominantly individualistic in aim, and at the same time attach special importance to the training of character.

(c) Another stream of tendency has flowed in the direction of making Russian education more and more national. No inconsiderable portion of the earlier history of Russian education is occupied with the struggle of the State against foreign and denationalising influences. That such influences were numerous and active in the eighteenth century, and even later, was the inevitable result of the fact that Russian education was itself an importation from abroad. For three-quarters of a century after the inauguration of the reforms of Peter the Great, secondary and higher education was almost wholly in the hands of foreigners, using either their own languages—English, French, or German, as the case might be—or Latin, as their medium of instruction. This

statement applies equally to private and State schools, to girls' schools and boys', to the University and the Academy of Sciences. During the reign of Catherine II. the nationalising movement begins, and goes steadily forward until the language of instruction in all schools has become Russian, the *personnel* of the teaching profession is predominantly Russian, and Russian subjects have received a prominent place in the school curricula. This is the achievement of the first half of the nineteenth century. An important phase of the nationalising movement was the repressive measures directed by the State against private schools—measures, it must be remembered, which were not dictated by jealousy of private initiative so much as by the determination of the State to eliminate or diminish the influence of the foreigner in Russian education. The chief difficulty in the way of the State's policy in this respect was the popularity which the private schools, especially those of the boarding school type, enjoyed in Russian society itself, partly because of the importance attached by the upper classes to a knowledge of foreign languages, and partly because of the class distinctions to which the private boarding school system so easily adapted itself. We have seen how the State broke the monopoly of the foreign teacher, partly by setting up a rival boarding-house system of its own, partly by refusing to allow boarding schools to be carried on by others than Russian subjects, and partly by assimilating the programmes of such schools to those of the State institutions. But in accounting for the unqualified triumph of the State over the private schools kept by foreigners, we must not forget the potent influence exerted by the ideas of Slavophilism upon the educated classes of Russia in the middle decades of the nineteenth century.

It may seem, at first sight, strange that with so many forces working together in a nationalist direction, Russian education has hitherto developed few principles that are essentially native or distinctive. The nationalising movement has modified the forms, the methods, and the outward organisation of the Russian educational system without producing a corresponding effect upon its inner spirit. Hence Russia stands at the present time as the representative of no great or original idea in education, in the sense in which Germany is the representative of intellectualism, and France of the striving after the power of artistic expression, and America of the training for a strenuous practical life. That such distinctive ideals are latent in Russian life cannot be questioned, since they have already expressed themselves in religion, in literature, in art, and in social institutions; but so far they have received little conscious embodiment in Russian education. The foreign school, the foreign curriculum, the foreign teacher, have gone; but foreign methods and systems still remain, and the influence of purely Russian ideas and traditions makes itself felt only slowly. This is doubtless due in great part to that responsiveness to intellectual influences from abroad, which has always been peculiarly characteristic of the educated classes of Russia; but a special reason is

afforded by the check to the nationalising tendency which was the result of the cosmopolitan views of education prevailing during the seventies. In the early years of Alexander II.'s reign nationalist tendencies were still powerful. Count Leo Tolstoi protested strongly against taking foreign schools as models for Russia, and demanded that the primary school in Russia should be treated as a pedagogical laboratory in which experiments should be tried and the true educational needs of the nation ascertained; whilst Ushinski, from another point of view, maintained with equal conviction that "a common system of national education existed neither in practice nor in theory; that German pedagogy was simply the theory of German education; that each nation had its own special national system of education, and that therefore the borrowing of educational systems by one nation from another was impossible."* These, however, were not the ideas which prevailed in the seventies. Katkov's theory of secondary instruction rested essentially on the assumption of a cosmopolitan basis of education in which specifically national elements were almost a negligible quantity. So long as this cosmopolitan view of education held the field, it need not surprise us to find the State regarding with equanimity, and even encouraging, the reappearance of the foreign teacher in the Russian school. But the years that have since elapsed have brought with them an increasing sense of the complexity of the educational problem generally, and in particular an increasing conviction of the relative importance of the national factors in education as compared with those which are universal. The very fact that the constant imitation of foreign models has led to no permanent settlement of the main questions of Russian education has induced a natural reaction against the habit of relying on foreign experience. Moreover, the hesitancy and disagreement which everywhere prevail on educational matters are such that the example of other nations no longer affords Russia a clear lead. All these influences have tended towards the wholesome result of throwing Russia back on her own intellectual resources and forcing her to think out her educational problems with exclusive reference to her own needs. Thus opinion seems to be veering round to the position taken up by Ushinski in the sixties. With no disposition to undervalue the advantage derived by Russian education from contact with the ideals of Germany and other nations in the past, many Russian educationists are beginning to question whether the pedagogic science of Germany, being based upon generalisations from German educational experience, is necessarily applicable to the very different conditions of Russian life. Why, they ask, should Russia, which has cast off the hegemony of foreign nations in other departments of intellectual life, be content longer to accept the guidance of these nations in matters of education? The increased importance attached to the mother tongue, and the literature and history of the native land in all the curricula recently adopted or proposed for

* *Sobranie Pedagogicheskikh Sochinenii*, p. 114.

secondary schools is one illustration of this tendency of thought. At the present time the revolt against classics assumes the aspect of a protest against being guided by Western example in education ; and M. Pobedonostev's scorn of "ready-made recipes and programmes of knowledge"* may serve to indicate how strong a hold the idea of finding Russian solutions for Russian educational problems maintains over the most conservative minds. These are but instances of a general drift of opinion which cannot fail to strike even a superficial student of Russian education. We must not attempt to forecast all the possible results of this tendency, further than to say that we appear to be on the eve of the creation of a national school of thought in Russian pedagogy, and that the main interest for the student of Russian education during the next few years will probably consist in observing the influence of these new tendencies of thought in moulding the educational system of Russia into a closer conformity with the intellectual and moral ideals of the Russian nation.

THOMAS DARLINGTON.

* *Uchenie i Uchitel*, p. 24.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL NOTE.

Since the preceding pages have been in type, it has been suggested to the writer that it would be useful to English students if something in the nature of a bibliography of Russian education were appended to this Report. In attempting to comply with this suggestion to the best of his ability, the writer would wish to remind his readers that the preparation of anything like a complete bibliography of the subject is obviously out of the question for anyone not living in Russia, and having access to a well-equipped pedagogical library. He has even found it impracticable, in the midst of official duties which confine him for the most part to rural Wales, to enumerate all the sources of information which have been drawn upon in the compilation of this Report. All that will be attempted, therefore, in this note is to indicate the main sources and authorities which must be consulted by any student of Russian education. Further bibliographical details, however, will be found in some of the works named below (e.g. in those of Miliukov and of Falbork and Charnoluski, and appended to the articles of the *Entsiklopedicheski Slovar*).

I. *Bibliography of the History of Russian Education.*

No complete history of Russian education has yet been written, General even in Russian. The brilliant sketch of its development which fills the three concluding chapters of Part II. ("Church and School") of Miliukov's "Studies in the History of Russian Culture" (*Ocherki po Istorii Russkoi Kultury*. SPB, 1897) is the best, and almost the only, attempt to deal with the subject as a whole. With this sketch may also be read certain sections of the article on "Russia" in Brockhaus and Ephron's *Entsiklopedicheski Slovar* (vols. 54 and 55), especially the section on "Enlightenment" (*Prosvestchenie*), by M. Mizhnev, and that on "Russian Science" (*Russkaia Nauka*).

Apart from these general accounts of the history of Russian education, the student may obtain much assistance from certain works dealing with special periods, or with particular grades or aspects, of education in Russia. For the history of primary education the first chapter of Falbork and Charnoluski's "Popular Education in Russia" (*Narodnoe Obrazovanie v Rossii* SPB, † 1889) is invaluable; and the article on "Elementary Popular Instruction" (*Nachalnoe Narodnoe Obrazovanie*), contributed by the same authors to volume 40 of Brockhaus and Ephron's Encyclopædia, may also be consulted with advantage. Wessel's articles on primary education entitled "*Nachalnoe Obrazovanie i Narodnyiia Uchilishcha v Zapadnoi Evropé i v Rossii*," which appeared in the *Russkaia*

Shkola for 1891 (May to December numbers) are also interesting and instructive from the historical point of view.

Secondary
Education.

For the history of secondary instruction no single work covering every period can be indicated. But the schools of the eighteenth century whether of the primary or secondary grade are described for us in two books by Count D. Tolstoi, one dealing generally with the state of education in Russia during that century (*Vzgliad na uchebnuiu chast' v Rossii v xviii stoletii.*, SPB, 1883), the other treating specially of the schools created by Catherine the Great (*Gorodskiiia uchilistcha v tsarstvovanie Imperatritsy Ekateriny II.*, SPB, 1886). A German translation of the latter work by P. von Kügelgen appeared in 1887 under the title of "*Die Stadtschulen während der Regierung der Kaiserin Katherina II.*" Demkov's History of Russian Pedagogy (*Istoriia Russkoi Pedagogii*, SPB, 1897), of which only the first two parts are published, covering the period from the earliest times to the end of the eighteenth century, contains much valuable information with respect both to educational thought and the actual condition of culture during the times of which it treats. There is a valuable essay on Betski and his influence over the pedagogical ideas of Catherine in Stoiunin's Collected Pedagogical Essays (SPB, 1892), entitled "*Razvitie Pedagogicheskikh Idei v Rossii v xviii stoletii.*" The history of the secondary schools of Russia during the first three-quarters of the nineteenth century is traced by Schmid in this "*Istoriia srednikh uchebnykh zavedenii v Rossii*" (SPB, 1878), a full account compiled mainly from official documents, which spares the student much labour of reference to original sources, and has been of considerable service to the present writer.

University
Education.

The best monograph on the history of University Education is that of Professor Ikonnikov, which appeared in the *Vestnik Evropy* for 1876 (Nos. 9-11) under the title of "The Russian Universities in connection with the progress of general culture" (*Russkie Universitety v sviazi s khodom obshchestvennago obrazovaniia*). The information given by Professor Ikonnikov may be supplemented by reference to special histories of the different Russian Universities. Of these only the History of the St. Petersburg University, by Gregoriev (*Imperatorskii S. Petersburgskii Universitet v techenie pervykh piatidesiati let ego suschestvovaniia*, SPB, 1870) and the History of the University of Dorpat, by Professor E. V. Tsvetukhov (*Imperatorskii Iurievskii, byvshii Derptskii, Universitet za sto let ego suschestvovaniia, 1802-1902*. Dorpat 1902) have been used for the purposes of this Report; but good histories of the Universities of Moscow and Kharkov also exist. A detailed account of the deliberations which preceded the re-organisation of the Russian Universities in the early years of Alexander III.'s reign is to be found in an official brochure published in German at Leipzig, entitled "*Die Reform der russischen Universitäten nach dem Gesetz vom 23 August, 1884.*"

Women's
Education.

For the history of girls' and women's education the chief authority is E. Likhacheva's "*Materials for the history of Female Education*

in Russia" (*Materialy dlia Istorii Zhenskago Obrazovaniia v Rossii* SPB, 1899), a work which is unfortunately still unfinished. The English reader may consult an excellent article on this subject by Princess Kropotkin in the *Nineteenth Century* for January, 1898. A work by Mme. Annenskaia, dealing with the history of Women's Higher Education in St. Petersburg, appeared in connection with the celebration in 1903 of the 25th anniversary of the Women's Courses in that city; and the April, May, and June Nos. of *Russkaja Shkola* for 1904 contained articles on the same subject from the pen of M. P. G. Mizhnev.

All the above accounts of Russian education are more or less partial in their scope, and for the purpose of the general student have to be eked out and pieced together by reference to official records and other primary sources of information. The various enactments and Governmental ordinances relating to education are collected together in the officially published *Sbornik Postanovlenii po Ministerstvu Narodnago Prosvestcheniia* (2nd ed., 1875, etc., in progress: 13 vols. down to 1896). The explanatory memoranda which accompany the various projects of law and which are reprinted in these volumes are especially valuable to the historical student. The companion collection, *Sbornik Rasporiazhenii*, contains the record of less important administrative arrangements. Among other official sources of information the "Journal of the Ministry of Public Instruction" (*Zhurnal Ministerstva Narodnago Prosvestcheniia*), which has been published since the thirties, also occupies an important place. Much assistance is also to be derived from certain reports, which have been published from time to time by the Ministry of Public Instruction, covering particular periods of time or dealing with special educational subjects. Such are Uvarov's account of the first ten years of his ministry (*Desiatiletie Ministerstva Narodnago Prosvestcheniia*, 1833-1843; republished at SPB in 1864); the "Observations on the Project for a General Statute for the Russian Universities" (*Zamechaniia na proiekt obshchago Ustava Imperatorskikh Rossiiskikh Universitetov*, 2 Parts, SPB, 1862); a similar collection of observations on the projected Schools Statute (*Zamechaniia na proiekt ustava obshche-obrazovatelnykh uchebnykh zavedenii*, SPB, 1862); the Minutes of the discussions in the Scientific Committee on the Schools' Statute (*Zhurnaly zasedanii uchenago komiteta po razsmotreniiu ustava uchilistich*, SPB, 1863); the Review of the Work of the Ministry of Public Instruction during the years 1861-1864 (*Obzor deiatelnosti Ministerstva Narodnago Prosvestcheniia 1861-1864*, SPB, 1865); an historical monograph on private schools (*O polozhenii nashikh chastnykh uchebnykh zavedenii*, SPB, 1867); the "Review of Bogolepov's Ministry" (*Kratkii Obzor deiatelnosti Ministerstva Narodnago Prosvestcheniia za vremia upravleniia pokoinago Ministra Bogolepova*, SPB, 1901). The contemporary history of all kinds of educational institutions under the Ministry of Public Instruction may be traced in the periodical Reports of the Minister (*Izlozheniia iz Vsepoddanneishikh Olchetov Ministra Narodnago Prosvestcheniia*). Similarly the reports of the High

Procurator of the Holy Synod contain an account of the Academies, Seminaries, and Schools administered by that Department (*Vsepodannneishie Otchety Ober-Prokurora Sviateishago Sinoda po Vedomstvu Pravoslavnago Ispovedaniia*).

The centenary of the establishment of the Ministry of Public Instruction was marked by the issue in 1903 of a full official History of the Ministry from 1802 to 1902 (*Istoricheskiĭ Obzor deiatelnosti Ministerstva Narodnago Prosvetcheniia 1802-1902. Sostavil S. V. Rozhdestvenskiĭ*, SPB, 1902). Unfortunately this work appeared when the Historical Sketch which forms the first chapter of the present volume was already in print, but considerable use has been made of it in the writing of the Appendix to that chapter.

General
historical
literature
relating
to the
education
of the
people
under
Alexander
I's reign.

Much incidental light on the subject of Russian education may be obtained from works dealing with Russian culture generally, from biographies, and from books of general literature. Pypin's "History of Russian Literature" (*Istoriia Russkoi Literatury*, 4 vols., 2nd ed., SPB, 1902) is very valuable from this point of view, especially for the earlier periods. The same author's "Social Movement under Alexander I." (*Obshchestvennoe Dvizhenie v Rossii pri Aleksandre I.*, 3rd ed., 1900) is equally indispensable to the student. The best available account of the ukaz of 1809 and its effects is to be found on pp. 176-186 of the first volume of Count Korf's *Life of Speranski (Zhizn Grafa Speranskago*, 2 vols., SPB, 1861). A good deal of information as to the state of education in Alexander I.'s time may be gleaned from outside sources, such as Mme. de Staël's "*Dix Années d'Exil*" and those of Count Joseph de Maistre's writings which were composed during his residence in St. Petersburg. The fortunes of the Lancasterian Schools of Russia are very well reflected in the letters and biography of William Allen, the Quaker (*Life of William Allen, with Selections from his Correspondence*, 3 vols., London, 1846). Count D. Tolstoi's "History of Roman Catholicism in Russia" (*Rimskii Katolitsizm v Rossii*, 2 vols, SPB, 1876) gives a good account of the Jesuit schools. The *Life of Magnitski* (SPB, 1865), by E. Theoktistov, is useful for the study of the re-action in the latter half of the reign of Alexander I.

Education
under
Nicholas I.

For the general movement of thought during the reign of Nicholas I. there is no lack of information. We may mention especially Herzen's *Byloe i Dumy* (London, 1861, 3 vols.); P. Annenkov's "A Remarkable Decade" (*Zamechatelnoe Desiatletie*, 1838-1848), which appeared first in the *Vestnik Evropy* for 1880, Nos. 1-5, but is now separately issued; A. Stankevich's "Life of Granovski" (Moscow, 1869); and Pypin's "Life and Letters of Belinski" (*Belinski, Ego Zhizn i Perepiska*; SPB, 1876). The best analysis of the questions involved in the controversy between Slavophiles and Westernists is contained in two articles by Professor Paul Vinogradoff, one on "I. Kireevski and the Beginnings of Moscow Slavophilism," which was printed in No. 11 of *Voprosy Filologii i Psikhologii* for 1892, and the other on Granovski, which appeared in *Russkaia Mysl* for April, 1893. The biographical sketch of S. V. Eshevski by Bestúzhev-Riumin, which is prefixed to the

collected edition of Eshevski's Works (Moscow, 1870; 3 vols.) contains an admirable description of life at the Moscow University during the forties.

From the accession of Alexander II. onwards the sources of information are abundant and various, though it is possible to regret that more has not yet been done to sift and organise them. A vigorous pedagogic literature now arises, and current questions of educational politics are discussed in the public press by writers of mark—many of them also active workers in the field of education—such as Pirogov, Ushinski, Korf, Stoiunin, and Leo Tolstoi*. These are, however, but a few distinguished names out of many which might be mentioned. The general periodical press now becomes increasingly used for the discussion of educational subjects, and no study of any of the great questions which have been debated in relation to all grades of public instruction can be undertaken without reference to important articles which have appeared in the *Vestnik Evropy*, the *Ruskii Vestnik*, the *Russkaia Mysl*, the *Novoe Vremia*, the *Russkiiia Vedomosti*, the *Moskovskiiia Vedomosti*, and other journals of similar standing. We shall not attempt here to single out articles for special mention; many will be found referred to incidentally in the preceding pages. It may, however, be useful to mention that Katlov's articles in the Moscow Gazette on the classical controversy of the sixties have been reprinted in a separate volume entitled "Our Educational Reform" (*Nasha Uchebnaia Reforma*, Moscow, 1890). A good statement of the anti-Katkovian position is contained in Professor Modestov's "School Question" (*Shkolnyi Vopros*, SPB, 1880). A convenient account of the general development of Russian educational thought since the sixties will be found in M. P. Kapterev's "Modern Russian Pedagogy, its main ideas, tendencies, and representatives" (*Novaiia Russkaia Pedagogiia, eia glavmeishiia idei, napravleniia i deiateli*, SPB, 1898).

No student of Russian education can afford to neglect the valuable side-lights which are thrown upon the subject by incidental references occurring in general Russian literature. It is entirely in accordance with the practical and realistic spirit of Russian writing that most of the great Russian authors from Kantemir downwards should have interested themselves strongly in questions of public and private education. Lomonosov, Von Wizin, Karamzin, Pushkin, Zhukovski (the tutor of Alexander II.), Turgenev, Dostoevski and Leo Tolstoi are the most important names to mention in this connection. Most of these wrote directly on the educational or pedagogical questions of their day; but several of them (e.g.,

* Pirogov's *Essays* (*Sochineniia N.I. Pirogova*, 2 vols., 2nd ed., 1900); Ushinski's *Collected Essays on Educational Subjects* (*Sobranie pedagogicheskikh sochinenii K.D. Ushinskogo*, SPB, 1875); "The Work of our Schools," by Baron Korf (*Nashe shkolnoe delo*, Moscow, 1873); Stoiunin's *Pedagogical Essays* (*Pedagogicheskaia Sochineniia*, SPB, 1892). The gist of Leo Tolstoi's educational theories may be found in two French translations from his writings, viz., "*La Liberté dans l'École*" (Paris, 1888) and "*Le Progrès de l'Instruction Publique en Russie*" (Paris 1890).

Educational
under
Alexander
and onwards

General
Literature
illustrating
the history
of Education

Von Wizin, Pushkin, Turgenev, Dostoevski, Tolstoi) have in addition left us in their imaginative works, pictures of educational conditions which have all the value of authentic contemporary documents, or have exhibited to us in an artistic literary form the pedagogic ideals which are latent in Russian thought.

For the educational history of Poland and the North Western provinces we have relied mainly upon the official sources enumerated above, particularly upon the work of Rozhdestvenski. For the reign of Alexander I. the memoirs of Prince Adam Czartoryski published at Paris in 1887 are very instructive; and for a discussion of some of the present day problems of Polish education the reader may be referred to the last chapter of "Polish Questions of the Day" by V. Stasovich and E. Pilz (*Ocherednye Voprosy v Tsarstve Polskom: Etudy i izsledovaniia*, SPB, 1902). As regards the Baltic Provinces, we have already mentioned Tsvetukhov's History of Dorpat University, which is valuable for the history of education generally in the Provinces. Some interesting details as to school and University life in the Baltic Provinces during the reign of Alexander I. are to be gleaned from the Autobiography of the celebrated naturalist, K. E. von Baer (*Nachrichten über Leben und Schriften des Herrn Geheimraths Dr. Karl Ernst von Baer, mitgetheilt von ihm selbst*, SPB, 1886). Baer, who was an Esthonian German, was at the Ritter-und Domschule of Reval from 1807-1810, and at the University of Dorpat from 1810-1814. Very valuable information, especially as to the course of events in the eighties and nineties, is to be found in an address entitled "Some data and considerations as to the progress of the Russian Language at the University of Dorpat in the Nineteenth Century" (*Neskolko dannykh i soobrazhenii ob uspekakh russkago iazyka v Iurievskom (b. Derptskom) Universitetie v istekaiustchem stoletie*. Dorpat, 1889). The following works are also useful: *Fünfzig Jahre russischer Verwaltung in den baltischen Provinzen* (Leipzig, 1883), written from the standpoint of the Baltic gentry, and containing among other things a good account of the rise and progress of the young Lettish movement: *Reise im Europäischen Russland in dem Jahren 1840 und 1841*, by Professor J. H. Blasius (Brunswick, 1844); *Nordische Bilder*, by Eduard Osenbrüggen (Leipzig, 1853); *Zustände und Eigentümlichkeiten der baltischen Provinzen Russlands* (Bautzen, 1865); *Sbornik Materialov i Statei po istorii Pribaltiiskago kraia* (SPB, 1876). The pro-German view of the changes of the eighties and nineties is represented by a great number of brochures, of which the most important from the standpoint of educational history is *Ein verlassener Bruderstamm* by "Balter" (Berlin, 1889).

II. Bibliography of Present Organisation.

For the study of the existing organisation of Russian education an enormous mass of material exists, much of which can only be described here in general terms. The most convenient of the

general sources of information is the article on Education which forms the first chapter of Section VII. of M. V. I. Kovalevski's book prepared for the Paris Exhibition, "Russia at the end of the Nineteenth Century" (*Rossia v kontse deviatnadsatogo Veka*, SPB, 1900). The information contained in this work may be supplemented from other special brochures written for the same occasion, among which we may mention particularly *Aperçu de l'Enseignement Supérieur en Russie*; *Aperçu sur l'Instruction Médicale des Femmes en Russie*; *Les Cours d'Études Supérieures pour Femmes en Russie*; and other pamphlets in French and Russian dealing with university and higher education. The Ministry of Public Instruction publishes from time to time a detailed account of the various educational institutions under its control, under the title of *Uchebnyia Zavedeniia Vedomstva Ministerstva Narodnago Prosvestcheniia* which is useful for statistical purposes. As far as primary education is concerned, however, the official "Statistics of Primary Education" (*Statisticheskiia Svedeniia po nachalnomu obrazovaniiu v Rossiiskoi Imperii, Dannnyi 1898 goda*) is the most important source of information available. The second and succeeding chapters of Falbork and Charnoluski's book (mentioned above) on "Popular Education in Russia" are full of instructive matter. Much information as to all grades of education may be obtained from M. E. Kovalevski's account of the Educational Section of the Nizhni Novgorod Exhibition of 1896 (*Narodnoe Obrazovanie na Vserossiiskoi Vystavke v N-Novgorode*, SPB, 1897). Two non-official books of reference are indispensable for the study of primary education, viz.: Falbork and Charnoluski's *Nastolnaia Kniga po Narodnomu Obrazovaniiu* (2 vols., SPB, 1901); and A. S. Prugavin's *Zakony i Spravochnyiia Svedeniia po Nachalnomu Narodnomu Obrazovaniiu*, SPB, 1898).

For technical instruction of all kinds and grades, the main authority is the official publication of the Ministry of Public Instruction, *Sbornik Materialov po Tekhnicheskomu i Professionalnomu Obrazovaniiu* (8 vols., SPB. 1895-1897). With these should be mentioned the important work of M. I. A. Anopov, viz.: his "Survey of the Materials for the study of the present condition of technical instruction in Russia" (*Opyt sistema-ticheskago obozreniia materialov k izucheniiu sovremennago sostoiianiia sredniago i nizshago tekhnicheskago i remeslennago obrazovaniia v Rossii*, SPB, 1889); and two shorter brochures on higher and secondary technical educational by the same author, entitled respectively, *Po Voprosu o merakh k naibolee bystromu, s naimenshimi zatratami, rasprostraneniui v nashem otechestvie vysshago spetsialnago obrazovaniia* (SPB, 1897); and *Po Voprosu o Srednei Obscheobrazovatelnoi Shkolé* (SPB, 1900). The English reader will find a useful account of the Secondary and Lower Technical Schools of the Ministry of Public Instruction in No. 162 of the Foreign Office "Reports on Subjects of General and Commercial Interest." Information as to agricultural schools and colleges may be obtained from the official publications of the Ministry of Agriculture and Imperial

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Domains, especially from the series entitled *Sbornik Svedenií po Selskokhozaistvennomu Obrazovaníu*.

The principal source of information on the Commercial Schools under the Ministry of Finance is the series of official publication of the Educational Section of that Ministry issued under the title of *Materialy po Kommercheskomu Obrazovaníu* (4 vols., SPB, 1901-1905). Very useful also is the Report of the Fourth, or Commercial Education, Section of the Third Congress on Technical and Professional Instruction in Russia (2 parts, Moscow, 1904). Valuable details concerning the Moscow schools and classes are contained in the annual reports of the Moscow Society for the Spread of Commercial Instruction.

statutory
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Details of the external organisation of the various educational institutions of Russia must be sought in the individual statutes by which they are governed. These are in all cases separately issued, but in the case of the schools and colleges under the Ministry of Public Instruction they may also be found in the *Sbornik Postanovleníi*, or in the special official publications on Technical Education which have just been mentioned. Information as to the scope and nature of the instruction given in each institution is contained in their official programs of studies. The nature of these programs may be judged, in the case of the secondary and primary schools, from the extracts given in the appendices to Chapter II. of this Report. Corresponding information as regards the universities may be obtained from the *Obozreníia Prepodavaniia Nauk* which are published annually for each university, and from the faculty programs. The regulations for such matters as the award of bursaries, examinations, the counting of terms, etc., and the disciplinary rules laid down for students are contained in a separate publication, entitled *Pravila dlia Studentov i Storonnikh Slushatelei Imp. Rossiiskikh Universitetov*. Much information as to the inner life of various educational institutions may be derived from their official hand-books (*Pamiatnyia Knizhki*) and reports, and the journals of their councils; also from the reports of committees of literacy, or of societies maintaining schools, assisting needy scholars, organising school-colonies, and the like. The reports of proceedings on anniversary days (*godichnye Akty*) of universities, academies, and schools, are also frequently useful. Details of the work done by educational institutions of all kinds, and of their actual condition are given in the Reports of the Minister of Public Instruction, the High Procurator of the Holy Synod, the Curators of Educational Districts,* and the Provincial Governors. As far as the primary schools are concerned, the reports of the standing committees of school management acting under the municipalities and zemstvos are sometimes of great interest and value. A general

* The reports of the Caucasus District, which for over twenty years enjoyed the advantage of the enlightened guidance of M. Cyril Yanovski as Curator, deserve special mention. A concise account of this District under M. Yanovski's Curatorship is given by District Inspector Schönherr in his "*Recueil de Données Statistiques sur les établissements d'instruction publique de l'Arrondissement Scolaire du Caucase pour une période de vingt ans, 1878-1898.*" (Tiflis, 1899).

review of the educational work of the zemstvos appears annually in the *Russkaia Shkola* from the pen of Mr. Belokonski. The reports of Eparchial School Councils may be consulted for information as to the progress of the Church parochial schools.

A few books may here be mentioned which deal with special aspects of popular instruction in Russia. The Sunday School movement is described by Mr. Ia. V. Abramov in "Our Sunday Schools, their past history and present position" (*Nashi Voskresnyia Shkoly, ikh proshloe i nastoiashchee*, SPB, 1900). A "Chronicle of Sunday Schools" appears regularly in the *Russkaia Shkola* under the supervision of Mesdames Alchevskaia and Soltykova; and the last named lady issued in 1900 a résumé in French of these articles for the Paris Exhibition, under the title of "*Chronique des Écoles du Dimanche.*" Agencies auxiliary to the primary school (village libraries, book-stores, Sunday schools, and recapitulatory classes) are described by Mr. V. P. Vakhterov in his *Vneshkolnoe Obrazovanie Naroda* (Moscow, 1896); and similar subjects are also treated in Mr. A. S. Prugavin's *Zaprosy Naroda i Obiazannosti Intelligentsii v oblasti prosvestcheniia i vospitaniia* (SPB, 1895), and also in a collection of articles published at Moscow in 1902, under the title of *Vseobshchee Obrazovanie: Sbornik Statei*. Public readings form the subject of a special article, entitled *Narodnyia Chteniia*, in Brockhaus and Ephron's Encyclopædia, vol. 40, pp. 594 ff. For the problems involved in the education of the non-Russian population the reader may consult an official collection of papers published at St. Petersburg in 1869 under the title of *Sbornik Dokumentov i Statei po Voprosu ob Obrazovanii Inostrantsev*; the letters of Ilminski to Pobedonostsev (*Pisma Nikolaia Ivanovicha Ilminskago*, Kazan, 1898); and also one of the Paris Exhibition brochures, published under the title of "*Quelques Renseignements sur l'Instruction des Indigènes de la Russie Orientale*" (SPB, 1900) by Mr. Bobrovnikov, Director of the Kazan Training School.

III. Bibliography of Current Educational Questions.

The present day problems of Russian education, to which the last three chapters of this report are devoted, must be studied for the most part with the assistance of articles appearing in the current periodical press. Questions of both primary and secondary instruction are well treated in the two pedagogical monthlies, the *Russkaia Shkola* and the *Vestnik Vospitaniia*, the former of which is published at St. Petersburg, and the latter at Moscow. The primary schools under the Ministry of Public Instruction have their own organ in the *Russkii Nachalnyi Uchitel* (The Russian Primary Teacher), edited by Mr. V. V. Latyshev, Director of Primary Schools. The interests of the Church schools are represented by the *Narodnoe Obrazovanie*, published by the press of the Holy Synod. The larger aspects of educational politics frequently form the subject of articles in the ordinary newspapers and magazines. It is in the general periodical press that the more important articles dealing with university

questions are published. We may here note a few of recent date which have been largely used in the writing of Chapter V of this report. *Russkaia Mysl*, April, 1897, "Universitet i Studenchestvo" by Prince S. N. Trubetskoi; *ibid.*, Feb. 1898, "Universitet i sredne-obrazovatelnaia shkola"; *Vestnik Evropy*, Oct., 1901 "Uchebnoe delo v nashikh Universitetakh" by Professor Paul Vinogradoff; *Pravo*, articles on the universities by R. K. Arsenov in No. 9, and by R. Mikhalevich in Nos. 42 and 43 of the volume for 1899. M. Giliarov-Platonov's "University Question" (*Universitetskii Vopros*, 1903) treats the subject from the conservative point of view.

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M. Cyril Yanovski's "Thoughts on Education and Teaching" (*Mysli o Vospitanii i Obuchenii*, SPB, 1900) deals with problems of education of every grade in a practical spirit born of long experience in educational work. Professor Skvortsov's "Intrinsic Weaknesses in our Educational System" (*Nedugi nashego uchebnago dela*, Moscow, 1896), also surveys the whole field of education, university, secondary and primary. There is much suggestive matter, especially in relation to university and secondary education, in M. Rozanov's Essays entitled, "The Twilight of Enlightenment" (*Sumerki Prosvetcheniia*, SPB, 1899). The transactions of the Moscow Pedagogical Society, now annually published under the title of *Voprosy Obrazovaniia i Obuchenii*, are invaluable for the study of current pedagogical questions, particularly those affecting the primary and secondary schools. The general attitude of this Society towards the existing organisation of secondary instruction is one of criticism, especially with regard to the place assigned to classical teaching in the gymnasia. The conservative view of the latter question is stated by Count Kapnist in his "Classicism as the necessary basis of instruction in the gymnasium" (*Klassitsizm kak neobkhodimaa osnova gimnazicheskago obrazovaniia*, Moscow, 1891). The ideals of the Church party in primary education may be best gathered from M. S. A. Rachinski's "Rural School" (*Selskaia Shkola*, 3rd ed., SPB, 1898), with which should also be read Chapters 6 and 10 of M. Podedonostsev's *Moskovskii Sbornik* (4th ed., Moscow, 1897). Another book treating on the same question is that of Protoierei Peter Smirnov, entitled "The Church Parochial School: its decay in Western Europe and its importance for Russia" (*Tserkovno-Prikhodskaia Shkola: Upadok cia na zapade Evropy i znachenie dlia Rossii*, 5th ed., SPB, 1894). The question of the provision of universal instruction for the people is very fully dealt with in M. V. P. Vakhterov's *Vseobstchee Obuchenie* (Moscow, 1897), as well as in the collection of articles referred to on the preceding page (*Vseobstchee Obrazovanie*, Moscow, 1902).

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