

FOURTEEN EXPERIMENTS IN RURAL EDUCATION

Some Indian Schools where new methods are being tested

DESCRIBED BY VARIOUS WRITERS

AND

EDITED BY

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ASSOCIATION PRESS
(Y.M.C.A.)

5 RUSSELL STREET, CALCUTTA

1928

FOURTEEN EXPERIMENTS
IN
RURAL EDUCATION

VILLAGE SCHOOLS IN INDIA

An Investigation with Suggestions.
By Mason Olcott, Ph.D. Paper,
Re. 1-8 ; Cloth, Rs. 2.

HOW WE LEARN

Psychological Basis of the Project
Method. Talks delivered by William
J. Kilpatrick, Ph.D., LL.D., Head of
the Department of Philosophy of
Education, Teachers' College, New
York, before the Vellore Education
Conference, December, 1926. Price,
about Re. 1.

ASSOCIATION PRESS,
5. RUSSELL STREET, CALCUTTA



SHAPING THEIR FUTURE WITH SAW AND PLANE

FOREWORD

THIS book is presented by the National Christian Council as a sequel to the two books, *Village Education in India* and *Schools With a Message*, which were published, the former by the Commission on Village Education and the latter by Dr. D. J. Fleming, in 1920 and 1921, respectively. The present volume may be regarded as first-fruits of the harvest whose seed was sown during the visit of the Commission. Those who compare the first book with the last will realise that appreciable progress has been made in the seven years that have elapsed, and will look forward with hope and expectation to the development which the next seven years may show.

Emphasis should be laid upon the *experimental* nature of the present volume. Of the schools that are described only a very few have behind them a record of actual achievement. It has been the purpose of the Editor to avoid, as far as possible, the ground covered in *Schools With a Message*; only two institutions described in the former book have been included in this, and these two were chosen because of their development along certain specialised lines.

The motive for publishing this book has been the idea of furnishing a clearing house where a number of experiments can be brought together and viewed in the very process of the making. Many of us believe that a process is of greater interest than a finished product—that a voyage of discovery is worth more to mankind than a safe harbour. Those who are themselves experimenting may, through these records, learn from both the successes and mistakes

of fellow-experimenters. Those who are still 'sitting among the sheepfolds' may perhaps be stimulated to dissatisfaction with the present, and may be induced to join the company of seekers and adventurers. If so, it will be good for the future of India's villages.

The 'Fourteen Experiments' here described make no claim to being the only, or even the best, examples of the new type of education. They are chosen as typical samples of what is being attempted in many out-of-the-way corners of India.

Perhaps it may not be amiss once again to call attention to the truth, so clearly stated by Dr. Fleming on pp. 9 and 10 of *Village Education*—the fact that the somewhat technical forms of education dealt with in the following pages are not a thing apart from the Christian message; that they are, on the other hand, the very expression of the Spirit of Him who came 'that they might have life more abundantly.'

The Editor wishes to express thanks to all those whose contributions have made possible the publication of this book.

A.B.V.D.

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INTRODUCTION

I

IN the matter of educational thinking the big advance made in India in this decade is in the attitude. Less than ten years ago, there was nowhere in India any thought that there could be more than one system of education—the one with which Britain had familiarised Indians for a century. Today, in educational circles, the idea is coming more and more to prevail that there *may* be more than one system of education even in the same country, and that every such system could still be education on the strictest criteria available.

This change of attitude is due to several causes, not the least effective of which is the shrinkage of the world, specially in the plane of culture. To the bulk of English-educated Indians even to this day, there is really one country outside India, and that is Britain. But to a continually growing number of people other countries have also a claim on the attention. The magnificent way in which the American negro has educated himself upward from less than nothing to a place in the sun, and the spontaneous blossoming of 'folk-schools' here, there and everywhere in Denmark, whereby an agricultural population little endowed with natural advantages is fighting a winning battle in the relentless competition of the Western world—these have been especially challenging to India. Even before that, the way in which Japan and, later, China have been attempting to make up for arrears of centuries has been of particularly suggestive value to the similarly situated Oriental people in this land; so also, to the few who had access to such information, the experiment which America was making in the Philippines. In more recent times, thanks to American munificence, the elaborate study bestowed on African peoples with a view to meeting their

educational needs has not been lost upon Indian educationists.

Moreover, the courageous lead which Dr. Monroe and his colleagues in Columbia are constantly giving to educational theory has been a stimulus which refuses to be ignored. And 'Teachers' College, Columbia,' could not be, except for the many kinds of original experiments which are being constantly made, in America first and the world over, conservative Britain not excepted. The fact of Columbia is in itself a final seal and credential of the value of experimentation in the great enterprise of education.

Nearer home, in India itself, the seeds sown by the Alec Fraser Commission of 1920 have been slowly germinating. Already when that Commission was studying the problem, there were in India certain schools which did have a new message; and they were duly chronicled¹ by the data expert of the Commission, Prof. D. J. Fleming. These were very few and very far between in wide India. The Commission, taking courage in both hands, attempted in its report to state that rural India needed a kind of education different from what prevailed, that it should be based possibly on such and such principles, and that it would involve certain specified changes in the educational policy and programme of the country. The report was received with appropriate caution by the educational mandarins of the country. But there was one among them who was courageous enough to imagine that the idea might be given a fair trial before it was entirely rejected. With characteristic enthusiasm he went to work, first to equip himself for the experiment by personally studying the secrets of the success in the uplift of the negro. There he made certain discoveries for which he sought the scientific bases in Columbia, so that the secrets which worked miracles in the negro might possibly be adapted to the same ends in the totally different material which inhabited the Punjab. The new chapter in the school at Moga was the result, and William McKee was soon in requisition in many parts of India, where men and women were wistfully

¹ *Schools With a Message in India*, by Prof. D. J. Fleming. Oxford University Press. Rs. 2-10.

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looking for some kind of help out of a traditional type of education which they felt was little more than a blind alley into which the village youth were beguiled. By the time the experiment of Mr. McKee at Moga was getting its reliant strides, the war-conditions having receded well into the past, the National Christian Council was thoroughly organised, with a full-time staff devoted to the dissemination of just such experimental results which carried reasonable promise of urgently needed reform. The missions in India cannot be too thankful to the faith and perseverance of the staff of the N.C.C. in keeping 'Moga' constantly before public attention; in encouraging every departure derived from the first inspiration of 'Moga'; in securing for all such experiments some measure of continuity—which itself implies a degree of moral sustenance little known to those who prefer to bask perpetually in the sunshine of safety. And so 'Moga' is becoming a 'movement.'

'Moga' stands for certain definite things. It is primarily 'teachers' training.' It is essentially 'project method.' It is necessarily 'practical,' and even, if you like, 'vocational.' All these it is. But the promise of the Moga movement to India is in that it stands for an *attitude*, the *faith* that there is a type of education for the rural population of my own section of India which can unfailingly lead to something that is really useful, beautiful and true in the very conditions of my own rural area. The experiments recounted in this book are all in consequence of such a faith.

II

And so, through various reasons, we have arrived even in India at a 'creative' attitude. It is seven years since the Fraser Commission Report was published. Taking the country as a whole, the result is not to be despised. In the next septennium the results could begin to be commensurate, provided certain things are not forgotten.

The Indian community is still profoundly convinced that nothing can be to their good other than what leads to the university. The unemployment situation has, however, already reached a tragic magnitude and is bound hereafter

to undermine this mistaken valuation in the public mind. The time is just appropriate to offer an alternative, which can be recognised without very much difficulty as 'at least a possible alternative,' to offer it with courage and without compromise, and to persevere in it throughout the first thankless years of suspicion. Long-established public opinion does not change overnight. It is doubtful if it does change very much in a whole generation. It is, therefore, the responsibility of those who are vested with funds and personnel and authority, like the Mission Councils in the country, to persevere in thoroughness with schemes which, in their judgment, are what is really helpful for the community in this generation. Democracy is certainly great. Good government is not the same as self-government. But education, up to a point at all events, like engineering or banking, is the responsibility of the expert. If the bridge is to stand the mail-train when floods are thundering through below, it cannot be built in accordance with the majority decisions of a church council elected on a democratic franchise!

Nor is it enough merely to provide *an* alternative. So long as there is the possibility of getting an education which looks toward the university, so long will the false lure be too compelling. The number of young lives already stranded and wasted is far too large to contemplate with peace of mind. The process has got to stop without delay. We have no right to place before ingenuous people, along with what we know to be substance, also what we are perfectly aware is fair in exterior but a hollow vacuum in the interior. It is not enough to say, 'But *they* must decide.' It is well known they cannot. They were never consulted when the university system was devised. The real reason is not that we are considerate, but that we are afraid.

I am no enemy of university education. Nor do I advocate that only those who can afford should find their way to university education. The country would be ruined if it were not made possible for merit to overcome the handicap of poverty when it seeks earnestly for the highest cultural education available in the country. On the other hand, there can be no ruinous thing to equal the untold

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wastage of precious human material when there is available to 320 million people no real alternative to an education which is designed only to lead to the university.

Have we convictions on the matter? If we have any, that constitutes a responsibility of the first degree which can be met by nothing short of a drastic decision in regard to our service to rural India: (a) to offer no longer anything but a renovated type of education to the Indian village, and (b) to train all new teachers for nothing other than that type of education. To offer the renovated type only as an alternative is, in the present stage, to ask deliberately for failure. To transform the present plant and personnel and fit them for what we have in mind is in itself a gigantic task. All the energy and finance available for elementary education will need to be husbanded in a single-minded enterprise with such an objective. The process is bound to be, even in the best conditions, extremely slow; but there will be nothing to be deemed progress unless the objective is very definitely, and even relentlessly, pursued. Creative evolution is never possible except with a certain large measure of the response of the material in the core of which the impulse for it is implanted; it is the willing response of public opinion that we are to purchase, while the odds of conservatism and the lure of the tawdry are set against us in much strength and vigour.

III

Another point which needs to be realised is that this new rural education, however promising it may seem, will fail miserably of its purpose, even like the one which it displaces, unless it includes very definite attention to the adult. The Alec Fraser Commission wanted the 'Moga' which it hypothesised to be a Community Middle school. The 'Moga' which has so far arrived, in none of its diverse manifestations, has as yet built itself on this basis as its indispensable scope. I rely on my personal experiences, as a rural worker for over a dozen years, when I forecast that success will remain only with those experiments which develop this as an essential feature. Other countries

may rely on the young for the education of the nation ; not so India. The population is so immense, the rate of its progress is on such a scale, the number of things to be learnt is so infinite, the necessity of learning them is so tremendously urgent, the cost of education even in the simplest and humblest style is of such enormous proportions, that the education of India can never be brought within manageable grasp unless we have a scheme of education which is indispensably inclusive of attention to the adult.

Here again we are now nearing light. Demonstration trains are now running in two provinces. Madras is starting demonstration lorries. The ' Department of Education ' has nothing to do with any of these. Curiously enough, such an idea has not yet arisen. In the countries where these methods have had time to develop, they are considered a legitimate, and even an indispensable, line of the regular educational programme of the country. We will be there before long.

In many of the 750,000 villages of India the humble teacher is the one literate person. With proper guidance, his life could be lifted from being the humdrum monotony of a daily grind over a never-varying routine, and made the happy channel for conveying many forms of light and life to all and sundry in the whole village. Not that a rural teacher can possibly dream of being an encyclopædia of knowledge, even ' rural ' knowledge ; but every teacher can be the point of contact between the hungry village and the rich stores of knowledge and practical assistance wherever that may be. As it is, it is not unknown that the rural teacher uses his advantages to questionable purposes, such as ' petition writing ' and law-touting. It is also, fortunately, well known that where a rural co-operative society has a good teacher as its secretary, it succeeds very steadily. In Christian Missions the teacher-catechist system is a well-recognised one. The time is ripe to demolish entirely the idea that the school in the village is only for the young ; to make the teacher, while yet in his Normal classes, realise that it is not a ' school ' to which he is going, but to a centre of light and leading ; to train him

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definitely to become the servant of the whole village in that way, and to bring him therefore into intimate touch with the 'public utility services,' such as Health, Co-operation, Agriculture and Industry, whose district and taluq officers he will have to assist and invoke when his own responsibilities begin.

IV

And so let us not despise the day of small things whose chronicle is presented in these pages. Let us look beneath and discern the current which has begun to set in no uncertain direction. Let us honour the courage of those who would hazard on adventure before the day when their enterprise is yet the vogue. Let us throw into their scale all the weight of our moral influence—charitable in the judgment of their failures, constructive in our criticism, generous in our assistance. The day is not long when the danger will be because this movement becomes all too fashionable. Today it is well that those who are pledged to the 'education' of India are called upon to place themselves very really in the position of the child of the Indian village, with all that it means, to think hard, to experiment with patient perseverance, to be humble and pray very much. It is not bad for Christian education—and, for that matter, for the whole Christian enterprise in India—to find itself from time to time under such necessity.

The Thottam, Salem.

K. T. PAUL.

22nd January, 1928.

PART I

BOYS' SCHOOLS BASED ON THE PROJECT METHOD

1. THE TRAINING SCHOOL FOR VILLAGE TEACHERS,
MOGA, PUNJAB.
2. USHAGRAM, 'THE VILLAGE OF THE NEW DAY,'
ASANSOL.
3. EXPERIMENTS IN RURAL EDUCATIONAL WORK AT
DHAMTARI, C.P.
4. ST. BARNABAS' SCHOOL, MANMAD.
5. AIMS AND ACTIVITIES OF THE VOCATIONAL TRAINING
SCHOOL, ANKLESHWAR.
6. INGRAHAM INSTITUTE, GHAZIABAD.
7. COMMUNITY MIDDLE SCHOOL, CHAPRA.
8. SOME EFFORTS AT VOCATIONAL TRAINING, SANGLI.

NOTE ON PART I

THE eight schools described in Part I have certain common features. All are middle schools for boys; all, to a greater or less degree, make use of the 'Project Method'; all without exception stress work with the hands as of equal importance with a so-called 'literary' education. Because of these similarities a certain amount of sameness and repetition will be found in the various accounts. It may be asked, 'Why tell the same story so many times over?'

A careful reading will give its own answer to the question. There are differences as well as likenesses—differences which justify repetition of the same theme in various settings.

1. THE TYPE OF SCHOOL

Manmad, Chapra and Asansol are Community Middle Schools with no other institutions attached. Moga, Ankleshwar and Dhamtari have Training Sections closely connected with the schools. Ghaziabad has included in the same institution, and on the same plan, its Theological School. The schools so far mentioned are 'literary' schools which have developed the vocational side; Sangli is a vocational school which has developed a 'literary' side. It is interesting to see how nearly the resulting types converge.

2. GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION

The schools selected represent most of the greater areas of India. They are divided as follows:

The Punjab	Moga
United Provinces	Ghaziabad
Central Provinces	Dhamtari
Bengal	Chapra, Asansol
Gujerat	Ankleshwar
Maharashtra	Manmad, Sangli

This geographical distribution shows that the new type of education is adapting itself to various parts of the Indian Empire, and is becoming acclimated therein.

3. INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

This pedagogical term may be allowed to indicate the individuality of institutions as well as of persons—an individuality which will come out through the study of the descriptions that follow.

Thus Moga, as the pioneer of the Project Method, emphasises the underlying principles of this type of education, and gives interesting examples of projects, chiefly agricultural. Ushagram presents us with a picture of the 'cottage system'; still better, of a group of boys creating a model village and living under the laws of ordinary village organisation. Dhamtari emphasises the need of a preliminary survey of rural conditions. Manmad has worked out a balanced curriculum of varied pre-vocational activities, followed by a careful process of selection. Ghaziabad and Ankleshwar stress the change among students from the *ma-bap* attitude of dependence to one of sturdy self-reliance.

Each school has met its own situation and has its own tale to tell of problems, not all solved, but at least being faced.

THE TRAINING SCHOOL FOR VILLAGE
TEACHERS, MOGA

'WHAT is this "Moga" that I hear so much about? Do you really teach there by the project method?'

'Perhaps I'd better say "No" to that question, until I find out what you mean by the project method.'

'Well, they throw over the curriculum and they build a playhouse in the first class, and study the village farm in the second class, and the village in the third class, and so on. I've heard they build a wonderful mountain of rocks and dirt right in their schoolroom in the fifth class, and have a river running down it, and study about lumbering. And they get all their school studies in under these topics. It's sort of a scheme of correlation, I think.'

'I see. Well, if that's what you mean by the project method—a fixed curriculum of projects, with a topic for each class, with which all the subjects of study are correlated—I shall have to say we don't have the project method at Moga. Much that is called project method is just as formal and mechanical as the kind of curriculum and method we are trying to get away from.'

'Well, what does Moga stand for, anyway? It certainly has the reputation of being the school where the project method is taught.'

'Suppose we don't use the word at all. Have you read Dr. Kilpatrick's book, *Foundations of Method*?—and his new one just out, *Education for a Changing Civilisation*?'

'No. I'll try to get them.'

'At Moga we are just trying, in a very humble way, to teach and to manage in the light of the principles of better teaching explained in those books. We don't always succeed, of course, but we are trying to follow the light as well as we can under the circumstances. But you must not think of Moga as the only school in India that does

this. There are an increasing number of schools where the new point of view is accepted and followed. You can read about them in the *Village Teachers' Journal*. Some of them, *we* think, are doing better than Moga. To tell the truth, Moga is not at all a remarkable school. Its chief value, as a demonstration of these principles, is to show what can be done in spite of handicaps. If the principles are practicable at Moga, they can work anywhere.'

'What sort of a school is it?'

'A boarding school for village Christian boys. It has about 150 pupils, roughly, 60 in the Primary classes, 60 in the Middle school, and a Normal class limited to 25 students. I'll tell you about the Normal class later. The rest of the pupils are all poor village boys, mainly sons of recent mass-movement converts from the depressed classes. Comparatively few of the pupils are sons of village pastors or teachers. The school is under the control of a joint board of the Ludhiana and Lahore Presbyteries of the United Church of India (North) and the Punjab Mission of the Presbyterian Church in the U.S.A.'

'What do you mean by handicaps?'

'There is very little desire for education in the class from which these boys come. Their background is a handicap. More serious still is the spirit of dependence in which they are bred. All of our boarding schools for village Christians have been compelled to give free tuition, free board and free clothing. We are trying in most of them now to make some start toward self-support, but it is up-hill work.'

'The spirit of dependence seems to me one of the greatest obstacles to success in all Christian schools. Not only is there the financial dependence, but there is a lack of independence in thinking and action. Our aim in these boarding schools is to train leaders, yet so few in school develop the qualities of leadership. Even the teachers lack initiative, and it is almost impossible to get them to assume responsibility.'

'If we acknowledge this to be true, then why do we go on fostering this intellectual dependence in our schools? For we do foster it by our very methods of instruction.'

VILLAGE TEACHERS' TRAINING SCHOOL, MOGA 7

'Systematic chapel talks, or a course of moral instruction, ought to help.'

'They would, if children could learn through being told. But, of course, learning doesn't come that way. Thorndike said, in his essay on *Initiative and Originality*, "No child becomes independent merely by being told to think for himself, or original merely by being ordered not to be a copy-cat. If every one of the half million teachers of our country should tomorrow, and every day thereafter for a decade, order, 'Be more independent, self-reliant and original than you have been,' these billions of commands would, in and of themselves, do nothing to attain their object.'"

'Then what hope is there of teaching these desirable qualities?'

'Only by giving pupils opportunity to practise them. At Moga we have broken away from the traditional methods of teaching, just because these methods train pupils to memorise and not to think for themselves; they teach pupils to accept the statements of others, and not to question and find out for themselves; they encourage pupils to lean upon others, and not to be self-reliant. We teach them responsibility by putting responsibility upon them. We train them in judgment by giving them many opportunities of choice. Moreover, we teach them to read intelligently by giving them many opportunities for reading. We teach them practical arithmetic by introducing situations into the schoolroom which require the use of arithmetic. The principle of learning by doing controls our classroom work, and rules also in the life of the school.'

'Is this what you mean by the project method? Please explain it more clearly.'

'We teach, so far as possible, by means of pupil enterprises, chosen and undertaken by groups of pupils or by an entire class, under the guidance of the teacher. These are situations of real life introduced into the classroom. As the pupils plan and carry out their undertaking, they find need for various information and skills, and these they acquire because they will contribute to their purpose.'

'In other words, we endeavour to present the fact to be

learned in a situation that is, as nearly as possible, like a situation in out-of-school life. Dr. Dewey has said, "When a pupil learns by doing he is re-living both mentally and physically some experience which has proved important to the human race; he goes through the same mental processes as those who originally did these things. Because he has done them he knows the value of the result, that is, the fact. A statement, even of facts, does not reveal the value of the fact, or the sense of its truth—of the fact that it is a fact. When children are fed only on book knowledge one 'fact' is as good as another; they have no standard of judgment or belief."

'Take, for example, a boy reading in his text-book that 8 kanals make one ghamao. When he does a problem, he is apt, as every teacher knows, to substitute 4 or 6 for 8. The fact as he read it in the book did not stand for anything that goes on outside the book. It is just one fact of many that he reads and that may or may not stay in his memory. But the Moga boy who calculates the size of his field plot in kanals and ghamaos, and with his class divides a big piece of land into plots, one kanal in size, *knows* that 8 kanals make a ghamao. He would laugh at anybody suggesting that 4 kanals make a ghamao. The difference in the two cases is that the average schoolboy "*has a result without the activity of which it is the result.*" To the Moga boy the fact is the result of an experience.

'Again, a boy, who has tried to memorise a table of weights, may be confused when asked the number of chattaks in half a seer; and not be greatly disturbed by his mistake. But when he and his classmates are running a real shop in the schoolroom, he suffers for his mistake. Tables which are *used* are quickly learned. In the regulation school, the boy who gets six sums out of ten correct is doing passing work in his class. He has learned that the teacher is satisfied with that quality of work. His aim is to please the teacher, and six to nine times right, out of ten, pleases the teacher. But at Moga he quickly learns that if only eight out of ten transactions were correct, the class shop would soon be bankrupt. So the boys set 100 per cent. accuracy as their own standard. They know the



A MOGA PROJECT

The First Primary Class build and furnish a village home.

value of the arithmetic fact. Arithmetic to Moga boys is a real part of their life.'

'Yes, I can see that arithmetic should be taught, so far as possible, through life situations, but I cannot see how you get in the rest of the school subjects.'

'Let us get back to first principles again. We are not so concerned about "getting in" all the formal subject-matter of the traditional curriculum as we are to give the boys what they need in order to live fuller, richer, happier lives. We are not trying to fill them full of information they cannot assimilate, but to supply only that subject-matter which meets a felt need.

'For instance, take the project of the sixth year, or second Middle class. At the beginning of the year the boys started talking, in response to their master's questions concerning their health during vacation, about the health problems of their various villages. Out of this grew a strong desire to learn some simple ways of treating and preventing diseases. The master suggested an investigation of the Government Hospital in the town of Moga. Several visits were made. Committees of the class studied and reported on various aspects of the work of the hospital: the plans of buildings and grounds, costs, drugs used, duties of staff, patients—their diseases and their homes—methods of running the dispensary and of keeping records, etc. They became interested in finding out which were the most common diseases, and the percentage of the total number of patients suffering from each disease. They found a need for geography in locating the homes of patients (many of whom come from distant places for eye treatment from the famous Dr. Mathra Das).

'The class then decided to open a daily dispensary in their own classroom, to give simple remedies and aid to fellow-pupils and the people on the compound. They borrowed some furniture, made other, earned and collected money to buy drugs, studied the sources of drugs, estimated the cost of running their dispensary, learned careful weighing of small quantities, labelled the bottles, made signs and charts and notices and record books. The dispensary is open every day, the first half-hour of school, and is well

patronised. The boys serve in turn by pairs, opening with prayer, and instructing as well as teaching the patients. Much of the subject-matter required in the Government curriculum for this year has been needed in this project, besides a large amount of additional hygiene and practical knowledge. And the boys are so keen and interested and proud of their class that they study the other requirements with a better spirit.'

'Does a pupil enterprise like this go on for the whole year?'

'A few of them do. But there are all sorts of enterprises going on, big and little, short and long, central projects and side-issues; in fact, bits of life in school. One class is writing a history of our school; one class runs a post office; another manages the real shop, in which the vegetables raised in the individual garden plots are sold; another class may be studying cotton; another class may be making soap; still another preparing a Bible drama, or preparing a lecture for the school.'

'Are you subject to the regulations of the Department of Education? I mean, do you follow the Code, are you visited by the inspecting officers, and do you prepare for Government examinations?'

'Yes, the Primary and Middle departments fulfil all the requirements of the Code. We cover the Punjab curriculum, and all the classes are regularly inspected and examined carefully. We prepare for the Vernacular Final examination. On this basis our school has been very successful in covering the formal requirements. About half our pupils at the close of first-year Primary are usually promoted to the third year, and we have a high percentage of passes at the end of the Middle school course. Inspectors are usually impressed with the achievement of the pupils in the formal school subjects.'

'You said a while ago that it was not your aim to fill the pupils full of information. Yet you follow and cover the Government curriculum.'

'At the present stage the Government curriculum is a useful check. We are just an ordinary school, with an ordinary staff, and the usual difficulties. We do not always

live up to our ideals, or succeed in attaining the ends we set ourselves. We do not, by any means, do all the teaching by the project method. Formal and traditional methods are often used. Some teachers fall easily into the old ruts. In the main, however, the greater vitality of the teaching makes the completion of the Government curriculum a fairly easy minimum. But we consider this kind of success a by-product. Our main aim is not the mastery of subject-matter, but the building of self-reliant Christian character.'

'But isn't that the aim of every Christian school?'

'Yes, but most schools seem to fail just where we think we succeed.'

'One thing I cannot understand. How do you get time for all these fads and frills? My experience is that teachers in the Primary classes need to devote most of the time to good solid drill on the three Rs. As for the Middle classes, the required subjects of study are so difficult for the average boy or girl, that they have no time for extras, no matter how desirable they may be. These "pupil enterprises" of yours may be all right in the hands of the skilled teacher, but the average teacher needs to keep pretty strictly to the three Rs. In fact, I think the curriculum of the Primary classes should consist of reading, writing, arithmetic and Bible.'

'We agree with you that reading, writing and arithmetic must be thoroughly taught. These are fundamental skills. Our object must be to help children to acquire these skills and be able to use them. If necessary, let us spend all the time on the three Rs. But have you ever thought how strange it is that teachers who spend so much time on teaching reading seem to accomplish so little? Mr. Michael West, in a study of 551 Bengal children, found that it took them an average of 10 months in school to learn their letters, 12½ months to learn the syllables, 17⁹/₁₀ months to read with difficulty, and 21½ months to read well. In the last few years there have been many scientific investigations made in the West on the quickest way of teaching a child to read. Tens of thousands of experiments have been made, and thousands of teachers

have tried out methods under scientifically controlled conditions. Every step of the reading process has been observed and studied by psychologists. Numerous kinds of psychological apparatus have been invented to help in this study, and some of the greatest educators in the West have pooled their resources that we may know the best way to teach little children to read. The last twenty years have yielded more scientific knowledge on the process of teaching the reading skill than was acquired in the previous two hundred years. There is no school subject in the curriculum about which we know as much as we now do about reading. It would, therefore, be absurd for us to base our reading method upon opinion. We base our reading method on the results of scientific research. We are able to teach children enough skill in reading and writing, so that in five months they can read anything within their comprehension that you write distinctly on the board, and can write any ordinary word you dictate to them. I have heard people who see these children read say it is a miracle. It is nothing of the sort. It is only that we are using what scientific investigation has offered us. Many of our class I pupils go directly into class III after only a year or less in class I. Similarly, in writing and arithmetic we use proven methods. The saving of time is enormous. We have plenty of time for our projects. And the projects, in their turn, supply so much need for the skilful use of the three Rs that pupils have the motive for increasing their skill.'

'Do you introduce these new-fangled notions in Bible teaching too?'

'If you call it new-fangled to obey the injunction, "Be ye doers of the word and not hearers only," we do. We try to get away from an emphasis on memorising to an emphasis on Christian conduct. The teachers have made lists of Christian habits, attitudes and knowledge which they consider desirable for boys to acquire in school, and plan to give their pupils opportunity to acquire these in practical situations. Much religious education is secured through class projects. The religious teaching is not put in a separate compartment, but is the main work of the school.'



MOGA STUDENTS LEARNING VILLAGE INDUSTRIES

The village crafts shown here are : iron work, repairing tools, making beds and other village furniture, carpentry, basket-making, rope-making.

VILLAGE TEACHERS' TRAINING SCHOOL, MOGA 13

Systematic Bible knowledge is sought, but above it is the goal of growth in real religious experience for every pupil.'

'I understand the school teaches agriculture and village industries?'

'These are taught also on a project basis. In the village crafts boys undertake individual enterprises. They learn to make their own clothing and repair native shoes, to repair village houses, make rope-beds and other village furniture, and necessities for the village school. They learn enough iron work to make and repair ordinary village tools. They also learn simple bookbinding.

'Each boy from class V up through the Normal has an individual garden plot, 35 by 35 feet in size, and one-sixth of an acre of farm land. These they cultivate as individual enterprises, paying for seeds and manure, and rent for water and tools. The boys sell their farm produce to the school, and their vegetables are sold in the shop managed by class IV. They receive the net profits in cash. The younger boys work class plots co-operatively, and do general labour on the school fields for regular wages. All payments are made in cash once a month.'

'Why do you pay the boys for raising their own food? Are they allowed to spend the money as they please?'

'They not only receive all the profits of their agricultural work, but also the profits from the articles they make in the village trades. They are paid besides for general labour at regular rates. They receive pay for cooking, cleaning, caring for cattle, running errands, and any work they do for teachers, headmaster or principal. Groups of boys often take work on contract, such as repairing roofs, building walls, filling the silo. The work and leisure hours at the school are full of busy activity. "Over-time" has become a part of the Hindustani vocabulary at Moga.'

'What is your object in paying them for everything? Are you not afraid of spoiling them?'

'Just the opposite. We are teaching them to be self-reliant, by giving them opportunities to practise self-reliance. Every boy, even the littlest fellow, is treated like a responsible individual. They earn and handle money, and they pay their own school fees. The little Primary

boys pay from Re. 1-8 to Rs. 3-8 per month, according to their size and earning capacity, and the Middle and Normal boys pay from Rs. 4 to Rs. 5 per month. Every boy is required to pay a fixed minimum. Industrious boys earn quite a little beyond this. The boys enjoy having spending money which they have earned. Some of them buy some of their own clothing. They give generously to the church and benevolent objects.'

'It sounds very interesting. But it would be very difficult to put in such a self-help scheme in an ordinary school with a small staff. Most of us cannot afford a clerk to keep all these complicated accounts.'

'We have no clerk in the school. Why should these accounts have to be kept by an adult? Don't you see that the keeping of accounts is the most practical kind of arithmetic possible? The teachers use this "life-situation" frequently in class teaching. And one full school day each month, the first, is given over entirely to checking up individual and class accounts.'

'I begin to think that we miss many natural opportunities for teaching in most of our boarding schools.'

'I know I am taking too much of your time, but I should like to give an illustration of how even the out-of-school activities train the pupils to think. Dr. Kilpatrick says, "Pupil enterprises, properly directed, call forth thinking, and they exercise and test it as can nothing else. . . . Thinking is thus woven into the very warp and woof of the pupils' lives and character."

'One of the classes had planted potatoes, and hoped to make a good profit out of them. When they were nearly ready to dig the boys faced a problem. Should they dig the potatoes while small, and get the early high price in the bazaar, or should they wait till they grew bigger, and sell them at the lower price which would then prevail? They asked the principal for orders. But he refused to decide. "This is your problem," he said. "Think it through thoroughly, make your calculations with the help of your arithmetic teacher, and make your own decision." The boys exercised a good deal of real thought upon this problem. They spent fully half a day on it,

sending a committee to the bazaar to investigate prices, digging up a sample section of their garden to estimate the probable yield, and arranging their facts for final decision. The pros and cons seemed about equal, until someone thought to consider the advantage of clearing their plots and getting a new crop planted a month earlier than otherwise. They decided to dig the potatoes. On the sum total of the year's plantings they made a good profit. But the point is, they were not protected from failure. They were given real opportunity for choice. This is teaching through active experience, not teaching through telling. Moga boys are, we hope, learning to "test their thinking by consequences."

'Do the Normal class share in all these experiences? You promised to tell me about them.'

'The Normal class is strictly limited to 25. They come from all over India to learn the special methods we teach here. They are required to enter into all the life of the school, the simple living, manual labour and play. Their training is also based on actual experience. We have a special curriculum, designed to train a rural teacher who will be able to enter fully and helpfully into the life of the rural community. The course of study is based on observation and practice of teaching, all the theory of method being derived from the problems they discover in trying to teach. The Primary department, and various village schools, are used for demonstration and practice teaching.'

'To what do you attribute the success of the school?'

'You get a wrong impression if you think we are wholly successful in living up to our ideals. I cannot very well tell you about the failures in a conversation like this. But there are plenty of them. However, one great help has been the history and traditions of the school. We are fortunate in our founder. The Rev. Ray H. Carter, M.A., who started the school in 1911, and who guided its development, except for an interval of four years, up to his untimely death, a few months ago, was a man of great vision. His purpose was to establish a school to train leadership for the village communities. The upbuilding of

a strong, independent village church was always first in his plans. For this reason he laid steady emphasis upon simplicity of living arrangements, manual labour, self-support, and the development of independence and self-respect. Mr. W. J. McKee, C.E., M.A., was principal of the school from 1920 to 1924. Under his management the school entered upon a new era of development. New educational methods were introduced; the courses in agriculture and village crafts were definitely worked into the curriculum, and normal training established on a new basis, resulting in the production of a new type of teacher and rural worker, which has given Moga its reputation. Mr. McKee's success as an educator was recognised by Government and he was awarded the silver *Kaisar-i-Hind* medal, for his services to rural education, in 1922. Mr. McKee also secured the support and recognition of the Educational Department. The school owes much to the sympathy and interest of the Department.'

'Is the Punjab Department of Education favourable to the educational experiments you are making?'

'Not only favourable, but much interested in the methods and curriculum we are trying to work out. Neither they nor we think of this type of education as limited in its value to the class of pupils we teach at Moga. That is, this is not a method for "poor boys" only. It is the right of every child, of whatever class or status in life, to be given the type of education that will afford the fullest and richest development of his personality. Teachers who follow the formal, traditional curriculum and methods of teaching would do well to ask themselves whether they should not strive to secure greater vitality and interest in school work, more independence and initiative in thinking and self-reliance and willingness to serve. Sanderson, the headmaster of Oundle School, asked, "Is the education for dominance and possession destined to survive? Should not service be the ideal for all schools . . . creativeness and not possession? If so, then account must be taken of this ideal in educational reform."'

IRENE MASON HARPER.

USHAGRAM

(USHĀ = THE DAWN; GRAM = THE VILLAGE)

THE VILLAGE OF THE NEW DAY

USHAGRAM is the application of Christianity to the social life of an Indian village. The atmosphere is one of creative industry. The homes in the village are not separate and distinct entities. Although the group of five boys in a cottage is in a measure self-sufficient, nevertheless the larger interests of the village, such as a general plan of cottage construction and the building of new village enterprises, require the co-operative effort of every member of the village population.

While we do believe in private property rights, the good of the village is placed above the rights of a single individual. Each cottage, while it is the home of a boy, is held in common with other boys. The boys of a cottage have a group bank account in addition to individual accounts. A democratic control of activities is exercised. Each cottage has a head boy. The head boys compose the village council, or panchayat, which selects the headman, or mayor. A system of taxes is worked out by the village. These taxes care for such expenditures as those for coal oil, street lights, sweeping the streets, etc. All the work of the village is done by the boys.

The instructors and the director are considered an integral part of the village life. All members of the village, of course, offer constructive ideas in the forwarding of common interests. The panchayat holds regular meetings, and special meetings on call of the director or headman.

Work by each is essential to the success of all. Productive effort is the note which constantly sounds in the rhythm of the village. Passive resistance to evil can never

equal the constructive development of positive efforts toward defined ends of social benefit.

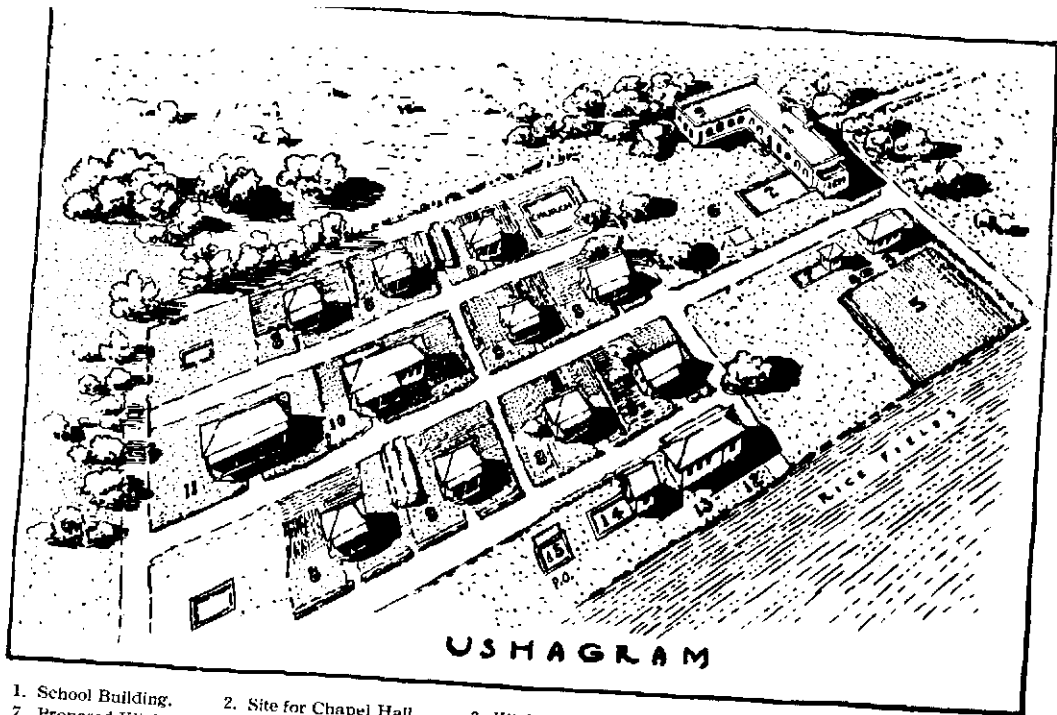
By recognising the need of education to be that of preparing individuals for specific village vocations, we are expecting to fill the places of village leadership long vacant. There is hope that, with competent leaders, the village industries may be brought to a place where men will be able to stay in their home villages and earn a livelihood for their families, instead of joining the army of under-paid and maladjusted, now existent and ever-increasing in the cities of India.

The city draws its life from the village. And while cities—to some extent—seem to be essential in our modern civilisation, the sources from which they draw their population must remain pure. India, with her grouping into villages, can maintain her best life through them.

Ushagram is an Indian village. It is not a transplanted institutional organisation from the West. As fast as our numbers and leadership permit, we are introducing the normal activities of an average Indian village, plus other simple suggestive projects of an experimental nature that have grown out of Western backgrounds. The boys learn by doing.

Simplicity of beginning, we believe, is essential in promoting a successful enterprise. Taking the obviously suitable features of an average village, we expect to have ultimately, after a variety of experiments, a more or less model village from which may be adapted similar centres of reconstructive effort. Radiating out from Ushagram are going, and will go, trained village leaders into strategic surrounding villages. These young men will be kept in touch with any improvements that prove valuable. They will spend time each year in a return course for leaders, which will be held in Ushagram.

The educated leaders of the section are realising the significance of our suggestions and, increasingly, will draw upon Ushagram for young men who, by talent and training, can establish in connection with village schools the type of vocational instruction we are carrying on. Moreover, the surrounding villages see the advantage of procuring trained



USHAGRAM

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|----------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------|----------------|
| 1. School Building. | 2. Site for Chapel Hall. | 3. Kitchen. | 4. Well. | 5. Garden. | 6. Playground. |
| 7. Proposed Kitchen. | 8. Cottages. | 9. Carpenter Shop. | 10. Home of Boarding Master. | | |
| 11. Hospital. | 12. Bank. | 13. Store. | 14. Site for Blacksmith Shop. | 15. Site for Post Office. | |

THE VILLAGE OF THE NEW DAY

carpenters, blacksmiths, compounders, weavers, agriculturists as a co-operative enterprise. While machinery will make a slow and difficult entrance into the villages, better methods of carrying on vocations can very readily be introduced by means of trained Indian directors.

Simplicity and comparative lack of expense are features which are absolutely fundamental so far as the development of the Indian village is concerned. Ushagram is both simple and inexpensive. A bit of land and creative enterprise will build an Ushagram anywhere in India.

Beginning at the bottom level, our cottages in which the boys live are built in a style similar to those from which they come in their home villages. The walls are of mud. More windows than usual are introduced. Thus the subject of proper ventilation is handled practically. A corrugated iron roof points the boys to the near-future possibilities of utilising the results of the industrial development in Bengal. A ceiling of light iron plates, covered with a layer of mud, suggests the thought that the use of straw thatch is not inevitable. Repairs on the cottages made by the boys create in their minds a sense of common ownership and the meaning of social responsibility.

Each boy who is a member of the village has a working period each day, when he gives his service toward improving the cottages or general appearance of the village, and another period when he is paid for specific enterprises suggested by the instructors or director.

Backed by a knowledge of the general motive of co-operative effort, we may consider vocations actually under process of development in Ushagram, at the same time remembering that in every vocation each boy uses his hand and brain. On his own inherent tendencies, and after careful consultation with instructors, the boy chooses his vocation. But during the period while he is making up his mind concerning his life-work he receives and assimilates the connection of his chosen vocation with the other essential vocations of the village. An attempt is made to stimulate whatever creative faculties the boy may possess.

In the manual construction of carpentry the boys at first imitate the work of the instructor in the fashioning of

selected models. Later the boy chooses his own objects of effort. Articles are made which have an intrinsic value in the village. The types of wood are explained, the wood-seasoning process is given a place of prominence. The project in carpentry last year (1926-27) was the construction by the boys of low shelf-desks, such as can be made readily for use in homes, schools or shops. While this was the central project, the boys also worked on the building of window and door frames for their cottages, construction of chicken houses, mending of bullock carts, cutting and placing of rafters on cottages, building of benches and shelves for the workshops, care of tools, etc. The project calls for skill, application, the combined effort of brain and hand, and is productive of tangible results—which may be said of all our projects.

The money which the boys earn is deposited in the Ushagram Bank, an institution organised for the purpose of receiving savings and making loans. The manager and cashier are elected by the panchayat, in co-operation with the director. The bank carries the accounts of the cottage groups as well as those of individual boys. Money earned from poultry, vegetable gardens or other group enterprises is placed in the cottage account. That earned by individuals goes into a personal account. Thus the boy learns to work co-operatively and also to manage his own affairs.

If Ushagram does nothing more than make available a better stock of poultry in this section of India, it may be considered highly successful. The native fowl is so tiny that any appreciable improvement in size and quality is desirable. The boys are learning that there are such hens as Leghorns, Plymouth Rocks, Rhode Island Reds, etc. The care of these flocks is of increasing interest when it is learned that larger eggs command higher prices, better hens produce the larger eggs, and that the keeping of a limited number of hens with a single, well-bred rooster is productive of better-hatched chicks. There is always something about the care of living things that draws out the creative talents of youth. The boys take more interest in cleaning chicken houses, in protecting the chickens from stray dogs and jackals, in keeping the chicken-house doors securely locked

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at night, and the wire fences strung tightly on posts, because of this creative living interest. A careful day-by-day check is kept on the hens, eggs, and cost of supplies.

The grain for the hens is paid for from cottage funds kept in the bank. The feed is actually bought at the village co-operative store, an enterprise under the direct management of the boys. The store started on a capital of fifty rupees, and within the first six months increased its capital to one hundred rupees. The shares are held by the boys and instructors, that is, entirely by members of the village. Books are ordinarily balanced at the end of each three months, and dividends declared at a meeting of the stockholders. At this time, also, the manager and his assistant are retired or re-appointed.

The village supplies which the store carries are purchased in large quantities at reduced rates, and retailed for a trifle less than prevailing prices in the neighbourhood. The food and supplies for the boys are purchased both by and for the boys in the co-operative store.

Thus far the trade of the store has been carried on, entirely within the limits of Ushagram. But our plans call for an expansion to inter-village trade, which will help to increase and promote the position which Ushagram is to assume as an integral part of the surrounding territory. From the little mud-walled *doocan* will radiate an influence similar to that created in the country stores of early American history, where men gathered for an interchange of ideas and mutual helpfulness.

Keeping in mind our aim to create an interchange of articles between villages, the blacksmith shop was started. It is simplicity personified. Here is an iron-roofed verandah, with a floor located at one side of our carpenter shop. A bazaar-made bellows is operated by apprentices in turn. A small coke fire smoulders, beside which crouches the blacksmith, his stock consisting of a few iron bars and some cut steel sections secured from a neighbouring steel mill.

The blacksmith works slowly, that the boys may learn his methods. They follow his methods with eagerness. (Among our day scholars two Brahmin boys asked parti-

cularly to be allowed to work in this primitive shop.) Under his direction, the boys are making the simple tools useful in the vocations of the village. From the group one boy stands out as having a talent for working in iron. He will learn our village aims in the next year or two. Then he will go to an advanced industrial school, and return from there as the Ushagram blacksmith. With a belief in the enterprise from his years of experience, he will inspire other boys in a more intimate way than we, who are visitors from the West, can ever do.

This policy of giving preparatory training to our own village leaders is already begun. A young man who was one of the boys of the school was sent for training to the Jubbulpore Theological Seminary. He returned as the village minister. After careful consideration, he was sent and is now taking a year's course in the compounding of medicine at the Kalna Hospital. On his completion of the course he will be able to contribute to the spiritual, social and physical welfare of the village in an excellent manner.

The weaving project has been directly under the supervision of two of the boys. The frames of the two looms were purchased. All the appurtenances were made by the boys in the carpenter and blacksmith shops. The process of beginning was slow. But the boys learned by doing. The first piece of cloth was turned out, and compared very favourably with bazaar goods. However, the weaving project is an experiment as to the ultimate value of which as a village industry we are uncertain. We are planning to make articles of cloth for which there is a demand in the neighbouring villages and sell them through our cloth shop, which is now operating as a department of the co-operative store. When the cloth shop assumes the larger place in the life of the village which it undoubtedly will, it will be run as a separate project. Since it is a recent venture it is cared for readily enough by the manager of the store.

In arranging the affairs of the village the health of the boys is thoroughly considered. A small mud-walled hospital has been erected, which has thus far been under the supervision of the wife of the director, but which will

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be in the hands of the young man now at Kalna, on his return to Ushagram. A point that should be noted is that, since the boys have been living in mud cottages, illness has been practically unknown, except for an occasional mild case of fever or indigestion. We suspect the services of the village doctor will be required in rendering medical assistance in outlying villages rather than in Ushagram. The boys are given, however, medical and dental examinations, which impress on them the necessity for personal cleanliness and regularity of habit.

As a part of the daily programme two hours at least are spent in directed recreation on a simple, but carefully laid out, playground. Volley-ball and football are played in season with enthusiasm. Trapezes and swings are made available for both older and younger boys. Good sportsmanship, from the give and take of competitive recreation, is teaching the boys to respect the rights of others and to trust those who play with or against them.

The spirit of the recreation ground has become the spirit of the village. Fair play is in evidence. The classroom work (we maintain a standard Middle English school grade) is decidedly better because the boys have worked co-operatively and competitively in their village life. As fast as we secure and train teachers, we are linking the work of the classroom with all the projects of the village. Of course, the school is only one of the activities of the total village life.

The panchayat is responsible for the *morale* of the village. In its council meetings are made the necessary rules for protecting the best interests of all the members of the community. Here the punishments for infractions of rules are decided (and sometimes administered!). Here the policies for better character development are talked over and experiments suggested. In this group the director sits, listens, explains, suggests, learns. The industries and vocations come up for review; new projects are considered, and either adopted or rejected. From this group the director asks advice, particularly for the purpose of awakening the creative interests of the boys.

A side which directly concerns all who live in an Indian

village is that which has to do with agriculture, for upon agriculture, more than any other vocation, is based the welfare of a nation. Under this general heading we have three inter-related, yet distinct, projects.

Our rice farms are divided in such a way as to give each member of the village a plot of ground commensurate with his strength and ability. Selected seed is obtained from the Department of Agriculture. As yet we use the simple wooden plough equipped with a steel point. Each boy sows his own grain, transplants the rice seedlings, weeds the farm carefully, harvests his crop, threshes it, gives a percentage (varying with the year) to the village to be used in providing meals. For only on two days of the week do the boys prepare their own meals. On the remaining days the boys' meals are prepared by the village cook, since cooking takes too much time from vocations which are more valuable to the boys.

The vegetable gardens are group enterprises, each garden being supervised by the five boys in a cottage. In these gardens are grown such vegetables as lady fingers, corn, sag bean, deshi bean, sword bean, lau, masta, curcubit, ground nut, tomato, cauliflower, cabbage, potato, pumpkin, carrot, beet, turnip, radish, pea, etc. The crops are rotated from year to year. On the days when the boys cook their own food, vegetables in season from their gardens are used.

We believe, and are proving, to our own satisfaction at least, that there is an innate love of beauty characteristic of Indian youth. As an aid to its development, and for the enrichment of the present rather meagre cultural experience of the average villager, we have started the boys planting and caring for flower gardens. The pleasure which the boys secure from this addition to their efforts has been well worth the experiment.

With a belief in boys, we are trying by every means to make Ushagram a symbol of the finest possibilities for Indian life. To this end our plans are expanding—still along simple lines—to a more complete development of our project. The village will continue to be founded on advice and experiment.

Beginning with agriculture as basic, with the approval



A STREET IN USHAGRAM VILLAGE

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of the Department of Agriculture we are planning to undertake an irrigation scheme involving the use of a small kerosene engine, which will enable us to grow two, and possibly three, crops a year in the vegetable gardens and rice farms, and will give us flowers the year around. In addition, we will also undertake the raising of more fruit and shade trees in a forestry project. Ushagram will become the agricultural experiment station for this district.

Our poultry runs will be stocked completely with well-bred fowl, as well as ducks, geese, etc. We will supply both eggs and young poultry for hatching and breeding purposes to neighbouring or distant villages.

There will be a constant visiting of other villages, for observational and experimental purposes, by the boys of Ushagram. New methods will be explained and organised for any seeking help in village problems. Ushagram will become a laboratory for experiments in the personal and social problems of village life.

WALTER BROOKS FOLEY.

III

EXPERIMENTS IN RURAL EDUCATION WORK AT DHAMTARI, C.P.

THE American Mennonite Mission, in common with other Missions in all parts of India, had been painfully aware that its rural Primary schools were not functioning, either as agencies for evangelism or in the proper training of its Christian children. Shortly after the Moga Conference in 1922, it was decided to see what could be done to make these schools worth while. One of its missionaries was asked to study methods and objectives at Hampton while in America on furlough, with a view to having the Mission make some arrangement for experimental work with its rural Primary schools.

Five Primary schools were accordingly assigned to one missionary in December, 1924, and a study of existing conditions begun.

VILLAGE SURVEY

As part of this study, a survey of social, economic, religious and educational conditions, in an average village in which one of these schools is located, was undertaken.

In this survey the following findings of pertinent value in moulding rural school policy were obtained :

Economic

1. The daily wage for unskilled labour is three and one-half annas per day.
2. Rice, the main food of all villages, can be bought for an average of eleven pounds per one rupee.
3. The average rate of interest on money and grain loans is 27 per cent.
4. Debts are mostly paid by the foreclosure of mortgages.

AT DHAMTARI, C.P.

5. No debtors in the village have liquidated for five years. Two have taken advantage of the Bankrupt Law.
6. The main causes of indebtedness are poor farming methods, excessive rates of interest, scattered hereditary land holdings, wedding expenditures, lack of enterprise, and ignorance.
7. A grain-loan association has been started in the village, of which the village school headmaster is secretary.
8. A co-operative bank in the village is sponsored by a landlord.
9. Eighty-three per cent. of the time is spent by an average cultivator each year in direct farm work, making possible subsidiary industry by actual farmers and other members of families.
10. Water, nature of soil, and markets make gardening easily profitable, but no market gardening is done.
11. Grazing and stall feeding possibilities for dairy cattle and markets should make grazing profitable, but none is done.
12. One and three-tenths acres of cultivated land are available for feeding each individual of the village population.
13. Blacksmithy and crude weaving are the only subsidiary industries carried on.

Social

1. Population, 714 individuals, with 294 families.
2. In each family an average of $2\frac{1}{4}$ children have died under five years of age. The most frequent cause of death of children is malnutrition.
3. Cohabitation of married children begins at the average age of 14 years.
4. The predominating castes are oilmakers, distillers, aborigines, and purveyors.
5. The average area per individual occupant of houses of these castes is 35 square feet, with no windows and seldom more than one door per house.
6. Out of 294 families, 63 are polygamous.

Religious

1. The entire population, with the exception of two Christian families, is Hindu.
2. Several Hindu images are found in the village.
3. There is a village priest, but no temple.
4. To the average village inhabitant, Hinduism is merely an assurance of social standing, insuring the privilege of marriage and funeral rites, rather than a heart conviction.

Educational

1. The average school life of a boy in the village is $2\frac{1}{2}$ years; and of a girl, $1\frac{1}{2}$ years.
2. In a population of 714 only 46 adults can read and write.
3. Out of 92 boys and girls who have passed the Government examination, completing the four years of the Primary school, 12 were found quite unable to get the meaning of Hindi printed matter, which was as easy as that in the third year of the course.
4. Of pupils who have completed only three years of schooling, only 13 per cent. could be said to be literate three years after leaving.
5. Some school papers are furnished children and adults above the second year, either in or out of school, but these for the most part remain unread, because of lack of interest in reading, fatigue from physical toil at times of leisure, and preference for village gossip at the end of the day.
6. Five families in the village who have gone through the village school refuse to send their own children, because they claim to realise no money value from their education.
7. Of total enrolment, 43 per cent. leave school during or at the end of the first year, 18 per cent. during the second year, 28 per cent. during or at the end of the third year, and 14 per cent. during the fourth year, leaving only 7 per cent. to complete the final year of the school and take the Government examination,

AT DHAMTARI, C.P.

- and of those so appearing 61 per cent. have been successful in a period of eight years.
8. Of children who have passed the Government examination, only six have gone up for Middle school training, and of these six, only one for High school.
 9. Out of 78 children enrolled in school, only 9 were found to have eaten anything since 8 o'clock in the evening of the previous day, and in 92 per cent. of the homes of the village only one meal of hot food is eaten daily.
 10. The Chhattisgarhi dialect is spoken in all homes of the village, and children must learn Hindi in school. This language, so far as conversation is concerned, is very rarely used outside of school hours.
 11. The Government curriculum for Primary schools has sufficient optional practical courses to make it possible to relate the teaching to the present and past life of the pupils, without breaking with the Government course. These courses have, however, seldom been used in the past.

EDUCATIONAL CONDITIONS AND AIMS

From those findings it was decided to experiment along the following lines in trying to improve these Primary rural schools:

1. To attempt to make the schools centres of community uplift.
2. To relate the teaching work of the school to the life of the pupils.
3. To open a Normal school to prepare teachers to conduct schools along the above lines.

Before proceeding with the description of the experiments tried for the three objectives above, the following needs have to be borne in mind as to these schools.

They are four-year Primary schools, with curricula as prescribed by the Education Department of the Central Provinces. They are housed in *pucca* brick buildings, with sufficient light and ventilation, built mostly on the 'L' plan, with verandahs on the inside.

The schools have an average of three teachers, 75 per cent. of whom are Christian, and all headmasters are Government Normal trained. School lasts from 7 a.m. to 12 noon, and an average of three neighbouring villages come to each school. Average attendance is 78 per cent. of enrolment, and each master goes daily to a village assigned him to bring the pupils, in accordance with local custom. The area in which these schools are located is one of the most backward in the Central Provinces.

Requirements, as shown in the curriculum for the final Government's examination, are as follows :

Compulsory Subjects

Arithmetic. Interest on ordinary sums computed by fractions, least common multiple, greatest common divisor, common fractions, decimals to two points, simple land measurements, and *mahajani* (merchant) simple accounts.

Geography. The physical and political divisions of the Central Provinces, with trade centres and routes and lines of communication.

Seasonal air currents and seasons, and their effect on the life of the people.

The same as above for India. In city schools the geography of the world is taught from a globe.

Reading. Through the Fourth Government Reader.

Writing. In a clear hand, dictation from the Fourth Reader.

Optional Subjects (one of which must be taken)

Elementary Drawing. A short course in general knowledge, which includes some hygiene, domestic science, and civics; gardening and manual training.

Children average five years in completing and passing the final examination of this four-year course.

EXPERIMENTS WITH PROJECT

In attempting to relate the life of the pupil to the teaching work in the school, Kilpatrick's Project Method was

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used. This was first tried in the first classes of the five schools. The project used was the building and furnishing of a house. Houses in this part of India are made of mud in mass instead of bricks, and so a new method other than that used with bricks had to be devised.

An Indian adaptation of the English story, 'The House that Jack Built,' was made, in which were incorporated all the Hindi vowels, consonants and conjuncts used in the Government Primer, which was discarded. The master of this class prepared Hindi word flash-cards, with all the words of this story included.

With chalk, a square, five units each way, was drawn on the floor in the corner of the room, far enough from the two walls to allow children to sit comfortably around this outline for a house. Measurements of different children's arms, elbow to finger tip, were secured, and the finding of an average aroused keen interest. Several recitations were spent in talking about houses and how to build and furnish them. The whereabouts of mud, water, straw or grass, wood, tiles, etc., gave opportunity for necessary expression, and to get a few Hindi equivalents for Chhattisgarhi nouns into the minds of the children.

These words once learned were shown on flash-cards, and children were allowed to examine them carefully, and were aided by calling attention to minutiae of construction as compared with other words.

Each side of the house plan was then divided into five sections by vertical lines, and sand strewn on the floor thick enough to allow a child to make the word just learned in the sand with his fingers between the vertical lines. Guidance at the practice brought speedy progress.

A place for a door in one wall of the house was chosen and the chalk line erased, and the need of a door and how to make a frame for one were discussed at length. How to mix the necessary mud for building a wall was again discussed, and at the next recitation the time was spent by the whole class, with shirts removed and *dhoties* well tied up, digging up earth, carrying water, gathering dry grass, and mixing all into a proper mixture for wall building at the next recitation.

The making of words in sand was again undertaken at the next recitation, and as soon as a boy had learned his word he was allowed, as a reward, to go to the pile of prepared mud and bring a lump and build up the section of wall corresponding to the word he had just made.

A pail of clean water with a towel is provided, for cleaning hands and feet after each handling of mud. New words are undertaken to make the first short sentence of five words, and the motivation accomplished by this method has proved stimulating to both perception and memory.

Without going into lengthy detail, suffice it to say that with this plan of house building and furnishing, and using this story instead of 'The Little Red Hen,' McKee's Story Method of teaching reading is followed. The building and furnishing of a house has thus been carried on over a school session of ten months, and been kept sufficiently interesting to keep the children alert the entire session.

Writing has been motivated in the same way and progress has been rapid. It was found, however, that it was advisable to emphasise the necessity for writing the story as it was built up, lest the interest in reading should overshadow the necessary writing practice. After sentences are easily written in sand, they are written and read on slates, and, as words, are broken up into syllables and letters. The same was done in writing, and the two subjects developed simultaneously.

Arithmetic was motivated from this house building as follows: The numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 were written against sections of one cubit each on each side of the house, and the numbers made in sand and then on slates. Addition was built up by requiring the number of cubits on two, then three, then four sides, making twenty, the unit of counting in the Chhattisgarhi dialect. Five rounds of the house brings one hundred. Boys are asked to bring mud-baked marbles from home, with red for units, white for tens, yellow for hundreds, and black for thousands; and these are arranged serially in teaching notation and number building and writing up to one thousand.

The four sides of the house continue to be a ready

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reference for addition and subtraction, which should be required the first year.

In trying the above experiment with sections of a first class in one school, two years ago, the children were divided so as to have no over-age children in any of these sections and, as nearly as possible, a constant average of age and intelligence in all. Two sections were taught by this new method and one by the old method. The teachers of the three sections on which the new method had been tried were men of two years' Middle training and average ability. The requirement for teachers by the old method was a Normal pass. The new method teachers had a three weeks' course of instruction by the manager of the school previous to the beginning of the session. Supervision was divided as equally as possible among these three sections.

It was found that the children of the two sections in the new method had completed the course six weeks in advance of those taught by the old method, and with a better comprehension of the matter read.

It was found that the muscular activity and interest in an object had stimulated perception and induced purposeful activity in a way that the old method had failed to do. Opportunities to give lessons on home life, equipment, and building had been more abundant for the teachers by this method than by the old.

These experiments with the three sections were continued for the entire year's course, and it was found that the pupils by the old method completed the Government required First Reader five weeks behind the pupils taught by the new method.

It was found that there were times when drill had to be resorted to in the project sections. Interest would flag at this period, but, notwithstanding this, progress was more rapid. Drill at addition combinations and spelling were necessary by both methods, but by the project method there was only about one-fifth as much actual time required as by the old method.

In arithmetic, progress by the two project sections was even more rapid than in reading.

The first year experiment with writing found the old method pupils with more accurately formed letters and a neater hand than the project pupils, although accuracy in spelling was better with project pupils. By more attention to writing in the second year the writing of project pupils excelled.

We are aware of the extra stimulus of a new venture like the project method. The teachers were not enthusiastic, but apathetic, in the beginning. In fact, they tried the work with reluctance. They were won over to its value by their own actual trying.

Experiments in second- and third-year classes have been carried on at this place, but only by project work in a few subjects in each class.

In the second-year class, a shop project has been carried on for one year to motivate the subject of slate and mental arithmetic. Paper coins have been secured, and the goods of an ordinary grocery shop are bought and sold, and this has made arithmetic a new subject for the boys. In the school where this has not been done, second-year classes in arithmetic are far behind this one in both accuracy and speed in computation.

In the third year, the class has been studying hemp to motivate its local geography, with the result that the class has taken a keen interest in excursions to study the relation of hemp to local agricultural methods. Government has sent a demonstrator to lecture on this subject, and the idea that knowledge of their subject should prove profitable to the boys in after life has been a revelation to them.

In the fourth class, however, a project experiment was again carried out on a comparative scale, with results worth noting. We had been told that in the fourth-year class, where the boys would need to certify at the Government examination, project work would take too much time to be practical.

A class of fifty-two was divided as nearly equally as former records would reveal as to intelligence and age. One section worked on the project of rice during the entire year. The other class kept on by the old method. Teachers were of the same training and nearly the same experience.

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The project section prepared eleven fields for sowing. A team of oxen and a plough were bought for this section and the boys had the entire care of these. Of the eleven fields, eight were sown and cared for by the old broad-cast system and three by the new Japanese system of transplantation. The boys were wonderfully interested in this experiment. Brahmin boys from the town waded into the mud and water of the fields and helped the Christian boys in preparing these fields.

The experiment motivated arithmetic by keeping account of all expenditure involved in putting in the crop, including labour, all of which the boys did themselves. The harvesting of the crop proved of unusual interest in computing the average yield of rice per square yard by both systems of culture, and the writing of essays on their findings. Weeds, insect pests, fertilisers, soils and irrigation were all studied.

The geography of India and the Empire was motivated by a study of rice-growing regions and the commodities exchanged for it.

The yield of the transplantation system was so far above the old system that boys' parents came to note the result, when the boys measured their grain at the threshing floor. In comparing the two sections, it was found that the boys who had done the project work passed one more boy than the other section. The two sections together passed forty-four boys out of fifty-two. It could at least be safely concluded that the extra work in the fields at this project, although taken from the class periods because of the seasonable demands of the crops, did not lessen the boys' chances of passing.

The boys who have passed are more willing to work, and in entering Middle school have expressed at least an interest in trying to prepare for work that will not be a 'job' but doing something for themselves—a thing very desirable in India just now.

We believe the experiments revealed that for local conditions the project method has value not possessed by the old method of teaching, and, while not a panacea for all the ills of teaching, it can give results, where a teacher is

conscientious and supervision is adequate, that cannot be attained by the old method. Best of all, it creates the habit of observation, changes dull drill into pleasure and creates a basis for character training in free purposeful activity. We do not claim for it a substitutional place as compared to all other methods, but look upon it as a supplementary method of very great potential value.

RELIGIOUS TEACHING

The direct religious teaching in these schools has followed a course based on the first two books of Clayton, together with selected passages for memorisation and training in worship. The greatest difficulty has been found in getting masters to do more than read a story from Clayton's book and tell it to their classes as nearly *verbatim* as memory allowed after one reading. Only by constant supervision and constructive help can masters be kept at giving the kind of religious teaching that is suited to children. Our experience has been that a master, quite capable in other lines of teaching, frequently falls down at the time of the Bible class.

This seems due to the fact that it is difficult for the master to teach where the actual objective involved is so definitely something other than mastered facts.

The successful teaching of the Bible lesson is the crucial test of the master's character and work. Children detect the note of insincerity in the teaching of a master who does not live what he teaches, sooner than do even adults. It has become abundantly evident that the first requirement of Christian teachers is a quiet time in retirement with managers or supervisors, and the gaining of Christian experience in order to reveal Christ by their teaching. We expect to have retreats for masters with the above definite objective, and to invite those who cannot qualify to take up other lines of work.

Masters qualifying for this work should be given courses in story-telling to bring out the meaning of memorised portions. Short periods of worship, following on a natural feeling of need as induced by the moral appeal of the story,

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should be regularly carried on. At this we have not yet succeeded.

The projects before mentioned have given abundant opportunity to illustrate the Bible teaching of each day. In fact, every project worked out has been given a religious application.

SOCIAL WORK

Experiments at village community work have been tried. With one exception, these efforts have been unsuccessful. The reason seems to be, that pupils from six to twelve years of age are too young to do much constructive work that is calculated to draw a community to the school as a centre for various kinds of help. We believe our efforts have failed largely because we expected to do too much with Primary pupils. Distribution of medicine, care for the sick filling roads, etc., can be carried on under close supervision, especially by organising Wolf Cub packs with teachers as leaders.

One master has organised and now carries on a piece of community work that stands out as a success. This is a grain-bank, along lines recommended by Government.

Paddy, for seed or other purposes, could be borrowed for 35 per cent. per annum. Storage for rice, from threshing time to await a more favourable market, was at a minimum. The master organised a small share company of villagers, who have built themselves a common village granary and received storage free of rent, and who loan out rice for 20 per cent. per annum to people of their own village. The character and reputation of the Christian master who organised this, and is now its controlling spirit and accountant, has won the confidence of the village people in the school and has increased enrolment and attendance.

In attempts at community work the findings as to lack of nourishment for school-going children were brought to light. The rice raised by the project of the fourth class boys in this same village, together with a donation from this grain-bank, will be used the coming year in giving under-nourished children one warm meal at the school in

the morning before starting work. Children who get nothing to eat before coming to school are to be so favoured.

School gardens, to demonstrate vegetable growing to villagers, have not yet been possible for lack of fences. Hedges have been started, and until these are grown nothing can be done in this way.

In one school an Old Boys' Day was held last year, at which games, songs, and lectures on sanitation and agriculture were given. This aroused a great deal of spirit and promises well for another attempt this year.

THE NEED FOR TRAINING SCHOOLS OF THE NEW TYPE

One year of experimental work has brought to light the fact that, to carry on better schools with a vitalised curriculum, it is necessary to provide for the training of teachers of a new type.

Government Normal-trained men are, as a rule, too prejudiced against any method of teaching that involves any considerable amount of handwork. Such men seem to be able to think of manual training only as something quite distinct and apart from all subject-matter, and an end entirely in itself.

Government must train for work in its schools men who will fit into a system of more or less rigid inspection instead of supervision. Men trained for such schools too frequently need a new vision of their calling, and a more altruistic conviction as to the needs of their work, before they will be able to organise and conduct a proper community school.

The project method of teaching, to be successful, must allow more option as to rate of progress of pupils than is compatible with a system of inspection based on periodical checks. Regular supervision, rather than inspection, is absolutely essential in community schools where the project system is taught. Until a very much higher grade of teacher is available this will continue true.

Government could hardly yet afford the necessary personnel or finances to conduct such a scheme. It has always put itself on record as sympathetic and helpful to experiment by private bodies, such as Missions, but can

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hardly be expected to train the kind of teacher Missions want for these schools. We accordingly organised the first class of a two-year Normal school last year, with five students admitted. Two years of Middle school work must be the requirement, and this will need to be raised as more men become available.

It has become abundantly evident that at least 30 per cent. of the class time in such a Normal school should be spent in practice teaching. The average Middle school student has entirely too meagre a training to benefit much by anything except the most elementary and practical presentation of pedagogy and psychology.

A considerable amount of time will need to be spent in re-casting the knowledge of the normal student so as to make it available for exposition to pupils rather than to pass an examination himself. Revision of subject-matter will come in for at least 40 per cent. of his class time.

Time for studying village conditions, economic, social, religious and educational, at first hand, but under guidance, will be an indispensable part of his work. Methods of teaching both religious and secular subjects must come in abstractly, but will hardly be a major part of the activity of Normal students of the present grade.

The Normal school will aim to produce a teacher who regards his first task as that of training a pupil in a four-year Primary course to be able to live better in a village because of that training. Entrance into Middle school is a necessary but secondary consideration. The life-needs of the Primary pupils must be a basic consideration in determining the educational policy for any people rather than the demands of University-dominated secondary schools.

Finally, should not Missions make a representation to Government, asking that research work as to the needs of rural education be organised by one of its universities? Such research would make material available for the use of Government and private agencies, in determining their policy regarding this great need of the masses, who under present policy must figure so largely in any form of responsible government.

M. C. LEHMAN,

IV

ST. BARNABAS' SCHOOL, MANMAD

I HAVE been asked to write a description of the aim and activities of this school. The form of the request at once divides the subject into two convenient parts, i.e. theory and practice. First as to theory :

I

The school is the result, primarily, of theories about education contained in the report of the Village Education Commission of 1919-20. There followed the visit of the C.M.S. Delegation to India in 1921-22, the result of which, as regards education, was the curtailment of work in various directions, which, while good, was not of the best, and the origination of new work in more fruitful directions. The school at Manmad arose directly out of this redistribution of resources. The Nasik Collectorate and the Aurangabad District seemed to the members of the Delegation a suitable location for a school of the new type desired, and it was decided by them that the W.I. Mission should have the privilege of initiating such a school. Funds became available through the sale of property at Poona and Bombay. The Rev. W. C. Whiteside, a veteran missionary on the eve of retiring, was asked to stay on for a year or two to contribute his expert knowledge of industrial work to the new venture, and I was sent out in 1923, as Supervisor of Village Education, to guide the whole scheme along the lines which the Delegation had laid down. In 1922 there had been an important Inter-Mission Conference at Moga, in the Punjab, on the subject of Rural Education, which in Western India was followed up by a similar one at Ahmednagar in June, 1923. These conferences had a profound influence upon us. They had the effect of bringing theories more into relation with the practical situation

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which we had to face. Our school at Manmad, though not on the exact model of Moga, owes a great deal to Mr. McKee, who was present at the Ahmednagar Conference. The years since then have been spent trying to work out some of the implications of the theories in a practical way. I think these theories may be summarised as follows :

1. The end of education is conduct ; not knowledge, which is only a means to that end.
2. Education must teach behaviour in a community, in which each individual has a vocation.
3. Vocation must, therefore, be considered during the school years.
4. The choice of vocation can only be arrived at by careful study of individuals.
5. Where possible, learning should be taught in relation to some practical task. This makes it more reasonable and gives a greater stimulus to study.
6. Manual work is an essential element in all school education, as :
 - (a) Giving a great deal of necessary knowledge in such a way that it is wrought into the brain through its motor centres ;
 - (b) Ensuring a belief in the dignity of labour.
7. The economic aspect of life is closely bound up with spiritual progress. The duty of economic independence must be taught both as necessary to self-respect and as a means of social service.
8. The economic conditions of our village Christians can only be improved through agriculture and its allied industries. Efforts must be made, therefore, to produce an interest in agriculture during the school years.

II

Now as to the practical side of the school :

1. TYPE OF BOY AND TYPE OF EDUCATION GIVEN

Nearly all our boys are from the Mahar and Mang communities in the villages. Formerly these boys were given,

for the most part, a purely literary education, which on the face of it seems somewhat unreasonable. The communities which they represent have no literary heredity. Many of them are of a surprisingly good mental calibre, but experience backs up what theory would suggest, viz. that people who from time immemorial have been immersed in manual labour are more fitted to be trained along practical than literary lines. At the same time, the educational ladder must be kept open. There is no doubt that for the majority of these boys training for some industrial or agricultural occupation is desirable. Yet it has been found that some can rise to considerable heights in occupations making severe intellectual demands. The function of St. Barnabas' School is that of selection. Both literary and industrial training is provided, and the staff has to decide, by careful observation and study, in which of these directions a boy's talents lie.

2. SCHOOL DEPARTMENTS

We began with a Middle school, or, rather, according to the Bombay Government Code, an 'Upper Primary school,' consisting of vernacular standards V, VI, and VII. Some of these boys were afterwards set apart for purely industrial education, and so the present Industrial school came into being. Then an agricultural class was formed as an alternative to industrial work, though some village industries are being taught in connection with this class. Later it was found convenient to add a Lower Primary department, partly for the benefit of children living in the locality, partly for boys from the district schools who have not passed the IV standard previous to being sent here, and partly as a useful means of educational experiment.

3. CURRICULA

(a) *Lower Primary School.* Here we follow the ordinary Government Code, but in addition teach English from standard III, and give simple manual training, such

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as string mat-weaving on frames and small looms, *navar*-making, mud-modelling, etc. Project work is being experimented with. The whole time-table is not taken on this basis, but the last period each day is set apart for it, and in the ordinary lessons as much use as possible is made of the project work being done. In the last two years the following work has been carried out: building a small house, also a village shop; making an exact model to scale of an existing village two miles away, followed by a model, on the same scale, of a village as we think it ought to be (the contrast between the two is very great!). Then by the older boys a map in mud was made, 20 ft. by 10 ft., of Manmad and its surroundings (this took months, but it was a great education for the boys as well as the staff); then a model in mud, nearly the same size, but on a very much smaller scale, of the Nasik Collectorate. Other projects have been worked out, such as building a rough stone wall in front of the school, and making a garden, making a sundial, etc. On the whole, we consider this work valuable, though in using this method constant stress has to be laid on making a connection between the practical work and the ordinary school subjects, otherwise it degenerates into a mere pastime.

(b) *Upper Primary School.* Last year we began to introduce the new 'Agricultural Bias' course of the Bombay Government. This teaches all the subjects of the ordinary course, except history, for which hygiene, civics, co-operative methods, etc., have been substituted. The emphasis throughout is upon agriculture. The problems of arithmetic are connected with farming, and we choose those operations of farming that are actually in progress on the school farm. Vernacular reading and writing is, as far as possible, connected with village and agricultural matters. Actual gardening and farming has to be done by each boy in every standard; also village carpentry in standards VI and VII and village blacksmithing in standard VII. The object of Government in introducing this course is to give 'pre-vocational' training, which will prepare the sons of agriculturalists for the later adoption of more intelligent methods of farming. Our object is twofold:

first, to prepare some boys for agriculture as their future vocation. The number of these at present is likely to be small, as hitherto there has been no opening in agriculture for boys leaving our schools. An equally important object that we have in view is the general leavening of public opinion in the Christian community in favour of agriculture and village life. We believe that this 'bias,' given during the impressionable years, will eventually have its effect. The great object of boys from the depressed classes at present is to escape from their early environment. In the future we hope that they will be induced to go back to their villages and help to change it.

(c) *Industrial School.* In this we have four departments: carpentry, blacksmithing, weaving and tailoring. In the first three we follow the Government Code for Industrial schools, which leads to three examinations in successive years. So far our boys have been fairly successful in passing these examinations. The age at which they enter upon the course varies, but at 13 or 14 years of age we generally can get a very good idea as to the direction in which a boy's abilities are leading him, and three years later he will be old enough to go out to work. The boys in the Primary and Upper Primary schools all work in the Industrial school for about 2½ hours each day in the afternoon, and as 'half-timers' some of them are able to pass the Government examinations. As regards tailoring, the course is for not more than two years, as we find that, as soon as a boy has learnt the elementary work, it is better for him to get work with an outside tailor, where he will get the experience of a wider range of work than we can give him.

In all four of these departments, as soon as a boy is able to make a saleable article, the cost of labour in making it is credited to his account. This money at first merely goes to reduce his fees, but when he begins to earn on an average about Rs. 6 a month, he is put on the list of apprentices, which means he is independent of fees, and anything above the cost of food and clothes that he earns is his own. This system has worked well, and some boys have left the school with as much as Rs. 40 in their savings bank account.

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(d) *Agricultural Class.* We are trying the experiment of training a few boys specifically for agriculture. These have had to be chosen with care. They have to be boys who are physically and naturally fitted for this work, and who have some inclination for it. By preference we choose boys whose parents own some land, but this is not an absolute necessity, as land can be always hired on a system by which some of the produce goes to the owner as rent.

The curriculum in this class is as follows:

1. Theoretical knowledge of soils, manures, seeds, plants, and general farming methods.
2. Practical work in the fields.
3. Learning one industry allied to farming, e.g. village carpentry or blacksmithing.

At least three years are necessary for this course, and we hope that the boys who are taking it will go out to agricultural work very much better equipped than the son of the ordinary Indian farmer. This year two of the boys in this class have been put in entire charge of a field near by, which we are renting, on the system referred to above, from a neighbour. If they work this successfully they will be sent out next year to work a field belonging to the Mission in one of the districts. For boys trained and tested in this way we hope it will be possible eventually to start a co-operative bank, which will supply the necessary capital for acquiring lands of their own. Though this side of the school's activities is in its infancy, we believe that it will grow. People need to be convinced that Missions are taking agriculture seriously, and that education along these lines will lead their sons to a real opening in life.

4. CHARACTER BUILDING

However excellent curricula may be, they cannot guarantee the most important thing of all, viz. the building up of Christian character. We fully realise that a school that is not attempting this is educationally useless. Our feeling is that, while strict discipline is necessary, a certain atmosphere of freedom is essential for the growth of character. Too martinet a system does not produce men but machines.

The meaning and use of responsibility is taught by choosing six or seven of the senior boys, representing each department, as prefects. They are made responsible for bringing the boys into school, giving out food at meals, looking after games in the evening, arranging the boys for sleeping at night, etc., though the masters are always cognisant of what is going on. This has worked well so far, though on one occasion it was found necessary to degrade a prefect from his office, as one whose conduct showed that he had not grasped the meaning of responsibilities.

Where it is possible to leave cupboards unlocked, we do so. School material has to be protected against the attacks of outside thieves, but we try to cultivate the idea amongst the boys that it is not necessary to protect it from them. Thefts do sometimes occur, but they are not frequent and are becoming rarer.

Teaching on the subject of thrift and the avoidance of debt is being given, especially in the case of the apprentice boys. One of the chief objects on which these boys like to spend their savings is new clothes. When boys ask for money for this purpose, their account is looked up, and only if it shows a sufficient balance is their request granted. But they constantly ask for an advance, which they say they will pay off. By always refusing such requests we are trying to instil into them the principle that money should be saved before it is spent.

Social service as the main ideal of the school is shown in the school motto that we have recently adopted: 'Hee Kharee Prabhu-seva—Jan-seva,' i.e. 'The service of man is the true service of God.'

The first thing we are doing in this direction is to make the boys feel that they are members of the Manmad Christian congregation. I am sure that many schools in the West, with their school-chapel service, entirely prevent schoolboys from feeling themselves to be members of the local church. The name of the school has been taken from St. Barnabas' Church, Manmad; three of our masters are on the Pastorate Committee; and as many boys as there is room for attend services there each Sunday morning and on other occasions, such as Holy Week.

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Definite opportunities of social service in connection with the congregation are difficult, owing to the distance of the school from Manmad, but some attempts have been made in this direction. The boys are given no presents at Christmas time, but instead they make small presents out of any odd scraps of wood, tin, cloth, or paper, and at their school concert, held just before Christmas, these presents are given to twenty or thirty of the poorer children of the Manmad congregation. Also self-denial during Lent has resulted in a sum of over Rs. 30 being collected, and this has been given to the Pastorate Committee poor fund.

Opportunity for quiet Bible reading and prayer, generally so difficult in a boarding school, is now available. A small chapel is attached to the principal's bungalow, and masters and boys are free to go there at any time out of school hours. More advantage has been taken of this than I had expected, and I believe it means much for the deepening of the spiritual life of the school.

5. AFTER-CAREER

The question of where to place boys in work after leaving school is often a great problem. Any school which professes to give vocational guidance must take upon itself a certain measure of responsibility for finding work along the line for which it has trained boys. One guiding principle here must surely be that a boy's vocation is determined not only by his special abilities and leanings, but also by the work in the world which it is most necessary to get done. God is not likely to 'call' any individual to a kind of work for which there is no demand. Our object, then, is to find out what openings there are for boys, then to see which boys are most fitted for these openings, and to prepare them accordingly. The after-careers which we have in view at present are:

(a) *The Ministry of the Church.* Here there is a crying need for men of superior qualifications, who will be a real power in the Christian community. We hope that some of the boys trained here may eventually become pastors.

Every year we pass a few of our picked boys on to a High school, and so far these boys have done very creditably. Some we hope may eventually matriculate and go to college. We thus hope to be the means of producing pastors who know how to work with their hands.

(b) *Schoolmasters and Catechists.* For these we have a fairly constant demand. Each year we are now sending several boys who have passed our VII standard for training as teachers at the Union Training School, Ahmednagar, where, according to their ability, they can take: (1) the Junior Certificate for village teachers; (2) the Senior Certificate; (3) first year Government training, which is very similar to (2) but gives them a rather better standing; (4) second year Government training. The qualifications of the teachers in our district schools are beginning to improve, through the steady stream of young trained teachers that we are sending out. It is from the ranks of our schoolmasters that our Mission catechists are recruited. Experience proves that a man who is able to teach is more likely to make an effective preacher.

(c) *Carpenters and Blacksmiths.* We can generally get work for these in the Girder Shops at Manmad, which have recently been very much extended. Blacksmiths, especially, are wanted, so we are increasing the number of boys in this department.

(d) *Weavers.* The experience of the last few years has proved that there are not many openings for hand-weavers. It is only where hand-weavers work in communities that this work can be made to pay, and in this part of India we have no such Christian communities. It is unlikely, therefore, that we shall continue this department much longer.

(e) *Tailors.* So far we have been able to place most of our tailor boys with tailors in Manmad or Nasik, where they can get good experience. This is a trade that can be made to pay either in towns or villages.

(f) *Agriculturists.* The openings here are unlimited, if eventually we can work a successful co-operative bank. Everything depends on capital being available at a reasonable rate of interest, and lending of it only to those who are efficient farmers and trustworthy. We hope that the few

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experiments we are making in getting some boys on to the land may lead to something larger in the future.

6. INTER-MISSION CO-OPERATION

Though the school was started and is being run entirely by the Church Missionary Society, there are five other Missions that are beginning to make use of it. It would seem, therefore, that with expansion it might serve a wider area than is covered by our own Society's operations. If desired in the future, some definite scheme of inter-Mission co-operation might be possible.

H. W. LEA WILSON.

V

AIMS AND ACTIVITIES OF THE VOCATIONAL TRAINING SCHOOL, ANKLESWAR

BEFORE establishing this school, there had grown up widespread dissatisfaction with Mission village schools. The feeling grew that the lack is that of good teachers—teachers who not only have a genuine interest in the village folk, but have the desire and ability to 'put across' what they know in an interesting way.

With the thought of the teacher mainly in view, in the year 1922 our Mission drew up the following as a general policy whereby our school should be run :

The demands of village life should determine our policy.

1. We should aim at a community centre designed to touch life at every possible point : intellectual, economic, moral, religious, social.

2. The village worker should be a recognised centre and moving agent in community activity, and hence should be given an all-round training so as to be able to touch life effectually.

Assuming adequate supervision, the village worker's qualification should be as follows :

(a) He should be a good teacher of the new type, capable of conducting a village school along approved lines and according to the best methods.

(b) He should be able to train village children in developing a school garden.

(c) He should be able to help the villagers build more sanitary houses. This involves training in hygiene and sanitation, as well as in carpentry and other trades.

(d) He should be able to teach and assist the villagers in the production of better cattle, of dairy products, and of improved poultry.

(e) He should be able to lead in the improvement of cultivation and crop production and disposition.

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(f) Any and all activities allied with village life are considered a legitimate scope for the teacher's work, and hence for his training in school, e.g. masonry, brick- and tile-making, pottery, tape-weaving, blacksmithing, first aid, etc.

HISTORY OF THE SCHOOL

In accordance with the above, the Vocational Training school was opened June 6th, 1924, and 15 young men presented themselves as candidates for the teachers' class. In connection with this class a Primary school was opened, which nearby village children attended. At first we had but one teacher, second-year trained, for the Primary school, and only about 15 pupils attending under very indifferent conditions, yet this from the beginning has served as a practising school. Year by year this school has improved in both quality and numbers of children. Our own trained boys have been teachers in this school since the first year.

In the first-year teachers' class we had two qualified instructors, one whose speciality was that of principles and methods of teaching, and the other an agriculturist, who taught theory and practice of agriculture.

With the opening of the second session, a year later, all the VII standard boys of the Mission, together with a second class of first-year boys were sent to us, and we began the system of holding the VII standard boys for two years and the first-year boys for a year and a half. We have held to the Government curriculum and examination in both cases, but the curriculum has been enriched to include systematic instruction in the Bible, theory and practice of agriculture, carpentry, English, etc. The English is taught, as far as possible, by the direct method.

For boys in either class a scholarship of seven rupees is given. As a matter of fact, it requires more than this amount for the supply of food for growing boys. The rest of the needed expense for bedding, clothing, incidentals, etc., boys are asked to earn by daily labour, whether in the shop, farm or garden. To give boys, by earning, incentive to work and to learn to do by doing, the project idea was introduced into the work, both inside and outside the school.

We have taken up this method as far as may be, believing it sound in principle and of psychological value. With this in view, we endeavour to get the class or the individual to undertake some purposeful activity and carry it out to a finish. Having a large farm of black cotton soil to operate upon and a good carpenter foreman at hand from the start, we began to provide projects in their natural setting. This was held to for intensive or extensive farming, poultry raising, care of stock, etc., as well as for the teacher in the classroom itself.

From the first, boys were given individual plots of ground in both field and garden, the net proceeds from which became their own. Each one needed additional income, and here, under the supervision of the agricultural teacher, was his chance to earn it. This worked far better than large group activity, we found, and for the first ten months, when the numbers were low, the boys made a net profit of Rs. 5-8 per month. The next two years, being rather poor ones for this district, the boys' earnings were not nearly so much. At any rate, they made a little more than expenses and got the benefit to be derived from labour that is educative. During these first years our shop, for lack of competent management, was not on a good footing.

THE PRESENT YEAR

Our school is new and we are still experimenting. We do not claim to have arrived at final conclusions. Moreover, we do not have an adequate staff of teachers. We have had to pull on with teachers not in full sympathy with our programme and ideals. Nevertheless, while not well prepared in some ways, our present staff seems to believe that our programme of work, and the new courses outlined, are just what the boys of the future need.

At present 58 boys are enrolled in the several classes, the Normal, the Carpentry, and the two divisions of VII standard. The following will show the reader some of the facilities available, and I quote Rev. I. W. Moomaw, M.Sc., who is in charge of the Farm and Trades:

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'The Farm. The school farm contains 135 acres of tillable land, 65 acres of which is cultivated by the boys. The rest is rented. The boys are this year divided into five groups, as follows: the first-year boys, the trades class, and the VII classes, divided into three groups, according to the districts whence they came. We are not having individual plots this season. Fields are allotted in such a way that each group has a diversified line of crops.

'The cultivation is done by the use of three yoke of oxen, furnished by the Mission. Two yokes are driven by the boys themselves. A disc harrow and one iron plough of Indian manufacture are used. The general farm work, however, is done by means of the usual country tools, which for the current year happen to have been made by the boys in the school shop.

'Boys pay the current rate for the number of days the school bullocks are used by them in their fields. They also pay for seed and incidental expenses. By way of encouragement, they are given the land at low rental, just slightly more than the Government tax.

'The School Shop. In the shop an effort has been made to keep the instruction on a productive basis. A syllabus is followed to a certain extent, yet we have found that a syllabus must be kept in the background if boys are to advance well beyond the stage of manual training. It is our experience that boys, given a financial incentive that is reasonable, can produce from the beginning something that has value. In this way they advance more rapidly than they would merely by practising on small models.

'The demands of a school shop are wide and varied. Just recently a babul tree was purchased from a nearby village. This is now being worked up into ploughs and harrows, several being for sale, and the rest being kept for use on the school farm.

'During the past year the boys, under the supervision of the carpenter foreman, were called upon to do the carpenter work on several large buildings and two cottages. Doors and windows were supplied for two other houses, and several village house were repaired by our boys.

'Then there are always miscellaneous orders for repairs ;

also orders for chairs, book-cases, tables, bread-boards, etc. An effort is made to keep the range of projects as varied as possible. Only by such a varied course can sufficient opportunities for the development of a complete list of skills and practices be offered to the boys.

For the most part, the tools used are those found in the ordinary village. Each boy has an adz, plane, try square, foot-rule, 3 chisels, 2 mortice chisels and a small saw. Rip saws, cross-cut saws, brace and bits, steel squares, etc., are supplied as needed from the foreman's cupboard. Each boy has a small compartment in which to store his tools under lock and key, and each one has his own number stamped on his tools by means of a steel die. In this way the loss of tools is reduced to a minimum. Boys pay for tools carelessly lost or broken. We have found the boys succeed best when seated on the earthen floor in the usual Indian way.

At the time of writing we are introducing blacksmithing into the shop. Here, as in the main shop, an effort will be made to provide the boys with opportunities for developing the skills and practices necessary for the making of the iron tools for the average village farm.

Poultry Raising. The boys, by three-month turns, care for a small flock of white Leghorn fowls. This work is new, only one year old here, but it has fortunately paid a modest profit from the start. Due to local conditions, rather substantial quarters have had to be build. These quarters were erected by the boys also.

Some work is being done in cross-breeding with country hens. This is done in the hope of developing a fowl that will be able to endure the hardships of the village better than pure-bred fowls are likely to do. In the poultry yard a number of trees are being planted. These should provide much-needed shade, as well as furnish some additional income, in coming days.

The boys seem to enjoy this work, and it appears that, with honest effort, poultry husbandry should prove to be a worth while occupation, especially for those who have little land of their own.

The Co-operative Bank. The question of how best

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to keep the boys' accounts faces the staff of every institution. Boys who work and earn desire to know, without a shade of doubt, that their accounts are correct and that they are getting all that is due them. Doubt here is hard on the *morale* of the school.

'Some of the boys come to us from indifferent homes, where education is not valued. Such come poorly supplied with bedding, clothing, etc. Moreover, while trades boys receive a small income monthly, the boys who grow *juwar* and cotton, etc., have to wait for months before getting into their hands any profits from their labour. It follows that one may have what the other needs. To give the one group a chance to aid the other, and to teach all in actual practice the advantage of co-operation in finance, a school bank was opened January 11th, 1927. This makes possible a deposit on the part of boys who have earnings, and borrowing in an honourable way on the part of those who need, either for personal ends or to finance their growing crops. The bank is really a junior Government co-operative society. The regular Government forms and methods are used.

'Each of the four classes in school elects one member on the managing committee. These four elect one member at large, after which one of the five is chosen secretary. The boys' farm foreman, a graduate of our own school, is advisory secretary of the bank. Deposits at present range from two annas to about eight rupees, and shares sell for four annas each. Any boy who is a member may borrow, and six per cent. interest is charged on all loans. The boys themselves drew up the rule that anyone wishing to borrow should bring two members as security, each of whom is to have more money in the bank than the applicant wishes to borrow, and boys who serve as security cannot, without special permission, withdraw their deposits while loans are in force.

'It is too early to speak with assurance of this special venture. At any rate, the boys are all pleased with the idea, and confidence is established. The management, moreover, is relieved of the need, apparent or real, for making loans to the boys. This is great gain indeed. The

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bank provides a quiet yet persuasive force, impelling boys either to stand on their own legs or to look to their fellows for aid in time of need.

'The one, and perhaps the only, real difficulty experienced was that of keeping the bank together and organised during the spring vacation. While it is not good for the bank, yet it is natural for a large number of members to wish to withdraw deposits and sell shares during vacation. It is hoped the boys, on their own initiative, will see the need for keeping some money on deposit till they withdraw permanently from the school. When interest by their own accounting becomes a reality, this will probably care for itself.'

The Store. On the 2nd February of this year a small store was opened. Goods are bought at merchants' rates instead of the ordinary retail rates, this meaning a saving to the boys. One boy acts as merchant, and does the work both of merchant and accountant. He sells soap, matches, ink, pens, cloth for all the boys' needs, as well as grain, vegetables, tea, sugar, etc.

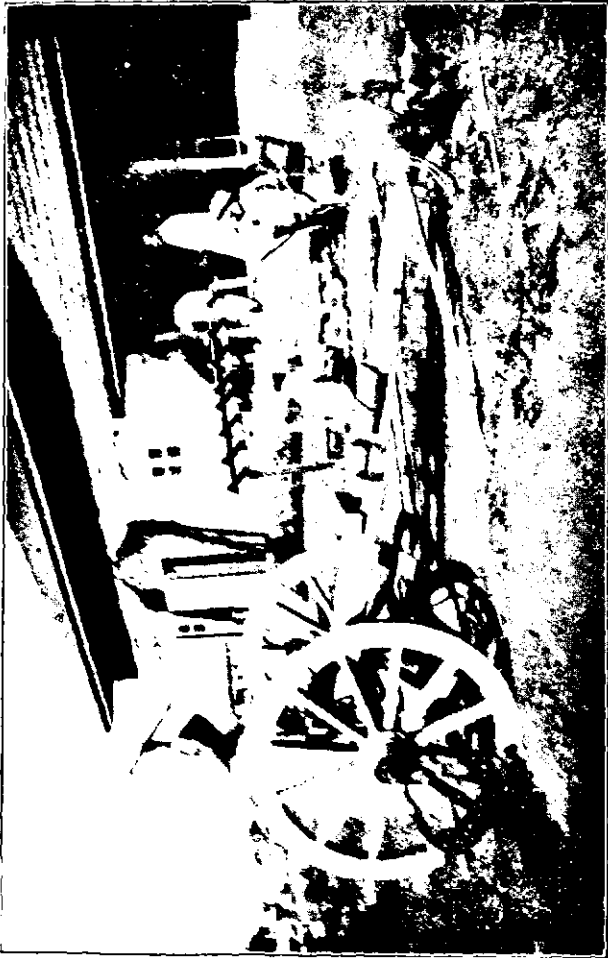
Boys take interest in their own store and it is a going concern, and in line with the new education. They are learning many practical things from this venture.

STUDENT GOVERNMENT

The school has had practical self-government from the beginning. Twice only has a teacher interfered, contrary to this principle, and brought upon himself the deserved censure of the group. It is most interesting and encouraging to see the way a group of boys, with a little tactful guidance, will manage their own community affairs. We have no house-father, although it is true that the head teacher does look after the food bills, to see that all have been paid and that every boy pays his share of the food expense. Also we have one teacher with the boys by night during study period, but he is a helping teacher, merely, and not a policeman keeping order.

School committees at present are as follows :

1. The mess committee, who look after all the bazaaring for the main group.



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2. The lighting committee, who look after the lamps of both school and hostels.
3. The first aid committee, who look after the sick.
4. The municipal committee, who look after the premises, keeping them dry and clean, without and within.
5. The social welfare committee, whose duties are to provide entertainment, programmes, etc., monthly.
6. The panchayat, who look into all disturbances, apportioning fines and punishment. It is gratifying to be able to say that they have little work to do.

All these committee men change every month, the panchayat committee men being the only exceptions; and each one serving on a committee is elected by ballot.

Illustrative of how self-government works here, I give the following illustrations. Certain boys had the habit of being late at morning prayers. Their late-coming was distracting to the rest. The panchayat decided that each one should carry twenty baskets of dirt by way of road improvement. Since then, these boys are on time.

Other boys acted as if they had the right to use abusive language to younger boys. After handling several rather difficult cases with the aid of one of the staff, the group made up their minds that everyone should eventually have to abide by the decision of the panchayat, backed up by the group, or else leave the school. The self-government idea in the school has prevailed!

THE COTTAGE SYSTEM

From the beginning it was our plan to have this system, but for lack of the cottages we could not introduce it till this present session. At present, three groups of boys may be found living as families, doing their own bazaaring, cooking, and managing their own affairs wholly. They are enjoying it, and getting real experience of life. This was not forced upon them, but opportunity was given the student body to choose.

Having so much work to do and of varied sorts, it is not

our purpose to keep any group in this system for several years, as if preparing them to become cooks. After they have got the needed experience, they will be free to return to the main hostel.

RECORD OF FORMER STUDENTS

Friends on visiting are sure to ask about the record of former students, hence this paragraph. Nineteen young boys have passed out of our first-year class for teachers, and have their first-year Government certificates. Several others failed in the examinations. It would be false to say that all these teachers are a success. Some get into this class who should never have been sent up, or who should have been sent home after trial. One must not expect fine flour from a poor grist. No staff can furnish ability to one who hasn't it.

However, we are able to say that we hear that the large majority of our boys are commendable in conduct, are hard working, have the interest of the pupils at heart, and are able to teach, to some extent at least, by the new method. This means preparation every night for the work of the next day. To them, the old method means they are able easily to teach the grades without preparation. They have learned that the project method entails effort, but that earnest, thoughtful effort brings its due reward.

So far only a few carpenters have been trained here, but those who have been will return to their villages to fill a useful place in the supply of village tools and their repair. Their financial rewards are therefore secure. They leave us practical carpenters, able to build good houses as well.

OUTLOOK FOR THE SCHOOL

Times have changed since the days of famine. Famines meant full support for all taken into the homes. Missionaries in those days were 'good,' for did they not supply everything to the children? And many in the villages even yet look back longingly to those days.

But the old order had to change, for a new day has

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dawned. The breaking down of the *ma-bap* idea was not easy. But we are winning, and the new custom is being established. Children come and go at their own expense and provide their own bedding, clothing, plate, etc. Certain of our Mission agents did not wish their children to do the work of a labourer and withdrew them from school, but they returned in due time. Training students told us in the beginning that they had not come to do common labour which they could do at home, but had rather come to 'learn.' Learning is all mental, education is all of the mind, they argued. Being called to work, they feigned or played on the job. They came back saying it was unreasonable to ask 'boys going to college' to work, a thing never heard of before. Our first class was the most difficult by far. The next year new boys followed the older ones to the field and shop, and today friends visiting will find every boy at work somewhere, at some time of day, of his own free will. They are working on their own chosen projects. It is to their interest to work and become efficient. The more efficient, the more they earn. Labour is dignified, therefore, and a great idea has prevailed. They are doing things they never thought they would or could do, and confidence in their own ability to do and make good is being developed.

Whatever course of study they take here, they seem sure to return to their own village folk in full sympathy with all who work with their hands and toil. They cannot go with soft hands longer, for every boy, without exception, whatever his course of study, is, in addition to that course, given the theory and practice of agriculture in garden and farm, and this under careful supervision.

We hope to introduce dairying another year, and plan to encourage the keeping of a good breed of cows, and not the buffalo cows so popular on this side of India. We hope to be able to show that these cows will give a lot of milk, and also be the means of raising up a far finer breed of work oxen.

Our one regret is that our school has not been able to fill a larger place. Due to lack of adequate staff and adequate buildings, we have not been able to invite our

friends from other Missions and other groups to send their boys to us for training. Happily, these needs are being supplied, and our hearts will truly rejoice when we are able to throw open our doors to the public.

This school faces the uplift of India's 700,000 villages. The great city is not in our purview. The Government new Agriculture Bias course has been introduced, and we expect to follow out all its good implications and more, as we may be led into the light.

I. S. LONG.

An account of the Girls' School at Ankleswar will be found on page 97.

VJ

INGRAHAM INSTITUTE, GHAZIABAD

FIFTEEN miles from Delhi, where a modern and Western city is growing up on the ruins of seven ancient cities, and in the midst of fertile farming lands, Ingraham Institute is taking root in the life of the community. Situated two miles from the village of Ghaziabad, it has the advantages of rural surroundings, though its proximity to Delhi brings broadening influences into the lives of its pupils.

Though built to meet the needs of the vast Christian community created through the mass movement, which began in this area almost thirty years ago, nevertheless those in charge of Ingraham Institute believe that boys of any religious faith will profit by the programme of the school, and hope to have others than Christians enrolled. There are 150,000 Christians connected with the Methodist Church, almost all from the depressed classes and largely illiterate, in the area served by the school, and the educational programme of the Mission for the boys of the group is centred in Ingraham Institute. From it the church expects to draw its leaders for the thousands of village communities to which it ministers. So all aims of the school are fused in this, its primary purpose of training leaders, both clerical and lay, for the Christian Church.

The buildings, of substantial material, are of simple design, and many of them are built around open courts. The hostels are so built, and on the cottage plan, each providing for the accommodation of about thirty boys. The main schoolhouse is built around a court also, and by covering it a large assembly hall for the school, a place for community meetings, as well as a playground for rainy weather, has been provided. The classrooms are virtually verandah rooms, for only the office, storerooms, laboratory and library have doors, while in them all windows, of expanded metal

instead of glass, furnish abundant ventilation and light. A school farm of about twenty-five acres, and garden and orchard space, meet the needs at present, though more land will be required as the school grows.

Because the principal feels strongly that training must be begun early if the desired results in character development are to be secured, the school begins with the Lower Middle stage—that is, the boys enter at approximately the age of twelve years. Besides the Middle school, there are the Normal school and the Bible school; the High school will be added after two more years. The Normal school is of secondary grade, but the Bible school has as its scholastic requirements only the ability to read and write easily in the vernacular. The aim of this school is to train the humbler grade of 'preacher' for the village, and it is recognised as an emergency measure to meet the needs of the mass movement work. Every department of the Institute is dominated by the one purpose of building true Christian character in the student; so, though the pupils range from the untutored villager in the Bible school to the High school boys who can converse in English, the same ideals dominate the work in shop, classroom and farm, whatever the group concerned.

To combat the spirit of dependence, too often found in Mission schools, and to instil sympathy with, understanding of, and respect for, manual labour, and those who perform it, work has a large place in the programme of Ingraham Institute. Though fees are paid by the parents of most of the boys, they are inconsiderable compared with the expense per boy incurred by the school. So the boys are encouraged to feel that they should make some contribution to their own support, and consequently they are paid for their work and are then required to meet certain expenses which formerly had been borne by the Mission. It has not been easy for boys brought up receiving everything free to make this change, and the principal has had to combine sympathy and patience with firmness in making innovations. Formerly, for example, the boys had been given ink, pencils, paper, etc., from the school, with the usual resultant carelessness and loss; so first of all they were asked to buy these things

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for themselves. Then the school barber was dismissed, and each boy must either pay a schoolmate or a professional for his services. After a few months the boys began buying their own clothes, and then the principal announced that he would pay no more washerman's bills—each boy could wash his own clothes or earn money to pay the washerman. The boys felt keenly this added expense, and finally one of them said pathetically, with tears of real self-pity in his eyes, 'I do not know what this is coming to. First we have to buy our pencils and notebooks, then our clothes, then pay the barber, and now we have to take care of our washing. Next we shall have to pay for our food, I suppose. Where will it end?' The principal's answer was, 'Yes, B——, you will have to pay for your food some day, for you are now sixteen years old and will soon be a man, and a *man* does pay for his own food and all other expenses. Don't you see that we are just trying to help you to learn how to do all these things for yourselves, so that you can be self-respecting, independent Christian men?'

The older boys in the Normal school were receiving scholarships sufficient to meet their food bills and all incidental expenses. Then for their work in the farm they could not be paid in addition to the sum they were already receiving, so their work lacked motivation and there was too much dawdling over their tasks. After long hours of consultation and much mental struggle, these boys decided that, if the school could meet their food bills, they would earn money for all other expenses. As they were paid at strictly market rates, it seemed they could do no more than this without neglecting some other phase of school activity or undermining their health by lack of sleep. A decided change has taken place in the kind of work done, energy and enthusiasm replacing the old dawdling pace. After some months of the new plan, the boys decidedly refused to go back to the scholarship plan.

All the time the principal maintains as close personal contact with the boys as possible. Often he works with them on the farm, as he teaches them how to use the Meston plough or helps with other work difficult for their

inexperienced hands. He joins enthusiastically in their sports, and they come into his home frequently to share his family life around the breakfast table. He feels that only by such means has he been able to win the boys to his plans and to secure the trust of the boys' parents.

The daily programme varies with the season of the year ; the following, however, shows the general plan :

6	-6.30	Toilet and cleaning rooms.
6.30-6.45		Devotions.
6.45-7		Food (bread, or bread and tea).
7	-8.30	Garden work.
9	-2.30	School, with 50 minutes out for breakfast.
2.30-4		Shop work.
4	-5	Garden work.
5	-5.45	Play.
5.45-6.30		Supper.
6.45-8.30		Study.
9		Bed.

It should be stressed that the programme is elastic ; when garden work is slack more time can be given to play ; during the monsoon shop work is given more time, according to the weather. The aim is to fill the boys' waking hours with varied and meaningful activities. As frequently as may be, the boys are given a chance to choose activities for certain hours. In addition to the work outlined above, each class puts in one full work-day each week.

The curriculum followed is one that is designed to meet the needs of the students. Every opportunity is sought to relate the work of the classroom to the experiences of the farm, playground and shop. Mathematics, for example, is not taught as a mass of figures, but grows out of the boy's need to solve problems connected with his life. Every day he does some work on the farm, in the garden, or shop, for which he is paid at a fixed rate. Of all this work he must keep account, and one period in arithmetic each week is given to checking up the personal account books of the class. Much of the drill work grows out of the needs discovered during this weekly period, nor is there lack of motivation for such drill. As far as possible, other subjects are

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also thus vitally connected with the life outside the classroom.

The Government curriculum is regarded as a minimum to be taught, and it is the purpose of the school to enrich this curriculum by bringing into use additional material.

Manual arts play an important part in the school life in the Middle school. The course includes bookbinding, tailoring, shoemaking and repairing, carpentry, and rug-weaving. No attempt is made here to teach these industries as trades; it is rather sought that the students learn them for their 'appreciative value.' It is felt that the experiences the boys have in the shop during these years will increase their appreciation of, and respect for, the tasks themselves, and for the people who perform them, and that their own lives will thereby be enriched and better rounded out. It is also true that the courses are given with a pre-vocational aim. Realising that only a small percentage of the boys will finish College or even High school, the school hope that these varied experiences will help to remove some of the prejudice that is all too common in India—the prejudice against a trade; and will favourably predispose those boys who should learn some trade to this form of occupation. It is also thought that after this course the boy should be able to choose his vocation more wisely than if he had spent all his time over books.

To meet an urgent need, courses in community civics are given. 'The aim of these courses is to help the child to know his community—not merely facts about it, but the meaning of his community life—what the community has a right to expect from him and how he may fulfil his obligations, meanwhile cultivating in him the essential qualities and habits of good citizenship.' The course begins with a study of the local community, because there the student has his first contacts. From this as a starting-point it is possible to enlarge the boy's social and civic horizon, until it includes the province, the nation and the world.

Ingraham Institute has already made a beginning on its extension programme. An annual teachers' institute offers

opportunity for those who have completed the Normal school to gain fresh enthusiasms and new ideas for their work, while monthly letters (which it is hoped will some day grow into a magazine) furnish contact throughout the year. For the evangelistic workers of the grade trained by the Bible school there is an annual 'Refresher Course,' held during the monsoon season when work in the village is hindered by the weather conditions, and designed to do for these ministers what the teachers' institute does for the teachers.

Groups of teachers and boys go to the surrounding villages to hold religious services on Sundays, and on warm spring and summer nights stereopticon lectures in the villages on sanitation, agriculture and religious subjects appeal to Christians and non-Christians alike. The enthusiasm of the boys for this type of work is unbounded, for they gladly tramp the miles over the fields and wait eagerly for their turn to go. Masters and boys take turns giving the lectures, and the singing band has a warm welcome at these meetings. The school farm is a demonstration centre for new methods of agriculture, for the value of improved but inexpensive machinery or tools, and for good seeds. Groups of the passing farmers stop in the school field to discuss the relative merit of the methods or tools, and these neighbourly relations are encouraged and cultivated. Since it is expected that many of the boys will work as church leaders in the villages, the school believes that these contacts with village life are an important part of the training of the boys.

Members of the senior class of the Normal school carry on Primary day schools under the supervision of the staff. These boys have had training in first aid and in the administration of simple remedies, so their schools are distribution centres for these medicines. Severe cases are encouraged to go to the Government hospital for treatment. The principles of sanitation are taught to the school children. A small circulating library is put in each school, and this, with the medicine chest, helps to connect the school with the life and needs of the village. These young teachers are helped also to connect the actual classroom

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work with the life of the pupils, and they make some original and interesting ventures.

It is hoped that an intensive course for the village laymen can be given during the hot weather, when the farmer is not needed in the fields. The aim will be to quicken the spiritual life of these men, to inspire them with a deeper passion for service, and to give them definite religious teaching, so that they, returning to their villages, may strengthen the church there. It is felt that the contact with the school should deepen their interest in education for the children of their community. It is also hoped that teaching about village sanitation, and simple improvements along agricultural lines and related to cottage industries, may also be included in these intensive courses.

J. C. PACE.

VII

COMMUNITY MIDDLE SCHOOL, CHAPRA

THE Nadia District is a large agricultural area in north-west Bengal. Muhammadans predominate, though there is a large number of Hindus. Christians number about 7,000. The Church Missionary Society has been working here for nearly a hundred years. At Krishnagar there is a C.M.S. High school, and the Middle English school twelve miles away at Chapra is the only Christian one of its grade in the district. There are some 28 Primary schools under the Nadia Church Council.

The majority of the population are farmers, with the usual diminutive holdings that are common in India, but in Bengal they labour under the evils of the Permanent Settlement. There are a number of Zamindars (land-owners), almost entirely uninterested in the development of agriculture. Poverty, ignorance and oppression—these are the main features of the situation.

Whether intentional or not, the effect of Mission education in the district has been to cull out the best brains of the Christian community. Boys passed through this Middle English school and on to the High school, and secured positions in the city and elsewhere.

In connection with the school a very efficient industrial department functioned some 18 or 20 years ago. In those days the buzz of an engine and the whirl of machinery might be heard. Chapra boys were sought after by the Eastern Bengal Railway Workshops at Kanchrapara and elsewhere.

In all fairness, it must be said, however, that the teachers, catechists and padres now serving under the Church Council passed through Chapra School and the Teachers' Training School in Krishnagar. Still, apart from this, the district was well combed of its brains, and a very large percentage of the Anglican Christian community in Calcutta

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comes from Nadia. So that Chapra School in the past has been a kind of 'clearing station'; like many schools of its kind in India, it aided the migratory movement from country to city. The Bengali farmer has now nearly waked up to the fact that the streets of Calcutta are not paved with gold for the 'Matric. Pass,' and a reaction against education has set in.

Such, briefly and in general, was the position when the C.M.S. Delegation recommended Chapra School as suitable for an experiment in what it thus called a Vocational school. The principal was sent to America to study different types of schools, and an additional European was sent out to help him tackle the problem. Three years ago, when we began to re-plan the school, it was about 200 strong. Of that number 90 were boarders.

Our problem was to find out by experiment what type of school would best fit the village lad for life in the village. We had fine buildings, 40 *bighas* of land, and some fine traditions as our assets, and the principal had been there for some ten years. We took over the workshops, and organised our time-table so as to include one of four trades in the curriculum—carpentry, weaving, tailoring and iron-work. The plant is of the simplest, with no machinery. In addition to this, the school land had to be prepared for our farming venture. This meant fencing, clearing and converting fallow land into allotments. It also meant an agricultural teacher. The best we could do was a trained teacher with some agricultural experience. The Agricultural Department made various promises, of which one materialised in the sending of two senior boys to the Government Farm at Dacca, to return as teachers. The District Agricultural Officer spends two or three days a month in the school giving theoretical and practical instruction, and a syllabus has been worked out.

Boys from the IV class work on the farm and learn one of the trades, selected by themselves. The school is divided into four houses, and each house has its garden. This again is divided into groups, with a group captain. Boys may grow what they like. They keep their own accounts and sell the produce of their gardens. The days

are far too short for these additional subjects to be tacked on to the Government Middle English curriculum. But we manage to secure time for games. Prefects are given quite large powers, and committees are elected by the boys and run by them—chapel, games, debates, library committees, etc.

Quite an amount of opposition was encountered at first from boys and parents, but it has broken down. We give no place to the pernicious distinction between manual and brain work, but it still lives.

Ideals of community life, the dignity of labour, co-operation (a much-needed lesson in Bengal), and the like are being 'put across' by means of the various school activities. There is a keen Debating Society; a newly-formed Anti-Malarial Society, run in conjunction with the school and village, has met with keen support. We hope to get a co-operative bank in the school in conjunction with farm work and gardens this year.

Gradually we are learning to correlate manual, field, and classroom work. Slowly we are building up a specialised staff. Our own weaving master is at present being trained at the Government Weaving School, Serampore.

And the results? They are hard to see as yet, but these are early days. Some half-dozen boys have returned to their farms, better equipped than their fathers, we hope.

Gradually, by the application of better methods and by co-operation between this central school and the 28 village schools, and by the inauguration of a Village Teachers' Training School on Moga lines (project method) in January, 1928, we hope to be able to make some contribution to this huge problem.

We have yet to go into the whole question of land tenure and the acquisition of land, and similar problems. Convincing the farmer of the benefits of such an education for the son, the placing of orphans and other landless boys on to farms of their own—a hundred such fascinating problems face us; but a knowledge of the Bengali lad, his keenness—yes, and his grit in the face of malaria, kala-azar, and the like—causes us to take courage and go forward.

G. F. CRANSWICK.

VIII

SOME EFFORTS AT VOCATIONAL TRAINING, SANGLI, SOUTHERN MARATHA STATES

THE Sangli Industrial and Agricultural School has existed as a school of Elementary grade from the very beginning. In fact, it was started many years ago as a Primary day school, and its evolution up to the present time has been a normal and gradual one, the aim always having been kept in mind of training, primarily, the youth of the Christian community for a successful independent life. More than a quarter of a century ago it was felt that the type of education then being given should have more of an industrial bias to it, and some fifteen years ago this idea was supplemented with that of the agricultural bias. The beginnings in each case were small. There was no radical revision of the curriculum, but the new ideas were introduced in such a way as to make them become part and parcel of the work of the school. These ideas were not always as acceptable as they are now, but they never caused any serious disruption. Boys have been going to the same classrooms and have been taught practically the same subjects throughout the major portion of the life of the school.

Training in the trades and agriculture is essential for the welfare of the Christian community. Missions, generally, have recognised this, but the community for which this training has been given has not always been so ready to take advantage of it. However, more recently there has been a marked improvement with respect to the attitude towards such training. It is not necessary that the factors bringing this about be investigated, but one notable fact is that this interest is touching the whole life of India. In the Southern Maratha country, for instance, considerable numbers of high-caste young men, Brahmans amongst them, are 'going in' for training either in the trades or agriculture.

And this means dirty, hard, manual work. Along with that goes book knowledge, of course, but the practical is stressed. This interest on the part of the non-Christians has done much to stimulate more of it amongst the Christians. And for all such help, direct or indirect, the Indian Church should be glad.

It has been the aim of the Sangli Industrial and Agricultural School to try to meet the economic problems in its own particular section of the country. The trades most suitable have been carefully selected and are being taught, with a view to turning out young men who can 'carry on' successfully themselves. In the case of masonry, tailoring and carpentry, the greatest success in this respect has been achieved. There are a goodly number of such Christian tradesmen scattered about in the villages and rural areas of this general section, as well as in towns and cities near and farther away. Lately the call of the cities has not been so strong, fortunately, and the number attracted to such centres is decreasing, while the number going to rural regions is increasing. Most of these young men seem to be able to 'get on to their own' very soon, for which the school is most grateful. There is a good demand for such artisans. Better training, generally, means better and more satisfactory work, and a satisfied customer is a good advertisement—be he a Hindu, Christian or Muhammadan.

In the case of smiths, motor mechanics and agriculturists, the same success has not been achieved, so far as independent effort is concerned. There is hardly sufficient all-year demand for smithing as yet, but as rural conditions improve such demand will probably grow. Lack of capital hinders young men from becoming independent in the motor business, or agriculture, until after accepting service they have laid by enough to start out for themselves. In this connection it is interesting to note, however, that a goodly number of non-Christians are taking to these trades, because of the fact that sufficient capital does appear to be available to them. Christian lads take up motor driving as servants, while most of the young agriculturists have gone into positions of teaching or management. Later on it is their intention to have their own service cars, or work their own land.

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These, then, are the trades taught, but in passing it may be of interest to remark that, at the request of the Indian staff, ten in number, eight of whom are Christian, agriculture in some simple form—gardening for the first two years and field crops for the last two—is a required daily subject, all pupils, regardless of their special trade, spending one period of 45 minutes per day at it. The argument was this: Everyone, whether he goes to the cities for employment or not, sooner or later wants to come back to his village, buy land, or redeem that now in the possession of the moneylender, farm it and settle down, for this seems to be the best security for peace and happiness. Such being the case, why should not each one be better prepared to farm when his time comes to do so? So, for the last four years, this requirement, with project method in vogue, has been in force. During most of the time the boys are at their own plots. But when the weather is unfavourable, they are given talks on the various crops, methods of cultivation, etc. At first there was no little complaint, but now there is keen interest in this subject.

It is the aim in the whole school to keep everything on as simple a basis as possible. There is not much expensive equipment, although the school is well-housed. The school farm can boast of only about thirteen acres, but a very intensive type of agriculture, with poultry, fruit culture and gardening emphasised, is being taught and demonstrated.

Although the farm acreage is not large, it is utilised as one would like to see much more land about the villages utilised. Poultry, gardening and fruit growing have been receiving the major share of attention, while dry farming has been stressed where field crops are grown, for Sangli and a large area about it lie in a region of scanty rainfall. Fowls have been tried and tested in this climate and have shown that they do very well indeed. Hence it has been the aim to show how the country hen can be improved by the process of 'grading,' through breeding her to cocks of pure breed. Housing problems have been tackled with a view to demonstrating how something cheap yet suitable to the purse of the villager can be constructed for 'Biddy,' so as to make her more comfortable and thus more

productive. Simple appliances, such as may be had readily and at little cost, have been devised. Fruit trees have been cultivated with a view to making the land still more productive. In brief, the effort has been to train and likewise demonstrate how the land can produce much more, and that continuously throughout the twelve months of the year.

More recently the goat has been taken in hand much the same way as the chicken, for it is felt that she may become the 'poor man's cow' in India, just as she is in Western lands. Here, too, the outlook is good. India possesses millions of goats and chickens, but of what inferior qualities! So, why not show how they can be improved and thus become of greater value to the poor villager? Good fowls are now to be seen in dozens of villages all throughout this region, and it is the expectation that the good goat will supplant the mongrel animal now found everywhere. Milk is not a common article of diet in most homes, but eggs are used much more frequently than they used to be in these parts. Sick boys in the school are given goats' milk to drink, and they admit that it is good. In Sangli City there is a steady demand for it. Every pupil in the agricultural department has his turn at caring for both goats and chickens, and regular instruction in feeding, housing, breeding, etc., is given to each one.

The cultivation of fruit and timber trees is receiving no little attention. Fruit and poultry make a splendid combination. Wood for fuel is becoming very expensive, hence the need for producing more of it.

The annual attendance in all departments runs to about 60 regulars, who take the four years' course as required in the several trades, and some 15 to 20 specials, who come for short courses in motor mechanics or agriculture, lasting either three or six months. Those taking these short courses are generally maturer young men with considerable schooling, while the lowest age limit for regulars is 14 years. It is usually advisable that one who enters as young as 14 or 15 years should have a year or two of practical experience before he goes out for himself.

This school, while stressing the practical, has not mini-

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mised the importance of the cultural. It has not strictly followed Government requirements, but has attempted to make classroom work fit the training in the shop or on the farm. Daily Bible study is required; there is a weekly class in book-keeping for all; sports, Boy Scouts and a Literary Society have been part of the programme for some years, and, more recently, lectures on co-operative organisations are being given to the older students. In addition to two missionaries, one for the trades and the other for agriculture, there are two sets of teachers, six in the first set being required for the several trades, and four in the second for the classroom work. The wife of one of the missionaries supervises the tailoring department, and English is taught in one class by the wife of the other.

The pupils are divided into two shifts, one half attending classroom work and the other their trades, and vice versa. The daily programme begins with a prayer service at 6.45 a.m., physical drill at 7, then gardening or field work for the shift that attends classroom work in the morning, the other shift going to their trades. Regular classes for the morning shift last from 8 to 11 a.m., when all boys in both shifts attend their special trades' classes for theoretical instruction, e.g. drawing, lectures on mechanics, lectures in agriculture, etc., these special classes lasting until noon. Then there is a two hours' recess, when the shifts reverse their programme, the afternoon classroom pupils taking their garden or field work from 5.15 to 6 p.m. At that hour all work stops everywhere, and sports are indulged in until dark. Studying is done during the noon recess and a night study-hour lasting an hour and a half. The day is a long one for both pupils and teachers, but there is plenty of variety and exercise, so that the time usually does not drag. The boys have excellent appetites, and are given a reasonable amount of good, wholesome food. The health of all pupils has been most satisfactory. They go out as strong well-developed young men.

Regular pupils are supposed to have finished the four Primary standards before entrance, but, because of the lack of suitable educational facilities in some of the rural areas it has been found necessary to conduct the third and fourth

standards as a temporary measure for big, strapping lads. However, as village education improves and the Community Middle schools function better, it is the expectation that all pupils will come prepared to do a higher grade of work, both in the classroom and at the trade. Certain it is that this type of education should be made more attractive for the more intelligent. Dullards or want-wits had better stay at home, for they will become none other than coolies. The Christian community needs men of courage, good judgment and enterprise, and such should be encouraged to take up vocational training. Otherwise, few will be able to stand up against keen competition in the cold, hard world.

An Industrial school is an ideal place in which to develop the spirit and practice of self-help. At Sangli the boys are required either to furnish, or work for and earn, all their clothing, bedding, books, tools and eating utensils, as also the equivalent of Rs. 2 per month for boarding the first year, Rs. 3 the second, Rs. 4 the third, and Rs. 5 the fourth. Their work is paid for at slightly less than market rates, it being understood that full market rates are not paid because supervision of work is required, and that costs something, especially where young, untrained labour must be looked after. The requirements just mentioned are not easy for new boys to meet, but during the third and fourth years, when their labour becomes truly productive, they are often able to earn enough to pay everything and put aside savings in the post office bank for future needs. And this everyone is encouraged to do. Fees are remitted for general excellence in conduct, classroom and trade work, and boys are encouraged in every way to get on the monthly honour roll.

Open-air Sunday schools, some eight in number, are conducted by older boy leaders and younger ones as assistants in as many different sections of the city, and the Christian Endeavour society sends out its evangelistic group to nearby villages fairly often. Regular church and Sunday school services are attended, and Sunday evening talks on life's problems are regularly held. The school library has a goodly selection of secular and religious books and periodicals in English and the vernacular. It has been very

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gratifying to see reading become more popular in recent years. However, there is still a very great need for many more books on technical subjects in the vernacular. Perhaps those connected with such schools can help to meet this need.

The financing of such an institution is a big problem. It is often the tendency to gauge its success by the amount of money it earns through the sale of products, produce, etc. This is more or less natural, perhaps, but the danger is that production may be unduly magnified and instruction sadly neglected. Pupils must be taught that one of their chief sources of satisfaction is the satisfied customer. That is all very desirable, but to achieve it great care in training is necessary. One teacher cannot take care of more than ten pupils at a time, and that is expensive business. In the agricultural department just as much care is required, especially since carelessness is apt to be rampant everywhere. And if the project method—so suitable for all such training—is employed, one cannot hope for much income to the school. However, it is by no means a hopeless problem. At Sangli the annual budget amounts to about Rs. 18,000, of which Rs. 6,000 come from the Home Board. The balance must be raised from sales, fees (and these come chiefly from the non-Christian students), etc., for the school is in an Indian State and gets not one pie in the way of a Government grant. However, through the practice of strict economy, the school has been closing its books without a deficit for several years, although it is not satisfied that its training is on as high a plane as it ought to be.

An institution of this sort has a great opportunity to extend its influence beyond the sphere of its immediate locality. Customers, hearing of its good work, may come from considerable distance, while farmers will come to see crops, live stock, implements, etc., from miles away, and invitations to go and visit them, give illustrated talks, advice on their problems, etc., will be received. What a splendid opportunity to do humble Christian service in a way that is bound to influence the heart in favour of Him whom we serve! Oftentimes the financial pinch is felt most

at this very useful phase of the work, for funds do not permit of such extension service.

All this is just a simple tale of what one small industrial institution is trying to accomplish. The spirit of Hampton and Tuskegee is being called for in India, and these efforts are being put forth in response to that call. There is nothing new or especially different in this tale, nor does this school by any means claim that it has 'attained.' No; there is still the 'pushing forward,' and ever forward, for it and all such schools. As intimated before, the standard of teaching must be improved, and better methods need to be introduced into this kind of education just as much as into any other kind. However, the situation described in this tale is not peculiar to any one section of the country. Larger and more extensively equipped institutions may be needed in certain places, but the humbler ones may find their niches and do their work just as surely. If any country needs this kind of education, India is that country. This fact is so apparent that one need not take time to discuss it. Here is a great challenge for Mission and Church co-operation in this kind of work. Teachers, capable, efficient and enthusiastic, for such schools are very rare, and financial problems are not those of easy solution. But combined efforts mean greater power; and greater power, with God's blessing, will accomplish wonders. Will the Missions and Churches accept this challenge?

JOHN L. GOVERN.

PART II

SOME RURAL SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS

9. THE LUCY PERRY NOBLE INSTITUTE FOR WOMEN,
RACHYANAPURAM, MADURA.
10. 'MAKING THE SCHOOL A HOME,' PAKAUR.
11. A CURRICULUM IN PRACTICAL ARTS, ANKLESWAR.

NOTE ON PART II

A VOCATIONAL Middle school for girls has an aim quite different from that found in a corresponding school for boys. Self-support, entire or partial, may be a subsidiary portion of that aim, though this purpose, except as carried out with the aid of foreign markets, has not yet been achieved with any sort of completeness. The primary objective is, and always must be, the preparation of girls for home life; the production of wives and mothers who will bring into the home intelligence, interest and spiritual purpose.

A daily time-table and two courses of study show what subjects in home economics are being experimented with in three schools. For girls, far more than for boys, some sort of a cottage system seems indispensable. 'We learn by doing' and by 'doing' in situations similar to those in which the knowledge will be practised in later life. The old-fashioned 'barracks' system of the average boarding school has no similarity to the situations of ordinary family life. Cooking rice for two hundred people, or carrying water from the well, does not help the young wife to buy and prepare food in proper quantities and proportion for a family of two or three. Sweeping the same verandah every morning in the year does not teach how to make a village home tidy and attractive. Preparing a budget in the arithmetic class does not 'transfer' to the wise spending of her or her husband's first month's salary. Dates and battles in the history of India do not teach her how to live peaceably with her neighbour or 'in-laws.'

The following pages tell how a few schools are training wives and mothers-to-be.

IX

THE LUCY PERRY NOBLE INSTITUTE FOR WOMEN, RACHYANAPURAM, MADURA

THE Homecrafts School, with its enrolment of 100, was a gradual development, a result of taking a few young women into our Bible school with a view to establishing them in their Christian life, and giving them more Scripture knowledge. Their need of more general education was so apparent, and this need so widespread in the Christian community, as to lead us to open more and more classes for these younger women until we had a fully organised school. Its work goes on in three departments, viz. :

1. *The School.* Nine classes, with a syllabus corresponding in general, yet differing in several important particulars from that of the Elementary school. For instance, in the latter schools only Indian history is taught, and a girl may spend eight years in school without acquiring the ability to read an ordinary newspaper with the smallest intelligence. We are, therefore, expanding the course in history, and are trying to teach geography therewith, using all possible charts, maps and pictures of scenery, customs, costumes, and occupations, in order to lend vividness to the study. We have added a course in 'Family Medicine' and another in 'Home Management,' both of which are somewhat differently carried out from any usual work of the Elementary schools.

2. *The Homecrafts Department.* Most of the girls received here are unable to pay fees, clothe themselves and pay for books and stationery or travelling expenses, or to provide 'pocket' money. Without some means of earning their way, they would be deprived of any opportunity for education. With a view to giving help to such, we organised our work-rooms, where each girl may work

three hours daily at some craft, which may also be useful to her in after days in her home—needlework, lace or weaving. We propose to weave the sarees worn by the girls and women, to learn to cut out and make all the garments likely to be needed in the Indian family, and also to get in from our fields, as far as may be, the food we eat. We do not hesitate to call upon the students for any work on the place within the possibilities of time and strength. Many hundreds of garments and articles for household use are made in the work-rooms for sale, and the annual task of selling these adds largely to the labours of the principal. A monthly stipend is paid to each girl for her work, and this money, thus earned, forms a very valuable basis for the work of the

3. *Home-Life Department.* The activities of this department are the special feature of our work, and are carried out by the aid of: (1) the usual domestic work of the school, done in groups under the superintendence of teachers; (2) in model cottages, erected in part by the girls themselves, in which they keep house; (3) in the 'Mothers' Memorial Nursing Home,' which has its dispensary and two wards with comfortable beds for the sick; (4) by the use of the school post office, bank and shop, all as a means of training in the use of money and in the conduct of ordinary affairs.

The institute, as described above, owns 46 $\frac{3}{4}$ acres of land just outside the municipal bounds of the city of Madura, in South India, and is one of the institutions of the American Madura Mission. Its location is in the open country, surrounded by its own fields, with blue hills in the near horizon. Thirty-five acres of land are under rice cultivation, and the rest occupied by the excellent buildings, which have been the work of the past ten years.

One member of the staff has her duties chiefly in connection with the Home-Life Department. On this 'compound' there are 200 or more people for whom we, as missionaries, are in some sense responsible—teachers, their families, pupils, and employees of sorts. We are carrying on with a staff of 13 teachers, 1 farm superintendent and maistry, 1 writer, 1 matron, and 2 nurses;

while gardeners, farm labourers, and servants add 7 more —25 in all.

When the day set for opening school comes, and the girls arrive with their admission cards in hand, we generally have the immediate sad task of weeding out some whose age or physical fitness have not been correctly represented. The girls come from remote places, by motor bus or train, bullock cart or walking. They are weary and travel-worn, and newcomers exhibit signs of the hard life of the villages. Some of them are as wild as the deer of the forest, and as frightened and ready to run back to their jungle homes.

Each girl reports to the superintendent of the Home-Life department. Her box of possessions is carefully examined, and a complete list made and pasted on the inner lid of her box. This examination is accompanied by a friendly talk, which reveals the girl's home conditions, as well as her needs, and is the beginning of the long-continued close personal dealing, which we think more valuable than classroom study. The girl accounts for any money she may have in her possession, and her first deposit in the bank is made. She is then given her food ticket, and sent for rest and refreshment. Each girl will, of course, be assigned at once to her section of the school, to the class for which she is fit, and teachers will be busy preparing their syllabus books and the new lesson notebooks required annually. The principal meets all the teachers at once for a word of welcome and direction as to the year's work and for prayer. New teachers are welcomed and introduced, and our first assembly takes place, with all present, in the attractive assembly hall. In the meantime, the pupils of the schools, excluding the day scholars, are getting their assignment to one of our 13 'families,' each under a 'mother,' a senior girl or woman upon whom is placed much responsibility for the nine or more members of her family; while these 13 mothers form a group to do intensive work with. Each 'family' bears the name of some flower, or such as 'Star' and 'Sunbeam,' while the children who are here with their mothers and board inside are put into the family of 'Brownies,' with the watchword 'Little Helpers.' Each

family owns a painting representing its name and watchword, and this is highly valued by the girls.

Each mother gets her family up in the morning and conducts prayers with them, seated in family circles, instead of in one large group. She is responsible for seeing that they get their daily bath at the hours assigned. The household tasks are assigned to these family groups, and in the early hours of the day the sweeping, dusting, and arranging of the classrooms is done, with superintending teachers in the background, while some will be at work in the compound to keep the paths clean. Our grounds have a well-kept appearance often remarked upon by visitors. Then comes the first meal of the day. This has been prepared by the group assigned to that work, assisted by the cook, whose continuous presence in the kitchen we find necessary. The pupils sit in family groups, and these own a family mat to sit upon, bought by themselves. Our dietary is somewhat in advance, we think, of that of the ordinary boarding school. We have insisted upon a variety of grains, have some dishes with sugar, curds when possible, and some fruit. This is also by way of teaching cookery, and giving instructions as to dietary.

At half-past seven each morning a visitor to the school would find 12 family groups busily at work, according to a definite time-table. One group will be doing 'family sewing,' mending their own clothing or making garments for themselves. Another will be making baskets or mending them, an art useful in the Indian home; another will be weighing, measuring, calculating the day's supplies in the storeroom; another will be handling our store of grain, which has frequently to be spread out to dry, or boiled in the husk and afterward husked for use. Other groups will be gardening or learning cookery in the model cottages, of which we have two. Another group will be assisting at the morning clinic in the 'Mothers' Memorial Nursing Home,' where those who are ailing are required to report each morning, while a 'family' group works alongside, getting opportunity for observation and for oral instruction.

Just as soon as possible after beginning work, every

woman, girl or child in the school is medically examined and registered in the Nursing Home, and each one given a page in our books, recording all possible facts of her physical condition. They are often sadly below par as to health conditions, the victims of wrong diet or insufficient food, or of life in insanitary surroundings, or of extreme poverty or hardship. We cannot hope to undo all the bad effects of these, but during their entire stay with us we are constantly at work to establish the health of our students.

To return to our model cottages—these are built like ordinary village houses, of mud and thatch. The girls did what work they could in building, trampling the mud and plastering it up. One house contains but one room, with a kitchen and a work verandah. The other has two front rooms separated by a hall, with a storeroom and a kitchen at the back, and the work verandah. This is an advance upon the other in space and appointments. They are both models, in that they are kept neatly whitewashed, are fenced in, and the enclosure laid out with little walks, grass plots and flowers, and a vegetable garden, from which fresh vegetables are had in their season. The girls help to whitewash and even repair, and make some additions for convenience according to their own ideas. A family is assigned to Model Cottage No. 1, and allowed to keep house for two weeks. After perhaps two turns there, they will be sent to Model Cottage No. 2, where they have more and advanced work, and where we hope soon to keep a cow and fowls. In either case a programme of life and work is followed. Life there would have little value as training were it not carefully superintended. The superintendent, with a teacher, works along with the girls, and they manage to create and keep alive a great deal of interest. The mother is responsible for carrying out the programme of each day and for maintaining good relations among her 'children.'

Each girl earns a stipend for the work she does in the work-rooms and fields. From this she pays Rs. 4-8 monthly for her food. Half of this amount for each member of the family is given back for the purpose of

housekeeping for the fortnight. It is given in Indian token coins, to prevent possible loss or other complications. The family is required to make a budget. All must not be spent just for food. Some for clothing, for education, travel, incidentals, sickness and benevolences must be laid aside. They must live upon the rest. No ordinary supplies are given during this fortnight except what is bought and paid for, and this buying is done at market prices in the main storeroom of the school. This involves planning for meals, weighing, measuring, pricing, paying, accounting, cooking, serving. Small expedients of economy are practised, and the matter is one of real experience; and sometimes the mother is very serious over the way her money is not holding out. During the fortnight there is practice in special cookery, and guests may be invited for a 'feast' prepared and served by the family. Letters of invitation are sent to some members of the school staff, or even to missionaries outside. Many happy occasions are thus made. The classes leaving the school, or missionaries leaving on furlough, and, on one occasion, the Collector's wife, have been thus entertained.

The families thus taking turns are strictly marked under certain headings, and the family taking the highest marks is awarded a prize at the close of the school year. They are allowed to choose between money to spend for themselves or something for the house—a clock, a brass water-pot, cooking vessel—and have felt much pleasure in making their addition to the house furnishings. When Model Cottage No. 2 was built, the students collected money among themselves to buy such articles as they had found desirable to have for entertaining guests—dishes of sorts, with spoons, knives and forks. It was entirely their own idea and we permitted it.

One duty every mother has to perform every month is to help the members of her family make their budget for the next month. Village girls have no idea of the necessity for towels, or of the value of a blanket in the chill of the rainy season. Careless spending of any little sums of money given by parents may be the rule among school-girls. So we require a budget, or carefully prepared list

of articles to be bought, when Banking Day comes. The money to be regularly contributed for benevolences is written on the board for clearness sake, then listed; the bank balances noted by examining the pass-books; and then, according to the amount available, whether much or little, plans are made. Perhaps this month a towel may be bought, leaving something towards a blanket next month, or a jacket, or petticoat, or saree, or box or some toilet article. Every month something goes down for soap, and, recognising the universal schoolgirl's craving for sweets, we get clean and safe sweets and put them in glass jars, and quite approve of a small sum on the monthly budget for these. Thus each girl will be planning ahead, saving for a purpose, and buying nothing in a merely impulsive or wasteful way.

Banking Day is a great day in the school. All transactions are made in the books in the office, but the girls go through all the processes as a matter of education. Each is provided with a *pay-slip*, stating the amount the school is paying her for her work in field or work-room, and what she is to pay the school. They are dealt with by families. The teachers are all in their places for the transactions, in which most of them have a share. A teacher pays each girl as she comes (in Indian coin tokens), and receives from her the payment for food. The girl then goes to the bank, where the cashier is in his place behind his wicket window. In a small place adjoining the dispensary we have a very simple but business-like arrangement—a long counter with wicket window for post office, another for the bank, each properly labelled. The shop is separated by a lattice, which can be locked. The cashier receives the girl's 'balance,' writes up her 'pass-book' and gives it to her. A teacher then helps her to enter transactions in her account book, everything received, paid and deposited. She has her certified 'budget' with her in duplicate. She goes again to the bank and (when necessary, with the help of a teacher) writes a cheque for the amount she is to spend. The cheques are in little books and have a stub, so she has a record of her own. This time she gets actual money from the bank. She then goes to the shop

to buy. The shelves of the shop are well supplied with pins, needles, thread, toilet articles, cups, plates, mats, blankets, towels, cloth for jackets, petticoats, and sarees of sorts, sweets, and perhaps useful shoulder pins—everything very real and just to the girls' needs, with some regard to their liking for pretty colours. The saleswomen are behind the counter with their yard sticks, and the girl sees her cloth measured off and her sweets weighed out, and her bills written into the books, and the transaction is a real one and has the interest of real bazaaring without its temptations to wasteful expenditure.

In the monthly budget will be an item for stamps. Letters and postcards must be sent regularly to the 'folks at home.' So back to the post office for those purchases. The post-mistress is at her wicket window, and she has a store of cards and envelopes. Post office rules in clearly printed Tamil are in sight, and the slit in the counter over the locked letter-box is ready to receive the letters and cards when written. The post-mistress is present every morning to transact post office business. We are four miles from the post office, but the authorities there kindly send us notices of money orders and parcels, with receipts to sign, and orders to fill for delivery. All this business is real practice for the students, and, done over a counter at a proper window, with a specially designated official, it has more value as education than if done by a perpetual application to the principal at her desk for postcards, etc. The post-mistress just now is one of the younger teachers, and we consider it her duty to give instruction in the right method of signing receipts, filling in money orders, and doing such other business as is necessary. She collects from the box all the letters, and brings them to the principal's office, from which they are sent daily to the General Post Office in the town.

After finishing all these transactions each girl passes into the next room, where teachers are waiting to assist her to write down every item in her account book. Her balance in her cash book must correspond to her cash in hand. Every woman and girl in the school is put through this process every month, and it often requires a day and a half

of hard work to complete it. After that, another day of work is generally required to square accounts in the shop, compare the books with the girls' budget lists, and take the inventory, in order to be ready for the next Banking Day. Every month we spend from Rs. 100 to Rs. 300 in stocking the shop, and the cash from sales comes in to reimburse us, and the balance of stock must tally. We keep a stock book and a bill book. As to the bank, each girl has an account on the books, with all deposits, withdrawals and the balances carefully shown, and owns a pass-book and a cheque-book.

As a part of our work in the model cottages we have a course of study in home management, and in connection with the nursing home experiences a course in family medicine. The former discusses, on the side of theory, the problems of home-making, food, dress, money-spending. The latter includes brief lessons in physiology, personal hygiene, the recognition and home treatment of diseases, and lessons also on the care of the sick. These courses might be counted as pertaining to the syllabus of our ordinary school work, but because of their relation to the practical activities of the model cottages and the nursing home, we have always considered them as a part of the work of 'The Home-Life Department.' When we see a baby brought in from some house in the compound, and carefully bathed, and the little things done for it which every mother ought to know how to do, and see the girls eagerly observing and sharing in the work, it is certainly 'life' on the plane of reality; as also, when tonics are made from herbs procurable in the bazaar, and their effect watched upon patients, and skin diseases treated and the ointments actually made and applied, the thermometer used in fevers, and many other useful things actually learned and taught.

It is real life when the planting time and harvest comes, and the women go to the fields singing and clapping their hands, jumping and springing. They do all-day work, standing in the water transplanting the rice over our 35 acres. They weed it, and reap it, and help to winnow and thresh it, and bring up the straw on their heads. They handle the grain all the year, boiling, drying, husking it;

and eat the food from our own fields all but six weeks of the year. All this has been willingly done, and our harvest festivals and home celebrations are happy events following. The whole school turns into the fields at the harvest time, and classes are forgotten for a time; but we feel that the lessons learned in the cottages, in the nursing home, the post office, and bank and shop, the work-rooms and the fields are better and higher, for they are lessons of *life*.

EVA M. SWIFT.

HEADINGS UNDER WHICH HOME-LIFE IN MODEL
COTTAGES IS VALUED AND SUPERINTENDED

- | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------------|
| I. Management. | VII. Upkeep of Furniture. |
| II. Daily Life. | VIII. Keeping of Accounts. |
| III. Cooking. | IX. Special Improvement. |
| IV. Entertainment. | X. Punctuality. |
| V. Cleanliness. | XI. Gardening, in general. |
| VI. Health Directions. | XII. Gardening, in special. |
| Total Marks—100. | |

THE LUCY PERRY NOBLE INSTITUTE FOR WOMEN, RACHANYAPURAM, MADURA

TIME-TABLE FOR HOME-LIFE ACTIVITIES, 7.30-8.30 A.M.

	Family Medicine in Dispensary and Nursing Home	Family Sewing	Cookery	Weighing and Calculating Food Stuffs	Grinding Ragi	Sifting Grains	Sorting, Cleaning Grains	Basketry	Bringing and Boiling Drinking Water	Model Cottage Gardening, Housekeeping
MONDAY ..	Carnation	Chrysanthemum	Sunbeam and Zinnia	Star and Pansy	Rose	Violet	Daisy	Sun Flower	Lily	Carnation and Jasmine
TUESDAY ..	Chrysanthemum	Sunbeam and Zinnia	Star and Pansy	Rose	Violet	Daisy	Lily	do.	..	Resident Family
WEDNESDAY ..	Sunbeam and G. and G. extra	Star and Pansy	Rose	Violet	Daisy	Lily	Zinnia	do.	Chrysanthemum	do.
THURSDAY ..	Star and Pansy	Rose	Violet	Daisy	Chrysanthemum	Zinnia	Pansy	do.	Lily	do.
FRIDAY ..	Rose	Violet	Daisy	Lily	Zinnia	Pansy	Chrysanthemum	do.	Bible Classes, Senior & Junior	do.

X

MAKING THE SCHOOL A HOME, PAKAUR M.E. GIRLS' SCHOOL

It was a hot day in April. We were travelling by Ford, *alias* Elizabeth Ophelia, over a rough and little-used road, to a distant Santali village, to visit a family who had been Christians only two or three years. They had repeatedly urged us to come to their home and spend the day with them, but school duties, and the fact that the distance was so great, had caused us to put them off from time to time. But finally the day was set and we were on our way. The heat was so great that we almost wished we had not come, but when we arrived and were received so hospitably, as real relatives in this Santali home, we forgot the discomfort of the heat and the bumps along the way.

This Santali family we found had an unusually nice home. It consisted of two storeys, although the upper storey was not very high and was used chiefly as a store-room for supplies. The walls of the house were of mud, taken from the land the family own. They had been carefully built according to Santali custom, and baked in the sun until they were as hard as brick. Covered with a wash of white earth, they looked neat and clean. The roof was of bamboo and thatching grass, raised on the land which the family own. The rope which tied it together was made from jute, also raised on their land. They produce practically all their food, rice, dal, vegetables, spices and grains for oil. They keep chickens, goats and pigs. They are almost independent. The father told us that their only real need which they themselves could not supply was for salt and cloth. They hope to meet the latter need by sending one son to a weaving school to learn to weave.

This family is not only wealthy in material possessions

GIRLS' SCHOOL AT PAKAUR

but also in sons. There are six of them, fine, stalwart lads who have learned to read and write in Government schools. One had already married and brought his wife home to be another helper in this family, who own and till their own land. In addition to the sons, there is one daughter. When they were baptised, the missionary persuaded the parents to allow the daughter to come to school that she might learn to read. When I saw her home, how thankful I was that we had the beginning of a school which would not alienate her from her home and family, but would help keep her a part of it. In the old days, when our Santali girls attended a Bengali school of dormitory type, we had many complaints from Santals that girls who came to school did not make good wives because they did not know how to help their husbands work the land. They lived in brick buildings in school, so they did not know how to care for a Santali home, and, since they were home so short a time during the year, they did not know how to cook for an average-size family. The question was often asked, 'What good does it do us if a girl can read and write, if she cannot plant rice, keep her house clean, and does not know the customs of her own people? It is all right if she is to be a teacher, but we do not want such girls for wives.'

But at last, after years of prayer and planning, we have a beginning of a school for Santali girls, whose aim is to build an ideal Santali village, with model homes, where the girls will not forget their beautiful village customs, but will preserve all that is best in them, and, through learning the laws of health and sanitation, make better villages and better homes when they leave school.

First, the school homes themselves are like Santali village homes, except that they have more doors and windows, and consequently more air space. Each cottage has two rooms, one for a teacher who acts as house-mother, and another large enough to accommodate eight or ten girls. The plan is to put four or five little girls with four or five big girls. Then each big girl has a little girl to whom she is big sister. This home the girls keep in order. There is an inspection card in each house, which states that the room must be swept every day, bedding and clothing in

place, dishes on shelves, cook-house clean, windows open, and courtyard clean. Each Saturday the girls remove everything from the cottage and clean it thoroughly. They know just how to fix the cracks that appear in the walls during the intense heat of the dry season. After the rains they go over the whole house, repairing every crack and cranny. Then they wash it with the white earth, which makes the houses look as good as new. They work out their own ideas in decorating. Some mix the white earth with red and make a border about the lower part of the house. Some burn straw, and, mixing it with earth and water, use that to decorate the verandahs and pillars. This work is done during work hours set aside morning and evening, and on Saturdays.

We have tried to meet the objection to the children not knowing anything about farming, the Santal's chief occupation, by giving holidays during part of the working season. Then we are fortunate in having a large mission compound with a great many rice fields. The girls did all of the transplanting and weeding of the rice this last year. The boys did the harvesting. That is their portion of the work. Each cottage also has its own garden. The girls can have the vegetables they like best. They also have flower gardens near their houses.

As soon as enough cottages were complete, so that the girls could all have their own homes, they began to do their own cooking. There is a regular programme for each house arranged at the beginning of the term, so that each girl knows on which days of the week she is responsible for the meals. The older girls cook the rice and curries, while the smaller ones prepare the vegetables and spices. The rice is always clean and well-cooked, and the curries are usually good. In the last few months the head girl in each house has been given a week's supply of food at a time. She has a bottle for the oil, tins for salt and spices, a screened box in which to keep vegetables, and a large earthen jar for the rice. This teaches them to apportion the amount of food for each meal and to make the amount of food given last for the appointed time. This is preparatory to plans for the girls buying their own food, and thus



PAKAUR VILLAGE STREET



PAKAUR VILLAGE PLAYGROUND

GIRLS' SCHOOL AT PAKAUR

learning to budget the amount of money which they have to spend.

There are very few orphans in the school, but there are some children of widows and children of very poor parents who need help. We have tried to provide for them by giving them work by which to earn money. Instead of asking for oil, books and clothes, they now proudly bring the money and buy them. The daily cleaning of their houses and cooking is considered a part of the regular school work, so they are not paid for that; but for planting rice, cutting grass, cleaning the compound, and repairing the mud walls they are paid at the rate of two pice per hour for the older girls, and one pice for the younger girls. This amount we pay the older girls is what we should have to give to Santali village girls, whom we should have to hire to do the work if the girls in school did not do it.

One girl is the school store-keeper, and pays her fees in this way. We keep such things as school supplies, oil, thread, hairpins, ribbon, soap, and pins in the store. It is open at an appointed hour in the day, and every girl has a chance to buy. Thus every little girl has an opportunity to learn what she can do with a pice, which she has earned by an hour's work. The girls are very generous in giving their money to various needs of the church. The treasurer of the Epworth League is a school girl. Last year, out of 45 members, 40 were giving a pice a week. The girls have a steward who is a member of the official board of the church. She collects the girls' contributions to the pastor's salary each month. Last year, when it seemed as though we should fail to raise the amount promised for our pastor's salary, some of them said, 'We will give; even though we give up our curry and oil, we will give.'

The girls' time may seem to be so full that it might endanger their health, but, on the contrary, the health record of the school has never been better. The height and weight charts show a gradual gain in nearly every case. When we were studying the laws of health in our Girl Guide group, one girl said, 'We are healthier here because we are busy working and get more exercise than we did in the old school,' and she added—'We do not have time to

quarrel either.' All have time for play as well as work. Badminton is a favourite game. We had a tournament this spring, in which two girls from each cottage were chosen to play. There were some splendid games played before the champions won the final.

One of our most recent experiments is a self-governing association, which we call by the Santali term *More Hor*, and which is more commonly known as a *panchayat*. It is made up of the head girls of each cottage, chosen by the girls in the cottage, a teacher, and the missionary in charge. This body deals with problems arising in the hostel. Each head girl, who is called a *manjhi*, is responsible for the girls in her cottage. She reports any problems they may have, and her attention is called to any neglect or breaking of rules caused by any of the girls in her cottage. We hope to co-operate by telling each other of our problems, whether missionary, teacher or girl, and thus work together to make a school of which we can all be proud.

When it is possible for our teachers to get more training in the project method, we hope to relate the projects in the hostel to the class work. When the girls begin to do their buying, we plan to try to work out their problems in the arithmetic classes, and problems in cleanliness and sanitation in the hygiene classes. A project we have in view now we hope to make a reality this fall. We feel the need of a prayer-room, or *asram*, in the school itself. The church is too far away for the girls to go when they wish to be alone, so we propose to build a little prayer-room in the village. One night we read together of the building of the tabernacle by the Israelites, how they brought their gifts, and how those who had nothing to bring gave of their labour and time. So we propose to bring gifts of labour and time, to prepare a place where we can go apart and be quiet for a while.

Thus we are working together, trying to build Christian character and prepare for life. Our school is young; we realise it is in the experimental stage as yet. No doubt we shall be able to improve on many things after more experience, but we do believe we have made a beginning on the right type of school for our Santali Christian girls.

M. PIERCE.

XI

SCHOOL OF PRACTICAL ARTS, ANKLESWAR

IN Ankleswar, about a mile away from the boys' school (see page 50), an Elementary and Training school for girls is carried on upon similar lines. The value of such a scheme of co-ordinated work cannot be too much emphasised, yet is all too seldom found as a well-planned element of Mission policy. Too often girls who have had theoretical and practical training in the ideals of a Christian home have to accept as their mates for life young men to whom such ideals are as a closed book. In some cases the reverse is true.

In Ankleswar the two schools are run upon a well-thought-out and carefully co-ordinated plan. Because of this close relationship, it has seemed unnecessary to give a detailed description of the girls' school, but its scheme of studies is appended, showing how courses in health-education, house management, care of children and home industries take the place of the industrial and agricultural courses followed by the boys. The reader wishes he might look forward ten years and see the Christian homes that will be the product of this co-operative endeavour.

COURSE OF STUDY

FIRST YEAR

1. *Religious Education*

- Bible—Old Testament History, Institutions, and Characters, Memory Work.
- Mission Study—A study of the development and growth of Christianity in the different countries of the world.
- Sunday School Teacher Training.
- Social Relationships and Christian Conduct.
- Practical Work.

2. *Education*
Child Study and Observation.
Story-telling.
Expressional Activities.
3. *Health*
Physiology and Hygiene.
First Aid.
4. *Home Economics*
Foods and Cookery.
Household Management and Accounts.
5. *Industries*
Sewing.
Knitting, Crocheting, Embroidery.
Laundering.
Gardening.
6. *Community Life*
Games and Games.
Music.
Reading and Poetry.
Use of Library.

SECOND YEAR

1. *Religious Education*
Bible—New Testament History, Life of Christ, Early Church,
Epistles, Memory Work.
Mission Study—A study of the development and growth of
Christianity in the different countries of the world.
Sunday School Teacher Training.
Christian Ethics.
Practical Work.
2. *Education*
Primary Curriculum in relation to Child Needs.
Principles and Methods of Teaching.
Observation and Practice.
3. *Health*
Household Sanitation.
Care of Sick in the Home.
Motherhood and Care of Children.
4. *Home Economics*
Nutrition and Diet.
Cookery.
Household Management and Accounts.

5. *Industries*

- Sewing and Tailoring.
- Gardening
- Basketry.
- Spinning and Weaving (?).

6. *Community Life*

- Appreciation of Indian Music, Art and Literature.
- Teaching of Games and Sports.
- Organisation of Classes.
- Conducting Meetings.
- Story Hour.
- Public Health.

E. N. SHICKEL.

PART III

VARIOUS EXPERIMENTS

12. CO-EDUCATION AT DORNAKAL.
13. VILLAGE SUPERVISION AT VELLORE.
14. RECLAIMING CRIMINALS AT ATUR THROUGH
ADULT EDUCATION.

NOTE ON PART III

A FEW months ago an Indian educator was asked whether he thought India was ready for co-education. He replied, 'Don't ask about *India*, but about a certain particular place. Is X, Y or Z ready for it?' At least ten years of experience seems to prove that Dornakal is one of the places fully ready.

Adequate supervision is a *sine qua non* for education of the new type. Dr. Olcott describes an experiment which has been going on for the last five years in the area of the Arcot Assembly, South India.

Care of adults as well as children is a necessary feature of rural education. Mr. Narasimham describes his efforts in the education, material, intellectual, moral and spiritual, of a so-called 'Criminal Tribe,' a group born to social ostracism and predestined to crime, shut out from the ways of ordinary folk among the Salem hills. This experiment represents rural education in its broadest and deepest sense.

XII

CO-EDUCATION AT DORNAKAL

ITS BEGINNING

THE Dornakal Training School was started in 1907 as the Mission boarding school of the Indian Missionary Society of Tinnevely. The Society laid down in its constitution that its missionaries should aim at bringing up their converts on independent, self-supporting lines, and infusing such enthusiasm into them as to make them voluntary workers in the church. The Society was forced to take such a point of view, since it was not sure that the Tinnevely Indian Christians would be able to increase their financial support in proportion to the progress of the work. In sympathy with this aim, it was felt that the children of the converts should be given such a training as would enable them to stand on their own feet and not look up to the Mission for employment at the end of their school career. Since all the converts were field labourers who had weaving as a cottage industry during the off seasons, it was decided to teach in the school improved methods of farming and weaving, which would better fit them for life. To these was added carpentry, even a smattering knowledge of which is of great help to the other two trades in doing minor repairs to ploughs, carts and looms. Most of the money sent by friends of the Mission was spent in buying lands, cattle, tools and similar things, which would justify the expense by making a profitable return in the future. Simplicity and cheapness were aimed at in erecting buildings, which were more or less temporary sheds. Trouble was taken to see that as little money went out of the school as possible. Furniture for the school, such as looms for weaving, was made at the carpentry department; cloth for the children, woven in the weaving department, was made into clothing by the

girls, both for themselves and the boys. The farm tried to raise as much grain as the children consumed. The boys helped in pounding the grain and in gathering the fuel, while the girls cooked for them. The field of the experiment was unattached to any existing organisations round about, so there was no prejudice or opposition of the people to encounter. The village children, when they were brought into the boarding school, were not introduced into strange, unfamiliar surroundings.

An attempt was also made to bring in adults to learn carpentry and weaving. The success in the former experiment cannot be said to be much, as the men were diffident at learning a trade new to their caste and traditional upbringing.

RE-ORGANISATION

As years went on, neighbouring Missions sent their boys who were no good at their lessons to pick up a trade in this school, while the Indian Mission sent its best boys outside for higher education. It is only since 1922 that the school has been constituted under its present name, as the joint school of the four Church of England Missions working in the Nizam's Dominions in the Dornakal Diocese. It is run by a board of representatives from each of the Missions. Its objects, as re-stated and affirmed under the new management, are threefold:

1. To develop in Christian boys and girls self-respect and self-reliance.
2. To enable the Christian boys and girls to become in the future self-supporting voluntary workers in the Church.
3. To raise the Telugu Christian community, economically and socially, by giving the children an education that will relate them to their home conditions.

WORKING OUT THE AIMS

What is known as vocational training is given in the school. The boys have agriculture, carpentry, weaving and leather work to choose from. The girls have no

CO-EDUCATION AT DORNAKAL

option—this side of the work needs developing. They take their turns in cooking, gardening and poultry farming. They are taught to make their own clothing and that for the boys with the aid of hand sewing machines. The strength of the boys' school is 110, and that of the girls' is 35. The boarding arrangements are separate, but both boys and girls learn together. This has been found to be a great help in training the children's character. By the time the seniors are separated as full-time workers, the boys and girls know each other's faults and failings and there is no place for imaginary romance. During harvest time, when all the boys and girls help in bringing home the sheaves, they mingle naturally and do their allotted work, commanding each other's respect.

All the children are divided into two groups, full-time and half-time workers. Age and the ability of the children are considered when deciding under which group a child should go. The wish of the parents and the leanings of the child are taken into account when first a boy chooses his trade. It may be changed for another, at the discretion of the tutor, after a time. But no encouragement is given to change the trade after a training of one or two years. The full-timers work eight and a half hours a day and have half an hour's Bible class during the day. Special night classes are held for them, when they are taught their vernacular and a little arithmetic. The night classes are necessary, as grown up lads are admitted fresh from the villages as full-time workers. The half-timers are at their manual work early in the morning and in the evening. They give four hours a day to it and attend school during the hotter part of the day for five hours. The children are paid for the work they turn out; the half-timers get pocket money, varying from three annas to six pies; the full-timers are paid regular wages. No satisfactory way of calculating the work of the boys who work in the garden and farm has been worked out yet. The full-timers are made to pay their boarding fee from their earnings; and what is left over after paying their pocket money—varying from ten annas to four annas a month—is credited to their savings account. The savings are to

EXPERIMENTS IN RURAL EDUCATION

help the boys to start an independent career and to provide the means of buying the necessary tools for carrying on their work after they leave school.

By means of the poultry farm, which is only in its beginnings now, it is hoped to introduce good layers in the villages and help the people economically by increasing their means of earning a decent living.

THE INDUSTRIES

(a) *Weaving.* All the industries aim at supplying local demand. In the weaving department, fly shuttle looms are used and ordinary simple weaving is taught. Saris, shirting cloth, honeycomb towels and bedspreads are some of the things attempted. The boys are taught to put their very best into their work. Carelessness is punished. Only fast coloured yarns are used. This, along with honest work, brings orders from such distant places as Rangoon, Cawnpore, Karachi and Fatehpur. Weaving is the one industry which has been steadily growing under one tutor. It is self-supporting and brings a profit of Rs. 300 per annum—another teacher's salary.

(b) *Carpentry.* This has suffered for lack of proper management. Orders are given by neighbouring Missions and by civil and railway officers in the neighbourhood. Tables, chairs, almirahs, cots and stools are some of the articles always in demand. The boys help in the erection of new buildings, in fixing doors and windows and in putting up the roof. During such times, they are encouraged to take an interest in masonry and are allowed to help the masons and learn from them by observing them at work.

(c) *Leather Work.* This has had only a late start and was opened three years ago. Children of the leather workers only are allowed by their parents to learn the trade. Already the demand exceeds the turn-out. Shoes are sold as soon as they are made; sandals are disposed of in great numbers. Belts, wrist straps, dog collars and money purses are some of the useful things the boys are put on to at first. Attaché cases and leather bags



FIELD WORK AT DORNAKAL

Boys ploughing, and girls following the plough sowing seed.

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find a good sale locally. The location of the school in a Muhammadan country, where people as a rule do not go barefooted, and in a place where there is a fairly large railway population used to European style of living, is to its advantage.

GARDEN AND FARM

Trouble is taken to make the gardens and farm a model for the villagers round about. By proper manuring, thorough weeding, deep ploughing and rotation of crops, the boys succeed in raising crops better than their neighbours. The fact that their seedlings were stolen from their garden last year shows that their neighbours are aware of this superiority of their produce. It is left to the school to instruct outsiders and show them that it would gladly share the secret of its success with them. Besides raising enough vegetables for the boys' own consumption, they have been able to sell locally and to send by railway to boarding schools a hundred miles away. They fear local competition, as there are already two or three gardens laid out by individual capitalists.

POULTRY FARM

Rhode Island Reds and Leghorns are raised here. During the two years' experience, it is found out that, with proper care, these breeds can stand this climate. There is no doubt that when mixed with country fowls the birds will be hardier. The cost of keeping is very little, and plans are laid out to rouse the villagers' interest in this scheme. For the success of this enterprise, too, the locality of the school is an asset. Being near the railway and having direct connection with Secunderabad and with Singareni Collieries, where there are a large number of Europeans—and hence a demand for eggs—is an advantage which cannot be overlooked. To increase the stock the sale of fowls has been stopped for the present.

SEWING DEPARTMENT

Here again, instead of creating a need, means are found to meet the existing demand. The senior girls are taught to make clothing needed ordinarily in any Indian household. The shirts and clerical robes and church linen they make help the Mission workers and clergy to buy these at a rate cheaper than they can get them anywhere else.

THE OLD BOYS AND GIRLS

(a) *Weavers.* How far the school has been successful in infusing her ideals into her pupils should be seen in the lives of those who have left her and are scattered in different parts of the country. There have been so far no wholly self-supporting workers. There was such a one, a rare one. He was a weaver—a voluntary self-supporting worker in charge of a congregation. Unfortunately, he showed symptoms of leprosy and had to be sent away to a leper hospital for treatment. He is now completely cured and is a paid instructor in that hospital, teaching weaving to the patients. Four weavers are partly self-supporting and are in charge of small village congregations, receiving from the Mission a nominal pay of Rs. 4 per month. Four more are living independently of the Mission, earning a decent living by means of fly shuttle looms.

(b) *Carpenters.* A *matey* boy (servant) in a private house, after six months' training in carpentry, is now employed elsewhere, as the Mission buildings supervisor, on a salary of Rs. 30 per month. Several have gone to town, where they easily earn Re. 1-8 daily. A few serve apprenticeship with contractors and earn a decent living. There is now a young married man who has left railway employment to learn carpentry. Recently the Brahmin stationmaster of the place asked for permission to learn carpentry along with the 'outcaste' boys.

(c) *Others.* Several have gone out as servants in private houses and as gardeners. Some have found employment as teachers, and the few who were sent up for higher

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education have come back to help in the work of training others for their life-work.

The girls have, so far, only met the need of 'educated' wives for the teachers. One girl is undergoing training as a nurse and another is taking Normal training. Girls who are married to ordinary villagers show, by their dexterity and skill, that the boarding school life has not in any way unfitted them for ordinary village life. A girl from the Dornakal Training School has no excuse to plead ignorance of ordinary household affairs. House work she knows well; field work she delights in. She appreciates rest from hard labour, but she makes use of her leisure in making useful garments for herself or her ignorant neighbours, or in teaching them songs she learnt in school, which are really versions of Biblical stories set in an attractive form easy to memorise. She keeps herself and her humble dwelling clean, for was she not taught the importance of cleanliness and given a short course on hygiene and child welfare before she left school?

It is hoped all these are carrying out the school motto, 'Whatsoever thy hand findeth to do, do it with all thy might,' in the particular spheres of their work.

Some of the weavers who are in school now have sums varying from Rs. 70 to Rs. 30 or Rs. 20 to their credit in their savings account. One of them has redeemed his family property through his savings.

All these instances show that the attempts made in this school to raise the so-called 'outcastes,' economically, socially and morally, have not been in vain.

MERCY AZARIAH.

XIII

VILLAGE SCHOOL SUPERVISION AT VELLORE

WHY WAS THE WORK STARTED?

IN 1922 village school supervision was organised in the Arcot Assembly, because of several firm convictions. Missionaries and Indians saw that the village schools were an exceedingly important part of the whole Christian programme and that they had enormous possibilities. Our village schools were not clearly realising their potentialities. We saw that the difficulties in the way of securing adequate village education were very great, but that most of them could be overcome by giving the teachers skilled and sympathetic guidance. The main purpose of starting the work was, thus, *to teach the teachers in service how to teach better.*

HOW IS THE SUPERVISION ORGANISED?

My predecessor and I have had special educational preparation in Teachers' College, New York, to be chief supervisors of village schools. Three or four trained Indians, with long experience and progressive outlook, were called to assist us in visiting the schools. During the supervisors' visits to the village schools they fill out a blank, giving detailed information about the teacher, the school work, and the village life. These blanks offer a mass of valuable information of great help in the improvement of the schools. The main aim, however, has been to help the teachers help themselves in their work. The supervisors enter the schools as friends and guides, not as harsh critics or inspectors. They have no connection whatever with the management of the school, and no voice regarding the salary and allowance of the teacher. *The acceptance of*

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their suggestions depends on persuasion, not on any form of compulsion. This separation between the supervisory and administrative work has been maintained for five years. On the whole, it has worked well, for the teachers have grown accustomed to look on the supervisors as helpers in their work, not as spies to report on their shortcomings to higher authorities. The supervisors are teachers in the real sense, not taskmasters. Their work is educationally constructive.

WHAT DO THE SUPERVISORS DO ON THEIR VISITS?

During their tours to the villages the supervisors serve in various ways. In the school, they watch the teacher's work in order to give him encouragement and advice. By their own teaching, they demonstrate the use of better methods and equipment. At night they speak to the villagers about their school and the regular attendance of the children. Sometimes they speak to the children's Christian Endeavour society or to the women's meeting. They help to promote various useful cottage industries in the school and home, and to secure a good garden. If a special problem is to be solved, they call a council of the Christian elders to deal with it. *Nothing in the life of the village is beyond their sphere of service.* We try to have each village visited three or four days a year, but this is not always possible, because each man has forty to sixty schools to visit. This is far too many, but funds do not now permit our having more supervisors.

HOW ARE TEACHERS' MEETINGS USED?

Progressive ideas can be spread not only by the visit of the supervisor to the schools, but also by various kinds of teachers' meetings. At such times the supervisor can reach more teachers than if he saw teachers only one or two at a time. *The stimulus of other minds at a meeting is also a very valuable asset.* Where several schools are located within a few miles of each other, the supervisor often calls the teachers together for a day, in order to discuss and observe better education methods and equip-

ment. Most of our pastorates have monthly meetings for all their teachers, either for pay or in connection with the Teachers' Christian Endeavour Union. These times can be made of real spiritual and educational value. The supervisor is on hand at such occasions to give teaching demonstrations and lead the discussion about the school work. About once in three months, all the teachers of the circle (two or three pastorates) have regular meetings, at which about two hours is usually devoted to considering the advancement of education.

Last year, we utilised one of these meetings in each circle for an exhibition of a wide variety of objects from village schools. Much labour and ingenuity, both on the part of teachers and pupils, went into producing the articles that were brought. In awarding the prizes, stress was laid on the educational value of the exhibits and their being made from village materials by the children as far as possible. Some of the most valuable features were the examples of the handicrafts carried on by the pupils under the guidance of the teachers. These exhibitions have been of great value in enabling the teachers to see with their own eyes how much excellent work can be done with the simplest kind of materials.

WHAT MORE INTENSIVE TRAINING DO THE TEACHERS HAVE DURING SERVICE?

Once a year we bring together many of the village teachers in order that they may receive more thorough help for two or three weeks. We have held such institutes in connection with the Union Mission Teachers' Training School at Vellore. They have been conducted by members of the supervisory and training school staffs, with the added stimulation of some outside speakers. *The centre of all the work is the demonstration of better methods of teaching*, lasting about an hour and a half daily. All talks and discussions about psychology and special methods are closely linked with the demonstrations. We have arranged to have this teaching just as like actual village conditions as possible. The pupils come from the villages. The

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leader, by being in charge of two classes at the same time, shows ways of doing this with educational profit. Reading, arithmetic and cottage industries are taught, but other subjects have not been neglected. We have taught the best methods which the teachers seem able to learn and apply in their own schools. During the time the teachers are together they also pick up much broadening information by means of excursions.

The institutes have been of the greatest value to our village education. Through them the teachers have begun to think new ideas and use better methods. Much of the inspiration received has been of abiding force.

WHAT HELPS TO TEACHERS ARE GIVEN?

Three years ago, many teachers, pastors, missionaries and Government inspectors requested us to prepare a short syllabus adapted to village schools. Moreover, many teachers were confused as to how to go about their work. Accordingly, many of my monthly meetings with the other supervisors were devoted to the difficult problems connected with preparing such a syllabus. We tried to secure a scheme that would be simple and practical enough to use in the better schools. The syllabus gives a larger topic for the year's work in each standard and a smaller topic for each month. All of the work is correlated in general with the yearly topic and specifically with the monthly topic. In some schools the topic is accepted by the children as their purpose and thus becomes a real project, but this has not been done in very many schools. Even where there is no project attitude, the more interesting subjects help to give meaning to the less interesting ones. We have tried to present the material in such a way that the teachers will be helped also as to the best methods to use.

Let me give an example. The main topic for the first standard is keeping the village house clean. Under that the topics for the various months are: keeping the house and its surroundings clean, eating vegetables and fruits, preparing food, providing ventilation, securing good water, preventing diseases, decorating the house, providing light

for the house, raising poultry, keeping clothes clean. The order has been determined by the connection with the reading lessons. Because of the dirty and backward condition in most of our villages, we have purposely emphasised clean and healthy living. The various school subjects for each month are arranged in three groups: the first, which is Rural Arts and Sciences, includes story and conversation, action song and dramatisation, hygiene, nature lesson, gardening, drawing, handwork and collecting for the museum. The second group, Language Ability, covers reading and writing. Arithmetical Ability is the third group. A scheme of Bible lessons, drawn up by others, has been followed in the schools.

The main topic or project for the second standard is making a model village house. The topic for each month and the stories and dramatisation are the same as for the first standard. The same kind of grouping is done in the case of the third and fourth standards. We have made this arrangement because in our village schools we rarely have a separate teacher for each standard, and because two standards can be well combined for such work as story and dramatisation. This also makes the syllabus more suitable to the capacity of the ordinary teacher.

We spent many hours in planning and making the first draft of the syllabus. This was shown to the teachers and various educational authorities. In the light of their suggestions, we completely revised it and distributed the printed copies to all our village schools. A year's experience with it has shown the desirability of many changes, which we are now incorporating in a new revision. We have, throughout, tried to make the syllabus rather a flexible guide for the teachers than an iron-bound system to be followed in every detail.

WHAT OTHER PRINTED MATTER IS BEING ISSUED TO THE TEACHERS?

As soon as the syllabus was sent out, demands for more detailed guidance in the teaching of stories, songs, dramas and other activities poured in. Helps of this kind were

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first published in the monthly newspaper of the Arcot Assembly. In response to further requests, we are now engaged in putting these notes into book form, together with helps in the teaching of all the subjects. This *Village Teachers' Handbook*, like the syllabus, has so far been printed only in Tamil.

A time-table for two daily sessions, from 6 to 8 a.m. and 6 to 8 p.m., has also been issued in Tamil, Telugu and English. This is adapted to the teaching of our syllabus by two teachers to four classes. Sometimes we have only a single teacher for four standards. Though this is an admittedly bad situation, the teacher needs special assistance. Accordingly, we are now printing a time-table suited to his arduous work.

Last year we issued suggestions for a Christmas play and Christmas projects, which were much appreciated. We plan to send out the same material this year, printed on red and green paper. At other times we have distributed six-inch cardboard rulers to help with the space work in the schools. From special funds, Bibles and small lyric books have been given to most of the literate adults, in order to encourage the frequent use of their ability. We have started libraries for every fifty teachers. Whenever they come for their pay, they can exchange their old books or pamphlets for new ones. We expect to start libraries for every pastorate, so that about every fifteen teachers will have books for their special use. We also hope to give to every teacher a book a year, on such subjects as nature study, hygiene and civics. We shall then make sure that all of them read them by an examination or by prizes for reports on the books.

HOW IS BETTER EQUIPMENT BEING SECURED?

Our village schools have scarcely the barest minimum of equipment, usually only a blackboard, table, chair, lamp, and a few registers, books and pictures. Sometimes they have not even all these. Starvation for lack of funds is writ large on the bare mud walls. We seek to have much of the school equipment made in the village by the

teachers, or even by the children. Even though most of the material that has to be bought is cheap, the total expense for supplying over two hundred village schools is very large. To raise a fund for this purpose most of the missionary and Indian workers in the Arcot Assembly have subscribed one day's income. This self-sacrifice will bear rich fruit. Together with special gifts and Government grants, we shall have enough for a start toward securing some satisfactory equipment. We have carefully worked out a list of what is most necessary in order to better the instructions.

WHAT IS BEING DONE TOWARD CENTRAL SCHOOLS?

The single-teacher school usually gives a small education return for a large expenditure. The Arcot Assembly has, accordingly, adopted the policy of *combining such weak schools into strong schools*, wherever possible. Some people have feared that children will not walk from their village to another village, even when it is nearby. But they have proved wrong by actual experience in half a dozen of our villages, where Christian and Addiravida children walk at least a mile to a good school in an adjoining village. The parents and children know when a school is doing valuable work. We have three or four central schools, in which much better instruction is being given and more classes conducted than in the ordinary school. Gardening and pre-vocational work of various kinds are also being emphasised. All the present buildings except one are unsatisfactory, from the point of view of size and structure. The single exception is in the case of a school where the experiment of a small boarding department is being tried with success. Even there the two sheds are cheap, though they are large and airy. We have plans and money in hand for erecting several good central school buildings, and we plan to do so in the near future.

Even more important than buildings is the *whole-hearted co-operation and support of the villagers themselves*. A central school (or a single-teacher school, for that matter) cannot fully succeed unless the people feel that the school is their very own and unless they have a strong purpose to

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see that it flourishes. To secure popular backing, the supervisors have frequently called together councils representing the different villages, and discussed with them how the difficulties can be overcome. Such social co-operation is one of the most important habits that village schools have to teach both to adults and children.

WHAT ARE SOME OF THE EFFECTS ON VILLAGE LIFE ?

The supervisory work has helped to improve the lives of the people. The children in a few of our schools have been organised with various committees in order to serve their village. They see that their mates come on time to school, and that they are clean. They have collected a few coppers from their people and purchased a mirror and combs, and pots for drinking water and washing water. These are placed in the school, and it is a delight to see the lads and lasses standing in line soon after sunrise for their turn to use them. They wash their own clothes regularly every week. In these ways they show their parents a much-needed example of neatness and cleanliness. On Saturdays the children clean the village street and on Sunday mornings they form a procession of joyful song to bring people to the church service. During the week the older children conduct services of song and prayer in the homes in different parts of the hamlet. They also have their own Christian Endeavour meetings. Where there are school gardens, they teach lessons to the parents. Around the school garden in one village is a flower border divided into little plots, each one of which is proudly tended and by an individual child. These developments were made possible because one of the supervisors worked in co-operation with the usual village teachers, and inspired those teachers with unusual ideas. Teachers from the whole pastorate are brought to these schools that are organised socially, in order to catch the spirit and methods of what is being done. We work to spread progress to all our schools. *The social results are an essential test of the success of village supervision.*

MASON OLCOTT.

XIV

RECLAIMING CRIMINALS THROUGH ADULT EDUCATION

KURAVA SETTLEMENT FOR CRIMINAL TRIBES,
LONDON MISSION, ATUR, SALEM DISTRICT

I. THE APPEAL OF THE CRIMINAL TRIBES

THE sun was blazing at 12 noon on a summer day in 1922. The teacher and I were out preaching in a few villages in the morning. We came and sat down by a clear, sparkling well, under the shade of some young well-grown cocoanut trees in a grove, and begged the owner of the garden for some tender cocoanuts. The man didn't answer, but his wife, who was feeding the fowls, answered with simple woman-like hospitality, and ordered her son, about twelve years old, to climb up a tree and bring down some cocoanuts. We enjoyed the delightfully cool cocoanut water. We stretched ourselves on the grass and were chatting. In came a group of men, with hair grown over all their heads, with weird, fearful looks. Their very looks betrayed them.

'I remember to have seen some of you a little while ago in that village. Where are you all going now?'

'Nowhere, *swami*' (sir), 'we came in search of you and to see you.'

'You have not come, I suppose, to steal my handbills, Bible portions, and my *saman* box? The books will be of some use to you, if you know how to read. But there is little provision left in the other.'

'What a sin! We won't steal from you. But we want your help. These villagers tie us to pillar-posts and thrash us almost every week; the police are always on our heels; the jail at Salem seems to be our home. Is there no way out for us, *swami*? This man' (pointing to one of their

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number) 'told us that you would probably show us a way out of all these beatings, whippings, kicks, shame, tears and jail.'

Says another of the group, 'Even this morning this young fellow was beaten and thrashed by the headman of that village, and you can see the print and marks on his arms and shoulders. They say that this chap stole a goat last night. All a downright lie! He never left home last night. You must help us, *swami*.'

'I can't do much for you. It is a difficult matter to find out the truth. But much depends upon yourselves, and the attitude you will take, and the temper and spirit you will show.'

'What do you want us to do? We will do all that you will ask us to do.'

'Wait and listen,' I said. Then I read to them that portion read by our Master and Lord on that memorable day in the synagogue at Nazareth.

Then I ended by saying, 'This may be fulfilled in your case too, if you have ears to hear, hearts to feel, and wills to obey.'

You could feel the tense pause. Then a thrill went through the group.

'That's what we all want; yes, that. Free us, free us, *swami*,' shouted all of them.

'These have not counted the cost. Maybe, man's extremity is God's opportunity'—so I thought to myself.

A small point of contact had been established and a problem was set before me. Life is a problem, not a riddle. It set me thinking. It set me praying, for weeks and months.

It was rumoured, towards the close of 1922, that the C.T. (Criminal Tribes) Act was going to be put into operation against these people. By this Act all the adult male members of the tribe would be required to leave their wives, children and homes, every night, and go some three or four miles to some specified patrol or sleeping centres, there to be watched by a policeman or two. They could not even leave their villages by day to see their relations without obtaining a passport. Surely this is inhuman and

appeared to me to be idiotic. This must somehow be stopped.

The day of doom arrived. A certain day in February, 1923, was fixed, when all the Kurava men, women and children would be registered under the Act. There was wailing and weeping in most villages where these people lived. There was no one to console them.

The day was approaching. The men came flocking to me. They showed some signs of change. Something had got to be done at once. The situation demanded a quick, risky decision.

So in the evening previous to the day fixed for registration under the Act, I asked these people (i.e. those known to me) to leave their homes and villages, and come away to a central place, called Kalyanagiri (the hill of peace and joy), and put up rude huts and live there as if in a settlement. Twenty-one families responded to the call, and by the following morning there was a colony of twenty queer, cocoanut-leaved, low, thatched huts, forming a street, with children playing and quarrelling, women all busy carrying water pots on their heads, with goats and cows tied here and there, and all these on a stranger's land, much to the disgust of the owner and the wonder and curses of passers-by; and there was their captain, with his lieutenant—a teacher—all busy, and keeping everybody active.

By two o'clock that day (22nd February, 1923), all these people, and several hundreds besides, were registered by the Deputy Magistrate, under the C.T. Act, and thumb impressions of everybody taken. Then the order went forth from the magistrate and the police, declaring, 'From tonight all of you adult men, over 14 years of age, must go to the police station to sleep, and this has got to be done every night.' Imagine the crying, the weeping of the women, children and men. It was a ghastly sight. I pleaded with the police and the magistrate that my teachers could better take care of them in the settlement, but my pleading was all in vain. 'It is Government order and it must be obeyed,' was the cold and prompt reply. It was a stupid order, with no human feeling about it.

However, I took the people aside and consoled and com-

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forted them by saying, 'You need not go to the police station to sleep. Stay where you are in the settlement until you hear from me to the contrary.' That cheered them a bit. I went and slept that night in the settlement. Early next morning I was on my cycle to go and see the Collector of the District. He was camping in a village 20 miles way. He was a Brahmin. He received me kindly and asked me what had brought me to him. I told the story. But he said that it was a Government order and must be obeyed. I explained the circumstances, and told him that my teacher and myself could do more for the Kurava than either the police or even the Government, for I told him that we took a human interest in the affair. He would not yield to my entreaties. Eventually I told him that I might be prosecuted, but not the Kuravas, for disobedience of orders. I then described to him the scheme I had in mind for the reclamation of these people, and, having understood my motive, he said that he would arrange to put matters right. By the evening of the same day he issued orders and did put matters right. By this arrangement, the Kuravas were permitted to sleep in the settlement itself while a police constable was sent each night to patrol.

II. THE PROBLEM OF THE CRIMINAL TRIBES.

Such is the beginning of the story at Kalyanagiri Settlement. Then laws and regulations for governing the settlement were laid down. They are:

1. Education compulsory.

(a) All children between the ages of 5 and 12 must attend the day school.

(b) All adult male members between the ages of 14 and 45 must attend the night school.

2. No man with two wives would be permitted to stay in the settlement.

3. Drink is prohibited.

To understand aright what is involved in these simple statements, let me give you some idea of the magnitude of the task undertaken:

Number of Kuravas in Atur Taluk

(a) Atur East	433	} = 887
(b) Atur West	454	

The total number of Kuravas in Salem District is, roughly, 11,500.

General Characteristics of the Kuravas

1. Every adult male member is usually a watchman for some village or other. He is the victim of a caste system. Blackmailing is common.

2. A good many are professional thieves or dacoits.

3. A fair number are goat and sheep lifters.

4. By nature, very lazy.

5. Immorality may be said to be general; result is torture of women and debasing of men. Marriage tie very loose.

6. Drinking common.

7. The presence of large numbers of these, without control or education—in any one place—means, that it has become, or is likely to become, a criminal university.

8. Everyone is a good lawyer—'a B.A., B.L.'!

Attempts at Tackling the Problem

Facts to be faced :

1. The Kurava is condemned to be a Kurava, and his descendants after him. Now this becomes a crime against humanity.

2. The general attitude of the Hindus, and even of large sections of Christians, towards this gigantic problem is one of indifference.

3. No society can live alongside another society more degraded than itself without a definite lowering of its moral tone and pulse. Vice is inter-caste, inter-racial, and inter-national too.

4. No disciple of Christ, no lover of his fellows, can look forward to the definite segregation of any class or community.

5. The Kurava must be made a *producer*. Then only will he be of use to others; what is more important, to himself and to his family.

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6. Any work or industry started for them must be natural to the country, and suited to the genius of the people and to the locality.

III. SETTLEMENTS (ONE OF THE WAYS OF SOLVING THE PROBLEM)

1. *Objective*

Tireless efforts towards the discovery of a curative and regenerative process for the Kurava, for I am convinced that even in the heart of the worst criminal there is a treasure to be found.

The human heart is the key to history. If you want to lighten and uplift the latter, you can do it only by changing the former.

2. *Location : to be Rural—Why?*

(a) Industrial settlements to be ruled out for Salem District. No big industries here.

(b) Even if there were, city temptations would be great.

(c) Most of the Kuravas live in villages. India is a land of villages and pre-eminently an agricultural country.

(d) Our business is to make the Kurava into a decent man and a responsible citizen, and settle him on the land. ,

3. *Size of the Settlements*

To be small (with about 100 to 150 people in each).

A. *Reasons against having big settlements*

(a) Too unwieldy and difficult to manage.

(b) Large settlements would give rise to concerted quarrels and clannish outbreaks on a large scale. This would require the presence of one high-salaried man on the spot with that—namely, settling quarrels—as his only job. What the settlements need is not so much a ‘judge’ or a ‘police officer’ as an apostle.

(c) In famine times large settlements would be unmanageable.

(d) Large settlements would be like open-air jails. This would inevitably introduce the penal character of discipline,

with its military form and mechanical rigidity. It has been truly said that prison makes the good prisoner rather than the good citizen.

B. Reasons for having small compact settlements

(a) Redemption of the environment is the indispensable condition of the redemption of the individual. Environment may be bettered, but environment without consciousness of freedom and responsibility will not long have influence over a man of depraved heredity. In small settlements such freedom and responsibility can be secured.

(b) More individual and personal attention could be given in small settlements. The wider the circle, the smaller the influence; the smaller the circle, the greater and deeper the influence.

(c) Much intensive work could be done. Hence thoroughness in work is possible.

(d) Adult education could be more effectively carried out.

(e) Less of police control and more of personal contact and force. This is to be welcomed.

(f) More lands would be obtained from the Government in the different rural parts, whereon to settle these people as agriculturists.

4. Number of Settlements

We started with one in 1923. Now there are three—all being voluntary settlements—situated in or near places where lands could be got for cultivation purposes.

5. Staff and Finance

Each settlement has a teacher residing on the spot. The Mission spends a little money, but a major portion of the teacher's pay is found from other sources. Finance is needed, and badly too, for developments and experiments.

Functions of the Teacher

(a) Teaching in day and night schools.

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(b) Giving baths to school children—often much to the disgust of the pupils and the anxiety of the parents.

(c) Settlement health and sanitary officer—rather a nasty job.

(d) Social reformer.

(e) Priest, law-giver and judge.

(f) On police patrol duty each night, at 11 p.m., 1 a.m. and 2 a.m.—very unearthly hours.

(g) Store-keeper and banker—that is, keeping the grain and the money earned by cooly work by the people, against debt or an evil day.

The catalogue is enough. But where are the teachers? The best of our Christian young men seek soft places, easy jobs and city centres. Where are the great-hearts to do these 'dirty jobs'?

6. *Education in the Settlement*

Now education is compulsory for all in the settlement. It is the crucial and fundamental factor—we go on the principle that all education must be religious, and all religion must be educational and educative.

A. Day Schools for Boys and Girls

Reading, writing, arithmetic, songs and some local geography are taught. Gardening is attempted. It is proposed to introduce basket-making, mat-making, and agriculture for boys and girls, when money can be found. Some adults have been taught basket-making and village carpentry.

B. Adult School at Nights

Education takes the following form :

(a) General instruction in the three Rs, with special emphasis on reading and understanding ordinary Tamil books and the Bible.

(b) Cultural instruction for widening mental outlook. This consists of :

1. Talks on the people of other lands, their customs, habits, ways of life.

2. Story-telling, village folk-lore and legends.
3. Teaching them to enact village dramas—if possible, classical dramas—which have educational value.
4. Talks on civics—beginning from village administration and leading on to taluk, district, provincial and central governments; the British Empire and India's place in it; the League of Nations. In all this, emphasis is placed on right conduct in the individual first, then right relationship with others.
5. Talks on the great men and women of other lands and India.
6. Health instruction—especially personal hygiene, home hygiene, and street hygiene.
7. Talks on co-operation in all its forms.
8. Talks on the great lines of communication.

C. Religious Education.

If religion is life, then no demarcation line could be drawn, or need be drawn, between what is termed 'secular' and what is called 'religious.' But we do emphasise Bible teaching. This, we are convinced, is *vital*.

(a) No catechism is used or taught.

(b) Stories are told.

(c) Teaching the story of Jesus Christ and the 'Hitopdesa' (i.e. the Sermon on the Mount).

* * * * *

Each night, at Kalyanagiri especially, all the adults—men and women—assemble in the school for half an hour after food. The teacher reads aloud one verse or two from the Sermon on the Mount. Then everyone repeats it aloud, until it is learnt by heart by every one.

Then, by a series of questions, the teacher tries to draw out the meaning of the verse from the men and the women. Sometimes apt illustrations are given. Concrete illustrations are taken from their daily life. Often it sets them thinking. That itself is a great thing—to set men and women thinking. At the close of the half-hour some one of the men—but not the teacher—will pray in

CRIMINALS AND ADULT EDUCATION

crude, broken, simple words. Then the women will go home to their huts, the men staying on for the night school.

The work is very hard and progress painfully slow. But it is worth doing. We need dynamite to blast and to explode the strongly inherited and deep-rooted habits and character of these people. Nothing but dynamite can bring about a change—yes, nothing but the dynamite of the Resurrection. That power can do above all that we ask or think. That power is available. Thanks be unto God.

Settlements are only preliminary to something bigger and better. Our hope is centred in the young Kurava boys and girls. The idea is to start a central Kurava Home at Atur, where a few of the picked youths could be brought from the various settlements and other villages and put in a healthy environment, where they would be given a little more education coupled with some practical vocational training. There is at present no way open for this. It is a question of finance. But the work is His who shed His blood even for these people. To us the way is dark. But He is the Light of the World, and the light is life too.

F. NARASIMHAM.

PRINTED AT
THE WESLEYAN MISSION PRESS,
MYSORE CITY

BOARD OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL PAMPHLETS, No. 94

An Outline of the Structure of the
Educational System in England and
Wales

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LONDON

PRINTED AND PUBLISHED BY HIS MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE
To be purchased directly from H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE at the following addresses
Adastral House, Kingsway, London, W.C.2; 120, George Street, Edinburgh 2
York Street, Manchester 1; 1, St. Andrew's Crescent, Cardiff
80, Chichester Street, Belfast
or through any Bookseller

1934

Price 9d. Net.

PREFATORY NOTE

This Pamphlet provides a short account of the structure of the educational system in England and Wales. It does not deal with policy, except in so far as that may be necessary to explain structure. As it has been compiled primarily as a preliminary study for the use of students of education from foreign countries detail has been sacrificed to general principles in order not unduly to complicate the picture.

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INTRODUCTION

The system of education in England and Wales, judged from the point of view of organization and administration, differs in three main respects from the systems to be found in many European countries. These characteristic features are:—

- (1) the decentralization of responsibility and control,
- (2) the prominent part played by voluntary agencies,
- (3) the freedom of teachers from official control on questions relating to curricula, syllabuses of instruction and methods of teaching.

The relation of the central authority to local authorities is based on consultation and co-operation which is established both by direct contact at Whitehall and through the intermediary of the Inspectors of the Board of Education who, since their headquarters are situated in the areas in which their work lies, are in a position to act as liaison officers. Both the central authority and the local authorities are, of course, bound by Acts of Parliament, of which the chief is the Education Act, 1921. The Board of Education, in discharge of the duties placed upon it, issues its main requirements in the form of Statutory Regulations, and in Circulars addressed to Local Education Authorities and other responsible bodies. Though in the last resort the final word in some matters naturally rests with the central authority the autonomy of the publicly elected local authorities is a reality.

The prominence of voluntary agencies in the sphere of education is partly due to the fact that when, in the past, the State was slow to play its part, the burden of providing educational facilities was shouldered by religious bodies, voluntary societies and generous patrons. The educational work of these early pioneers has created not only vested interests but also a tradition of voluntary effort which

fortunately persists to the present day. This tradition of voluntary effort is characteristic, and must be fully appreciated if a just estimate of the English educational system is to be reached; further, it is not confined to the sphere of education, as is witnessed by, for instance, the voluntary hospital system and the Royal National Lifeboat Institution.

The teachers in the schools are not civil servants, that is to say they are neither employed nor paid by the State. They are the servants of the local authorities or of the governing bodies of the schools in which they work. Head teachers are free, within wide limits, to organize their schools according to their own ideas, and teachers generally are not bound by any official instructions relating to syllabuses or text books or teaching method.

This does not mean that the Board of Education refrains from advising teachers or that it has no influence on questions of organization and curriculum. On the contrary: the Board's views can be and are presented in a variety of ways. In the first place the Board's Inspectors not only review the content and value of the work in the schools by means of reports which are conveyed to the school authorities, but, in the process of inspecting the schools, they are available as advisers to individual teachers. In the second place the Board of Education publishes from time to time pamphlets dealing with a variety of educational topics, including organization, the teaching of particular subjects and educational experiments. In particular the Board publishes a "Handbook of Suggestions for the Consideration of Teachers in Public Elementary Schools", the title of which, it may be added, aptly expresses the relation of the central authority to the teachers.

Further, the Act which created the Board of Education also established a standing committee known as the "Consultative Committee" which is representative of a wide variety of educational interests and to which the

President of the Board of Education periodically remits questions for investigation and report. The report of this Committee on "the Education of the Adolescent", frequently known as the "Hadow Report", has very profoundly influenced the organization of educational provision since its publication in 1926.

The three characteristic features mentioned above have helped to mould a system which probably results in a greater variety of educational institutions than is to be found in any other country. The system possesses weakness as well as strength. It is not however the intention of this pamphlet to assess either, but merely to present the facts about the structure of the system.

I.—ADMINISTRATION AND GENERAL

(1) *The Board of Education*

The central authority for education in England and Wales is the Board of Education. It is not a "Board" in the usual sense of that word but an ordinary government department whose offices, like those of most other government departments, are situated in Whitehall.

The political head of the Department is the President of the Board of Education ("Minister of Education") who is a member of the Cabinet. The President is assisted by a Parliamentary Secretary, who like himself is a member of the Government and sits in Parliament.

The Department is staffed by a body of permanent civil servants with the Permanent Secretary at their head. The staff consists of administrative officers whose headquarters are at Whitehall and inspectors whose work lies, in the main, outside the central office. The chief officials working under the Permanent Secretary are the Deputy Secretary, three Principal Assistant Secretaries, the Chief Medical Officer, the Legal Adviser, the Accountant General, the Chief Inspectors for Elementary, Secondary and Technical Education respectively, and a Chief Woman Inspector. There is a separate Welsh Department with its own Permanent Secretary.

The Board of Education is not directly concerned with the universities except in so far as they provide courses for the training of teachers. The Board is not responsible for "Approved Schools", formerly known as industrial and reformatory schools, which are under the Home Office, nor for education in the Army, Navy and Air Force. The Ministry of Agriculture is responsible for technical education for agriculture. The Victoria and Albert Museum, the Science Museum and the Bethnal Green Museum are under the control of the Board of Education.

The Board does not provide, own or directly control any educational institution* ; it does not prescribe, compile or publish text books for use in educational institutions ; nor does it employ or pay any teachers*. Public educational institutions are locally provided, maintained and controlled with the financial assistance and advice of the central authority.

(2) *Local Education Authorities*

There are 316 Local Education Authorities (L.E.As.). These are the Councils of Counties (63), the Councils of County Boroughs (83), the Councils of other Boroughs (135) with a population of over 10,000 at the census of 1901 and the Councils of Urban Districts (35) with a population of over 20,000 at the same census. The County Councils and County Borough Councils are authorities for both elementary and higher education ; but the Borough Councils and Urban District Councils concerned are authorities for elementary education only. These Councils are local government authorities locally elected and they are concerned with many public services besides education, the provision and administration of which was placed upon them at the beginning of the present century.

Each local education authority entrusts its educational work, except certain financial transactions, to an Education Committee which consists of some of the members of the Council and other persons with experience of, or interest in, education. The Education Committee must include women as well as men. The chief education officer of the Council is called the Director of Education, or the Secretary to the Education Committee or sometimes the Education Officer. Some of the larger Authorities employ their own Inspectors of schools.

* An exception to this statement is the Royal College of Art which is a government institution.

(3) *Elementary and Higher Education*

It is important to understand the main difference between the work of Borough Councils and Urban District Councils which are authorities for elementary education only, and that of County Councils and County Borough Councils which are authorities for both elementary and higher education. For the purposes of this pamphlet it is sufficient to say that an authority for elementary education is chiefly concerned with ensuring the provision of sufficient schools, suitably staffed, to enable all the children in its area to attend school regularly and receive efficient instruction during the period of compulsory school attendance—that is between the ages of five and fourteen. An authority for both elementary and higher education is concerned not only with the provision of schools for children between these ages, but also with the provision of schools and other educational facilities for those (including, in the case of a County, those residing in the areas of Boroughs and Urban Districts within the County) whose education will be continued beyond 14 or 15 years of age in Secondary Schools, Technical Schools, Schools of Art, Schools of Commerce, Training Colleges for Teachers, Adult Education Classes and so on. The area for elementary education in the case of a County Council is thus not co-terminous with its area for higher education.

(4) *Primary and Post-primary Education*

Care must be taken not to confuse the terms "elementary education" and "higher education", which have a legal and historical significance, with the terms "primary education" and "post-primary education". "Primary education" means in general education up to about eleven years of age; and "post-primary education" means education after that age. Authorities dealing only with "elementary" education are thus concerned with some grades of "post-primary education" as well as with "primary education"

(5) *Voluntary Bodies*

Before considering the different grades of education it is necessary to make clear that Voluntary Bodies play an important part in the provision of educational facilities. In almost every grade of education there are voluntary agencies at work as well as the statutory local education authorities. Such bodies provide for instance Nursery Schools, Special Schools, Public Elementary Schools, Secondary Schools, Technical Schools, Training Colleges and Adult Education Classes. The schools provided by Voluntary Bodies may, according to circumstances, be entirely maintained financially by a local education authority ; they may be aided financially by a local education authority ; they may receive direct financial aid from the central authority, or they may be entirely self supporting.

In addition to schools provided by Voluntary Bodies there are a number of educational institutions provided by private individuals. These private schools, though they may, if they so desire, be inspected by a local education authority or by the central authority receive no financial aid from either.

(6) *Finance*

A very large proportion of the expenditure on education is met out of public funds, that is, money provided by Parliament out of taxes or by Local Education Authorities out of local rates. The amount of the grant paid to Local Education Authorities by the Board of Education out of the money provided by Parliament is determined mainly by the amount of approved expenditure incurred by the Authorities, and is generally speaking equal to about half this expenditure. Direct grants are paid by the Board to certain institutions provided by voluntary bodies, for example, to some training colleges and secondary schools. The expenditure of the Board of Education at present

amounts to about £42 million per annum ; the net expenditure of the Local Education Authorities out of the rates is about £40 million.

(7) *Conditions of grant*

The conditions under which grants are paid and the methods by which they are calculated are laid down in various bodies of Regulations issued by the Board. These Regulations are of a general character : it is the Board's policy to give to school authorities and to teachers a large measure of freedom in the actual conduct of the schools.

(8) *Grant Aided Institutions*

An educational institution is said to be " grant aided " or in receipt of " public aid " when it receives either direct grant from the Board of Education or aid from a Local Education Authority out of the rates. In the latter case it is usually receiving aid indirectly from the Board of Education inasmuch as the Board pays grants to Local Education Authorities based on their approved expenditure.

(9) *Necessitous Students*

In every sphere of higher education (Secondary Schools, Technical Schools etc.) provision may be made to assist poor students by the partial or total remission of fees and by maintenance allowances.

(10) *Co-education*

In general, education facilities are available alike for boys and girls. In the lowest ranges, that is up to eleven years of age, and at the highest stage, that is at the Universities the teaching arrangements are in the main co-educational. In the middle ranges, that is in Post-primary Elementary Schools, and in Secondary, Technical and Commercial and Art Schools practice varies, but, in the main, provision is made for boys and girls separately.

II.—PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

(11) *The Law of School Attendance*

Under the Education Acts it is the duty of the parent to cause his child to receive efficient elementary instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic, from the age of 5 until the age of 14 years. The duty is laid upon the Local Education Authority of prosecuting the parent of any child of school age who habitually and without reasonable excuse neglects to cause the child to receive efficient elementary instruction. It is the duty of the Local Education Authority also to make byelaws for their area respecting the attendance of children at school.

(12) *The provision of Public Elementary Schools*

Five and a half million children, more or less equally divided between boys and girls, attend Public Elementary Schools. Nearly 600,000 of these come under the local education authority for London, namely the London County Council. Each Local Education Authority is required to maintain a sufficient number of such schools in an efficient condition to meet the needs of the children in its area. A distinguishing feature of these schools is that they are not allowed to charge fees, that is to say they must provide free education (including books, stationery and apparatus) for any one wishing to take advantage of it.

From the point of view of provision there are two types of public elementary school. Those which are provided by a Local Education Authority, of which there are about 10,000, are called Provided Schools or Council Schools. Those which are provided (that is built and kept structurally in repair) by a Voluntary Body, of which there are about 11,000, are called non-provided schools or Voluntary Schools. The great majority of the Voluntary Schools have been provided by religious bodies, particularly the Church of

England and the Roman Catholic Church. The number of children in the Council Schools is about 3,800,000, and the number in Voluntary Schools about 1,800,000.

(13) *The maintenance of Public Elementary Schools*

Each Local Education Authority is responsible for the cost of maintaining all the schools in its area which are recognised by the Board of Education as Public Elementary Schools. There is thus a distinction between responsibility for the cost of provision, and responsibility for the cost of maintenance, in the case of a Voluntary School. "Maintenance" includes salaries of teachers, teaching equipment, heating, lighting, cleaning and so on; and the cost of these falls on the Local Education Authority whether the school is a Council School or a Voluntary School. But the cost of "provision", that is building, structural repair to the building and extension of the building of a Voluntary School is the responsibility of the Voluntary Body and may not be undertaken by the Local Education Authority.

(14) *The appointment of Teachers in Public Elementary Schools*

The Local Education Authority appoints the teachers in a Council School. The Voluntary Body (or rather the Managers of the School) appoint the teachers in a Voluntary School, subject to the approval of the Local Education Authority who may not, however, withhold approval of an appointment on any grounds except educational grounds. The Local Education Authority is responsible for the control of all instruction, except religious instruction, in the Voluntary Schools.

(15) *Religious Instruction in Public Elementary Schools*

Local Education Authorities have power to provide religious instruction in Council Schools and in practice

they all do so. The religious instruction given in a Council School must not be distinctive of any particular religious denomination.

The control of religious instruction in the Voluntary Schools is in the hands of the Managers of the School and naturally conforms to the tenets of the Body providing the School.

The parents of any child, whether that child is attending a Council School or a Voluntary School, are at liberty to withdraw the child from religious instruction.

(16) *Types of Public Elementary School*

The present is a period of transition so far as the organization of public elementary schools is concerned. The education of children between the ages of five and fourteen has long been regarded as falling into three stages : the infant stage from 5 to about 7 or 8 years of age, the junior stage from 7 or 8 to about 11 and the senior stage from 11 to 14.

Sometimes there have been separate schools corresponding to these three stages, but generally speaking children from 7 or 8 to 14 (and sometimes from 5 to 14, especially in rural areas) have in the past been grouped together in one school under one Head Teacher.

It is now the definite policy of the Board of Education and of Local Education Authorities to make a clear distinction between primary education up to eleven years of age and post-primary education after that age. The result of that policy is to create self-contained Primary Schools (Infant Schools and Junior Schools either separately or combined) for children up to eleven years of age, and a number of quite distinct Post-primary Schools for children between the ages of 11 and 14 and in many cases 15.

This policy cannot be worked out completely for a number of years and it presents special problems in thinly populated areas, but the ideal underlying it is that every

child in a public elementary school shall, between the ages of 11 and 12, complete the primary stage of his education in the Junior School and then proceed to a new school of a post-primary kind. Some children, when they leave the Junior School will, as in the past, go to a Secondary School, the remainder will go to other post-primary schools adapted, so far as possible, to their special needs.

New types of public elementary schools, particularly of a post-primary character, are thus coming into existence. These schools for the older children are generally called Senior Schools, Central Schools (and sometimes Modern Schools) according to local and other circumstances.

The grouping of older children in rural areas in senior or central schools presents special problems, which are to an increasing extent being overcome by taking advantage of improved transport facilities.

This reorganization of schools into Primary and Post-primary Schools is frequently referred to as "Hadow" reorganization from the fact that its general principles were included among the recommendations made in the Report of 1926 of the Consultative Committee, the chairman of which at the time was Sir Henry Hadow.

(17) *Nursery Schools and Classes*

Children are not required by law to attend school until they are five years of age. In some areas however, particularly in the poorer parts of large towns, they sometimes attend at an earlier age and special provision is made for them in "Nursery Classes" forming part of the ordinary public elementary school.

Local Education Authorities also have the power to provide or to aid quite separate Nursery Schools for children between 2 and 5 years of age or older. Good food, fresh air, medical and nursery attention and play, rather than formal education, are the characteristic features of such schools. Only a comparatively small number of

Nursery Schools are in existence, some of them being provided by Local Education Authorities and some by Voluntary Bodies.

(18) *Curriculum in Public Elementary Schools*

The Board of Education does not prescribe what subjects shall be taught, though it is of course able through its inspectors to secure the general suitability of the school curriculum. In practice the subjects taught generally include the English Language, (as well as, in Wales, the Welsh Language,) Handwriting, Arithmetic, Drawing, Nature Study, Geography, History, Singing, Hygiene, Physical Training and Handicraft (e.g. Woodwork for boys) ; and for girls, Domestic Subjects such as Needlework, Cookery and Laundrywork. In rural areas Gardening and other outdoor pursuits are frequently included. For older children Science and a foreign language may be added. In some of the Post-primary Schools the curriculum may have a definite bias to accord with the type of occupation which pupils are likely to enter, commercial, industrial, rural or domestic.

(19) *Teachers in Public Elementary Schools*

In order to be employed in a public elementary school, a teacher must possess such qualifications as will enable him to be recognised by the Board of Education. There are approximately 170,000 teachers so employed. They fall into three main grades, "Certificated Teachers" (who constitute three quarters of the whole), "Uncertificated Teachers" and qualified teachers of "Special Subjects". A small and diminishing number of Supplementary teachers, who have no professional training or defined qualification, are employed to teach the younger children in rural schools. Salaries are paid by the Local Education Authority, and, except in the case of Supplementary Teachers, are in accordance with salary scales (generally called the Burnham Scales) which have been fixed, subject

to the concurrence of the Board of Education as to the scales of salary which will be recognised for grant purposes, by a Joint Committee of representatives of Local Authorities and of teachers under the Chairmanship of Lord Burnham.

III.—SECONDARY SCHOOLS

(20) *General Character*

A Secondary School is a school which provides a full-time education of a general, as distinct from a vocational, character for children from about 11 years of age to about 17 years or more.

(21) *Types of Secondary School*

The movement out of which the elementary school system arose dates from about 1800 and for a hundred years (since 1833) the central authority have made grants in some form or other to elementary schools. Moreover for sixty years (since 1870) it has been the duty of publicly elected local bodies (originally the School Boards and now the Councils of Counties, Boroughs, etc.) to provide elementary schools.

The relation of the State and local authorities to secondary schools is of much more recent origin, dating from about 1900. Nevertheless secondary education, unaided by the State and unrelated to publicly elected bodies, has a long history going back many hundreds of years; and therefore the nomenclature of secondary education is less uniform than that of elementary education. The historical notes in Appendix II throw further light on the history of the relation of the State and local bodies to secondary education.

The following terms will frequently be met with in discussing secondary education, Public Schools, Grammar Schools, County Schools, Private Schools; and also of course Boarding and Day Schools.

There is no definition of a Public School. Most of them are Boarding Schools and are therefore not local in character. Few of them receive any public aid ; and generally speaking, they charge higher fees and admit children at a rather later age (at about 13 years of age) than do other Secondary Schools. Some of them are very old foundations (e.g., Eton, Winchester, Harrow, Rugby) but many of them (e.g. Wellington, Marlborough, Bradfield, Stowe), have been founded within the past hundred years. As a rule boys who will enter one of the "Public Schools" receive a preliminary education of about four years duration in a private preparatory boarding school.

Many of the Grammar Schools are ancient Foundations, but, generally speaking, they are Day Schools and therefore local in character ; and a substantial number of them are now in receipt of public aid. County Schools, as the name suggests, are provided and maintained by County Councils. "Private School" means for the purposes of this pamphlet a school owned and governed by a private individual. No Private School receives public aid.

(22) The inspection and recognition of Secondary Schools

Every Secondary School which is in receipt of public aid is inspected by the Board of Education. But some schools which do not desire to receive grants, or are not eligible to receive them, nevertheless desire to be inspected ; and many of the "Public Schools" and many "Private Secondary Schools" are so inspected. The Board publish a list (List 60) of schools which they have inspected and regard as efficient ; but it follows, from what has been said above, that some well-known schools are not included in the list because they have not sought inspection. There are nearly 500,000 pupils in the 1,757 Secondary Schools mentioned in List 60, of whom not quite half are girls.

(23) Preparatory Schools and Departments

Some of the Secondary Schools have Preparatory Departments attached to them to which children are admitted at about 8 or 9 years of age. There are also a number of separate "Preparatory Schools" which provide for children between 8 or 9 years of age and 13 and 14 years of age. The majority of these are Private Schools, and the purpose of many of them, particularly of those which are Boarding Schools, is to prepare boys for the Public Schools. Preparatory Schools may be inspected by the Board and recognized as efficient but they do not receive grant.

(24) Fees in Publicly aided Secondary Schools

Until 1932 the tuition fees in publicly aided secondary schools showed wide variations and in some schools no fees were charged. Under new regulations which came into force on 1st April, 1933, all these schools are required to charge fees and the fees now charged, though still by no means uniform, amount on the average to some £10 or £12 a year, a sum which is roughly one-third of the gross cost of education in these schools.

In Wales the fees are usually lower than in England.

Every school must offer annually a minimum number of entrance scholarships, known as "special places", to pupils from public elementary schools and may offer additional special places open to pupils from any school. These special places entitle the scholars to total or partial remission of fees according to their parents' means. About half the pupils in publicly aided secondary schools pay full fees.

(25) Private Schools

As indicated above a number of Private Schools, chiefly the larger and better known, have been inspected and recognized by the Board as efficient Preparatory or

Secondary Schools. There are, however, a great number of Private Schools of very varying size and character, which are outside the Board's purview.

The number of Private Schools, Secondary Schools and Preparatory Schools of one kind or another which are not inspected by the Board may be more than 9,000 and the number of children attending them more than 300,000.

(26) *Girls' Secondary Schools*

The history of Secondary Schools for girls is very different from that for boys. Few of them have been in existence for a hundred years, though many "Private Academies" existed as long ago as that. But the present organization of Girls' Schools does not differ materially from that of Boys' Schools, and the previous paragraphs may be taken to cover girls' schools as well as boys', except those where history is involved, or where boys are specially mentioned.

(27) *Curriculum and Examinations in Grant Aided Secondary Schools*

The Board makes certain general requirements as to the subjects to be taught in grant aided Secondary Schools, and normally the Schools provide for instruction in the English Language, and Literature, at least one foreign language, Geography, History, Mathematics, Science, Drawing, Singing, Manual Instruction for boys, Domestic Subjects for girls, and in Physical Exercises and Organized Games. In practice there is considerable freedom in regard to the planning of the instruction and in some schools special courses are provided which are related to the needs of pupils who will enter industry or commerce. An increasing proportion of the pupils in grant aided Secondary Schools remain beyond the age of 16, and take advanced courses which cover a further period of two years and provide a more specialized type of education. It is customary for pupils to take an examination at about the age of 16,

generally called the "School Certificate Examination" or "First Examination"; a "Higher Certificate Examination" or "Second Examination" is taken by those who stay on at school till a later age. These examinations are conducted by eight University bodies approved by the Board. The School Certificate under certain conditions exempts from the matriculation examination of the universities, and from the preliminary examinations for entry to many of the professions. The Higher Certificate is accepted by some Universities as exempting from a part or the whole of the Intermediate Examination for a University Degree.

(28) *Teachers in Grant Aided Secondary Schools*

Unlike Teachers in public elementary schools who have to possess certain prescribed qualifications and to be recognized by the Board, teachers in grant aided secondary schools are not required by statute or regulation to have any specific qualifications, though the Board's Regulations require that the teaching staff must be suitable. In fact, however, a large and steadily increasing proportion are university graduates. The teachers are appointed by the Local Education Authorities or Governing Bodies and in all Schools for the Salary Scales of which L.E.As. are responsible their salaries are determined in accordance with the Burnham Scales (see paragraph 19) for Secondary teachers.

(29) *General*

Though there is great variety in the type of Secondary School ranging from the small private day school with less than 50 pupils to the large Public Schools with perhaps 500 Boarders, or more, it must be remembered that taking the country as a whole the main provision numerically consists of schools provided by or aided by County Councils and County Borough Councils. These Councils became Local Education Authorities under the Education Act 1902, and it was that Act which for the first time made general provision for the development of secondary and other higher

education throughout the country. Consequently it is sometimes said (in 1933) that England's "system" of secondary education is only 30 years old. In Wales the "system" is a little older, being partly based on the Welsh Intermediate Act, 1889; and the County Schools in Wales are generally "Intermediate" Schools.

IV.—VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND FURTHER EDUCATION

(30) *General*

Elementary and Secondary Schools provide in the main a general education not related to any specific type of employment or occupation. There is, however, a wide variety of instruction, apart from that obtained by attendance at a University, available for boys and girls on leaving the Elementary or Secondary School, and at later ages. This instruction is provided in Technical Colleges and Schools, Schools of Commerce, Art Schools, Evening Institutes, etc. Altogether nearly a million young persons and adults take advantage of it.

The classification of the different types of instruction in this section is difficult in view of the great variety and must not be interpreted too rigidly. Broadly speaking it falls under two main heads:—

(a) Vocational Courses, i.e. instruction definitely related to employment. This may be either full time instruction in preparation for employment upon which the student has not yet entered, or part time instruction which the student attends after entry into employment.

(b) Courses of a more general nature, which aim either at a continuance of general education or at providing instruction in subjects of general interest or at meeting the demand for activities of a more recreational character.

With regard to this side of education generally, the following points should be borne in mind :—

(a) Attendance is voluntary ; there is no legal compulsion on the young persons or adults to attend.

(b) Vocational training for industry and commerce is in the main undertaken concurrently with employment. It is provided either in evening classes or, if employers are willing to release employees during working hours, in part-time day classes, the former being the usual arrangement.

(c) The great majority of general courses are held in the evening.

(d) Nearly all the grant-earning institutions are provided and maintained by Local Education Authorities. There is comparatively little provision of vocational instruction by private schools excepting in the sphere of commercial education (e.g. typewriting, shorthand, book-keeping), in which there are a number of private agencies at work.

The following notes on some of the different types of instruction coming under the general heading " Vocational Training and Further Education " may help to elucidate a complex system. (The vocational training of teachers is dealt with in a separate section.)

(31) *Full-time Courses*

(a) *Junior Technical Schools and Trade Schools.*—Junior Technical Schools normally prepare their pupils for a particular industry or group of related industries. In London there are a number of Trade Schools which are related, as their name indicates, to specific trades. Pupils are usually admitted to these Schools at 13 years of age (i.e. a year before the end of the ordinary Public Elementary School course), and the course lasts two or three years.

The number of pupils in a School is regulated as far as possible by the capacity of the industry or trade to absorb the output. Provision is made in all cases for the continuance of the pupils' general education. This group of Schools includes Junior Commercial Schools which prepare their pupils for commercial occupations, Junior Art Departments which prepare for artistic industries, and Junior Housewifery Schools for girls.

There are nearly 23,000 boys and girls in Schools of this character.

(b) *Senior and other Full-time Courses.*—In many of the larger Technical and Commercial Colleges and Art Schools there are full-time courses in preparation for employment in, for example, Building, Engineering, Commerce, Art and Domestic crafts. Some 15,000 students are involved, nearly half of them being women.

A large proportion of the students come from Secondary Schools and generally enter the courses, which last a year or more, between 16 and 19 years of age, though a number of the students are older than this.

(32) *Part-time Courses*

These are more difficult to classify. A very large proportion of the million students mentioned in (30) attend part-time classes either in the day or in the evening, mostly in the evening. The courses range in standard from quite elementary to very advanced work. As has already been indicated, part-time students may be classified according as they are pursuing a course of training related to their occupation, or a course of more general character.

(a) *Junior Part-time Courses.*—These are for boys and girls who have just left the Public Elementary School and extend as a rule over the two years from 14 to 16. These courses, which are usually held on three evenings a week from September to March or

April, are commonly divided into Preliminary Technical, Preliminary Commercial, Rural, and Domestic. The Preliminary Technical, Preliminary Commercial and Domestic Courses are those most largely attended ; Rural courses are much less numerous. It is usual for a student attending one of these courses to take all the subjects included in the course.

(b) *Senior and Advanced Part-time Courses. (Vocational).*—These courses usually last about three years in the case of Senior and two years in the case of Advanced Courses. They may be regarded as the main contribution which technical education makes in this country to the needs of industry and commerce. As already stated the work is done mainly in the evening. Some employers, however, especially in the Engineering, Building, and Printing trades, release their employees during the day time to attend such courses.

(c) *Senior and Advanced Part-time Courses. (General).*—While vocational instruction is the main concern of the Technical and Commercial Colleges, provision is also made for instruction in subjects of a general character. A good deal of work of this kind is carried on, thus enabling the students to continue their general education in certain directions. There has been a great development since the War of Adult Institutes of all kinds, further reference to which is made in the next section dealing specifically with "Adult Education".

(33) *Examinations in Technical Schools, etc.*

A large variety of examinations are taken by students in Technical, Commercial and Art Schools, and in Evening Institutes. In mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, chemistry, naval architecture and building, schemes for the award of National Certificates have been established

by the Board of Education in co-operation with the Professional Institutions concerned. A similar scheme has also been established for the gas industry.

The Board itself holds examinations in Art.

Examinations are also held by bodies such as the City and Guilds of London Institute, the Union of Lancashire and Cheshire Institutes, and other examining unions. Professional Bodies, such as the Institute of Bankers and the Institute of Chartered Accountants also conduct examinations related to entry to and promotion in these professions.

(34) *Teachers in Technical Schools, etc.*

The variety of Schools is matched by the variety of sources from which the teachers are drawn. Some of the teachers on the staffs of Technical and Commercial Colleges and Art Schools are full-time teachers; in other cases they are engaged in industry or commerce during the day; whilst, particularly in the case of evening classes of a general nature, the teachers are often those who during the day have been teaching in Elementary and Secondary Schools.

V.—ADULT EDUCATION

(35) *General*

Section IV dealt with vocational and general education intended for those who have recently left elementary and secondary schools, and for older persons. The provision of liberal, practical and recreational instruction for older persons is, however, a part of an extensive Adult Education movement which deserves further description, and may conveniently be considered in relation to the five following types of organization:—

Universities and University Colleges.

Voluntary Organizations.

Local Education Authorities.

Collegiate and other Institutions.

Charitable Trusts.

It will be understood that these five headings are not in practice independent of one another. Indeed, it is one of the chief characteristics of the English system that close co-operation exists between statutory and non-statutory bodies of all kinds.

(36) *Universities and University Colleges*

University Extension Lectures for large popular audiences were first provided in 1873 by Cambridge University ; and for a great number of years Oxford and Cambridge were the only bodies outside London responsible for this type of work. Accordingly, to-day, though the newer Universities have entered the field, Extension work is still carried on by Oxford and Cambridge as far afield as Staffordshire, Cumberland, Yorkshire and Dorset.

In 1903 the Workers' Educational Association was founded, and University Joint Committees began to be formed consisting of an equal number of representatives from the University and the Association. The chief work of these Joint Committees has been to provide Three Year Tutorial Classes of a standard roughly equivalent to an Honours Degree Course. There are nearly 700 Three Year Tutorial Classes (apart from Advanced and Preparatory Tutorial Classes) and nearly 400 Extension Courses recognized for direct grant by the Board of Education under special regulations for aiding Adult Education.

(37) *Voluntary Organizations.*

The chief voluntary organization in England is the Workers' Educational Association, which, in addition to the Three Year Tutorial Classes mentioned above, provides a large number of One Year and Terminal Courses. It has also appointed Full-time Tutors in certain areas to organize

Rural Schemes of Adult Education. The One-Year and Terminal Courses organized by the W.E.A. and by certain other approved bodies are also recognized for grant.

Of the voluntary organizations not recognized for direct grant by the Board, the chief are the National Federation of Women's Institutes, the National Council of Social Service, and the National Adult School Union. The Federation of Women's Institutes and the Council of Social Services had their origin in 1915. The former has provided 5,000 Institutes in rural areas with a membership of 296,800 persons for whom it arranges classes in such subjects as literature, history, music, drama, craft-work, hygiene, food production and preservation. The latter has organized more than twenty Rural Community Councils, whose aim is to help villages to develop their social life and to encourage the supply of "pioneer" classes in the villages as required.

(38) *Local Education Authorities*

All the work recognized by the Board under the Adult Education Regulations is of a "liberal" character, and is concerned with History, Literature, Philosophy, Economics, Science and the like, but not with practical or recreational subjects such as Handicrafts, Domestic Instruction, the practice of Music and Drama, Physical Training, etc. Classes in practical and recreational subjects are organized either by non-recognized voluntary bodies like the Women's Institutes, Community Councils and Adult Schools mentioned above or by Local Education Authorities. The County and County Borough Local Education Authorities provide, in all, some 16,000 classes for adults, of which by far the greater part are in Domestic Subjects, Handicrafts, Hygiene, Music, Physical Training and Elocution, though there are also courses in Literature and Science. In addition to providing classes of their own Local Education Authorities aid the work of Universities and voluntary organizations of

all kinds ; and, as has already been explained, the Board of Education pays grant on the approved expenditure of Local Education Authorities in respect of higher education at the rate of 50 per cent.

(39) *Collegiate and other Institutions*

There are seventeen Settlements in various parts of the Country affiliated to the Educational Settlements Association. These settlements provide a permanent home for classes of all kinds and some of them make a special feature of handicrafts and practical work. There are also a few non-residential Colleges of Adult Education—the best known being the Working Men's College and Morley College, both in London.

For the full-time instruction of students of the wage-earning population there exist several residential Colleges providing courses of one year or more. The chief of these are Ruskin College, Oxford ; Fircroft College, Birmingham ; the College for Working Women, Surbiton ; Avoncroft College, Evesham ; the Catholic Workers' College, Oxford ; and Coleg Harlech. The work in these collegiate and other institutions generally earns grant in one form or another from the Board of Education.

(40) *Charitable Trusts*

The Carnegie United Kingdom Trust has done important work in financing the development of Rural Community Councils and Rural Schemes of the W.E.A., and in promoting, through the County Library Service, an efficient service of book-supply. The Cassel Trust and Miners' Welfare Fund have both devoted funds to enabling students to attend Universities or Colleges as full time students and have supported rural schemes of adult education. The Gilchrist and Thomas Wall Foundations have also contributed money towards lecture courses and adult work generally.

VI.—THE TRAINING AND SUPERANNUATION OF TEACHERS

(41) *General*

The large majority of teachers in Public Elementary Schools have undergone a course of professional training and it is not now possible, with certain exceptions, for a teacher to be recognized as a Certificated Teacher without the satisfactory completion of such training. An increasing number of teachers in Secondary Schools have also pursued a course of professional training. There is no special course of training for teachers in Technical and Commercial Schools beyond the "Short Courses" mentioned below.

(42) *Types of Training Institutions and Courses*

There are two main types of training institutions, namely, Training Colleges, which may be provided either by a Local Education Authority or by a Voluntary Body, and Training Departments provided by a University or University College.

The Training Colleges provide normally a Two Year Course for students of 18 years or over, who have as a rule been educated at a Secondary School and have passed an appropriate qualifying examination. The course covers both academic and professional subjects including practice in teaching. There are some 70 Training Colleges of this character, 50 of them being provided by religious bodies.

The Training Departments of Universities provide a One Year Course of professional training for students who have spent the previous three years in obtaining a University Degree. This type of training is therefore frequently known as a Four Year Course of Training, since the first three years as well as the fourth year of professional training may be aided by grants. There are about 20 such Training Departments.

In addition to the above there are some 10 special Training Colleges for training teachers of Domestic Subjects.

There are about 19,000 students attending Training Colleges and Training Departments.

(43) *Short Courses for Teachers*

The Board of Education, the Universities, Local Education Authorities and other Bodies provide a variety of Short Courses, mostly in vacations, for practising teachers of all kinds, including teachers in Technical and Commercial Schools.

(44) *The Examination and Certification of Teachers*

Recognition as a Certificated Teacher (see paragraph 19) or teacher of Special Subjects is granted by the Board, in the case of a student in a Training College, on the result of examinations conducted by regional Joint Boards composed of representatives of the Universities, Training Colleges and other bodies interested in the training of teachers. In the case of University Training Departments recognition as a Certificated Teacher is granted to graduates after consideration of the results of the professional examination (e.g. for a Diploma in Education) conducted by the University. In both cases however the examination for certification purposes includes the student's practical teaching ability which is assessed by the Board's Inspectors in consultation with the authorities of the Training College or Department.

(45) *Superannuation of Teachers*

A system of superannuation is administered by the Board and provides for the grant of pensions, based on salary and years of service, to qualified teachers on retirement at or after the age of 60 or on permanent disability at an earlier age, and for the grant of death gratuities on the death of teachers in service. Contributions of 5 per cent. of salary are paid by

the teacher and contributions of 2½ per cent. (net) by the employer. The contributions are not funded but are paid into the Exchequer which bears the charge for superannuation allowances. A special account is, however, kept of contributions and benefits and is subject to actuarial investigation every seven years.

VII.—THE SCHOOL MEDICAL SERVICE AND SPECIAL SCHOOLS

(46) *Medical Inspection and Treatment*

The educational system includes arrangements for attending to the health of the children in the schools. Central responsibility in this matter has been delegated by the Minister of Health to the Board, and the work is undertaken by the Local Education Authorities by means of their medical and nursing staff. The Authorities are required to provide for the periodical medical inspection of all children in public elementary schools. Children are examined not less than three times during their school life ; on entering school, at the age of 8 and at the age of 12. The parents are informed of any defect which may be found, and if they are unable to obtain treatment, this has to be provided by the Authority for certain kinds of defect or ailment, e.g. minor ailments, defects of eyes and teeth, and enlarged tonsils and adenoids, the parents contributing what they can towards the cost of treatment. An increasing number of Authorities are now undertaking also the treatment of crippling defects, heart-disease and rheumatism. In institutions of higher education the statutory position is somewhat different ; the Authorities are only required to arrange for medical inspection in certain Schools for which they are specially responsible, though they may arrange for it in institutions provided by other bodies if they are invited to do so. Arrangements for the medical treatment of children in other than elementary schools may be made at the option of the Authority.

(47) *Special Schools*

Local Education Authorities are required to provide for the suitable education in Special Schools of blind, deaf, physically defective, mentally defective and epileptic children in their areas. For blind children the period of compulsory education in special schools is from 5 to 16 years of age; for other defectives from 7 to 16. Schools may be provided either by a Local Education Authority or by a Voluntary Body. In some institutions there is provision for full-time courses of instruction for blind, deaf and defective students over 16, in preparation for a trade.

(48) *Provision of Meals*

Local Education Authorities may provide meals for children attending public elementary schools. This provision is free in necessitous cases; in others the parents are required to pay the whole or part of the cost. Upwards of 47,000,000 meals were provided in 1931-32 for approximately 320,000 school children. Rather more than half the meals provided consisted of milk.

VIII.—UNIVERSITIES AND UNIVERSITY SCHOLARSHIPS

(49)—*General*

There are twelve degree-giving Universities in England and Wales, namely the Universities of Birmingham, Bristol, Cambridge, Durham, Leeds, Liverpool, London, Manchester, Oxford, Reading, Sheffield and Wales, and three institutions without the power to give degrees, which for statistical purposes are generally grouped with the Universities, namely the University Colleges of Exeter, Nottingham and Southampton.

Oxford and Cambridge, each with a number of Colleges, are very old foundations and are residential. The

remainder, three of which—Durham, Wales and London also comprise groups of largely autonomous Colleges, have been established since 1800 and with the exception of Reading are not residential though they have residential facilities. The total number of full-time students is about 36,000 ; and approximately 30 per cent. of these are women. Oxford and Cambridge account for about 10,000, London University for about 11,000, the Provincial Universities and Colleges for about 12,000 and Wales for not quite 3,000.

University Degree Courses generally extend over three or four years, though in medicine five or six years are required. In general, degree examinations are taken in two stages. All the Universities provide—though in varying measure—for Post-graduate work and for research.

(50) *Government and Finance*

The Universities are self-governing institutions. They all however receive aid from the State in the form of direct grants from the Treasury made on the advice of a University Grants Committee, composed of academic experts ; and the modern universities also receive grants from Local Education Authorities. The University Grants Committee is a Committee not of the Board of Education but of the Treasury.

(51) *University Scholarships*

State Scholarships tenable for courses for Honours Degrees at the Universities are offered each year by the Board of Education. At present the number offered annually is 300. They are awarded on the results of the Higher Certificate Examinations to pupils attending grant-aided Secondary Schools, and they entitle the holder, subject to financial need, to a grant in aid of the approved

fees, and a grant not exceeding £80 per annum towards the cost of maintenance at a University. A large proportion—approximately two-thirds—of the holders receive their early education in a public elementary school. The Board also award about 30 Royal Scholarships and Free Studentships in science tenable at the Imperial College of Science and Technology and a similar number of Scholarships and Exhibitions at the Royal College of Art. A considerable number of scholarships and maintenance grants are also awarded by Local Education Authorities to enable selected pupils to proceed to the Universities.

It should also be remembered that numerous exhibitions and scholarships are awarded from their own funds by all the Universities and Colleges—notably by the Colleges at Oxford and Cambridge—and also by private trusts and benefactions. It was estimated a year or two ago that out of the total number of full time students at the University Institutions in Great Britain between 40 and 50 per cent. were receiving financial assistance of some kind from other than private sources.

APPENDIX I

SOME APPROXIMATE STATISTICS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES IN 1932

Population of England and Wales	40,000,000
<i>(a) Public Elementary Schools :</i>	
Total number of pupils	5,600,000
" " " " in Council Schools ..	3,800,000
" " " " in Voluntary Schools ..	1,800,000
" " " Teachers in Public Elementary Schools	170,000
" " " Certificated Teachers in Public Elementary Schools ..	128,000
<i>(b) Secondary Schools :</i>	
Total number of pupils in Schools recognised as efficient (including Preparatory Schools) ..	516,000
" " " " in Grant aided Secondary Schools ..	432,000
" " " " in other efficient Schools (including Preparatory Schools) ..	84,000
" " " full-time teachers in Grant aided Schools	22,000
" " " full-time graduate teachers in Grant aided Schools ..	17,000
<i>(c) Vocational Schools and Further Education :</i>	
Number of students in Junior Full Time Courses ..	23,000
" " " " Senior and other Full Time Courses	15,000
" " " " Part Time Day Classes ..	45,000
" " " " " Evening Classes ..	916,000
<i>(d) Adult Education :</i>	
Number of Students	48,000*
<i>(e) Training Colleges and Departments :</i>	
Number of students in Training Colleges ..	12,000
" " " " University Training Departments ..	6,000
" " " " Domestic Science Training Colleges ..	1,000
<i>(f) Universities :</i>	
Number of Full Time Students	36,000

* This figure excludes students in certain Adult Education courses recognised under the Regulations for Further Education since such students are included in the 916,000 given above.

APPENDIX II

HISTORICAL NOTES

Some knowledge of the history of the educational system is desirable if its present day terminology is to be appreciated. For this reason, and because the present year (1933) celebrates the centenary of the first public grant to education, it may be both instructive and interesting to foreign visitors to have before them some brief historical notes about education in the hundred years before the date of the first grant and in the subsequent century.

The Eighteenth Century

At the beginning of the 18th century there were in existence a large number of endowed grammar schools for boys which had been founded by private individuals, by religious bodies or by City companies. Many schools of this character were established in the 16th century, though some are of earlier origin. In the course of time special circumstances (such, for example, as the location of a school, financial resources, or the eminence of a Head Master) enabled some of these endowed schools to establish a reputation above their fellows and beyond their own locality, with the result that they became known as "Public Schools." The remainder maintained their original local character and frequently retained their original title of "Grammar Schools".

Though there was provision in many of the endowed grammar schools for the "education of the poor" they did not profess to give elementary instruction. The main provision of this character in the 18th century took the form of "Dame Schools" and other private schools, frequently conducted by persons wholly unqualified for the task; and of "Charity Schools" established as a rule under the auspices of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge (S.P.C.K.) which was founded at the end of the 17th century, and of other schools of a parochial character.

Towards the end of the 18th century popular education received a stimulus owing to the establishment and rapid development of Sunday schools in which children were taught among other things, to read and write. In addition, the late 18th century saw the establishment of a small number of schools of industry in which elementary instruction was combined with industrial training.

Girls as well as boys received instruction in the charity schools and in the Sunday schools; and there were some girls' schools of a private character which were generally boarding schools but were mainly concerned with training pupils in those accomplishments considered necessary for social life.

In the realm of University education there were, in the 18th century, only the ancient Universities of Oxford and Cambridge whose origins date back to the 13th century.

The Nineteenth Century

At the beginning of the 19th century a more comprehensive attempt was made, by voluntary agencies, to establish a system of popular elementary education. Two religious societies, the British and Foreign School Society and the National Society, the latter being closely identified with the Church of England, established and maintained throughout the country, by means of voluntary subscriptions and children's school fees, a number of elementary schools for boys and girls. Hence the names British School (now somewhat rare) and National School.

In 1833 the State came to the aid of these Societies with a grant for buildings, and in 1839 a Committee of the Privy Council was established to administer the State grants and to arrange for the inspection, by Her Majesty's Inspectors (H.M.I.) of these Voluntary Schools. The work involved resulted in the establishment of a central Education Department which was the beginning of what is now the Board of Education.

From 1833 to 1870 the two Societies referred to above and other voluntary bodies, mainly of a religious character, carried on and developed the system of elementary education with the aid of fees, voluntary subscriptions and State grants, the latter, as time went on, extending beyond mere building grants.

In 1870 locally elected School Boards were required to provide elementary schools in areas where the efforts of voluntary agencies were shown to be insufficient to meet the growing demand for popular education. Hence the name "Board School" as distinct from "Voluntary School". From 1870 to the end of the 19th century there were thus two types of elementary school—Voluntary Schools provided and maintained out of voluntary subscriptions, fees and State grants, and Board Schools provided and maintained out of rates, fees and State grants.

In the realm of secondary education the 19th century saw the establishment of many new "Public Schools" together with a number of private preparatory boarding schools for boys designed specifically to prepare pupils for admission to the Public Schools. In the latter half of the 19th century a beginning was made with the systematic provision of girls' Boarding Schools and High Schools in which an education was given comparable to that provided by the boys Public Schools and Grammar Schools.

Many of the voluntary agencies which had established elementary schools also provided Training Colleges of a residential character for the training of teachers who would teach in their schools; and towards the end of the 19th century Universities and University Colleges undertook the work of training teachers in departments which are now referred to as University Training Departments.

Durham University was founded in 1832 and the University of London, at first only an examining body, in 1836. The examinations of the University of London were widely available, with the result that many independent university colleges in the provinces prepared their students for London Degrees and eventually, towards the end of the nineteenth century, themselves became Universities granting their own degrees. Oxford and Cambridge are thus sometimes referred to as the older or ancient universities and Manchester, Liverpool, etc., as the modern or provincial universities.

The Twentieth Century

The 20th century heralded great changes in the educational system. In 1899 the Board of Education had been created and "charged with the superintendence of matters relating to education in England and Wales." The Board absorbed the Education Department, and also the Science and Art Department which had originally been attached to the Board of Trade but was subsequently placed under the same Minister as the Education Department.

In 1902 (1903 for London) the School Boards were abolished and their functions transferred to County Councils, County Borough Councils and certain Borough Councils and Urban District Councils, which thus became Local Education Authorities (L.E.As.).

The new Local Education Authorities were called upon not only to take over and maintain the Board Schools and to provide new Elementary Schools as required; they were also charged with the maintenance, as distinct from the provision, of the Voluntary Schools, and were made responsible for the secular instruction in them. It was thus that the old Board Schools and the new Elementary Schools provided by these Councils became known as Council Schools as distinct from the Voluntary Schools. Council Schools are also known as Provided Schools (i.e. provided by a L.E.A.) whilst the Voluntary Schools are also known as Non-Provided Schools, (i.e., not provided by the L.E.A.).

The Act of 1902 dealt drastically with higher education as well as with elementary education. The County Councils and County Borough Councils were required to "consider the educational needs

of their area and take such steps as seem to them desirable, after consultation with the Board of Education, to supply or aid the supply of education other than elementary and to promote the general co-ordination of all forms of education . . .". The ultimate results, to which subsequent Acts and various Statutory Regulations contributed, were :

(a) the establishment and rapid development of Secondary Schools wholly provided and maintained by L.E.As.

(b) the granting of financial assistance by L.E.As. to a number of Secondary Schools (Grammar Schools and others) already in existence—in some cases existing Secondary Schools were completely taken over by the L.E.As.

(c) the co-ordination and further development of technical instruction for which, under the Technical Instruction Act of 1889, County Councils and County Borough Councils had already been given some responsibility.

(d) the establishment of a number of Training Colleges wholly provided and maintained by L.E.As.

The above brief historical notes may assist to throw light on current educational terminology, such as the following: L.E.A., H.M.I., Council School, Voluntary School, Provided School, Non-Provided School, Public School, Endowed Schools, Grammar School, Aided School.

These notes do not go beyond the Act of 1902. Subsequent Acts have resulted in further progress in many directions but they have not materially altered the general structure of the system so far as the provision and maintenance of educational institutions are concerned.

APPENDIX III

THE GRANT SYSTEM

The Board of Education Grants are made to—

- I. Local Education Authorities,
- II. Bodies other than Local Education Authorities, and
- III. Individual Students.

I.—Grants to Local Education Authorities

1. The Board's grants to Local Education Authorities for elementary and higher education respectively take the form of a single grant for each service as a whole, assessed annually and payable by instalments through the year and a balance after its close. These grants are estimated to amount to nearly £38,000,000 in 1933-34.

(a) The grant for elementary education is largely based upon the expenditure of Local Education Authorities, but the formula on which it is calculated contains factors which differentiate in favour of the poorer and more populous areas. The grant formula is as follows :—

50 per cent. of—

(i) teachers' salaries.

(ii) special services (e.g. medical inspection, schools for defective children, etc.).

(iii) maintenance allowances.

20 per cent. of the remaining net expenditure.

To the figure thus arrived at is added a sum of 45s. for each unit of average attendance of pupils in elementary schools, and from this total is subtracted the product of a 7d. rate.

In some districts an extra grant (totalling for England and Wales a sum of £400,000) is also payable

(b) For higher education (i.e. secondary, technical and the training of teachers) the grants are wholly based on recognised expenditure, and are at the rate of 50 per cent. of such expenditure.

The expenditure which is aided by the Board includes the cost of maintaining the Local Authorities' schools and of aiding those managed by independent governing bodies.

II.—*Grants to Bodies other than Local Education Authorities.*

2. The amount of these grants is about £1,500,000.

In the sphere of elementary education these grants amount to a very small figure, whereas in higher education they are of considerable magnitude as a large number of important institutions, schools and classes are conducted by bodies other than the Local Education Authorities.

(a) The grants in the case of elementary education amount only to about £65,000 a year in respect of voluntary schools for defective children, schools in boarding institutions (such as Dr. Barnardo's Homes), nursery schools and play centres.

(b) In higher education the largest proportion of these grants goes towards the training of teachers either in the voluntary training colleges (most of which are denominational) or in the University training departments.

Many important secondary schools also (such as some of the endowed Grammar Schools) prefer to draw aid directly from the Board both because they desire to retain freedom from control by local authorities and because in many cases they are not solely dependent on the locality for their pupils.

In technical education the main part of the direct grant goes to tutorial classes and other classes for adult education (such as those conducted by the Workers Educational Association). The technical colleges which receive direct grant are usually those which draw their pupils from a wide area or are of a specialist nature.

The system of grants to bodies other than Local Education Authorities rests upon regulations defining for each type of institution or class the conditions to be complied with and the basis of computation. It is only in very rare cases that these grants are based on expenditure. They are more usually on a capitation basis or in the form of a block grant subject to variations as circumstances change.

III.—*Grants to individual students.*

3. The total amount under this heading is about £220,000.

The largest item is that for State Scholarships tenable at the Universities of which 300 are at present awarded each year by the Board to pupils of secondary schools recognised for the purpose of grant, on the result of the approved Second Examination in those schools.

Another large item is aid given to enable students to go to colleges for the training of teachers as day students.

A small number of scholarships are given in order to enable students to go to the Royal College of Art or the Imperial College of Science and Technology.

The grants to intending teachers are given only where the Board is satisfied that the student needs the grant and are at the rate of £26 for each man and £20 for each woman student.

For State scholars the maximum grant is £80 for maintenance together with the payment of approved fees, the actual amount of aid being assessed after the review of the financial circumstances of the scholar.

The Scholarships at the College of Science and at the Royal College of Art are of similar value and are similarly assessed. The Board also awards at these institutions a number of free admissions without any allowance for maintenance.

IV.—*Relation of grants to the Board's total Vote.*

4. The total amount distributed in grants by the Board of Education is in round figures £39,600,000, or 84 per cent. of the gross total Vote of the Board for 1933-34.

The remaining 16 per cent. is used to defray the cost of Administration, Inspection, Pensions to Teachers, the Royal College of Art, and the Museums under the control of the Board.

The following Educational Pamphlets, issued by the Board of Education, have been placed on Sale. Copies may be purchased directly from H.M. Stationery Office at the addresses given on the title page or through any bookseller. If purchased by post, the amounts indicated in the following list should be added for postage :—

- No. 4. School Doctors in Germany.
By W. H. Dawson. (1908.) *Price 6d.†*
- No. 13. The Problem of Rural Schools and Teachers in N. America.
By Ethel H. Spalding. (1909.) *Price 6d.‡*
- No. 17. Report on Science Teaching in Public Schools represented on the Association of Public School Science Masters.
By Oswald H. Latter. (1909.) *Price 4d.†*
- No. 18. Compulsory Continuation Schools in Germany.
By H. A. Clay. (1910.) *Price 9d.‡*
- No. 19. The Course System in Evening Schools.
By H. T. Holmes. (1910.) *Price 3d.**
- No. 21. A School Week in the Country, Bradford Grange Road Secondary School, Girls' Department. (Educational Experiments in Secondary Schools, No. ii.)
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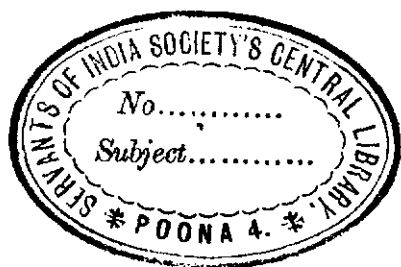
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ADULT EDUCATION AND THE LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITY

Paper No. 11 of the
Adult Education Committee

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LONDON

PRINTED AND PUBLISHED BY HIS MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE

To be purchased directly from: H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE at the following addresses
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Constitution of the Committee

The President of the Board of Education constituted in April 1921 an Adult Education Committee to promote the development of liberal education for adults and in particular to bring together national organisations concerned with the provision of adult education, so as to secure mutual help and prevent overlapping and waste of effort; to further the establishment of local voluntary organisations for the purpose and of arrangements for co-operation with Local Education Authorities; and to advise the Board of Education upon any matters which the Board might refer to the Committee.

The following were members at the time of the preparation of this Report :—

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With Mr. G. G. WILLIAMS, a Principal under the Board of Education, as Secretary.

Mr. W. C. EATON, Sir P. E. WATKINS and Mr. H. E. BOOTHROYD, H.M. Inspector, were authorised to attend meetings of the Committee on behalf of the Board of Education, and Mr. A. P. McMULLEN, Brevet-Col. J. A. SMITH, C.M.G., and Mr. W. M. PAGE, C.B.E., on behalf of the Admiralty, War Office and Air Ministry, respectively.

* Dr. Percival Sharp was nominated to the Committee in succession to Mr. F. H. Toyne, who resigned.

† Mr. H. D. Struthers was nominated to the Committee in January, 1932, in succession to the late Dr. James Graham, LL.D.

Note by the Board of Education

The Board believe that the publication of this Report will be welcomed by all persons and bodies interested in Adult Education, and they will welcome discussion of the interesting suggestions put forward in the Report.

It will be understood of course that the Board are not committed to approval of the findings of the Report upon particular issues or of the opinions expressed in evidence.

The expenses incurred in the preparation of this Report are estimated at **£298 0s. 11d.**

The estimated cost of printing and publishing the Report is **£78 10s. 0d.**

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INTRODUCTORY NOTE

Anyone who looks out on England to-day will see, on the one hand, people of all kinds seeking distraction for their leisure time, and, on the other hand, widespread facilities for an intelligent use of leisure. Educational broadcasting, community drama, folk dance and song, handicrafts, lectures and classes of every kind—all these provide an opportunity for persons of the most widely different tastes and abilities. But he will see also that, in an age when the need for careful planning is so much emphasised, adult education in many areas continues haphazard and, for that reason, is often ineffective. That is the general position as we have envisaged it in approaching the problem of "The Place of Local Education Authorities in Adult Education."

The argument of this Report may be summarised briefly as follows. Adult education is complicated and must always remain so, since it provides for an amazingly wide variety of students. To meet these varied needs careful adjustment is necessary. If education is left to chance, many students will fail to get it or will get it in a form which they do not want or need.

On the other hand, an uniform system controlled by the Local Education Authority, of the kind familiar to us in elementary education, would be out of place in dealing with adults.

The most satisfactory solution lies, we think, in co-operation on a local basis, each organisation providing those facilities in which it has special experience.

The Local Education Authority has a special interest in promoting this co-operation, responsible as it is for the general education of its area. Moreover, it has to its credit a long and honourable tradition, which entitles it to an active share in any new development.

In the first chapter of our Report we attempt to trace this tradition from its beginnings to the present day, and to show how Evening Schools were developed and the work of voluntary bodies fostered by School Boards and Local Education Authorities under their gradually expanding powers.

In our second chapter we enumerate various schemes of local co-operation, which we regard as valuable examples for the future.

In our third chapter we survey the work which Local Education Authorities are themselves doing in adult education.

In our fourth chapter we describe the growing interest in practical and æsthetic training ; we point out that Local Education Authorities have a special interest in this branch of adult education, and that many of them are seeking to extend the scope of the traditional curriculum.

In our fifth chapter we give a short account of the advent of Broadcasting and we discuss its functions in adult education.

In our sixth chapter we discuss the very important subject of the supply of books for adult classes.

Finally, in our seventh chapter, we state our conclusions, which are in brief :—

- (a) that a partnership between statutory and non-statutory bodies is an essential feature of the English system ;
- (b) that this partnership needs to be expanded and translated, where possible, into schemes of local co-operation ;
- (c) that, within such schemes, each organisation should, so far as possible, be entrusted with those types of work in which it has special experience and aptitude ;

- (d) that the Local Education Authority may be expected to play an active part in promoting such schemes and to take its share in providing facilities as and when required ;
- (e) that an adequate supply of books depends, in the first instance, on a proper use of the Public Library system, though other existing sources of supply should co-operate by a division of functions.

It only remains to say that, in following our Inquiry and in preparing our Report, we have been much assisted by the County Councils Association and the Association of Municipal Corporations, who have prepared memoranda and given evidence before the Committee.

CHAPTER I

THE RISE OF LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES

Introduction

1. The evolution of the Night School, as the eighteenth century knew it, into the Evening Institute, as we know it to-day, forms one of the most interesting chapters in the history of education. In the early years, which followed State intervention, irritating and embarrassing restrictions were imposed, the schools were treated officially as an extension of the Day School system and were limited both in the age-range of their pupils and in the choice of their curriculum.

2. But as time went on Evening Schools were released from their dependence on the Day Schools, were allowed to admit adults to their classes and were given freedom to teach subjects suited to the adult mind and inclination. Grant Regulations ceased to prescribe a code of detailed requirements and became instead a general framework, within which ample discretion was allowed for classes of all kinds to students of all degrees of attainment. Evening Schools, in short, from being local ventures set up to make good in a rudimentary way the deficiencies of elementary instruction, became organised centres for further education of all kinds from literary and scientific courses to simple hobbies.

The Beginning of State Aid

3. As is well known the first grant to Education in England was a sum of £20,000 voted by Parliament on 17th August, 1833, and increased later to £30,000. The grant was administered by a Committee of the Privy Council and Evening Schools were entitled to share in it. Under the Privy Council Code, however, grants could only be made to Evening Schools connected with Day Schools, and, in any case, they amounted only to a capitation grant of £5-£10 for teachers. Moreover, a master who had charge

of pupil-teachers could not be employed during the morning and afternoon in the Day School and also in the Evening School.

4. The first mention of a separate grant for Evening Schools occurs in a pamphlet published by Bishop Hinds in 1839 and entitled "A letter to Mr. Senior on Supplemental Evening Schools." The proposals comprised in this pamphlet are interesting as being the earliest reference to a state-aided system of Evening Schools; but they never took effect and in any case were defective in several important respects. For example, schools were to be closed during the important winter months; persons over the age of 16 were to be excluded, and admissions were to be confined to persons of the male sex.

5. During the years which followed the granting of State aid, Evening Schools increased in number and efficiency. New Schools were opened in towns and villages up and down the country, and several accounts of individual Schools have come down to us. We read, for example, of a School opened in a Wiltshire town in the fifties. It had on its books 144 pupils of all ages from 12 to 60 years of age and an average attendance throughout the Winter of 70. The School was open on three nights a week from 7.30 to 9 p.m. and the pupils paid a fee of one penny a week. The reading books varied according to the age and ability of the pupils. For middle-aged men Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress" was popular; for junior classes the penny and twopenny booklets issued by the Christian Knowledge Society, such as "Why are you afraid of the Policeman," were in demand. Every class studied Holy Scripture.

6. As the standard of the Schools improved, the need was felt for some central organisation to help and co-ordinate local effort. Adult Education Societies were formed in different parts of England* and did much for the Evening

* The best known of these Societies were the Yorkshire Union, the Northern Counties Union, the North and South Staffordshire Unions, the Worcestershire Union, the Southern Counties Adult Education Society, and the Berks. and Bucks. Adult Education Society.

Schools by giving advice and grants of money, by holding examinations and granting Certificates, and by arranging conferences from time to time for the discussion of difficult problems.

The Newcastle Commission

7. By 1860 Evening Schools were familiar to the general public, and those who had never seen classes at work could derive their impressions from a new novel by George Eliot.* The Newcastle Commission reporting in this year, found that there were no less than 2,036 Evening Schools in the country with a roll of 80,966 scholars (54,571 male and 26,395 female). The schools were provided mainly by religious bodies and were attended by pupils from 12 to 40 years of age at all stages of educational development. The instruction was confined to elementary subjects and was designed to make good the deficiencies of education in the elementary day schools. The schools indeed suffered severely from the lack of good teachers and adequate equipment and there was little attempt at organisation on a local basis. Nevertheless, they played an important part in the system of education, and the Commission endorsed the opinion which F. D. Maurice gave in his evidence before them in the following terms :—

“ Evening Schools for the adult population are, at present, so far as I know, the only means of encountering the great difficulty of modern English education. I think the evidence is decisive that they have been successful attempts. It does not appear that the students, young or old, in town or country, give any signs of the exhaustion which it had been supposed that those who had been employed all day in mechanical toils must exhibit. In general, they come fresh enough to their change of occupation, if their teachers are fresh.”

8. The Newcastle Commission recommended that the grant allowed to teachers under the Privy Council Code

* “ Adam Bede ” was published in 1859.

should be continued and that an additional grant should be paid to an organiser of a group of Evening Schools. They declined, however, to recommend a relaxation of the rule which confined the assistance of the Government to Evening Schools connected with Day Schools.

Decline of Evening Schools

9. The Revised Code issued in 1862 as a result of the Newcastle Commission introduced the important principle of Payment by Results. It made no special concession to Evening Schools except to allow Day School teachers to teach in Evening Schools and to give the stipulated instruction to their pupil teachers during those hours. Its influence on Evening Schools was soon felt. Pupils were obliged to learn elementary subjects, and, in order to earn grant, they had to pass an examination in the three elementary subjects. No other subjects could be taken unless, at the same time, a complete course in "Standard elementary subjects" was being followed; for example, a girl could not attend a class in Cookery without at the same time making 24 attendances at the Evening School and being presented for examination in the standard subjects.

The effects of the Revised Code, accentuated no doubt by the increase of Day Schools after 1870, were remarkable. In 1870 the average attendance at all Evening Schools in the country was 73,373, and by 1886 it had fallen to 26,000.

10. The Elementary Education Act of 1870 did little to encourage Evening Schools; on the other hand the power which it conferred on School Boards to conduct schools was not limited by any definition of hours and there was therefore nothing to prevent a School Board providing Evening Schools for the teaching of elementary subjects. The Education Department, however, paid no grant for a child who had passed the maximum age allowed by the Code for the time being in force, and the London School Board were advised that there was no authority for

providing out of the rates education for persons over the age of 18 (the maximum age prescribed by the Code of 1872 for Day and Evening Schools).

First Attempts in London

11. In 1872 an attempt was made to establish a system of Evening Schools in London, but failed, largely owing to a restricting Regulation of the School Board that no school should be opened with less than 40 names on the register or continued with less than 20 names. In 1882 a second attempt was made by the London School Board to establish a system of Schools. The scheme included—

- (a) Classes in elementary instruction under the conditions of the Code and maintained by the School Board.
- (b) Classes in subjects recognised by the Science and Art Department and by the City and Guilds of London Institute and in such other subjects as the School Board might from time to time approve.

In this year (1882) there were 83 Evening Schools open in London with 9,064 pupils on the roll and by 1885 the number had increased to 114 schools with 13,968 pupils.

The Cross Commission

12. Notwithstanding the successful establishment of a system of Evening Schools in London, the fortunes of Evening Schools in the country as a whole were on the decline. It has already been pointed out that the average attendance had sunk from 73,000 in 1870 to 26,000 in 1886; and the Cross Commission, appointed in 1886, found it necessary to examine the causes for their failure. They began by pointing out the need for a system of Evening Schools. "There will be," they wrote, "for many years the great mass of the ordinary boys and girls who leave school without having obtained the full benefit of a good elementary education, and for them a humbler evening school is needed, which will aim, not so much at building

up a higher edifice of knowledge, as at preserving the perishable and scanty accumulation from being swept away by the inroads of continuous and especially of unskilled labour. And along with these younger scholars there is another class that we shall be glad to see encouraged, and who are now absolutely discouraged by the regulations of the Department—the students who are more than 21 years of age.”

The Commission—having remarked on the comparative failure of Evening Schools—then proceeded to discover the causes. They reported that, in the opinion of many witnesses, a chief cause was to be found in the insufficient encouragement of Evening Schools by the Education Department by means of adequate grants. They also found that the Regulations requiring Evening Schools to include the standard elementary subjects was harmful. “Boys,” they wrote, “desire to learn what will be of use to them. Give them drawing, modelling, shorthand, book-keeping and the like, and they will attend an Evening School.” They reported therefore that the weight of evidence was strongly in favour of a special curriculum for Evening Schools.

13. While the Report of the Cross Commission directed public attention to the necessity for a reform of the Evening School system, valuable practical work was being done by the Recreative Evening Schools Association. Founded in 1885, this Association was in a large measure responsible for the establishment and success of Evening Schools organised by the School Board for London, Manchester, Liverpool and other towns. It was, indeed, largely owing to its efforts that the Education Department was induced, in the Code of 1890, to remove the requirement, to which the Cross Commission had objected, and to permit grants on individual pupils as the result of inspection in respect of higher subjects without requiring the same students first to satisfy H.M. Inspector in an examination in reading, writing and arithmetic. Further it permitted attendance to be recognised up to the age of 21.

Revival of Evening Schools

14. Progress so far had been slow and the Schools were suffering from official restrictions. In the eyes of the Education Department they were still an appendage to the Board Schools and their chief function was to supplement the instruction given during the day in elementary subjects. But a change was at hand. In 1893 the Code for Evening Continuation Schools was published and the following important changes were introduced in the Regulations :—

- (a) The attendance of persons over 21 years of age would henceforth be recognised.
- (b) No scholar would be compelled to take the elementary subjects.
- (c) Grants would be paid for the instruction of the School as a whole on the aggregate number of hours' instruction received by the scholars, and not, as heretofore, on the work of individual scholars determined by the results of an examination.

The effects of the new Code were immediate. In 1893 there were in the whole country 1,977 Evening Schools with 115,582 scholars: in 1894 there were 3,742 schools with 266,683 scholars.

15. The Recreative Evening Schools Association was dissolved in 1895 and its work was taken over by the School Boards. In London, between 1895 and 1900, the development of Evening Schools continued and by the latter year there were 395 schools with 146,971 scholars. Then came a check. The Auditor ruled that the Elementary Education Act did not empower School Boards to spend money on the teaching of Science and Art Subjects in Elementary Schools. The London School Board contended that the Education Department had always encouraged this kind of expenditure and had, moreover, made provision in their Codes for the teaching of the subjects in question. The Court upheld the Auditor, and the Court of Appeal concurred in the judgment

of the Court below, at the same time adding that it was also illegal to conduct Evening Continuation Schools, for persons who were not children, at the expense of the School Fund.

16. To prevent the decapitation of the Evening School System threatened by the Cockerton Judgment, a short Enabling Act was passed in 1901 and its application was extended by further Acts till the 30th April, 1904. From that date the Education Act, 1902, came into operation, and, under Section 22 of that Act, Evening Schools were definitely removed out of the sphere of Elementary education into that of Higher Education.

But a far more important change brought about by this Act was the abolition of School Boards and the establishment of Local Education Authorities with powers extending beyond the old limits of Elementary and Technical education so as to embrace the whole field of Higher Education. From this time dates the real importance of statutory bodies in Adult Education.

The Education Act, 1902

17. The effects of the Education Act, 1902, in Adult Education were two-fold. In the first place it gave Local Education Authorities general powers, extending to adults as well as children and young persons, of providing higher education; in the second place it gave them power to aid classes organised by Voluntary Bodies in all subjects, including those of a liberal character. These two important developments merit a closer examination.

Prior to 1890 Parliament had voted about half a million pounds annually to the Science and Art Department and £15,000 towards the support of Local Colleges in England. In 1890 the Local Taxation Act was passed, and power was given to the Council of any County or County Borough to apply any part or the whole of its share of the residue of the new tax on spirits (after deducting the amount devoted to

police superannuation) to educational purposes. In England, however, the Councils were allowed to contribute only for the purposes of Technical Instruction within the meaning of the Technical Instruction Act of 1889, and although this definition was liberally interpreted it excluded all classes in History and Literature. University Extension Centres were not slow to take advantage of the new grants for classes in Scientific and allied subjects and, by various devices,* even managed to secure assistance for classes in History. But, in spite of continual pressure to extend the scope of the Technical Instruction Act and the Local Taxation Act, so as to permit County Councils to apply their funds in aid of any form of education above primary, it was not until 1902 that the difficulty was finally removed. Local Education Authorities were then enabled not only to lend assistance to University Extension Courses in all subjects, but also to give valuable help in the early days of the Workers' Educational Association.

Local Education Authorities

18. The first and most important task of the new L.E.A's in regard to Evening Schools was reorganisation. In 1902, there were 5,198 Evening Schools in receipt of grants and 527,729 students in attendance at any time. The schools had grown up largely in response to a haphazard demand and were in many cases merely an agglomeration of students and courses, both of infinite variety. One of H.M. Inspectors, in the General Report on Higher Education for the year 1902, remarked that Evening Schools in his district could be roughly grouped into six categories—Science and Art Classes, Pupil Teacher Classes, Elementary Continuation Classes, Technical and Technological Classes, Recreative

* The following example was given by the Oxford University Extension Office of a course in History which might be aided by County Councils on the ground that it had some bearing on Technical Education :—“ In studying the history of Florence the student must be required to acquire, by reading modern Italian writers, a knowledge of the Italian language which would help him in business.”

Classes and Home Industry Classes—but there was little or no conscious effort to differentiate schools and curricula according to their aims and purposes, to classify students according to their age and attainments, or to group subjects into syllabuses.

19. The Regulations for Evening Schools issued by the Board of Education in 1902 divided subjects into five groups as follows :—

- I. Literary and Commercial.
- II. Art.
- III. Manual Instruction.
- IV. Mathematics and Science.
- V. Home Occupations and Industries.

Moreover, it was laid down that “well-appointed Schools might submit schemes and time-tables for grouping together cognate Science and Art Subjects. This grouping would only be permitted when the students were actually in training for a trade or craft under some recognised Education Authority, and where the subjects selected for grouping together were those necessary for the instruction in the principles underlying such trade or craft.” Here, then, was an opportunity to arrange definite syllabuses for persons requiring a part-time vocational training and Local Education Authorities took advantage of the opportunity.

Reorganisation of Evening Schools

20. Meantime, with improved communications and the growth of new facilities for Higher Education, it became possible to define the field of Evening Schools and to co-ordinate the whole provision of post-primary instruction on an area basis. Certain types of work were passed over to the Technical Institutes and Polytechnics; special arrangements were made for pupil teachers, and the work of the Evening Schools was brought into relation with the vocational needs of particular districts. Thus there grew

up a system of Senior and Junior Technical or Commercial Grouped Courses on the one hand, and of ordinary or non-vocational courses on the other. Unfortunately, they were not equally successful. The Consultative Committee on Attendance at Continuation Schools in 1909 found that nearly half a million students over 17 years of age entered Evening Classes in the year 1906-07. They reported that "the grouped courses now provided by many of the Local Education Authorities are appreciated by a considerable portion of the students and have given increased depth and thoroughness to much Evening School work. The weaker side of these Adult Evening Classes is the non-technical Instruction in History, Literature and Citizenship which has hitherto failed to evolve widespread interest among the masses of the people. There is as yet nothing in English educational life which corresponds in intensity to the keen intellectual and local interest which the students at the People's High Schools in Denmark show in national history and literature. In Wales and in Ireland the spirit has been in some degree aroused; but England remains comparatively apathetic."

21. It is clear that the reorganisation of Evening Schools had failed to produce an adequate volume of non-vocational work, and there is evidence that the Board of Education were concerned in 1910* at the comparative lack of adult classes in literary and similar subjects, side by side with the grouped vocational courses. Various reasons were suggested for this failure, but in the main it was due to a natural desire among students to follow courses of immediate practical use in their daily life. Practical work in the Day Elementary Schools was neglected, and the Full and Part-

* Following the Report by H.M.I. Mr. J. W. Headlam and Professor L. T. Hobhouse on Tutorial Classes in 1910 certain departmental minutes were written on the lack of Evening Classes provided by Local Education Authorities in literary, historical and economic subjects. These minutes, which are of great interest historically, were issued as T. Memorandum No. 9, and, in the covering memorandum, H.M. Inspectors were urged to give every possible encouragement to non-vocational courses.

time Day Technical Courses were inadequate. Evening Schools therefore offered the obvious way for a student to prepare for technical, commercial or industrial life, and work of a non-vocational type tended to be crowded out. Meantime, the efforts of the newly-formed Workers' Educational Association and other organisations were stimulating and satisfying a wide demand for Adult Education among the general public.

Reorganisation in London

22. In 1913 came the reorganisation of the London Evening Institutes. The Evening Schools in London were divided at this time into Commercial Centres, of which there were 30 ; and Ordinary Schools, of which there were 234. The subjects of instruction were determined by the needs of the students and included, in the Commercial Centres, Accountancy, Banking, Book-keeping, Economics, and other commercial subjects ; and, in the Ordinary Schools, general elementary instruction, English Literature, Geography, and History, Modern Languages and Elementary Commercial work. The variety of subjects and students in the Schools was remarkable, but there was little attempt at organisation of courses or classification of students. The attendance was irregular, and in one year shortly before the reorganisation it was estimated that 43,000 out of a total of 250,000 failed to make 14 hours of attendance.

The new Scheme divided the Institutes into Commercial, Junior Commercial, Junior Technical, Women's and Non-Vocational. With the three former types we are not specially concerned : but the Women's Institutes, of which 33 were immediately opened, remain to-day substantially the same as in 1913, while the Non-Vocational Institutes, of which 8 were opened in 1913, have developed into the present system of Literary Institutes and Men's Institutes. Thus there came into being one of the most notable experiments in Adult Education, and the success of the

experiment may be gauged by the following table of statistics for certain years between 1913 and 1930 :—

<i>Type of Institute.</i>	<i>Date.</i>	<i>Number of Institutes.</i>	<i>Roll of Students.</i>	<i>Total Number of Hours.</i>
Women's ..	1913	40	21,731	735,824
	1919	37	31,680	1,249,247
	1928	38	33,195	1,565,803
Men's ..	1920	5	2,128	99,410
	1925	6	5,002	241,512
	1929	10	9,200	465,000
Literary ..	1919	7	2,582	79,614
	1925	12	7,914	265,989
	1929	13	13,760	515,000

The War and the Education Act, 1918

23. The War had a depressing effect on the fortunes of Evening Schools generally, and particularly on the Rural Schools.* Nevertheless it was during the War that an event occurred which influenced considerably the development of Adult Education in this country. This was the publication by the Board in 1917 of the Draft Regulations for Continuation, Technical and Art Courses. These Regulations, though never confirmed, recognised for the first time the need for a complete and systematic plan of further education in its wide sense for each area, and the special position of the Local Education Authority as the body responsible for formulating and carrying out such a plan.

24. In the Education Act of 1918 Parliament gave its sanction to the intentions of the Draft Regulations of 1917 by declaring that it should be the duty of Local Education Authorities to contribute to the establishment of a national system of public education by providing for the progressive

* According to a Board of Education Report on "The Decline of Rural Evening Schools" issued in May, 1924, the number of Rural Evening Schools dropped from 2,328 in 1913-14 to 844 in 1922-23. During the War they practically ceased to exist.

development and comprehensive organisation of education. About the same time a fresh impetus was given by the publication in 1919 of the Ministry of Reconstruction Report, which directed public attention to the importance of Adult Education in any scheme of education and the special position of the Local Education Authority in promoting it. The effects of the Report were soon felt. Local Education Authorities for Higher Education had concerned themselves hitherto mainly with providing new Secondary and Technical Schools. From now onwards they gradually developed, to a more or less degree, the provision of non-vocational classes for adults. How rapidly the development proceeded during the ten years following the War we shall presently discuss; but, before doing so, it is desirable to explain certain changes in the Grant Regulations which contributed towards that development.

Changes in the Grant Regulations

25. From 1903 onwards grant was paid by the Board under the Regulations for Technical Schools in respect of courses organised by Managers or Local Education Authorities at rates per unit of attendance varying from time to time according to the type of course.* In 1913 separate Regulations were made for University Tutorial Classes providing for a grant of £30 per class. The principle was thus introduced of paying a single grant per class instead of a capitation grant based on the number of students and the hours of instruction, and in 1917 the rate of grant for Tutorial classes was raised from £30 to £45. This principle was further extended under the Adult Education Regula-

* From 1903 onwards the rate for literary subjects was 2s. 6d. to 3s. 6d. for each 20 hours of instruction received by registered students. Where, however, the instruction was of an advanced character the rate might be increased to a maximum of 5s. By an amendment dated 21st July, 1919, this maximum rate was increased to 10s. in the case of "advanced instruction for adults in subjects of general as distinct from vocational education." Between 1908 and 1913 a special maximum rate of 8s. 6d. was allowed for work "of a standard corresponding with that required for an Honours Degree."

tions issued in 1924, which increased the rate for Tutorial classes to £60 or, in special cases £75, and enabled similar grants to be paid for Extension, One year and Terminal classes organised by Universities and recognised voluntary associations.* Finally in 1931 provision was made for an inclusive grant for Full-time tutors based on an approved programme of work. Classes organised by Local Education Authorities continued to receive grant under the Regulations for Technical Schools, which were in 1926 superseded by the Regulations for Further Education.

In 1919 the percentage grant system was introduced and the Exchequer paid fifty per cent. of all recognised expenditure by Local Education Authorities whether on providing classes themselves or on aiding the classes of voluntary associations. It was decided, however, that the Board could not pay grant in respect of the same class through two separate channels. In cases, therefore, where a Local Education Authority aided a class recognised under the Adult Education Regulations its expenditure was disallowed for grant. As a special concession to Adult Education the application of this rule was postponed for some years and did not come into full force until 1930.†

The results of these changes may be summarised as follows. All recognised work in Adult Education falls into two classes—that provided by Universities and certain voluntary bodies under the Adult Education Regulations; and that provided by or under the responsibility of Local Education Authorities under the Regulations for Further Education. Local Education Authorities can aid classes organised by Universities or voluntary bodies and, where such aid covers the greater part of the cost, must take responsibility for them. But aid to classes receiving grant under the Adult Education Regulations is not eligible for percentage grant from the Exchequer.

* As an indication of the effect produced by the issue of the Adult Education Regulations, it is worth noting that the number of recognised Courses grew from 751 in 1923-24 to 1,018 in 1924-25.

† The position was fully explained to Local Education Authorities in the Board's Circular 1355 dated 20th March, 1925.

Post-War Developments

26. We may now return to consider the steadily increasing part played by Local Education Authorities during the past ten years. As we have already seen the Education Act, 1902, had conferred on Authorities power to supply and aid the supply of facilities for Adult Education, and in the first two decades of the twentieth century an increasing number of Authorities began to take advantage of these powers. These powers were brought into proper relation with education as a whole, when, in 1918, the new Education Act charged Authorities with the duty of providing for the progressive development and comprehensive organisation of education. In 1922 two County Councils were themselves providing a system of education for adults and a number of others were organising occasional popular lectures: but the majority exercised their powers by assisting classes organised by Universities, the Workers' Educational Association and other bodies. The following table summarises the position at that date:—

Nature of Classes.	Nature of Aid.	Number of L.E.As. giving aid.	Amount of Contribution.
University Tutorial Classes.	Financial responsibility.	4	£ —
" " "	Grants in aid ..	61	5,047
One-year classes under U.J.Cs.	Financial responsibility.	1	—
" " "	Grants in aid ..	15	469
W.E.A. classes ..	Financial responsibility.	11	—
" " "	Grants in aid ..	38	1,562
" " "	Grants for administration.	3	150
University Extension Courses.	Grants in aid ..	29	1,937
Women's Institutes	All kinds	Not known.	—
Other Societies ..	All kinds	Not known.	—

27. If the information given in this summary be compared with that contained in our subsequent Chapters some idea will be gained of the development which has taken place during the past ten years and of the growing appreciation among Local Education Authorities of adult needs. There are two directions in which this development and growing appreciation deserve special notice. In the first place large sections of the population in some of the big urban areas have been attracted within the scope of Adult Education by the establishment of Institutes catering for their special needs and interests through courses in practical subjects, hobbies, physical culture and the like. Some account of this development is given in Chapter II of the Committee's Report on "The Scope and Practice of Adult Education." In the second place the special problems of Rural areas have been better understood and efforts have been made to take advantage of the improved means of transport to bring Adult Education within the reach even of the remotest villages. Probably the most important work in rural areas has been done by voluntary bodies, notably the Rural Schemes of the Workers' Educational Association* and the Rural Community Councils. But these efforts have in many cases been made possible by the help of Local Education Authorities; and, when we consider also the classes organised directly by County Councils themselves, it is manifestly untrue to say to-day, as was said by the Committee in 1922 that "there is practically no provision by Local Education Authorities of non-vocational subjects for adults in rural areas."

28. Side by side with a growing interest among Local Education Authorities there has been established a closer and more complete co-operation with Universities and Voluntary Bodies. In the past it was the custom for the

* A very clear account of the growth of Rural Work under the Workers' Educational Association since 1911 and especially since the War is contained in a pamphlet recently issued by the Association under the title of "A Brief Account of the Rural Work undertaken by the Workers' Educational Association."

Authority to grant financial assistance in aid of adult classes organised by particular voluntary bodies; to-day it is the custom in some areas for the Authority to be represented with all the various interested bodies on a Central Committee and occasionally to entrust this Committee with the distribution of its financial aid. This development has results of the very first importance. It enables statutory and voluntary bodies to appreciate each other's points of view and to rid themselves of many of the prejudices which have in the past impeded progress; it ensures that the Authority, which in many cases is prepared to invest money in the cause of adult education, can command the ripe experience and sagacity which many of the voluntary bodies possess in the highest degree; finally it enables the Authority to take a comprehensive view of the whole problem on an area basis extending over the whole territory for which it is responsible.

29. In the meantime the scope of Adult Education has travelled beyond the limits which enclosed it ten years ago. In the past Adult Education had been rightly regarded as a "movement" in which successive new endeavours had followed one another, each designed to make good in a limited field the deficiencies of the public system of education. To-day, when many of the gaps in the national system have been filled, adult education has widened its scope to include all classes in the community and all kinds of demand. Time spent in practical or recreational pursuits is seen to have a value both in itself and as a preparation for more serious study, and for much of this pioneer work the active co-operation of the Local Education Authority is essential. The wholesale shift of population and the rapid growth in various parts of the country of new Housing Estates have emphasised the acute need for civilising influences outside the scope of formal classes and courses.

30. As, then, the importance of the Local Education Authority has increased and its share in adult education has been magnified, difficult problems have been raised. How

can the interest of public bodies best be enlisted? What are the special spheres in which their resources can most usefully be applied? Is there a line which delimits the territory of voluntary and statutory bodies? These and other questions have, on several occasions during the past decade, occupied the time of conferences and committees, and these are the broad issues for the better understanding of which this Report has been prepared.

CHAPTER II

CO-OPERATION

General Introduction

31. The importance of co-operation between statutory and non-statutory bodies in Adult Education has been emphasised on many occasions since Local Education Authorities began to provide Evening Classes, and the Adult Education Committee made it their first business in 1921 to prepare for publication a Report on "Local Co-operation between Universities, Local Education Authorities and Voluntary Bodies." The main conclusion embodied in that Report was to the effect that "an increased measure of co-operation between Universities, Local Education Authorities and Voluntary organisations is vital for the full development of adult education," and the importance of this conclusion has been increasingly recognised during the ten years which have elapsed since the issue of the Report.

32. Co-operation in its simplest and most rudimentary form is easily described. It consists in the appointment by the Local Education Authority of representatives to serve on the Council or Committees of a University or Voluntary Body and vice versa ; and it generally includes some kind of practical assistance by the Local Education Authority. The various forms in which such assistance is given are summarised in an Appendix to this Report.*

33. But co-operation in the true sense of the word cannot be expressed in abstract terms of representation and the payment of grants. In its complete form it is an organism, in which the various members consult and collaborate for the good of the whole area. Many such schemes exist to-day and, since it is part of their strength that they have evolved naturally from the local history and circumstances

* See Appendix I.

of the areas they serve, it is manifestly impossible to study them outside their setting. We propose, therefore, to take each main division of the country in turn and to describe briefly what schemes are in force and what special forms local co-operation has assumed.

NORTH-EASTERN AREA

34. We begin with the North-Eastern Area, covering the Counties of Northumberland, Cumberland, Westmorland and Durham. In this area the local centre of University influence is Durham, including Armstrong College, Newcastle; and, since about one-third of the adult educational work is in the County of Durham, it follows that co-operation exists mainly between the University and County of that name. The written constitution of the University Extra-mural Board does not contain any provision for direct representation of the Local Education Authority; but the Local Education Authority has in fact always been strongly represented. For example, the Chairman of the Extra-mural Board was for many years an Alderman of the County Council; similarly, the Joint Secretary of the Board was Chairman of the County Education Committee and at the same time District Secretary of the Workers' Educational Association. The intimate relations thus assured have been further extended by personal contact between the Academic Secretary of the Board and the officials of the Local Education Authority on all matters such as programmes of work and reports of inspection. But co-operation, though undoubtedly close, is informal and depends on personal relationship.

NORTH-WESTERN AREA

35. The North-Western Area includes the Counties of Lancashire and Cheshire and the Universities of Manchester and Liverpool. In Manchester the Extra-Mural Department of the University and the University Joint Committee work in close co-operation with Local Education Authorities, but no arrangements are made for joint representation.

Liverpool University, by an arrangement with Durham and Manchester, has delimited an area in which it undertakes extra-mural work. In this area the University Joint Committee is responsible for Tutorial Classes, and the University Extension Board for all other extra-mural work. The Extension Board includes representatives of Local Education Authorities nominated by the Council of the University and this is the only formal link. But informal consultation takes place from time to time on questions of immediate interest.

Pioneer work in Lancashire is undertaken by the two full-time tutors, who are appointed by the Local Education Authority in consultation with the Universities. In Cheshire a Rural Community Council exists to organise pioneer work; the Local Education Authority is represented on this Council and supports it by a monetary grant and by free use of premises.

The Liverpool Community Committee

36. In December, 1927, an inquiry was undertaken at the request of the Liverpool Community Committee into the whole question of adult education in Liverpool. The main conclusion reached by this inquiry was that the situation in Liverpool did not call for the formation of any new central body, but that it would be helpful if a year book entitled "The Liverpool Adult Education Year Book" could be published annually to give full particulars of the various societies interested or engaged in adult education in the City. This Year Book has been published annually and gives a remarkably clear and complete picture of the existing facilities in Liverpool. Apart, however, from the issue of the Year Book, the Community Committee does not undertake advisory or consultative work.

Yorkshire Area

37. The County of York contains the Universities of Leeds and Sheffield and the University College of Hull. Each of these includes on its Council or appropriate Com-

mittee representatives of Local Education Authorities and receives financial contributions. Co-operation is, however, of a simple type and does not call for special comment.

38. A unique opportunity for joint consultation between the Local Education Authority, the Universities and the Workers' Educational Association is offered by the Yorkshire Council of Further Education. This Council was inaugurated in 1928 to investigate problems of Further Education in Yorkshire and to make recommendations and suggestions thereon. It acts purely in an advisory capacity and has no powers of expenditure other than those which are incidental to its secretarial work. Up to the present it has concentrated on Further Education of the Vocational type; it has assisted in stimulating the demand for agricultural education, especially among adolescents; and it is co-operating with the Rural Community Council in encouraging and stimulating the demand in dramatic and recreational work for adults in the rural parts of the West Riding. There is no reason, however, why it should not, in the future, devote some of its time to the work of adult education in its more specialised sense.

The West Riding

39. Yorkshire is an area of great interest, offering as it does clear illustrations of two kinds of co-operation. In the West Riding the Local Education Authority takes full financial responsibility for all One-Year and Terminal Courses and pays the tutor's fees and travelling expenses. The procedure is normally as follows:—The local demand for classes is organised by the Workers' Educational Association. Preliminary application forms are printed by the Authority and are distributed by the Association to the local branches. The local branch submits its proposal for a class on one of these forms to the local Evening Institute Managers, sending at the same time one copy of the form to the District Secretary of the Workers' Educational Association for transmission to the County Authority. The name of the tutor and the subject proposed

are included in the suggestions made to the local Managers by the branch, and the suggestions are normally approved, provided the Authority is satisfied as to the suitability and qualifications of the tutor. The Authority also decides on the amount of the tutor's remuneration and considers the proposed syllabus of instruction for the class.

In the West Riding important work of a pioneer character is done by the Rural Community Council. This body, which includes representatives of the Local Education Authority, has arranged with the Authority to undertake, in return for financial assistance, the work of creating a demand for courses in the rural areas and of organising lectures.

The East and North Ridings

40. In the East and North Ridings, on the other hand, the position is entirely different. In these districts the initiative has come mainly, if not entirely, from the Workers' Educational Association, and very little financial assistance has been given by the Local Authorities. The Rural Scheme for the area, which was the first of several* launched by the Workers' Educational Association, with the help of the Carnegie and Cassel Trusts, was established in 1921, and works in the following manner:—All One-Year and Terminal Courses are supervised by the East Yorkshire Rural Extension Committee, a body composed on the one hand of the East Yorkshire representatives of the Workers' Educational Association District Committee, and, on the other hand, of representatives from the Leeds and Hull Joint Committees and the East and North Riding Local Education Authorities. The Committee thus constituted is financially autonomous and depends on Board of Education grants together with some support from the Carnegie and Cassel Trusts and a small subsidy from the East Riding

* The essential feature of these Rural Schemes is the appointment of a resident tutor to undertake various types of work in the area. But, as will be seen from this Chapter, the establishment of a Rural Scheme often forms the basis of a formal scheme of co-operation with other bodies.

Local Education Authority. It has, during the ten years of its existence been successful in building up a most effective organisation staffed by a senior full-time tutor at a fixed salary and four other tutors working on an assured number of classes.

The Miners' Lectures Joint Committee

41. Before leaving the County of Yorkshire we must mention the work of the Miners' Lectures Joint Committee. This scheme for the provision of lectures and other educational facilities in mining areas was first approved in 1922 and has been renewed from time to time since that date. It covers the provision of short Lecture Courses, normally of six lectures each ; the presentation of plays by Repertory Companies ; the provision of books and remission of class fees to miners or their wives attending under the Workers' Educational Association classes ; and the supply of leaders for Study Circles. The Committee includes representatives of the South and West Yorkshire Miners' Welfare Committees, the Workers' Educational Association Districts, the West Riding Local Education Authority and one or two nominated members. It receives no grant either from the Exchequer or from the Local Education Authority.

The Bradford and Sheffield Schemes

42. Two interesting schemes for local co-operation in big urban areas exist in Yorkshire. The Federation of Educational Societies in Bradford was formed as far back as 1913 and includes representatives of eighteen separate associations. Most of the Societies are purely local ; others, like the Workers' Educational Association, the Young Men's Christian Association and the Young Women's Christian Association, the Historical and Geographical Associations and the British Music Society, are local branches of national movements. It is natural that a Federation of this sort should cover a very wide field of education ranging from hobbies to Tutorial classes, and its chief aim is to promote adult education of all kinds in the City without unnecessary

overlapping. In pursuance of this aim it issues a list of lectures open to members of the Societies and in other ways acts as a clearing house of information. The Federation works in close touch with the Local Education Authority but receives no financial assistance.

43. In Sheffield an Adult Education Joint Committee has been working for the last twelve years. The Committee was constituted in 1920 and was charged with the duties of inquiring into and advising on or aiding the provision of Adult Education. The organised courses of instruction already provided by the Local Education Authority were excluded from the purview of the Joint Committee. The Committee consists of 36 members, of whom 13 represent the Education Committee and the remainder are nominated by the University, the Libraries and Museums Committee and all the chief voluntary bodies interested in adult education. The Local Education Authority makes a grant to the Committee which is spent partly in the provision of lectures, partly in the publication of a Pamphlet describing the various facilities for adult education in the City, and partly on grants-in-aid to voluntary organisations.

WEST MIDLANDS AREA

44. In the West Midlands, which for our purpose embraces the Counties of Shropshire, Hereford, Worcester, Warwickshire and Staffordshire, and the University of Birmingham, the scheme of local co-operation is simple. The Local Education Authorities for Warwickshire, Worcestershire and Staffordshire are represented on the Joint Committee of the University, and the Staffordshire Authority is consulted in regard to the appointment by the Joint Committee of a resident tutor in South Staffordshire.

The North Staffordshire Scheme

45. But a feature of special interest in this area is the scheme of co-operation between the University of Oxford Joint Committee and the Local Education Authorities for

Staffordshire and Stoke-on-Trent. The basis of the scheme is the appointment of a resident tutor in North Staffordshire. But, apart from the need for joint consultation in regard to this appointment, it was found that there are many matters in which the University and the two Local Education Authorities have a common interest, and in 1926, therefore, a Joint Advisory Committee was formed. This Committee represents the two Local Education Authorities and Oxford University, and its meetings are attended by the Resident Tutor. Its functions are advisory and consultative, not executive. It serves for the exchange of information, the keeping in touch of all parties with the progress of the work, and the co-ordination and development of work which the Local Education Authorities assist, and it provides a regular means for frank discussion of any difficulties and problems that may arise. Its value lies in keeping the Local Education Authorities fully informed of the work which they are aiding and of the way in which their money is spent, and thus promotes the growth of confidence between the parties. It also provides means of discussing and solving difficulties that can be settled better by candid discussion round a table than through the formal administrative machinery. It is supplemented by a similar Committee consisting of representatives of Oxford University and of the North Staffordshire Workers' Educational Association District.

46. In Herefordshire there is a Rural Community Council on which the Local Education Authority have three representatives. No sphere of work has been allotted to the Council by the Local Education Authority, but Music and Drama Schools and Festivals are supported by the Local Education Authority and recognised as a valuable contribution to adult education.

The Wolverhampton and Coventry Schemes

47. In Wolverhampton and Coventry there are Joint Committees for co-ordinating adult education in the County Boroughs. The Wolverhampton Union of Adult Educational Associations was founded in 1927 and includes

representatives from all the various societies interested in the subject. Its aim is to advertise to the public the facilities which exist for adult education of all kinds and to promote mutual help and interest between the organising bodies. It also publishes annually a Pamphlet with a guaranteed circulation of 2,000 describing the opportunities which exist for adult education whether by formal classes, Listening Groups, Art and Handwork Centres, Lectures, or in other ways.

In Coventry a somewhat similar Union was founded in 1925. Like the similar body in Wolverhampton it takes no part in controlling the provision of classes, but aims solely at bringing the voluntary organisations in touch with one another and promoting mutual assistance. For this purpose it publishes a Pamphlet similar to that issued by the Wolverhampton Union.

EAST MIDLANDS AREA

48. The development and organisation of Adult Education in the East Midlands presents one of the most interesting experiments in this field that has yet been made. For the purpose of our classification we shall take a rough area, including the counties of Nottinghamshire, Leicestershire, Rutland, Derbyshire and Lincolnshire, and the University Colleges of Nottingham and Leicester.

The Nottingham Extra-Mural Scheme

49. The Extra-Mural department of the University College of Nottingham covers the county boroughs of Nottingham, Lincoln and Derby, the counties of Nottinghamshire and Derby, with the exception of portions of the north served by Sheffield and Manchester Universities, and various parts of Lincolnshire including the southern half of Lindsey, the whole of Kesteven, and the greater part of Holland omitting a portion in the south served by Cambridge. In addition, the University College participates in the special scheme of adult education in Leicestershire

controlled by a Joint Committee consisting of representatives of the University Colleges of Nottingham and Leicester and of Loughborough College.

50. In order to understand the relations between the University College of Nottingham and Local Education Authorities in the development of adult education, it is necessary to know something of the background of the movement in this area. The area is peculiar in that no voluntary organisation undertakes direct responsibility for the provision of courses under the Adult Education Regulations. The East Midland District of the Workers' Educational Association prefers to administer its One-Year and Terminal courses through the Joint Committee for Tutorial Classes, an arrangement which is of very long standing, antedating the actual foundation of a department of adult education by this College. The Joint Committee is specially recognised for this purpose by the Board as a Responsible Body under Chapter III of the Regulations. Similarly, Local Education Authorities have looked to the College to develop adult education in their areas, and have not themselves undertaken special schemes, except in association with the College. University College, Nottingham, has always maintained very close and intimate relations with Local Education Authorities and with a large number of voluntary organisations throughout the area. It has been the traditional home of voluntary educational activities of the most varied character from its inception, and this explains why, as a matter of historical development, adult education has come to be largely centred in the College and most of the developments which have taken place in adult education in the area have sprung from the College.

51. Given the position indicated above, it is necessary to explain the way in which the machinery for adult education has evolved in recent years. In 1920, the College decided to create a department of adult education. There was already the usual Joint Committee for Tutorial Classes, of which half the members were nominated by the East

Midland District of the Workers' Educational Association, the other half consisting entirely of representatives nominated by the Senate of the University College. In order to broaden the interest in adult education, it was decided to set up a University Extension Committee composed of the academic representatives serving on the Joint Committee, together with representatives of all the Local Education Authorities in the area and of a large number of voluntary organisations. The Joint Committee and the University Extension Committee together formed the Advisory Committee of the new Department, which in its turn became in 1928 the Delegacy for Extra-Mural studies.

The Leicestershire Scheme

52. Shortly after its inception, the Nottingham Extra-Mural Department arranged a special scheme in Leicestershire, based on Loughborough College, which provided for the setting up of a Sub-Joint Committee for this county served by a staff of tutors specially appointed at Loughborough College. The Department also, at the request of the North Midland Division of the Young Men's Christian Association, undertook an investigation into the possibilities of adult education in rural areas, and the result of this inquiry was the setting up of Rural Community Councils in Derbyshire, Leicestershire and Nottinghamshire with the assistance of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust. Since that time, a fourth Rural Community Council has been established independently in Lindsey.

53. In 1929, the Leicestershire adult education scheme became autonomous,* under a special Joint Committee directed by the Head of the Department of Adult Education of Loughborough College, who is assisted by a staff of full-time tutors. A large part of the cost falls upon the Local Education Authority, which is directly concerned in the scheme, but leaves its administration to the Leicestershire Joint Committee, on which it is represented together with

* Details of the Leicestershire Scheme are given in Appendix II.

the two University Colleges of Nottingham and Leicester and Loughborough College. The Rural Community Councils have also developed along their own lines, but work in close association with the Department through their Adult Education Committees, on which Local Education Authorities are also represented.

The Notts. and Derby Coalfield Scheme

54. A further scheme instituted by the Department has been responsible for a very vigorous development of adult education in the Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire coalfield. As a result of approaches made to the District Miners' Welfare Committees of Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire, a Joint Committee was established composed of representatives of the two District Welfare Committees and of the Department, so arranged that representatives of the Unions and of the Workers' side of the Joint Committee for Tutorial Classes exactly equalled the number of representatives of the mine owners and academic members of the Joint Committee. Among the academic representatives are delegates from the two Local Education Authorities concerned. Grants from the Welfare funds of the two counties, amounting to £4,000 per annum, are available for the work of the Joint Committee, and the work is carried out by two Organising Lecturers specially appointed on the staff of the Department. Its activities include the organisation of adult courses of all types in mining centres in the two counties as well as pioneer activities in the form of single lectures, the arrangement of educational concerts, and the performance of plays. The Committee also has a local scholarship scheme which makes possible the attendance of suitable candidates at internal courses at the College.

County Organisation in the East Midlands

55. In 1930 a scheme of pioneer adult education was worked out with all the Local Education Authorities concerned, and, for the first time, a measure of decentralisation

was introduced with the appointment of two organising tutors, one to develop adult education in the rural areas of Derbyshire, and the other to carry out the same work in Nottinghamshire. The two organising tutors are stationed respectively in Derby and in Newark. The way in which Local Education Authorities in the area have supported this scheme is an excellent illustration of their attitude to adult education and to the work of the Department. The central feature of the scheme was the appointment of two organising tutors who were to work in certain parts of the area. Nevertheless, several other Local Education Authorities served by the Delegacy have contributed financially to the scheme. Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire were, of course, to derive direct benefit from the work of the two organising tutors; but other Authorities recognised the value of this new development in setting the ordinary staff of the Department free to do more pioneer work in the rest of the area. In this scheme the advantage of specialised treatment of particular areas is secured, without, at the same time, losing the benefit of wider co-operation over the area as a whole.

56. The work of the Department has also benefited during the past two sessions by the establishment of a Rural Scheme of the Workers' Educational Association in Kesteven. Up to the time of the appointment of a resident rural tutor in this district there had only been one village class. In the session 1931-32 there were already eight classes and there is every prospect of an increase in the volume of work.

57. All the work arranged by the organising tutors mentioned above—those under the Miners' Welfare Scheme, the two organising tutors appointed in Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire respectively, and the Workers' Educational Association tutor in Kesteven—is supervised, on the academic side, by the Extra-mural Delegacy. The same applies to all other courses under the Adult Education Regulations, and there is therefore unified treatment of all types of courses over the whole area. This is regarded as a

distinct advantage by the Local Education Authorities associated with the College, providing as it does a guarantee of standards, which they can accept without question.

General Summary

58. Such, in outline, is the scheme of local co-operation for the East Midlands promoted by Nottingham University College—one of the most complete schemes yet launched in this country. It consists, as we have shown, of three distinct parts—first the University influence exercised by the Extra-mural Department at Nottingham; secondly, the County organisation under a local Committee of one kind or another formed from the various interested bodies; thirdly, a special Scheme for the Notts. and Derby Coalfield. This combination of a general control over a wide area with a measure of local independence and variety is of great value and it is important for our present purpose to notice that at each stage—whether on University Delegacy and Extension Committee, or on the County Committees, or on the Coalfield Joint Committee—the Local Education Authority is amply represented.

The Lincoln Scheme

59. In addition to the scheme described in the foregoing paragraphs, the University of Oxford has also an important scheme of influence in the East Midlands area. In 1928 the Oxford Joint Committee, in co-operation with the Nottingham Joint Committee, the East Midlands Workers' Educational Association District and the Lincoln Workers' Educational Association Branch, appointed an Organising Tutor resident in Lincoln for the purpose of developing Adult Education in the rural areas within a radius of twelve miles from the City, it being understood that this Tutor should conduct at least one Tutorial class. A Consultative Committee, with functions similar to those described above in the section on the West Midlands area, has been set up representing the various parties named

above together with the Local Education Authorities most affected, viz. Lincoln City, Kesteven and Lindsey. Local Education Authorities are not officially represented on the Committee, but it is arranged that the Directors of Education shall be invited to attend in a personal capacity, in order that they and their Committees shall be in touch with the work that is going on.

Rural Scheme in North-West Lindsey

60. In 1931 the Workers' Educational Association set up a Rural Scheme in North-West Lindsey and appointed a resident tutor. In the two years, during which this scheme has been working, there has been considerable progress, the number of classes growing from three to fifteen in addition to single lectures, week-end schools and pioneer work generally.

61. No mention has been made above of the County of Rutland. In this County there is a Rural Community Council, on which the Local Education Authority is represented, but we have little evidence otherwise of any active co-operation between the Local Education Authority and bodies concerned in the provision of Adult Education.

SOUTH AND SOUTH-EASTERN AREAS

62. Although the Southern and South-Eastern areas are geographically separate, there is some convenience for the purpose of this analysis in treating them together. For, although the University of Oxford by geographical position serves the neighbouring counties of Oxfordshire, Buckinghamshire and Berkshire, yet for historical reasons its influence extends over a much wider sphere, and, in particular, affects the organisation of those counties of Kent and East Sussex which form the South-Eastern district of the Workers' Educational Association.

63. Oxford and Cambridge are in this respect peculiar. Owing to the fact that they began their extra-mural work

more than half a century ago on a national scale, before there were other Universities to undertake such work (except for London in its own area), their influence was spread irregularly over most parts of the country. Although much of that work has in recent years passed to the newer Universities, which have had a very natural interest in developing extra-mural work in their own region, Oxford and Cambridge continue to be less restricted to regional lines. It follows that they have relations, more or less close, with an unusually large number of Local Education Authorities.

The Kent and East Sussex Scheme

64. We have described above in the sections on the West and East Midlands two important schemes launched by the University of Oxford in remoter districts, and we have described the constitution of the Joint Advisory Committee set up in Staffordshire. A Committee of a similar kind exists for the counties of Kent and East Sussex and includes representatives of the two County Local Education Authorities, Oxford and London Universities, the Workers' Educational Association and the Tutors. In the district served by this Committee Oxford is responsible, in co-operation with the Workers' Educational Association, for a number of Tutorial Classes and Extension Courses and has appointed three resident tutors. One of these is a Resident Tutor for Kent occupied largely with Tutorial classes but also with pioneer work for the Workers' Educational Association; a second conducts mainly Tutorial classes in Kent and East Sussex; a third is Organising Tutor for Extra-mural classes and pioneer work in a part of Kent.

65. These examples will serve to show how Oxford has organised its work in its remoter spheres of influence. It only remains to say that, in order to keep the Extra-mural Delegation informed of the general attitude of Local Education Authorities to University Extra-mural work, two Directors of Education from areas where Oxford has undertaken a

good deal of work, are co-opted members of the University Extension Committee and *ipso facto* of the Delegacy as a whole.

The Oxon., Berks. and Bucks. Scheme

66. But the work of the Oxford Delegacy in remoter districts must not obscure the importance of its work as a local centre for the neighbouring counties. In 1925 the Oxfordshire, Berkshire and Buckinghamshire Joint Committee was established to carry on work in the small country towns and villages of these three adjacent Counties with a markedly rural character. Much of this work has been necessarily of a less advanced standard than has been possible in the urban areas, but the quality of the work has risen steadily. The students in these small places can contribute little more than is enough to defray the strictly local expenses, and the major costs must therefore be borne by grants from public bodies and by the University Delegacy. The three County Local Education Authorities have given assistance without which the work could not have been carried through, but their contributions have been made in very different ways and in accordance with their own customary procedure. The Buckinghamshire Local Education Authority is the only one of the three which assumes direct responsibility for adult education, and there is a good working understanding between this Authority and the Oxfordshire, Berkshire and Buckinghamshire Committee, without, however, a definite scheme of co-operation having been formulated. The two Authorities for Oxfordshire and Berkshire make grants to the Delegacy in aid of the work done under the Scheme without assuming any responsibility for it.

Co-operation in West Sussex

67. Apart from the University of Oxford, the University of Reading and the University College of Southampton both provide classes in this area. In the main their relations with Local Education Authorities are financial and consist

in the payment and receipt of grants for class-work. In West Sussex, however, there is a useful organisation in the shape of an Informal Joint Committee for developing adult education in the County and composed of representatives of the University College, the Workers' Educational Association and the West Sussex Federation of Women's Institutes. The Women's Institutes form groups in the villages (not, of course, confined to members of the Institutes) and the Workers' Educational Association and the University Extra-mural department find the tutors and administration. Further, both the Workers' Educational Association and the University College organise groups independently. The Local Education Authority makes a grant both towards the classes and the administrative expenses.

County Organisation in Kent

68. We have spoken above of the Joint Advisory Committee promoted by Oxford for the counties of Kent and Sussex. The organisation in Kent deserves a somewhat closer examination. In this county the Local Education Authority seeks to develop adult education (other than Tutorial class work) through three channels. For the shorter courses it looks to the Workers' Educational Association and not only accepts full responsibility for classes organised by the Association, but also makes a grant towards the cost of administration. Recommendations to the Tutors' panel are made by a Consultative Committee, consisting of representatives of the Workers' Educational Association, the Tutors' Association and the Local Education Authority. For the development of women's work the Local Education Authority acts through the Federation of Women's Institutes. For other work there exists an important County Community Council, on which serve representatives of the Local Education Authority. In order to avoid overlapping, the Community Council does not itself do teaching work, but undertakes the organisation of courses for Class and Group leaders, the lectures being held at a convenient town or village centre to which leaders from the neighbouring

countryside come—sometimes from as many as twenty villages. The Local Education Authority contributes financially to the classes organised by the Community Council and co-operates with it in other ways.

Rural Community Councils in the South and South-East

69. Rural Community Councils also exist in Oxfordshire, Hampshire and in West and East Sussex. The Oxfordshire Community Council has formed an Education Group on which are represented the Local Education Authority, the Workers' Educational Association, the University Delegacy and the principal voluntary organisations interested in Adult Education. Its aim is to correlate the work of the different bodies represented upon it and to form a centre for discussion rather than to develop educational work. The Council acts, however, as agent for the Local Education Authority and receives grants in respect of classes arranged by the constituent members of the group.

In Hampshire both the Local Education Authority and the Workers' Educational Association are represented on the Community Council and the County Education Officer is an *ex-officio* member. The Community Council has not undertaken a definite sphere of educational work, but works in close co-operation with the responsible bodies providing classes in the area.

69. In East and West Sussex the Local Education Authority nominates representatives to the Rural Community Council, but in neither case has definite educational work been undertaken by the Community Council.

EASTERN AREA

70. We pass to the Eastern Area which, for our purpose, we take as embracing the Counties of Northamptonshire, Bedfordshire, Hertfordshire, Huntingdonshire, Cambridgeshire, Suffolk, Norfolk, the Isle of Ely and the Soke of Peterborough. In this area the chief sphere of University influence is, of course, the University of Cambridge.

71. We have mentioned above the peculiar position occupied by Oxford and Cambridge owing to their long history of work in adult education. It need not surprise us, therefore, when we turn to the Eastern Area, to find that the University of Cambridge has hitherto conducted its extension work on a national scale and has had no special responsibility for particular localities. The work of the Extra-Mural Board lies in a great many different areas, and it has been the custom for applications to the various Authorities concerned to be made by the individual classes or by the District Secretary of the Workers' Educational Association. Contact, therefore, between the Local Education Authority and the University has not hitherto been close.

The Cambridge Extra-Mural Scheme

72. More recently a scheme for promoting adult education in rural areas round Cambridge has been initiated. For the first time, therefore, the University may be said to be undertaking a measure of local responsibility in its extra-mural work, and for the first time close co-operation with Local Education Authorities has been sought. The only Authorities that co-operate in the scheme at present are those in Bedfordshire and Cambridgeshire; but other Local Education Authorities give financial aid to Tutorial classes or Extension courses.

73. This extension of the local influence of Cambridge has come about in the following way:—In 1927 the W.E.A. launched a scheme of adult education in the rural areas of Bedfordshire and appointed a resident tutor. After three years both the scheme and the resident tutor were taken over by the University, the Local Education Authority agreeing to contribute £400 per annum for three years and to co-operate in other ways.

74. In Cambridgeshire some pioneer work had been undertaken for several years by the Rural Community Council with financial aid from the Local Education Authority and the University. In 1931 the Local Education Authority agreed to the adoption of a scheme somewhat

similar to that in Bedfordshire, and undertook to contribute £100 to the University in respect of classes in the area outside Cambridge. An organising tutor was appointed under the Adult Education Regulations, who works principally in Cambridgeshire, but has also arranged classes and undertaken pioneer work in the Isle of Ely and Hertfordshire. The Local Education Authorities of these two areas have not, however, given financial or other help as have those of Bedfordshire and Cambridgeshire.

75. This scheme for rural areas is administered by a Committee made up as follows :—

6 members of the Extra-Mural Board of the University, 3 being W.E.A. representatives.

2 members of the Bedfordshire L.E.A.

The Director of Education for Bedfordshire.

The Director of Education for Cambridgeshire.

1 representative of the Bedfordshire W.E.A.

1 representative of the Thomas Wall Trust.

The Secretary of the Extra-Mural Board acts as Secretary. The two organising tutors plan the programme of Classes each year and procure the necessary part-time tutors, subject to the approval of the Committee.

76. This scheme is still in an experimental stage and the composition of the Committee is also provisional. Briefly, it has been hoped that on the Committee there shall be representation of the Authority and of voluntary associations in each area in which work is conducted. It is desired, however, to avoid dividing the work into water-tight compartments, but rather to regard the scheme as a whole. The University need not take county boundaries into consideration, but naturally it is necessary to ensure that contributions of Authorities are spent in their respective areas.

77. A Resident Tutor in Northamptonshire has been appointed by the Extra-Mural Board of the University of Cambridge. His function has been to supervise the

existing extra-mural work of the University in the County and he has also undertaken some pioneer work in rural areas. No definite scheme of co-operation with the Authority has yet been evolved, but grants are given on a class basis. There is, however, some informal co-operation, for the Direction of Education and also representatives of the Workers' Educational Association attended in an advisory capacity the meeting of the Committee of the Extra-Mural Board which appointed the Resident Tutor.

78. Rural Community Councils exist both in Cambridgeshire and Hertfordshire. In the case of Cambridgeshire representatives are appointed by the Local Education Authority, but no special sphere of work is allotted to the Rural Community Council. In the case of Hertfordshire, the Local Education Authority does not nominate representatives on the Council, but the Chairman of the Education Committee is an ex-officio member. The Authority has not invited the Rural Community Council to undertake any specific work in connection with Adult Education, but contributes towards approved short courses of a non-vocational character organised in villages by the Community Council.

Rural Scheme in East Suffolk

79. In 1931 the Workers' Educational Association set up a Rural Scheme in East Suffolk. In this part of the Eastern Area there are special difficulties and, so far, the development of work has not proceeded beyond lantern lectures, single lectures and short courses. Much more co-operation between the various groups in the villages is needed before more tangible results can be achieved.

WESTERN AND SOUTH-WESTERN AREAS

The Bristol Extra-Mural Scheme

80. The outstanding example of co-operation in the West is the scheme elaborated under the direction of Bristol University. Indeed it is not too much to say that this

scheme, which covers the counties of Gloucestershire, Somerset, Wiltshire and part of Dorset and the county boroughs of Bristol, Bath and Gloucester, is one of the most valuable contributions yet made to adult education in this country. Each County and County Borough Local Education Authority in the area makes an annual grant to the University for general purposes, including adult education, and the University makes from its general fund an annual allocation for extra-mural work. It has not been the policy of the University to invite from local authorities separate grants for Tutorial classes, but each County Authority makes a grant in aid of the extra-mural scheme for the County.

81. The organisation is based on County Schemes, which may be described under the following three sub-headings, viz. :—

(1) *Resident Tutors*

A Resident Tutor, who works under the direction of the Tutorial Classes Committee, has been appointed by the University in each county and placed at some suitable centre. Each tutor has general responsibility for all the University's adult educational work in the county, and his travelling and other expenses are paid by the Tutorial Classes Committee. The Resident Tutor is required—

- (a) to take one or more Tutorial classes (or equivalent Extension Lecture courses) ;
- (b) to take and organise pioneer lectures and short courses in the small towns and villages ;
- (c) to recruit additional part-time tutors and lecturers ;
- (d) to act as advisory officer to the County Committee.

(2) *County Committees*

It has been the policy of the Tutorial Classes Committee to promote the formation of a local committee for each of the counties in the area. The county scheme is then organised by the local committee in co-operation with

the Tutorial Classes Committee, the Resident Tutor acting as organising officer. These local committees are of two types :—

- (a) In Gloucestershire and Somerset, where there are strong Rural Community Councils, the County Committee is a standing sub-committee of the Community Council.
- (b) In Wiltshire, where there is no Rural Community Council an *ad hoc* Committee with the title "Consultative Committee on Adult Education in Wiltshire" has been set up. The same plan has been followed in mid-Dorset.

The county committees consist of representatives of the University, the Local Education Authority, the Workers' Educational Association and other voluntary bodies interested. The County Librarian is generally a member. Each county committee is fortunate in having the help of one of H.M. Inspectors, and the committees also include co-opted members from the county with special knowledge of the work, in addition to the representative members. Each of the county schemes receives financial assistance from the Local Education Authority.

The county committees act as a clearing house for information, and promote co-operation between the various agencies, official and voluntary, concerned in adult education in the county. Thus it is possible to "dovetail" the various types of provision, and to provide for the developing needs of the towns and villages in the county, as follows :—

- (a) Pioneer lectures and short courses (generally four lectures) are given by the Resident Tutors, and by tutors on the county panel.
- (b) When the local group is ready for a Terminal Course, the Workers' Educational Association assumes responsibility. Under the revised Adult Education Regulations, the Workers' Educational Association has also taken over a number of six-lecture courses.

- (c) If the group develops sufficiently to make it advisable to organise a tutorial class, responsibility is assumed by the Tutorial Classes Committee of the University of Bristol.
- (d) Resident Tutors report to the University requests for extension lectures and courses, and they may make the local arrangements for these.
- (e) Week-end and One-day schools organised by the Resident Tutors, or by one of the co-operating bodies, are attended by students from various types of class in the county.

(3) *Special Local Schemes*

In addition to the county committees there are local committees for the Forest of Dean and for Bristol and there is a special scheme centre at Street (Somerset). The County Resident Tutors for Gloucestershire and Somerset have a general responsibility for these schemes and for the work of the Resident Tutors who organise them.

82. The detailed constitution of the county and local schemes is of great value, but is not suitable for inclusion in a general survey. We have therefore printed as an Appendix* the summaries furnished to us by the Director of Extra-Mural Studies.

The Bristol City Scheme

83. For the City of Bristol there exists a Consultative Committee on Adult Education. The Committee is advisory in character and its aim is to secure a greater measure of co-operation between the bodies represented upon it and especially to promote the extension of facilities for adult education to areas within the City boundary which are for many reasons inadequately provided for. The first of these two functions it performs by arranging local conferences on such subjects as Adult Education for Women, Broadcast Adult Education, Liberal Part-time

* See Appendix III.

Education of Adolescents and the like, and by issuing annually a Handbook and Directory of Adult Education and a list of Short Courses. The second function is performed by providing courses and lectures of a pioneer character and also by arranging courses of talks and lectures for adolescents likely to encourage them to more serious and continuous study.

Co-operation in the South-West

84. In the South-West proper there is no similar scheme of organisation. Devon and Cornwall might be expected to group themselves round University College, Exeter; but the College, in view of its comparatively short history, has not as yet elaborated any co-operation with Local Education Authorities beyond the inclusion of representatives on the academic side of the Joint Committee for Tutorial Classes.

It is the Workers' Educational Association which has provided in this part of the country the interesting example of co-operative organisation. The South-Western District of the Association is a post-war development, dating from 1919. In Devon the Local Education Authority has taken responsibility for most of the One Year and Terminal Courses organised by the Association, and has contributed towards Tutorial Classes and administrative expenses. In Cornwall One Year and Terminal Courses have been conducted by an Adult Education Joint Committee consisting of six representatives of the County Education Committee and six of the South-Western District of the Workers' Educational Association. The Local Education Authority has also contributed financially.

85. Since 1927, however, the Workers' Educational Association has promoted three important Rural Schemes for this area—the Mid-Devon Extension Scheme, the Mid and West Cornwall Extension Scheme, and more latterly the East Devon Scheme. These developments, which have doubled the number of classes and students in five

years, have been made possible largely by the generosity of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust in making grants for the engagement of tutor organisers. It is understood that arrangements have now been made by the South-Western District of the Association for setting up a Special Advisory Committee on Rural Work, on which the Devon Local Education Authority and the University College of the South-West are to be represented. By this means it is hoped to strengthen further and develop adult education in the area.

86. In Plymouth an Adult Education Joint Committee exists, but acts in an advisory capacity only, since the Plymouth Local Education Authority takes responsibility for One-Year and Terminal Courses.

METROPOLITAN AREA

87. Under an agreement of long standing between London University and the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, London limits its activities to an area of thirty miles' radius, while Oxford and Cambridge conduct no classes within the London Postal District. There is a neutral zone common to the three Universities; but, since this zone has until recently been an irregular area extending only from fourteen to twenty miles from London University, and since the three bodies recognise each other's rights in centres already established, London has not hitherto been able to establish any centres or to hold more than a few Tutorial classes in the more distant parts. While, therefore, there is no technical reason why the Metropolitan area should not be regarded as including London and all the home counties, it is in practice only in London, Middlesex, Surrey and Essex and occasionally in Hertfordshire and Kent that the University provides classes.

88. The London County Council, which formerly made annual grants to the University of London to be used specifically in aid of University Extension Courses and Tutorial Classes, now pays a block grant to the Court of

the University, from which the Court allocates annually a sum to be expended by the University Extension and Tutorial Classes Council. In addition, the London County Council undertakes financial responsibility for a number of courses and classes conducted by the University and the Workers' Educational Association in the Council's own Literary Institutes and elsewhere. The holding of these courses and classes reinforces a connexion between the Institutes and the University, which was initiated years ago, when the University established a system of University Extension Exhibitions to enable students from the Literary Institutes to pursue the four-year course for one or other of the Diplomas in the Humanities awarded by the Universities.

89. In these and other ways co-operation takes place between the London County Council and the University; and in order that close contact may be maintained, the Senate appoints the Education Officer of the Council in his personal capacity as a member of the University Extension and Tutorial Classes Council. In general there appear to be ample grounds for satisfaction with the existing arrangements; but as might be expected in an area where the Local Education Authority has for many years been actively developing an extensive system of adult education, the increase in University Extension Courses tends to concentrate in the Authority's educational institutions rather than at independent local centres.

90. Of the other Local Education Authorities in this area, Middlesex, Surrey, Croydon and East and West Ham give financial assistance in one form or other to approved classes, and in the case of Middlesex, these grants amount to a substantial sum annually. Essex gives grants to classes organised by Cambridge University and encourages its District Sub-Committees to meet any demand for Adult Classes; so far, however, the districts have not made any notable response. No Authority, so far as we are aware, has any formal scheme of co-operation with the University.

WALES

91. The problem of Adult Education in Wales requires to be looked at from a somewhat different angle. In England most Local Education Authorities are prepared to co-operate with Universities by making direct grants towards the cost of their classes. In Wales the financial relations between Local Education Authorities and the University of Wales, involving the annual contribution of a penny rate for all University purposes (including Adult Education), have created a different balance. Nevertheless, nearly all the Local Education Authorities make grants in aid of classes, the amount of which is usually determined on a class basis. They also co-operate by letting school premises at a nominal rent.

As regards representation, the Local Authorities are represented on the University Extension Board, as well as on the Joint Tutorial Class Committees of the constituent Colleges.

92. The Workers' Educational Association in Wales, always closely associated with the University, was instrumental in securing the establishment of the Joint Committees, and in the early years wholly provided the constituency for Tutorial Classes. The Adult Education Regulations, 1924, under which the Workers' Educational Association became an approved association, have in nowise weakened this class association with the University, but rather intensified it. Thus, the Workers' Educational Association now functions both as partner with the University in organising the demand for University Tutorial Classes, and as the controller of its own Terminal and one Year Courses.

93. Two other approved associations operate in Wales, viz., the National Council of Music and the Young Men's Christian Association. Like the Workers' Educational Association, they receive financial aid from some of the Local Education Authorities. As a result of recent arrangements between the Workers' Educational Association and

the Young Men's Christian Association, the latter confines itself to Popular Lectures and the new type of Short Terminal Course. All One Year and shorter courses in Music are, by arrangement, left in the hands of the National Council of Music.

94. An experiment of great importance in the history of adult education was made in 1929 when, at the instance of the National Council of Social Service, a Committee was formed for the promotion of educational facilities in the South Wales Coalfield. A description of the working of this Committee was given in paragraphs 152-157 of the recent Report on Educational Problems of the South Wales Coalfield and we do not propose to recapitulate that description. The significant feature of the experiment is that four Local Education Authorities make financial contributions to a Committee upon which the Voluntary Bodies, which rank as Approved Associations, are represented. The work of the Voluntary Bodies is organised and controlled in the same way as work under the Adult Education Regulations.

95. Two counties—Anglesey and Monmouthshire—have Rural Community Councils (with which the Local Education Authorities co-operate) providing work of a practical or craft kind. In each case the Local Education Authority has two representatives on the Council. In the case of Anglesey the Community Council works in close touch with the Women's Institutes and the Authority's grant is paid to the Federation ; in the case of Monmouthshire the organisation of classes is done by the Council and the Local Education Authority in co-operation, the Local Education Authority paying the salaries of lecturers and making a grant to the Community Council.

CHAPTER III

DIRECT PROVISION

General Introduction

96. We have dealt at some length with the question of co-operation between Local Education Authorities and Universities or Voluntary Bodies. It now remains to give some account of the provision which Local Education Authorities themselves have made in the field of Adult Education. This development is generally assumed to be of entirely recent growth and—except in the case of London—to date from the publication of the Ministry of Reconstruction Final Report. Speaking broadly, this assumption is true. In 1922, for example, the Adult Education Committee were only aware of one Local Education Authority outside London which provided regular courses in the liberal education of adults, though there were a number of Authorities providing occasional popular lectures. In 1926, when the Committee were preparing their Report on "Pioneer Work and other Developments in Adult Education," they came to the conclusion, on evidence submitted to them, that twenty-eight Local Education Authorities were providing liberal education for adults in their own schools. To-day, as will be seen from the following paragraphs, most Authorities are making some such provision and in several instances separate Institutes have been established to meet the special needs of adult classes.

97. While, however, the provision by Local Education Authorities of courses of an academic character for adults is a development of recent date, there is a wide field in which for many years Local Education Authorities have made experiments and in which they may be assumed to have built up a tradition of policy and experience. Most Authorities have for years past made provision for courses of a practical or semi-recreational character in such subjects as Ambulance and First-Aid, Cookery, Laundrywork, Needlework, Basketwork, Carpentry, Metalwork, Music,

Folk Dancing, Art and Physical Exercises. The provision has been much more general in the case of women than in the case of men, and we shall discuss the causes for this in our next Chapter.

98. From the statistics with which we have been furnished by Local Education Authorities it would appear that, of the English Counties, no less than 37 provide courses for adults, while of the County Boroughs no less than 63 make similar provision. The total number of courses of all kinds provided amounts to 16,028 and it is interesting to group these according to the type of subjects. The following table shows the number of courses under each of the separate heads of Academic, Practical and Recreational both in England as a whole and in London separately for the year 1929-30,* and also indicates in each case the proportion for which London is responsible as compared with the rest of the country.

Type of Subject.	Number of Classes and Percentage of Total in England.	Number of Classes and Percentage of Total in London.	Percentage of Columns 3 to 2.
1. Academic	4,811 (30%)	1,600 (33%)	33%
2. Practical	8,913 (56%)	1,960 (40%)	22%
3. Recreational.	2,304 (14%)	1,326 (27%)	58%
Total ..	16,028 (100%)	4,886 (100%)	30%

99. A close examination of the figures reveals certain interesting facts. Of the total provision made by Local Education Authorities considerably more than one-half

* These figures relate to England only. Similar figures for Wales will be found in Appendix IV, together with full details of the various types of Classes.

consists of classes in Practical Subjects, viz., Handicrafts, Domestic Instruction for Women, Health Subjects and the practice of Art. By far the biggest section is Domestic Instruction; it accounts for nearly two-thirds of the Practical group of courses and for over one-third of the whole provision made by Local Education Authorities. Handicrafts and Health Subjects are each well represented; but Art has only 376 classes, of which 176 are to be found in seven areas.

Rather less than one-third of the total provision made by Local Education Authorities is of the academic type. Of this group one-half consists of classes described under the heading of "Languages" and "Elocution and Drama." The other half includes a big section each of Literature classes (683) and Natural Science (731), a much smaller section of History (219), and scattered classes in the more abstract subjects. The Natural Science classes are mainly in urban areas, and tend to be concentrated in the premises of Technical Colleges.

Less than one-seventh of the total provision made by Local Education Authorities is of the recreational type, viz., Music, Folk-dancing, Physical Training, and well over one-half of the classes of this type are in London.

The London County Council provides nearly as many classes for adults as all the other urban areas, and 30 per cent. of the total provision made by all County and Urban Authorities together. Compared with the rest of the country, London is specially strong in Elocution, Music, Folk-dancing and Physical Training; it also shows a far smaller preponderance of Domestic Instruction. Most of the Appreciation of Art classes are in London.

To sum up, most Local Education Authorities—rural as well as urban—make their contribution to adult education by providing classes of various kinds. Outside London there is an overwhelming preponderance of Domestic Instruction or what may be called Vocational Instruction for women. After that the most popular subjects are

Handicrafts, Languages, Health Subjects, Science, Physical Training, Literature and Elocution in that order. In London the volume of work is unusually large and the various groups of subjects are more evenly balanced than is the case elsewhere.

The North Lancashire Scheme

100. For the most part Local Education Authorities provide instruction for adults within existing Evening Institutes or by detached classes, when the demand appears to justify such provision. It would obviously be impossible to give a complete survey of the various classes so organised and we propose, therefore, to refer only to certain Authorities—whether County or County Boroughs—which have made some distinctive contribution to the policy of Adult Education. Of these the chief—so far as County areas are concerned—are the Authorities for Lancashire and the West Riding of Yorkshire, the former for its interesting experiment with full-time organising tutors, the latter for its unusually complete system of instruction in practical and semi-recreational subjects for adults.

101. For the Lancashire appointment there were, of course, precedents. Warwickshire had for some years employed two full-time lecturers and several areas had released their Domestic Subjects organisers for work in adult education; but it remains true that, in its scope and achievements, the experiment of Organising Tutors in North Lancashire is unique.

102. It began with the appointment in 1926 of a Special Sub-Committee to consider and report on the facilities for Adult Education in the County. The printed Report published by this Sub-Committee surveyed the problem of Adult Education and recommended the appointment of at least one organising tutor to have special charge of some definite portion of the rural area. The reasons which determined this recommendation were three. In the first place Lancashire was considered too large and unwieldy an

area to be served by a single Community Council ; in the second place the large amount of delegation by the Authority to Local Committees made it inconvenient to set up a new and independent Committee ; and in the third place it was felt that a full-time officer in the direct employ of the Council would have greater support and authority than an organiser appointed from outside to work in the area.

103. The Organiser so appointed began work in September, 1928, and during his first year concerned himself to encourage the promotion of local groups by means of rallies, popular lectures, and talks on drama or musical appreciation. Gradually these efforts bore fruit in a steady increase of organised courses following on and replacing single pioneer talks and in the development of Dramatic and Musical Groups. In the four years that have elapsed since the appointment was made the number of Centres has grown from seventeen to fifty-three and the number of courses of ten or more lectures has increased from one to thirty-two. Meantime pioneer work has been continued by means of rallies and has been further extended by the practice of Broadcast Listening Groups and Young People's Groups.

104. The value of this pioneer work in breaking down the isolation, from which many country districts in North Lancashire have suffered, and in preparing the way for more advanced classes has been considerable. We have received from the Organising Tutor an interesting account of his experience in this work. In his memorandum he draws a distinction between those villages which are easily accessible from towns and those which are more or less remote and isolated. In the former type of village-community his aim has been to raise the standard of educational life and to prevent the drift into neighbouring towns by means of adult courses of a progressively good standard, and by Drama and Music Groups. In only one case has the village been offered a programme of general talks. In the latter type of village, on the other hand " anything,"

he says, " which gives colour to the local life supplies a want which is also a need." His policy, therefore, in such cases has been to provide variation through general talks or to assist the promotion of communal activities.

The West Riding of Yorkshire

105. In the West Riding of Yorkshire, on the other hand, no attempt is made by the Local Education Authority to undertake themselves the work of propaganda. Indeed, it is their conviction that the task of converting vaguely felt needs into active demands is best done by voluntary bodies more closely in touch with the prospective students than the Authority can ever hope to be. The work of the Authority consists in taking responsibility for One Year or Terminal classes of an academic character and in themselves providing a very complete system of classes in practical and recreational subjects. We have referred fully in another section of our Report to the Authority's responsibility for One Year and Terminal Courses ; it remains to mention their work in practical and recreational subjects.

The West Riding, as is well known, has an elaborate and active system of local Evening Institute Committees, and it is their policy to secure that demands are made in the first instance through these Committees. The demand for classes of a practical or recreational character generally comes in the first instance from local societies or groups connected with churches and other organisations and are made to the Evening Institute Committees, who are in a position and are encouraged to provide suitable accommodation, equipment and teachers for such subjects as Music, Dramatic Art, Handicrafts, Ambulance, Nursing, Folk Dancing and occasionally—in districts where the Workers' Educational Association is not active—in more academic subjects. From statistics supplied to us it appears that in 1929-30 no less than 770 classes in all subjects—mainly for adults—were provided by the Local

Education Authority through their Evening Institute Committees, of which 586 were in practical or semi-recreational subjects.

Cumberland

106. A somewhat similar position exists in Cumberland. In this County, as in Yorkshire, there is a considerable measure of delegation and it has been estimated that in the rural areas there are nearly three hundred local Further Education Committees, almost one for each parish, whose duty it is to initiate groups, etc., for Evening Classes in their area and to exercise supervision over them. Again, as in Yorkshire, the initial demand comes from local groups and societies and, above all, from the Women's Institutes; and the Authority is prepared to accept classes from whatever origin they come, provided only that certain simple formalities are observed. In this way about one hundred and fifty courses mainly for adults have been provided by the Authority in their Evening Institutes. There is one most interesting feature about the system to which special reference was made in a report by H.M. Inspectors some three years ago. The Authority, as we have seen, do not themselves organise the work on any systematic sequence from pioneer work to organised classes. Yet they have found that in practice a certain sequence emerges, which it is convenient to follow. We quote the following extract on this subject from the Report:—

“ First single lectures are given, in order to stimulate interest. These are followed by short courses of half-a-dozen meetings in Home Nursing or some agricultural subject; then comes a longer course in some craft, organised by a Women's Institute or some other body; and finally, other classes for men and for young people, with, perhaps, a course under the auspices of the Workers' Educational Association.”

Derbyshire—Other County Areas

107. One other County area deserves special notice, inasmuch as it demonstrates clearly the sort of problem

which faces a County Local Education Authority. The Derbyshire Authority has found that the demand from adults falls into three main categories :—

- (a) A strictly non-vocational type, which is dealt with by means of Tutorial classes. University Extension Lectures and the like.
- (b) Crafts of various kinds, sometimes vocational or semi-vocational, such as domestic crafts and woodwork for men, but which are frequently studied from a purely recreational standpoint.
- (c) Languages, music, art and similar subjects. In these classes there is usually a sprinkling of students who are attending on vocational grounds—in art classes, for example, there may be pottery designers, and in the literature classes matriculation students. But the bulk of the students attend for non-vocational reasons.

The general policy of the Local Education Authority is to limit their own provision, so far as possible, to vocational work in the broad sense. They hold that adult non-vocational education is on the whole better promoted by voluntary Associations than by a Local Education Authority; and, following this principle, they have co-operated not only with the Universities and the Workers' Educational Association, but also with the Rural Community Council and the County Federation of Women's Institutes. The Authority's own provision consists of about 250 classes, of which one-half are in Domestic Arts and the other half divided mainly between Languages and Literature, Handicraft, Hygiene, Art, Music and Physical Exercises.

108. Chief among the other County areas which have made extensive provision for adults are the Counties of Devon, Durham, Essex, Gloucester, Kent, Leicester, Nottingham, Somerset and Stafford. In several of these counties the Local Education Authority is already working in close co-operation with the University and voluntary bodies; and, in such cases, it may be assumed that the

Authority's policy is to cover those parts of the field in which for one reason or another voluntary agencies cannot meet the demand.

Adult Institutes in Urban Areas—Birmingham

109. None of the County Boroughs have a special staff for Adult Education, though one area—Derby—has considered the appointment of a full-time Organiser. In most cases the work of providing for the needs of adults falls on the Principals of Evening Institutes or—in some cases—of the Technical College, and provision is made by means of classes suitable for adults in the ordinary Institutes.

110. But the most distinctive contribution made by certain County Boroughs towards the development of adult education is the Adult or Higher Evening Institute. This type of School, which, in some ways, resembles the Evening High School to be found in the large cities of Germany, has evolved gradually from the ordinary Evening Institute by deliberate segregation or otherwise. As an example of the process we may quote the experience of the City of Birmingham. In 1923-24 a reorganisation of the Evening Schools in the City was carried out by which, in each district, definite schools were allocated to Juniors and Adults. The Junior Institutes were to provide grouped courses leading on to more specialised instruction at the Adult Institutes, the Technical Colleges and the Commercial College: the Adult Institutes were reserved for students over 17 years of age or those specially qualified by educational attainments, and were to include courses both of a vocational and non-vocational character. The success of this reorganisation may be gauged by the following figures showing the enrolments and student hours for Adult Students:—

<i>Year.</i>		<i>Students.</i>	<i>Student hours.</i>
1923-24	..	3,653	161,997
1927-28	..	4,910	228,181
1931-32	..	7,705	325,976

There still remain in certain outlying districts Evening Schools which have not been reorganised, but the policy is to group these into Junior and Adult Institutes as circumstances permit.

Bristol—Leicester—Bradford—Manchester

III. The Adult Institutes in Birmingham include instruction of all kinds from purely commercial work to classes of a purely cultural character. The same also is true, for example, of the Bishop Road and Merrywood Higher Institutes at Bristol. But in some areas Adult Institutes have developed a curriculum distinct from the more vocational type of work done at ordinary Evening Institutes. At Bradford there is a separate Literary Department in the Belle Vue Institute. At Leicester the process goes a step further and we find that the Vaughan and Alderman Newton's Adult Institutes provide instruction in Language and Literature, Science, Music, First Aid, Home Crafts, Drama and Hobbies, but not purely commercial work. A description of the Byron Street Adult Institute at Manchester makes clear the principles underlying this type of school :—

“ A building in the centre of the City ” we read “ has been specially set aside for adult educational work, where special provision is made for men and women over 18 years of age for graded lessons in everyday subjects of general education and for lecture courses in cultural subjects. The courses are designed to encourage the study and discussion of matters of interest to the citizen, to help those who feel the need for ground work in the basic subjects, and also to aid the student who may desire instruction for business or vocational use. Debates are encouraged and provision is made in the time tables for the discussion of points raised in the lectures or tutorial classes. Individual tuition is resorted to in suitable cases wherever possible and everything is done to encourage and to provide a real opportunity

for older students. The subjects of instruction include Economics, English, Modern Languages, Speech Training and Dramatic Work, Economics and Economic Geography, History and General Knowledge. An idea of the range of work may be gathered from the syllabus of General Knowledge, which deals with the topics of knowledge and power, conquest of distance, conquest of disease, the English countryside, social reform, modern theories and forms of international organisation, current events, how we get our ideas, new views. The students in attendance number 327, and their ages range from 18 to 60."

Kingston-on-Hull

112. A further stage in specialisation has been reached in Hull, where, in addition to the usual Evening Institution, a beginning has been made with separate Institutes devoted exclusively to literary subjects and practical instruction for men. The first Men's Institute was opened in 1928-9 for men over 18 years of age, and provides instruction in subjects ranging from Elementary Science and Literature to Boot-repairing. The first Literary Institute was established in the following year and offers opportunities to adult men and women for the study of Languages, Economics, Social and Physical Science, Drama, Art and Music.

London

113. But it is in London that the most complete example of Adult Institutes exists. London occupies an unique position in the country by virtue of its size, its history and its complexity. In size it far outstrips the area of any other single urban Local Education Authority having an area of 120 square miles and a population of nearly $4\frac{1}{2}$ million, of whom close on 900,000 are under instruction of one kind or another. Historically, the London School Board were, as we have seen in a previous chapter, the first to attempt an organised system of Evening Schools

for adults. The educational complexity of London is remarkable. Evening Institutes of all kinds, Colleges of Adult Education, Polytechnics, Settlements, Clubs, University Tutorial and Extension Courses and many other varieties exist side by side. It is a microcosm of adult education.

114. In this system the London County Council has for many years taken the lead by an unusually complete and specialised provision of Adult Evening Institutes divided into :—

- (a) Literary Institutes for students who desire to devote their leisure to studies of a cultural rather than vocational nature.*
- (b) Men's Institutes providing instruction in a social atmosphere for men not usually attracted by other forms of continued education.
- (c) Women's Institutes combining instruction in domestic and practical subjects likely to be attractive to women together with studies of a literary character.
- (d) General Institutes providing education of a general character for adult students.

115. The work of some of these Institutes† has been described in published Reports and we do not propose to refer to it in detail. But we think that some indication of the extent of the provision will be given, when it is realised that the number of adult students who have enrolled in the Council's own Institutes, apart from technical and commercial Institutes, has risen from 38,000 in 1915 to 55,000 in 1930.

Premises.

116. No County Area has established a special centre exclusively for Adult Education, though in Lancashire

* Of this type of Institute the City Literary Institute with an attendance of nearly 6,000 students is an outstanding example.

† See especially the Pamphlet on "The Work of Men's Institutes in London.—Board of Education Pamphlet No. 48.

the full-time Tutor has his centre in Garstang, and rooms have been allotted where students may meet for lectures and debates and rehearsals for plays produced by the different sections organised in the outlying districts. The outstanding instance of a building specially planned for use as a day-school and as an evening school for adults is the Village College at Sawston provided by the Cambridgeshire County Council with help from the Carnegie United Kingdom Trustees and others. The West Riding of Yorkshire have provided special classrooms for Adult Classes in the Mining and Technical Institutes at Dinnington and Whitwood, and, in planning their Junior Mining Institutes, have included a room which will serve as a Drawing Office during the day, while at the same time affording suitable accommodation for Adult Classes during the evening. Elsewhere, apart from one or two isolated instances, there is no evidence that County Authorities have provided for the needs of Adult Education in designing their Elementary, Secondary Schools or Technical Schools; but several Authorities draw attention to the suitability of practical and craft rooms in Elementary Schools and of halls and lecture-rooms in Secondary or Technical Schools for this purpose. Further in a number of cases furniture in the shape of tables and chairs is provided in Senior or Central Schools of a pattern suitable for adults.

117. The provision of separate accommodation for Adult Classes in County Boroughs presents difficult problems. Apart from the question of finding a suitable site and building and of providing the necessary funds, the number of students in most cases is not sufficient to justify separate premises. Moreover, where, as is usually the case, the Evening Institute is held on the premises of an Elementary or Secondary School, it may not be easy for one reason or another to make a separate department for the Adult Classes as distinct from the technical or commercial work of the Institute. Urban areas may be divided roughly into three classes. A few have succeeded in establishing and maintaining self-contained Adult Institutes housed

in their own premises. Blackburn, for example, has separate Women's Institutes in the Harrison and Whalley Range Schools of Domestic Science. Similarly Preston has a separate Women's Institute at Glover's Court, and Barrow in the Alexandra Hut. The Leicester Local Education Authority, under an arrangement with the Extra-Mural Delegacy, rents premises in the Vaughan Adult Evening Institute. In Manchester there is the Byron Street Adult School, and in London there are the City Literary and the Bethnal Green and Battersea Men's Institutes,* all housed in separate premises.

118. A second group of Authorities has succeeded in establishing separate Adult Institutes, but housed in the premises of day Elementary or Secondary Schools. Birmingham and Hull, for example, have certain Institutes mainly devoted to adult work in premises used during the day by public Elementary Schools. Other Institutes of this type are the Alderman Newton's Adult Evening Institute at Leicester and the Bishop Road and Merrywood Institutes at Bristol.

119. This arrangement is generally followed by most of the big County Boroughs in their provision of Women's work. To quote a few examples—Manchester, Liverpool, Bradford, Newcastle, Middlesbrough, Oldham, Bolton and Stockport, all accommodate their Senior Women's classes in Day School premises (whether Elementary, Secondary or Technical) separately from the Junior classes. An interesting example of this type is provided by Ipswich, which, up to 1924, concentrated all its evening work in one Technical Municipal Institute, but which, since that date, has separated the Schools of Engineering and Commerce from the Adult Women's work and has maintained a cultural recreational and domestic Institute known locally as the

* The Bethnal Green and Battersea Institutes have been specially adapted as Adult Institutes, but they are used during the day as a Junior Instruction Centre and Day Continuation School respectively.

"Women's Evening College," quartered in the Girls' Municipal Secondary School.

120. It may be remarked in passing that there are obvious drawbacks in accommodating Adult work in premises shared by other types of educational provision. In the first place the development of a corporate and social life is more difficult; and, in those cases where success has been achieved, it is usually due to the enthusiasm and enterprise of a Full Time Principal. In the second place, suitable premises are often lacking for a proper extension of the work, and those premises that are available, consisting sometimes of the classrooms of a Junior Elementary School, are not seldom quite unsuitable for adult work. In more than one instance the full development of Senior Women's work is held up by the lack of a suitable separate building.

121. A third group of Authorities accommodates its adult classes in the same premises with Junior classes or with Commercial and Technical work. The arrangement by which women and girls share the same Institute is not uncommon, and several Local Education Authorities, following the example of London, have adopted it as a general policy. Further, in some of the smaller towns it is found necessary to concentrate all the evening work in one or more Institutes, so that Literary, Commercial and Recreational classes for Junior and Senior students are carried on in the same premises. A good example of a successful Institute on these lines is to be found in the Norwich Literary and Commercial Institute, which provides evening classes for nearly 600 students of over 16 years of age and upwards in Languages, Commercial Subjects and General Subjects, including Art and Music.

122. As is the case with County areas, Urban Authorities have not to any appreciable degree planned their Day Schools with an eye to the needs of Adult Education, but in a few cases the school hall in Public Elementary Schools has been made larger in order to accommodate Adult

Classes, and several Authorities point out that the big Practical and Craft Rooms in modern Elementary Schools are well suited to certain types of adult work.

Housing Estates

123. Several County Areas have been faced during the past few years with acute problems due to the growth of new housing estates. It is well-known that many such estates have grown up as the result of the wholesale shift in population and peculiar difficulties have been caused by the absence of any Community Centre, the lack of trained leaders and the immediate and rapid growth of a large number of small organisations independent and sometimes distrustful of one another. To meet these conditions an attempt has been in progress for several years to help the residents on some of the larger estates to organise themselves into Community Associations representative of all the various interests and activities as well as of the voluntary and statutory bodies on the estate. The object of these associations is to form a nucleus around which the life of the estate may gather, and a medium through which the residents may themselves promote the social, educational or recreational activities which they desire. Delegates from Community Associations have met annually in conference and their endeavours have done much to enlist the sympathy and practical help of Local Education Authorities.

124. In general it may be said that the policy of County Councils has been to regard housing estates as an extension of existing urban districts and to treat them as such. In certain cases, however, special methods have been devised and the assistance of organisations such as the Rural Community Council or the Miners' Welfare Committee has been called in. It would be inappropriate to describe in detail the various experiments which have been made, but it may be of interest to mention two cases, in which for one reason or another the organisation is unusually complete. On the Becontree Estate, Essex, a special Tutor-Organiser

is charged with the promotion of adult education. The Essex Education Committee contribute two-thirds of his salary, and the Trustees of the Pettit Farm Settlement (which is recognised by the Committee as an Evening Institute) are responsible for the remaining third. The Tutor-Organiser acts as Secretary to a Voluntary Education Committee which is composed of representatives of the Local Education Authorities, the local Employment Exchange and a number of voluntary bodies functioning on the estate. The contact established through this Committee has led without doubt to a real stimulation of adult education. During the first year, some twenty classes, most of which were recognised for grant purposes, have been organised.

On the Watling Estate, in Middlesex, a somewhat similar function to that of Tutor-Organiser is fulfilled by the Secretary of the Watling Community Association, though his work is not, as in the former case, exclusively confined to education in the technical sense of the term. Approximately two-thirds of his salary is, here again, contributed by the County Education Authority.

125. County Boroughs have also, speaking generally, tried to meet the needs of new housing estates, by extending the scope of existing Evening Institutes or by providing fresh Evening Institutes of the normal type in their new housing area. Much has been done, too, by Community Associations and by the Workers' Educational Association in organising classes of various kinds. Exceptionally, on the Aspley Estate of Nottingham, a Central Council of Householders has been formed, under the aegis of the Director of Education and the City Education Committee, to supervise the whole of the social and educational work on the estate. The Council has a number of sub-committees in charge of such activities as education, debating, sport, horticulture and choral work.

126. One of the greatest needs of housing estates is a community centre to serve as meeting place whether for

classes or other activities. In some cases, help has been given by the local authority towards providing a permanent centre. Although Scotland is outside our scope, it is worth noting that the Edinburgh City Council has given an old Manor House on the Prestonfield Housing Estate for use as a Community Centre, together with a sum of £500; the City Corporation of Sheffield has voted a sum for the erection of a Centre on the Manor estate; the Wakefield City Corporation has placed three rooms in an old house on the Lupset estate at the disposal of the local Community Association; the City Corporation of Bristol has let an old farm house to the Community Association on the Shirehampton estate. On the new housing estates near London the London County Council has let a council cottage to the Community Associations on the St. Helier, Downham, Watling and Becontree Housing Estates for use as Community Centres, and has also granted long leases at nominal rentals for sites on which to erect permanent Centres.

CHAPTER IV

PRACTICAL AND AESTHETIC TRAINING

Importance of the Work

127. We have referred above to the peculiar importance of Local Education Authorities in the field of practical and semi-recreational work, and we have suggested that, in this field, they may be assumed to have built up a tradition of policy and experience. The tradition, as we shall presently see, goes back for many years and, within its limitations, has been of the greatest value. But of recent years, and particularly since the War, the scope and importance of practical and aesthetic training have been greatly increased. New organisations have sprung up to promote an active interest in handicraft, art, music, folk-dancing, drama and the like. So far, it must be admitted, contact between these new organisations and Local Education Authorities has not in some cases been close. But we are convinced that, as time goes on, it will become closer ; and it is for that reason that we have devoted a separate chapter to this subject and have described in some detail the work of the principal voluntary organisations.

128. The growing appreciation of the importance of practical and aesthetic training has its roots far back in the nineteenth century. The revival of handicraft received its main stimulus from the work of William Morris ; the first County Musical Festival was held in 1885 ; and the revival of Folk Song and Dance was growing throughout the last years of the nineteenth and the first decade of the twentieth centuries. But it is in the last twenty years that popular interest has been enlisted on a wide scale, and it is worth remarking that the classes and occupation centres for the unemployed formed during the past two years will be found to have made a permanent contribution to this revival of interest.

Women's Institutes and Rural Community Councils

129. In the earlier stages of this revival the year 1915 was a date of some importance, marking as it did the beginning of the National Federation of Women's Institutes and the National Council of Social Service. The first Women's Institute was opened at Llanfair, Anglesey, and, in the seventeen years that have since elapsed, 5,007 Institutes have been formed and a membership of 296,800 has been reached. In a full Report on the educational work of the Institutes issued in 1925, H.M. Inspectors wrote that "the establishment of the Institutes and the County Federations has been of great advantage to the more progressive Authorities"; and the remarkable progress made during recent years has served to emphasise the truth of this remark.

The educational work of the Institutes falls into three main groups. With the lectures and work of a literary or historical kind we are not here concerned; the other two groups include, on the one hand, music and drama, and, on the other hand, craft-work and domestic science, food production and preservation, and hygiene. It is in regard to the teaching of handicrafts and domestic science that the Institutes come into closest touch with Local Education Authorities. In almost all counties representatives of the Women's Institutes serve on the County Council or one of its committees; in some counties the Authority is represented on a committee of the County Federation. Most Authorities aid the Women's Institutes, whether by a block grant or by making themselves responsible for the teachers; and it is worth noting that the majority of Local Education Authorities recognise for the purpose teachers found by the County Federation and certificated by the National Federation. The last point is of some importance, since teachers on the staff of Local Education Authorities are not always familiar with methods suitable to adults nor with certain types of craft-work likely to appeal to adult tastes. In one county—Staffordshire—education and handicrafts for Women's Institutes are organised through

a Joint Committee consisting of representatives of the County Council and of the County Federation Education Committee—a most interesting arrangement which, so far as we know, has no parallel elsewhere.

130. The work of the National Council of Social Service for country areas and villages through the Rural Community Councils and the relations between these Community Councils and Local Education Authorities have been described in a previous chapter of this Report. Speaking generally, the aim of the Community Councils, of which there are now twenty-three, has been to help villages to develop their social life and to make use of all the possibilities available for this purpose from public authorities and voluntary organisations. In carrying out this aim Rural Community Councils have covered a wide field, but it is probably true to say that the most important side of their educational work has been concerned with pioneer work including handicrafts, drama, music, physical training and the like.

The Young Men's and Women's Christian Associations

131. Certain other organisations have taken a prominent part in the revival of interest in handicrafts and aesthetic training during recent years. The Young Men's Christian Association in its "Educational Handbook" lays special stress on the importance of Music, Drama, Folk Dancing and Handicrafts and gives clear directions as to the best means of starting classes in these subjects. So far as our information goes, there is a good deal of co-operation with Local Education Authorities, though much of it is indirect and cannot easily be summarised. Specially valuable work has been done by the Red Triangle Federation of Village Clubs in the districts of Oxfordshire, Berkshire and Buckinghamshire, and towards this work the Oxfordshire County Council has made financial contributions.

The Young Women's Christian Association has organised over 500 formal courses of instruction apart from informal educational work, and it has found that the most popular classes are still those in physical training, dancing, choral singing, dramatic work and handicrafts. Up to the present co-operation with Local Education Authorities has been limited, and it appears that only thirteen local centres are receiving help of any kind from the Authority. It is evidently the desire of the Association that this co-operation should be developed and extended.

The National Adult School Union

132. The National Adult School Union affiliates, through its constituent County Unions, over 1,300 Adult Schools, with a total membership of over 40,000 men and women. The work of Adult Schools has been referred to in previous reports of the Adult Education Committee, and this work often brings about co-operation with Local Education Authorities. Handicraft Classes are an integral part of the work of many Women's Adult Schools, and special residential summer and other period schools have been organised by the National Adult School Union for the training of teachers and craft workers. Many of the County Unions of Adult Schools hold annual Arts and Crafts Exhibitions, often allied with Musical Festivals. It is indeed in music* that much of the best work of the Union has been and continues to be done. Apart from the Festivals which, as we shall presently see, are the best means of improving the standard of choral singing, musical week-end schools and courses of lectures on music and musical appreciation have been organised in large numbers.

The work of the Adult School Union for drama was described in the Committee's Report on "The Drama in Adult Education" issued in 1926. Many Adult Schools

* The "New Fellowship Song Book," edited by Sir Walford Davies for the Adult School Union and the "Fellowship Hymn Book" (Revised Edition), both of which are important contributions to the development of Music by the Adult School Union, are published by Novello and Co.—price 9d. and upwards.

have dramatic classes and groups as an integral part of their work, and district dramatic festivals have been and are being held in various centres. In many cases the classes and groups from Adult Schools compete in the county and national dramatic festivals, of which we shall speak in a later paragraph. The Adult School Union has stimulated and encouraged this work for the drama by the publication of "Little Plays" and by the provision of lectures on dramatic literature and production.

The Educational Settlements Association

133. Lastly there is the Educational Settlements Association consisting of seventeen Settlements and six Residential Colleges, besides a number of affiliated centres. It was in 1914 that the first Educational Settlement was opened at Birkenhead in premises known as "Beechcroft"; to-day Settlements are to be found in every part of the country, and one or two—notably Maes-yr-haf in the Rhondda and Bensham Grove at Gateshead-on-Tyne—have obtained a wide reputation for their work among the unemployed. An Educational Settlement provides classes and educational work of all kinds. With the recognised courses and informal study groups we are not at the moment concerned. But in every Settlement handicrafts are taught in some form or other, and individual Settlements have specialised in particular forms of work—Letchworth in Bookbinding; York in Dramatic Properties; Rugby in Printing, and several in Embroidery, Leatherwork, Raffia and Woodwork. The work at Maes-yr-haf is of a much more extensive character. It began in 1927 with boot-repairing and tailoring. In 1929 a hand-loom was presented and from this grew up a regular weaving and, later, a spinning industry. In a short time Embroidery classes followed. Most of the goods so produced found a ready market; but, side by side with what may be called the commercial work, classes in dressmaking and home-craft were developed, in which the local inhabitants were taught to make garments and articles for their own use. More

recently the work has been further developed and extended by the opening of Clubs for unemployed men at convenient centres, each club providing facilities for furniture-making, boot-repairing and manual work of various kinds.

In every Settlement under the Association, dramatic work, art, music and folk-dancing flourish, and the bigger Settlements usually have their own theatre and company of players.

Close relations exist between Educational Settlements and Local Education Authorities. In about half the number the Authority is represented on the Governing Council; in most cases the Settlement receives financial assistance in one of the forms described in the Appendix.*

The Rural Industries Bureau

134. It will, however, be appreciated that organising bodies of the kind we have mentioned draw largely on the experience and inspiration of national bodies formed to promote special kinds of practical and aesthetic work. One of these bodies is the Rural Industries Bureau, which began its work in 1921 and has continued since that date with the help of an annual grant of about £6,000 from the Development Fund. The work of the Bureau is with the established craftsmen only and its aim is to help village industries to survive and to advise and foster the establishment of wisely conceived new industries. It exists, primarily, for those who follow a trade, but it is being called upon, more and more, to advise on schemes of instruction designed primarily for persons whose vocation lies elsewhere. Among the rural industries with which it is specially concerned are the trades of the smith, wheelwright and saddler, directly dependent upon agriculture; the under-wood industries; the basket trades; and special local industries, like the textile industry in Wales and the quilting industry in Wales and Durham. Its usual method is to send round a travelling advisory staff specially qualified in these and other trades to give advice to local craftsmen, but it also

* See Appendix I.

helps in other ways to improve the standard of local crafts. The illustrated pamphlet published by the Bureau under the title of "The Rural Industries of England, Scotland, and Wales" provides a most interesting survey of the crafts, with which it has so far been most closely concerned. The Bureau has no direct relations with Local Authorities, but uses the Rural Community Councils as its local agents.

The British Drama League

135. Village drama in the accepted sense is very largely a post-war development. It is true that sporadic examples occurred in pre-war days, such as the late Mr. Ambrose McEvoy's Village Company at Aldbourne and the Grasmere Players founded by the late Canon Rawnsley. But there was nothing comparable to the movement which has been so remarkable a phenomenon during the last twelve years.

136. The Village Drama Society was founded by Miss Mary Kelly in December, 1918, and the British Drama League by Mr. Geoffrey Whitworth in June, 1919, the former society having for its object the development of the drama in the villages alone, and the latter including village drama in its general work for the art of the theatre in Great Britain. In 1931 the Village Drama Society was incorporated with the British Drama League, to the great benefit of their common work.

The Village Drama Society began by collecting and lending out a number of plays that could be acted in villages; by starting a Costume Cupboard at philanthropic rates; and by sending lecturers to bring the idea of the drama before the villages. In those days the very word "drama" had to be explained to a rural audience. The idea of acting was entirely new to any but the "gentry"; and, except for a stray sketch acted by the families of the squire or parson here and there, village people had never seen any plays. But the idea once put before the people of the

country, the desire for this art flamed up everywhere and now, after fifteen years, the British Drama League has on its books over 10,000 names of villages practising it.

137. The formation of County Committees has always been an integral part of the policy of the Village Drama Society. This policy was adopted by the British Drama League on its amalgamation, and Committees now exist in Devon, Essex and Shropshire, while others are under consideration.* The work of County Committees generally consists in the organisation of a Drama Festival, open to all kinds of players; in promoting weekly classes or short schools for producers and players; and in arranging a system of exchange of productions, costumes, properties and the like. The County Committees, in short, give as much help to their villages as they can, and at the same time link them with the wider aspects of National Drama through the parent society—the British Drama League. It is important for our purpose to notice that Local Education Authorities are recognising the work of the County Committees of the League and are helping on the local organisation of Drama Schools. The Cumberland Education Committee, for example, is at the present time helping to promote the formation of a County Committee, and the Hampshire Education Committee is assisting in the arranging of a Summer School to be held by the British Drama League.

138. It is impossible in the space at our disposal to give any adequate account of the work of the Society and the League for village drama. The selection and circulation of suitable plays; the formation of a Costume Department; the arrangement of local pageants and touring companies; the arrangement of Schools for Producers at suitable centres, all these have been of the greatest possible value. But there are two features of the work to which we should give special

* Where a Rural Community Council exists in the county, the work is usually carried on by its own Drama Committee and most of these Committees are now affiliated to the British Drama League.

notice, inasmuch as they illustrate the value of co-operation in pioneer work for the drama. The first is the development of Drama Festivals; the second is the formation in 1927 of a *Joint Committee for the study of dramatic art.*

139. Village Drama Festivals were started by the Women's Institutes in the form of Shakespeare Competitions, the first being held by West Kent, and the second—in 1923—by Dorset. From these beginnings the movement grew and, at the present time, most Counties have their Drama Competitions. When the Rural Community Councils and the County Committees of the British Drama League were formed, they joined with the Women's Institutes in organising County Drama Festivals to include mixed bands and junior players as well as women. These Festivals, many of which are now linked with the British Drama League Community Theatre Festival, have done much to raise the standard of production and acting in the counties, and have taught both players and audiences a great deal about plays in general.

140. The formation of the Joint Committee came about in this way. The Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, which had already assisted the Society and the League in other ways, offered in 1927 a grant to a Joint Committee of the National Federation of Women's Institutes and of the National Council of Social Service for the purpose of giving financial support to lectures, courses, and short schools for play producers and musical conductors. This Committee has worked through the Rural Community Councils or County Committees of the League and has proved a valuable ally to the Drama League by emphasising the need for a careful choice of instructors and by bringing the teaching close home to the village producer and player. Bursaries are also offered to those who wish to attend the larger schools organised by the British Drama League.

The Arts League of Service

141. The Arts League of Service was established in 1919 and has for its object the encouragement of an interest in

Art and the Drama, This object it endeavours to attain by Lectures on Art, Exhibitions and loan collections of photographs, water-colours, drawings, etchings and woodcuts; and by the Arts League Travelling Theatre. The initial performance of the Travelling Theatre was given at Lingfield in Sussex on 19th May, 1919, and it has been largely responsible for the rapid development of community drama in Great Britain during the last few years. The aim of the Theatre is to provide recreation for the towns and villages outside the usual theatre radius and to encourage individuals and amateur groups to create drama for themselves with the limited means at their disposal. The dramatic programme, which invariably includes drama, poetry, music and mime, is simply conceived with a minimum of staging and a maximum of imagination. The Theatre has made forty tours and some idea of its work will be gained by realising that in one year, 1929-30, it covered 10,000 miles and gave 368 performances in 250 different centres. On occasions it has arranged special tours and performances in co-operation with Local Education Authorities or Rural Community Councils.

The English Folk Dance and Song Society

142. The English Folk Dance Society was formed in 1911 to carry out the work of preserving and encouraging the practice of English Folk Dances and Folk Songs. In 1932 it amalgamated with the Folk Song Society, originally founded in 1898, and the combined organisation is now known as the English Folk Dance and Song Society. The organisation consists, on the one hand, of the Parent Society at Cecil Sharp House, London, composed of individual members and fifty-one town or country Branches; and, on the other hand, of Branches, similarly composed of individual members and local "Centres."

143. During its earlier years, when the folk dances of England were very little known, the Society naturally concentrated upon the instructional side of its work and

its organisation was developed very largely on a class basis, both in towns and in villages. Village classes were organised in some cases by independent groups; in other cases through the County Branch of the Society; and in yet other cases through co-operating organisations such as the Women's Institutes. At the present time the Society is making an effort to develop the more social side and to strengthen the organisation of the movement by establishing local "Centres" affiliated to the Branches. A "Centre" consists of a mixed group of men and women who meet together periodically under a voluntary leader for the purpose of enjoying English Folk Dances and Folk Music. It may or may not conduct a class of instruction; but, if it does so, the class is taken by a teacher provided by the Branch and paid according to the Branch scale of fees. This type of organisation through local "Centres" is proving especially popular and successful in the villages, and it is the present object of the Society to establish contact with all individual dancers by enrolling them through their local Centres as members of the movement.

144. In its work for country districts the Society has enjoyed the co-operation of Local Education Authorities either in the form of direct grants made by the Authority to the local Branch without restrictions as to their use; or indirectly by means of grants paid to other organisations such as Women's Institutes; or by the loan of school premises free of charge and in other incidental ways.

The British Federation of Musical Competition Festivals

145. Perhaps the most valuable work in promoting the study and practice of music in the countryside has been done by the Competition Festival movement, and for a very good reason. Local Choral Societies need stimulus and encouragement if they are to persevere for long, and it is possible that most of the village and country town societies would never have existed had it not been for the missionary work which all good Festivals can do. Country Festivals date back, as we have seen, to 1885; the

Federation was founded in 1921 and includes in its membership town and country and a number of overseas Festivals. The method is as follows. Annual Festivals are held at convenient centres, in which Choral Societies, Orchestras, Chamber Music parties—whether vocal or instrumental—and sometimes soloists can enter in their appropriate classes and can have their performances, compared and commented upon sympathetically and helpfully by a first-rate musician known as the Adjudicator or Judge. The Festivals are not all planned alike; but it is not unusual for them to concentrate on the evening performance by massed choirs and an orchestra of an important work, from which suitable choruses are chosen for the competitions held in the morning. Festivals vary in length and in the quality of the music; as an example of a successful Festival it may be worth while quoting the coming-of-age celebration at Petersfield, which lasted for three days and consisted entirely of music taken from the works of Bach. In order to encourage and assist local societies, conductors are found, where necessary, and Schools for Amateur Conductors are held to improve the technique of acting conductors and to teach novices the first principles.

So far there has been little contact with local Education Authorities on adult work. In Cambridgeshire, however, the Authority has been in close touch with the County Festival of Music and has been represented on its organising body, the Cambridgeshire Council of Musical Education, since its formation. The Authority also provide adult choral choirs in the village, many of which enter for the Festival.

The Tradition of Local Education Authorities

146. The tradition of Local Education Authorities in practical and aesthetic subjects goes back many years to the time when Evening Schools fell into two classes—Evening Continuation Schools for the teaching of elementary subjects and classes under the Science and

Art Department syllabus. The Code for Evening Continuation Schools of 1893 drew up a list of subjects which could earn grant in Evening Schools of an elementary character, and this list included, besides the obligatory subjects of Reading, Writing and Arithmetic, a large number of optional subjects, mostly of a practical nature. The first Annual Report of the Board of Education issued in 1901 gave an interesting account of the relative popularity of the various Code subjects. First came the three obligatory subjects; afterwards needlework, shorthand, vocal music, geography, commercial subjects and domestic economy in that order. The Report went on to comment upon "the practical turn which was being given to the studies of the Evening Schools."

147. The tradition so created has shaped the whole curriculum of Evening Schools ever since. It explains why, for example, the character of the work is mainly of a practical rather than a literary kind; why women's work is far more widely developed than men's; and why the choice of subjects in the majority of areas is more or less stereotyped. It is indeed strange how closely Local Education Authorities have followed the traditional lines in their classes. Apart from the grouped courses in Commercial or Technical subjects, the curriculum is generally limited to Needlework, Dressmaking, Cookery, Laundrywork, Wood and Metal Work, Home Nursing, Ambulance and Physical Training. There is some provision made for classes in Music and Art, but it is mainly concentrated in a few areas, which have specially interested themselves in the development of adult education.* Occasionally, as in Derbyshire, we find Art classes with a long tradition going back to the time of the Science and Art Department.

* Of the total of 774 Music classes provided by L.E.A's given in Appendix IV, no less than 631 are in the four areas of London, Yorks. (West Riding), Lancashire, and Birmingham. Of the 376 Art classes 176 are in the seven areas of London, Lancashire, Cumberland, Staffs., Leeds, Barnsley, and Middlesbrough.

148. In one respect this close adherence on the part of Local Education Authorities to tradition has been of great value. It has given them a definite field of activity in which to work, and has ensured that their efforts were not dissipated. Nevertheless, in the conditions which exist to-day, the traditional curriculum is often inadequate, and many Local Education Authorities are seeking means to extend the scope of practical and aesthetic work in Evening Schools, either by direct provision or by co-operation with voluntary organisations on the lines indicated in the preceding paragraphs.

The Work of County Authorities

149. We have already described elsewhere* the important work done by the Lancashire and West Riding Authorities, and, in a lesser degree, by certain other County Councils. But, apart from a few areas, it is evident that County Authorities generally are feeling their way slowly, and we cannot doubt that they are right. For instruction to adults in subjects of a practical or aesthetic kind easily degenerates into mere amusement with little or no educational value. Take, for example, the teaching of handicrafts. It is not sufficient for a Local Education Authority merely to add new subjects to the curriculum; what is wanted is the thorough and workmanlike study of some particular craft under a competent teacher. The School must borrow something of the spirit of the atelier. We cannot explain our meaning better than by quoting some remarks of H.M. Inspectors on the teaching of Handicrafts. They refer to "the haphazard character of the instruction, the miscellaneous crafts of a rather mediocre quality that are produced and the practice of adopting trade designs and transfers without even an elementary knowledge of form and colour or of suitability of material to purpose." "In fact," they say, "the whole question of the connexion of workmanship and taste is introduced, and it is clear that the classes tend

* c.f. paras. 100-108.

rather to suggest and supply hobbies than to educate the community." "It is worth considering," they add "whether classes in Handicraft of a miscellaneous character should not in course of time be superseded by some rather more honest attempt to learn a craft thoroughly and to begin to discover its possibilities."

150. In several Counties the Local Education Authority is developing its craft work for adults on sound and original lines. The West Riding Authority, for example, has actively considered means of improving the standard of teaching Handicrafts and Art subjects in its Evening Institutes, and has successfully introduced new types of Handicrafts in the curriculum. In some County areas close contact is maintained between Schools of Art and adult Evening classes, a practice which goes some way to ensure a well conceived syllabus and an efficient standard of teaching. But we believe that, in general, the development of craft instruction is too much left to chance. We think that there is need for a clearer policy in such matters as the connexion between Evening classes and recognised Art instruction; the maintenance of adequate teaching standards; the preparation of satisfactory syllabuses; and the use that can be made of the special experience and facilities possessed by voluntary organisations.

The Northumberland Handicrafts Guild

151. A most interesting example of co-operation between the Authority and a voluntary body with special experience exists in Northumberland. The Northumberland Handicrafts Guild is an organisation for promoting the study and practice of Handicrafts in the County and was established in 1900. As a result of its establishment classes in Handicraft have been held at sixty-two centres and much has been done by exhibitions and contests to encourage work, especially in Embroidery, Woodcarving and Basket Making. The Guild is prepared to assist any class by appointing and paying the salary and part expenses of the teacher, and it has laid down detailed regulations for the conduct of classes.

It receives a grant of £350 from the County Council, almost all of which is spent on the actual provision of classes at suitable centres.

Agricultural Subjects

152. Before we leave the County areas there is one other type of provision by the Local Education Authority to which we must refer. Apart from the intensive technical courses in agriculture given in Farm Institutes, there is a good deal of instruction, which, apart from its strictly vocational use, is of interest to the amateur farmer and dairyman, the gardener, the allotment-holder and the ordinary country-dweller. This instruction is generally given in organised day or evening classes arranged at convenient centres in different parts of the country.

153. Agricultural education presents special difficulties because the very nature of the occupation involves the residence of a large proportion of the workers in areas more or less remote from towns. Two alternatives, therefore, face the Authorities—either to organise small day or evening classes in selected rural centres, such centres being changed every year or two; or else to concentrate instruction in a few urban centres, where full advantage can be taken of facilities provided by existing technical schools, and to arrange for the transport of the students to these centres. With the improved transport facilities now available the latter alternative is being more generally adopted.

154. According to the most recently published figures there are 330 Organised Day Courses with 3,766 students and 424 Evening Classes with 9,819 students. A characteristic example of organised day courses is provided in Derbyshire, which in this class of instruction may be regarded as a pioneer Authority. In this county day courses are held at various towns during the winter, when the farm workers can most easily be spared from their work. A typical course is held on one day in each week over a period of about 14 weeks and includes such subjects as agricultural

science and farm management, veterinary science and livestock management, poultry keeping and horticulture. The teaching is essentially practical in aim and is supplemented by visits to local farms. At some centres more advanced courses for second year students are held.

155. In certain counties, such as Cornwall, it is found that Evening Classes suit the conditions of the area best, and attention is directed to organising this type of class on lines similar to those described above for day classes.

156. In addition to the organised day and evening classes most counties organise special short courses in particular subjects, such as poultry keeping or dairying, and arrange individual lectures or demonstrations at various centres with a view to stimulating interest and leading on to more extended work.

157. We have received from Lancashire an interesting account of the growth of Discussion Societies in that area. In 1924, following upon a successful local class in Agriculture held at Garstang, it was suggested that the members of the class should continue to meet and discuss subjects of interest to the farmer. A Discussion Society was formed and proved to be the first of ten similar societies established in various centres. One of these—the Bolton and District Society—has a membership of 180 and publishes annually a Report of its work. Its aims are "to provide opportunities for the discussion of agricultural subjects and to promote the interchange of information on agricultural matters by lectures, visits to farms and in other ways." "It is found," we are told, "that Discussion Societies have awakened the interest of adolescents and adults, who were not attracted by any other type of class, and have led them to demand classes in hedging, dry-walling, draining, clean-milk and similar subjects, and to organise local stock-judging competitions."

158. We cannot do more than make a passing reference to the Young Farmers' Clubs, of which there are over 100 associated in a National Federation. Strictly speaking, the Clubs fall outside the scope of adult education; but their

work in stimulating an interest in agriculture and in supplying pupils for the Rural Continuation Courses in some areas is so great that mention of them cannot be omitted.

The Work of Urban Authorities

159. Compared with the task of rekindling the native spirit of the countryside Urban Authorities have a straightforward task. For them schools and organisations of all kinds exist within a comparatively small area; communications are easy; and a close connexion between Evening Institutes and Art or Technical Schools is simple. Yet they, too, have special problems. With a large variety of students and schools difficult problems of organisation arise, and individual classes have to be considered in relation to the whole system of which they form part.

London

160. The most striking example of an Urban area in which these problems have been successfully faced is London. In London there is, as we have already seen, a widespread system of Adult Institutes and the amount of practical work in them varies according to the type of Institute and the character of the population. In the Men's Institutes, of which there are ten, about 45 per cent. of the time is devoted to craft subjects and about 29 per cent. to recreational work; the curriculum is predominantly practical, consisting largely of practical hobbies, art, music, and drama, practical science and physical training. Again, in the Women's Institutes, of which there are thirty-eight, craft subjects occupy 50 per cent. of the time and recreational about 35 per cent. of the time. In the Literary Institutes, of which there are thirteen, the curriculum is, as we should expect, more academic and the practice of art, music and drama tend to be replaced by lectures on the principles and appreciation of the subjects. Yet here, too, there are ample opportunities for physical culture of all kinds, and, in some cases, for choral and instrumental music.

Other Urban Authorities

161. When we pass to the other Urban Authorities outside London we must not assume that they have all found it necessary to adopt a special scheme of organisation. Most of them are content to provide classes in various subjects, as the demand for them arises, so that literary work and craftwork are found side by side as they happen to be required. But among those Authorities who have tried to plan their practical work for adults on systematic lines, we can discern three main types.

162. In the first place, a few areas have evolved a policy of organised practical instruction leading up to advanced classes at a Central Institute. In Leeds, for example, the Local Education Authority's scheme provides that girls from 14 to 16 shall attend grouped courses on three evenings a week; students from the outlying districts, on reaching the adult stage, have freedom of choice in selecting their classes at the Women's Institutes; finally a certain number attend the Central Institute of Domestic Arts or the Yorkshire College of Housecraft. Bath has developed a system of general Handicraft classes for adult men in different parts of the City and Domestic Classes for women leading to day and evening instruction at the Technical College. Sheffield, which already has a separate College of Domestic Subjects, has considered the question of a School on a central site to provide for practical and craft subjects and for physical training.

163. A second type is represented by Hull, which, following a principle tried in London, has had in existence for some years past Women's Evening Institutes for girls and women of all ages, and in 1928-29 opened the first of its Men's Institutes; "it is found in most cases" says the Authority, "that the first demand is for classes in practical work, domestic subjects, handicrafts, physical training and the like. At the same time the policy of the Authority has been to use such handwork and practical classes as a means of encouraging men and women to

take up other types of study, and to this end the Adult Education Classes have not been separated from those of a general character. In this way it has been possible to recruit members for Adult Education work who otherwise would never have entered upon a serious course of study."

164. Finally a third group of Local Education Authorities evidently aim at concentrating "the influence of both the voluntary and the official elements in Adult Education in the local Technical College". The Wolverhampton Authority for example, states that "it is exceptionally keen to develop non-vocational activities in its Technical College. It looks for the time when the College will be no longer largely "technical" but an Institute for providing for every cultural and vocational need of every progressive citizen." Similarly, Chester has considered the provision of a new Technical Institute "in which facilities might be offered not only for technical and vocational instruction, but also for general cultural studies. In such an Institution accommodation might be offered to local societies of an educational character, such as Debating, Musical, Literary Societies, Gymnastic Clubs, and the like."

CHAPTER V

BROADCAST ADULT EDUCATION

The Advent of Broadcasting

165. Broadcast adult education is an infant growth of less than ten years' standing. Its origin is due to the desire of the British Broadcasting Corporation to exploit the medium of wireless in the interests of education ; its growth and vitality it owes to the enthusiasm of many thousand listeners who have associated themselves with the Corporation's efforts and to the co-operation of the adult education movement. Local Education Authorities have from earliest days been associated with this new venture.

166. It is important to remember that from the very start the intention of the Corporation has been to provide a service only ; the exploitation of that service must depend on others. For the transmission of programmes the Corporation retained an over-riding power and responsibility, but, as co-operation was the first condition of success, the British Broadcasting Corporation appointed, in 1926, a representative committee of enquiry and, consequent upon its published Report,* a national advisory council, the Central Council for Broadcast Adult Education, set up in 1928. Apart from advising the Corporation on the planning of specific series of adult educational courses, the Council was charged with the responsibility of doing all in its power to stimulate interest among listeners, to exploit all means of useful publicity and to secure the active co-operation, at the listening end, of the statutory and voluntary bodies concerned with adult education, whose nominees formed the majority of the Council's membership.

* "New Ventures in Broadcasting," published by the B.B.C., 1928, price 2s.

Area Councils and Listening Groups

167. One of the first actions of the Central Council was to set up a number of Area Councils representative of adult educational interests on a regional basis, to foster the movement in selected localities, and to add local pride and enthusiasm to the advantages deriving from a national service, exploiting the power of wireless to transmit to all and sundry the best thought of the best minds in all departments of knowledge. The Area Councils now number five, and cover (1) the Western Area (Gloucestershire, Somersetshire and Wiltshire); (2) the West Midlands Area (Herefordshire, Warwickshire, Worcestershire, Salop and South Staffordshire); (3) the North Western Area (Lancashire, Cheshire and Westmorland); (4) the Yorkshire Area; (5) Scotland.

168. Five years experimental growth has realised a significant achievement in adult education. A new movement has been brought into being, and fresh personnel, totalling several thousand listeners, has been recruited into the adult education movement. In all parts of the country wireless listening groups have sprung up to derive benefit from listening, as an informal class, to the broadcast courses provided on the Central Council's advice, and for discussion of the subject afterwards under an appointed leader.

169. The appeal of the talks seems equally distributed between town and country. By the winter of 1931 the number of such listening groups following six or twelve weeks' courses, had exceeded a thousand, and their numbers continue to increase rapidly. A careful survey of the achievements of this new movement was undertaken by the Board of Education during the winter and spring of 1931-32, and resulted in a published Report.*

* "Wireless Listening Groups," published by H.M.S.O., price 9d.

Recent Experiments

170. Area Councils have proved the backbone of the movement: through them Universities, Local Authorities and voluntary bodies have come into direct touch with the British Broadcasting Corporation and its officials, and have been able to explore the possibilities of grafting this new medium on to their own activities, or of lending a hand in fostering the spontaneous growth of independent groups. During these first years of experiment no stereotyped methods have been laid down. The effort has been to explore as far as possible differential methods of exploiting the medium of wireless in the interests of this or that section of the community. A few instances will show the variety of possibilities opened up by this new medium. In Lancashire wireless listening groups have been successfully organised in villages by a staff-tutor of the County Education Authority, as part of a scheme of rural educational development. In Birmingham and other cities broadcast series by first-class authorities on science and the arts, on history and politics have been offered as part of the class-work in evening institutes. Language courses by native teachers have similarly been embodied in class work. Many technical schools and colleges have experimented with wireless series related to the subjects being studied by their students. In all parts of the country Local Education Authorities have played the part of hosts, providing premises for groups formed voluntarily by private persons, and in many instances solving the problem of effective group leadership by extending to the movement the experience and co-operation of members of their teaching staffs.

The Functions of Broadcasting

171. The success of the Wireless Listening Groups is due in the main to their voluntary and informal character. They are typical of a post-war movement in adult education, as a consequence of which the barriers between formal education and the cultural life of the community have been

progressively lowered. Adult education has come to have a far wider social significance than hitherto, and organised Listening Groups take their place among the most interesting post-war developments.

172. But first and last broadcasting remains a service, the potentialities of which need to be exploited by the vision and resource of individuals and educational associations. It is perhaps dangerous to speculate as to the future, but it may be relevant to suggest certain possible lines of development in respect of which the support and co-operation of the local authorities may prove of decisive importance. The activities of a great many voluntary associations are covered in other parts of this Report. It is more than likely that many of these, as time passes, will realise the paramount importance of broadcasting as an ancillary instrument of education within the scheme of their activities. It is claimed, for instance, that broadcasting is producing a silent revolution in the musical tastes of the country. This may be so, but the true test of effective influence must surely be whether the generous outpouring of first-class performances of first-class music stimulates among listeners a desire to make progress, to do something, to take some practical step towards self-improvement in respect of knowledge and appreciation. A great deal could be done if, with the help of local authorities, the Music Festivals movement, for instance, were able to base a course of practical work on an agreed scheme of broadcast interpretative talks and musical illustrations. Similarly, organisations like the National Federation of Women's Institutes could, with assistance, do a great deal to base class-work and discussion on regular broadcast series dealing with such subjects as hygiene, dietetics, cookery, civics, etc., courses already in being and planned specifically for women's interests. Again, the wireless service of practical talks on such subjects as agriculture and horticulture have their appeal for sections of the community who lack the facilities for hearing at first hand the advice and experience of experts.

173. Other instances could no doubt be multiplied. In work for the unemployed it seems reasonably certain that, within the framework of specially planned courses, the services of wireless will prove of paramount importance. In spreading a knowledge of international affairs and work of the League of Nations, how much wider would be the appeal, if this Pegasus of the air were harnessed? Finally, in all pioneer work for Rural areas broadcasting can, as the example of Lancashire shows, be of special assistance.

174. The general significance of broadcasting in the life of the community is that inevitably and in an increasingly wide circle, it is likely to promote change and adaptability of mind, to arouse new interests and to provoke demands, however rudimentary and tentative, for opportunities of informal study and discussion. The significance of this type of adult education is likely to loom larger as time passes, and to make greater and greater demands upon the attention and assistance of local authorities. During the pioneer years it has been the Corporation which has provided the stimulus to the many sides of the wireless listening group movement. The time has now come when the initiative must rest inevitably in others' hands. The relations between voluntary bodies of all kinds and Local Education Authorities will, it is to be presumed, become increasingly intimate, and it seems certain that through their joint action a wider and more effective use of the many sides of the broadcast service will be realised.

CHAPTER VI

THE SUPPLY OF BOOKS

General Introduction

175. The general powers conferred by Section 70 of the Education Act, 1921, re-enacting the corresponding provisions of the Act of 1918, do not imply that Local Education Authorities as such have a specific duty to supply books for Adult Classes. But it is a commonplace that an Adult Class without reasonable book-provision in the shape of text-books and appropriate general books is in so far inefficient. Local Education Authorities cannot, therefore, escape a general responsibility for securing, so far as lies in their power, to organised adult education an adequate supply of suitable books, without which the instruction will be barren; and in so doing they must have a clear knowledge of the existing sources of book-supply for classes of all kinds and the extent to which those sources are adequate or can be improved.

176. Apart from any special arrangements made by individual Local Education Authorities, the three main sources of book-supply are the Public Libraries, the National Central Library, and the Extra-mural Libraries maintained by Universities. In saying this we are not unmindful of the existence of other sources, particularly those maintained by voluntary bodies for the use of their own classes. It would probably be admitted, however, that libraries of this kind are not suited by their intention and scope to make any large contribution to the general problem of an organised system of book-supply for the country as a whole.

PUBLIC LIBRARIES

177. The popular use of the terms "Local Education Authority" and "Library Authority" has had the effect of obscuring the fact that Adult Education and Public Libraries are both functions of the same rating Authorities—

the County Council and the County Borough Council. In the County Council area the Public Library service "stands referred" (Section 3 of the Public Libraries Act 1919) to the Education Committee of the County Council; in the County Borough Area it is entrusted to a Committee of the County Borough Council. In either area the Library Sub-Committee or Committee enjoys delegated powers, more or less extensive, but always subject to the financial and general control of the Council. In addition, many non-County Boroughs and Urban District Councils, which are not Local Education Authorities for Higher Education, and even a few Parish Councils have assumed and are exercising powers under the Public Libraries Acts.

Consequently, practically every person in England and Wales who is eligible for membership of an Adult Class, whether recognised in any way by the Board of Education or not, is also entitled to reasonable service from the Public Library which serves the area in which he resides.

178. The Public Library service County and Borough, now extends, more or less effectively, over almost the whole of England and Wales. Except in a few areas,* therefore, every person who conforms to certain reasonable regulations, is entitled as an individual to make use of a Public Library service for all his normal requirements in respect of cultural as well as of recreational books.

179. In addition to this, and in answer to the just criticism that County and Urban Libraries necessarily vary greatly in the range and quality of their book-stocks, the County and the Urban Libraries can nowadays borrow, on behalf of students whose needs they cannot meet from their own stocks, from the National Central Library and the Libraries of Learned Societies associated therewith. There also exist in certain areas intermediate Regional Systems of a pioneer nature under which a County or a Borough Librarian may borrow for the same kind of purpose from another Library in the scheduled area.

* Lincs. (Holland) and Rutland.

180. The growth of these Regional Systems* during the past few years has materially altered the situation. Under a System of this kind the libraries in a convenient geographical area group themselves together for the purpose of lending one another books which cannot easily be obtained elsewhere. A union catalogue of all the non-fiction books in the co-operating libraries is maintained in the Regional Library Bureau and all applications are made to the Bureau and not direct to the National Central Library. If the union catalogue shows that a copy of the book required is in one of the libraries in the area, that library is asked to lend it. If no copy is available in the area, the application is forwarded by the Bureau to the Central Library.

181. Theoretically, therefore, and to some extent practically, there is no limit to the facilities which exist for the individual student, whatever his subject and however commonplace or unusual his needs. It would seem to be a natural and reasonable corollary of this systematic co-ordination of the library service, that students who voluntarily come together in groups for systematic study under a tutor should, with reasonable regard to the needs of other qualified persons, obtain equivalent service from the local Public Library, and through it from the Regional Library (if such exists in their part of the country) and the National Central Library. This claim, as will be seen in the sequel, is already recognised in a number of Education-Library areas (most Counties and many County and Non-County Boroughs), but such recognition is very far from being universal. For this there are historic and practical reasons, both of which are intelligible and by no means to the discredit of the Education and Library Committees concerned.

182. The historical reasons are simply stated. The Adult Class of modern times happens to have developed primarily

* Three Regional Systems exist in England covering the Northern, West Midlands and Cornwall areas, and a Regional system for the South-East is in process of formation. For Wales, see para. 218.

in Urban areas where, as a rule, the Education Committee and the Library Committee have worked to a large extent in isolation from one another. It has been the product, moreover, to a large extent, of University effort, and, except in a few towns, there has been little or no fellowship in cultural effort between the Public Library and the University concerned.

In brief, the Local Education Committee and the University (for Adult Education as for many other purposes) have not taken advantage of the Public Library, and the Public Library—till 1919 a service started under a crippling rate-limit—has, most excusably, pursued a policy of educational isolation.

183. The practical reasons, though perhaps not irremovable, are substantial, since they arise from the actual or alleged needs of organised class-work, as distinct from the needs of individual students. In brief they are as follows :—

- (i) The Public Library's normal loan-period of fourteen days—justified as a protection against individual selfishness—is inconsistent with the needs of even a terminal class.
- (ii) A class requires, among other book-resources, a number of copies of one or more selected textbooks.

As will appear later, these two difficulties have appeared more serious to Urban Libraries than they have to County Libraries, but they are both genuine difficulties which call for careful and practical consideration by Local Education Committees and Supervisory Bodies.

(i) *County Libraries*

184. The administration of County Libraries stands referred to the Education Committee and is usually conducted by a special Sub-Committee. General co-operation, therefore, is assured and we are informed that practically all County Libraries make at least some provision for

organised classes. It should be understood that the normal provision for classes is paid for out of County Library funds, but it may be of interest to quote those cases in which the Local Education Authority makes a special grant for the work :—

Kent	£100 in respect of Further Education.
Derbyshire ..	£150 for the provision of books suitable for Adult Classes.
Lancashire ..	£150 towards the provision of books for teachers and adult students.
Leicestershire ..	£75 for the provision of books for adult students.
Middlesex ..	£25 in respect of books supplied to the W.E.A.
Nottinghamshire	£75 to £100 for books supplied specifically for Adult Education Classes, and £25 to £50 for books supplied for Evening Institutes.
Warwickshire ..	£50 for students' books.
Worcestershire..	£20 for the purchase of books for loaning to members of classes organised by the W.E.A. and members of University Extension Courses, Broadcast Study Circles, etc.
Yorkshire (West Riding).	£500 initial grant in 1923-25 to found a " Special Adult Class Library " ; and £100 annually since that date.

185. It would appear from the information supplied to us that, in almost every County area, arrangements are in force for supplying collections of books to organised classes

for the period of the session. The most comprehensive account, however, of the supply of books to adult classes by County Libraries is given in the Report on "County Libraries in Great Britain and Ireland" for 1927-28, published by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trustees, and it is worth while quoting from that Report the conclusion that "recognised adult classes are being most liberally served," and that "it is fair to assume that wherever Educational Groups are formed they have a reasonable chance of getting their library needs supplied."*

(ii) *County Borough Libraries*

186. The position of the Public Libraries in County Boroughs is entirely different, inasmuch as the body directly concerned with the administration of the Library is not the Education Committee but the Library Committee of the Council. Any measures, therefore, to assist or promote the supply of books to adult classes must be taken by the Library Committee; and, in spite of the emphasis laid by the Public Libraries Committee of 1927 on co-operation, we have little evidence that Local Education Authorities generally are aware of the efforts made by Public Libraries to encourage class-work, still less that they have taken practical steps to enlist those efforts. We have thought it worth while, therefore, to secure from County Borough Libraries a statement of the practical measures which they are taking to help the supply of books to organised classes. In almost every case Librarians express their willingness to do all within their power; and, in about half the areas it is, we understand, the practice to lend collections of books to classes for retention during the whole period of the session.

187. There is no doubt, however, that a feeling exists among certain Library Committees that to purchase books

* Detailed figures of the number of volumes issued will be found in the Statistical Reports published by the Library Association and in the Annual Reports of the National Central Library.

specially to meet the demands of organised classes and so withdraw them from circulation for sessional periods prejudices the right of ordinary borrowers. No County Borough Local Education Authority, of which we have knowledge, makes a monetary contribution towards this part of the Library's work and the expenditure involved, therefore, must come entirely out of the Library Rate.

188. This view is concisely put by one Librarian who quotes the opinion of his Committee to the effect that "it is not the function of a Public Library to supply books either in bulk or in duplicate for loan, over long periods, if the expense of such duplication is to fall on the Library Rate." Another Librarian points out that "to deprive the general public of the use of books purchased out of general rate moneys, even for limited periods, or to purchase books of a specialist nature for a small section of readers, is a procedure deemed contrary to the spirit of the Public Libraries Act." Again, the Librarian of one of the largest towns in the country reports that "it has been laid down by the Public Libraries Committee that it is not possible for them to lend collections of books to institutions and classes. They are regarded as on the same footing as schools, and the Public Libraries Committee have had to say that their funds are not sufficient to allow them to lock up considerable portions of their stock of books for the use of any body of readers."

189. On the other hand, there are other ways of assisting classes besides lending collections of books for the period of the session. Indeed, one Librarian asserts that "the organisers of classes often prefer the books recommended to be retained at the Library and to be there reserved for the use of students with ordinary borrowing privileges. This frees the organisers from any liability and naturally introduces the individual borrower to a wider selection of literature than is possible in a group of books lent as a collection."

190. Moreover, it is becoming the practice in some areas for classes of various kinds to be held on the Library premises and Authorities have from time to time taken powers by private legislation to incur expenditure on such classes. At Croydon, for example, the Library is the headquarters of the local Croydon Committee on Adult Education and gives hospitality to several of the Classes organised by that Committee. In such cases there is clearly no point in removing the books from the Library premises.

191. Speaking generally, there are, apart from the issue of books as a collection, five main methods by which Public Libraries can and do assist the supply of books to adult classes. In the first place, the Librarian is often prepared to purchase specially books required by Class Tutors, where they can be shown to be of general public interest ; or alternatively to obtain them from Branch Libraries, Regional Bureaux, or the National Central Library.

Secondly, the Public Libraries Committee in many cases defray the cost of carriage on books borrowed from the National Central Library. The application of this practice generally to Adult Classes might present difficulties, and it might be necessary for special arrangements with the Education Committee to be made. But we believe that an extension of the practice would help to solve the problem of book-supply.

Thirdly, Librarians, in a number of cases, make a practice of compiling, often in collaboration with the class-tutor, lists of books suitable for reading in connexion with particular courses and obtainable at the Public Library. We have seen many excellent examples of such lists and we think that, in this way, much may be done to help individual students.

Fourthly, a number of Libraries provide showcases in which books recommended for a particular course are exhibited. Among the areas which make a practice of exhibiting books in this way are Bolton, Croydon, Derby, Dewsbury, Exeter and Norwich.

192. Lastly, it is the practice in certain areas to devise special means of encouraging class-students to borrow the required books in the normal way. The arrangements in Birmingham in this respect are interesting and may be quoted as an example of several similar cases :—

“ Birmingham Lending Libraries are open to people resident in the City, employed in the City, or being educated in the City, and this is pointed out to those in charge of adult classes. What they usually do is to persuade the whole of their members to take out borrowers' tickets in the lending libraries ; and, in this connexion, it is perhaps worth while to add that a borrower's ticket in any one library is available at all the twenty-four libraries in the City, and indeed a reader may have two tickets in every library in the City if he cares to take the trouble. In addition, books not in a particular library, but existing in the stock of another library in the City, are transferred to any library where they may be required by a reader. The leaders of adult classes frequently collect the borrower's tickets held by their members and arrange for a messenger to collect the books required. This has much the same effect as lending books to classes, but enables the Librarian to keep within the letter of the regulations and not to give offence to ordinary readers.”

193. It is undeniable that, as a source of book supply for organised classes, Public Libraries have their limitations, so long as they have to rely on their own rate moneys. In particular, it is only occasionally that they can provide multiple copies of books, and in no case is any attempt made to stock multiple copies of texts. Even here, however, much can be done by concentrating books from branch libraries and by application to the National Central Library.

On the other hand, it will give some idea of the extent of the assistance given such Libraries, if we quote the number

of books lent and the issues made to three particular types of classes in the Sheffield area between April 1930 and March 1931:—

<i>Type of Class</i>	<i>Books lent</i>	<i>Issues</i>
Evening Schools (18 classes)	900	3088
W.E.A. (12 classes)	319	871
B.B.C. Discussion Groups . .	250	172

(iii) *Non-county Borough Libraries*

194. From the point of view of library organisation there is no difference between County Boroughs and Non-County Boroughs; in both cases the Public Library is administered by a separate Committee. In other respects, however, it will be appreciated that important differences exist which affect the relations between Public Libraries and Adult Classes. In the first place, Boroughs have only limited powers in regard to Higher Education; the Education Committee, therefore, does not enter into direct contact with the Library Committee on questions of Adult Education and its opportunities of promoting a better system of book-supply are more limited. Where such co-operation exists, it is usually between the Library Committee of the Borough and the Education Committee of the Administrative County. In the second place the number of Adult Classes in any particular Borough is usually small as compared with that in a big County Borough; and, in these circumstances, the Library Committee, however sympathetic they may be, are often not called upon to translate this sympathy into an organised scheme of book-supply. There is, nevertheless, ample evidence that Borough Councils and Librarians are fully alive to the importance of the problem and we have therefore thought it worth while to extend our inquiries in this direction.

195. Of the English Non-County Boroughs, of which there are one hundred and twenty-nine, one hundred and eight have replied to our questionnaire and the replies are, in

many cases, interesting and instructive. Four Boroughs have no Lending Library, and in eighteen others it is reported that, owing to the absence of a demand from organised classes, no arrangements have been made. It may be worth while remarking that in one of these areas it is found that the needs of the Workers' Educational Association classes are met by the Association's own scheme of book-supply, while in another area it is understood that the County Library maintained by the County Council of the West Riding of Yorkshire meets the need.

196. Of the eighty-six remaining areas, a few have apparently not thought it worth while to elaborate any special arrangements and are content merely to issue books in the normal way to registered borrowers, supplementing their stock from time to time by special demands on the National Central Library. A second group relies on the issue of "Students' Tickets" to meet the demands. In its simplest form this means that every registered borrower is entitled to two tickets, one for fiction and the other for non-fiction; but in a fair number of areas the special privilege is extended to bona-fide students of receiving additional tickets up to three, five, ten or even an unlimited number. A third group of areas, containing in all about thirty-five has adopted the practice of lending collections of books to organised adult classes for agreed periods, usually for the period of the session.

197. It is gratifying to find that, in no less than twenty-four Boroughs, definite arrangements exist for ascertaining the precise needs of the classes in advance. In some cases this is done by issuing an invitation to Lecturers and Class Tutors to make known their requirements to the Librarian at the beginning of the session; in other cases there is personal contact between the Librarian and the Class Tutor and a list is drawn up by them in consultation of volumes appropriate to the subject of the Course. We have been interested to find that in several cases the Librarian is himself an active supporter of the organisation, which

provides the classes, and even performs himself the duties of Secretary. In this way, of course, complete co-operation is secured.

198. When the needs of classes have been ascertained, the next problem is to secure the necessary volumes. Several areas have informed us that they are prepared to purchase single volumes suitable for addition to the permanent stock of the Library, in order to meet the requirements of Class Tutors. Some areas are able to make use of the Regional Bureaux or have arrangements of their own with neighbouring Borough Libraries; others, such as Chesterfield, Hereford and Widnes, have standing arrangements with County and County Borough Libraries. The great majority are in the habit of applying to the National Central Library, a practice which, it must be admitted, imposes a considerable strain upon the resources of that Institution.

It is, of course, realised that one of the most difficult problems is to supply text-books in sufficient numbers to meet the needs of organised classes, and one Librarian expresses the opinion that the practice of lending collections of books for the period of the class session "can only be of value to the individual student when the required books can be duplicated to at least 50 per cent * of the total membership of the class." For this, of course, the financial resources of Borough Libraries, none of which receive any special grant for their services to adult classes, are quite inadequate. It need not surprise us, therefore, to find that very few Borough Libraries can supply sets of text books, and, where they can do so, it is only with the help of the County of National Central Libraries.

199. There are, as is well-known, several methods of advertising books suitable for particular courses. Some Librarians, it is true, who have adopted the "Open-access"

* It is perhaps worth noting that experience shows this proportion to be excessive. One volume to five or six students should be ample.

arrangement and the "Dewey Classification" do not recognise the need for any further measures to acquaint students with the resources of the Public Library service. But about thirty Borough Libraries exhibit from time to time displays of books specially recommended for use in particular courses, and between forty and fifty libraries prepare lists of volumes whether for circulation among class-students or the interested public or for communication to local press.

200. In general the information at our disposal gives clear evidence of a readiness among Borough Librarians to assist adult classes to the best of their resources, and we are glad to note that in almost every case the Librarian or his Assistants are ready and anxious to give personal advice and assistance, when desired, in the selection of books. How far advantage is taken of the facilities offered to organised classes it is difficult to say, since very few libraries maintain separate statistics of the number of classes served and the number of volumes so issued as distinct from the general statistics. One Borough Librarian has informed us, however, that in the session 1931-2 he supplied fifteen classes with 152 volumes, and, in the other cases where detailed figures have been quoted, it would appear that the needs of all the organised classes in the Borough were met with reasonable completeness.

National Central Library

201. It was recognised by the Public Libraries Committee of 1927, that, in an adequate scheme of book supply for adult classes, a Central Library must play an important part. The National Central Library, which grew out of the Central Library for Students, exists partly to fill this need. The Library has a stock of 71,042 of the more expensive volumes; and, in the year 1931-2 10,688 books were issued to adult classes.* More than half the issues to adult

* Detailed figures of the issues to Adult Classes made by the National Central Library and the National Library of Wales are given in the Annual Report of the National Central Library.

classes were made through the Urban and County Libraries and this procedure is becoming the normal method of issue.

According to our information all the County Library Authorities, except five, subscribe to the National Central Library, though, in the main, if not entirely, these subscriptions are given in return for the general service rendered by the Library to the County Libraries and not specifically for the assistance given in connexion with classes. We have no evidence of a Local Education Authority in a County Borough subscribing direct to the National Central Library, though a considerable number of County and Non-County Borough Libraries do so.

Extra-Mural Libraries

202. Outside London, which is described in a separate Section, there exist twelve University Extra-Mural Tutorial Classes or Extension Libraries and details of the number of volumes and the annual sum expended is given in an Appendix.* It is of importance that we should understand the functions of these Libraries and the part which they play in the scheme of book-supply.

203. The first point that arises in regard to these libraries is to discuss their intention and scope. The Cambridge Library was first formed in 1873 and since then has supplied books alike to University Extension Courses and Tutorial Classes; to some extent it also provides for pioneer courses which are being developed in rural areas in the neighbourhood of Cambridge, though the main source of supply is the County Library. There is no special arrangement with county or urban libraries whereby certain types of books are supplied by them and other types by the Extra-Mural Board; but University Extension centres and Tutorial Classes are encouraged to make use of county and urban libraries for obtaining further supplies of books, and in some cases use is made of the facilities offered by the National Central Library.

* See Appendix V.

204. As regards the Oxford Library, its main use is for University Extension Courses and Tutorial Classes. The One-Year and Terminal Classes arranged by the Oxon., Berks., and Bucks. Committee of the Delegacy depend in the main upon the County Libraries, but the Delegacy Library may also be drawn upon to a limited extent. The library is also used extensively by the Tutorial Classes Summer School and by the former Extra-Mural students in residence at the University.

205. At Manchester University the Library is intended to serve the needs of all the work of the Adult Educational Committee, including Tutorial and Preparatory Classes, and University Extension Courses. After this first charge has been satisfied, books are frequently lent from the Library to One-Year and other Classes organised by the Workers' Educational Association. A large selection of books is sent each year from the Library for the use of students at the Bangor Summer School.

206. In all other cases, with the exception of Leicester and Nottingham, the library is restricted to use by University Tutorial or Extension Classes. At Leicester the facilities are extended to all classes under the Adult Education Regulations, held at or in connexion with Vaughan College; at Nottingham the library is available for all types of classes.

207. In certain cases interesting details are given of the procedure adopted by the libraries for supplying books and of their relations to the other sources of supply. In Birmingham all requests for books are sent in to the University by the tutors, and an effort is then made to secure the best combined use of the available sources. In the case of classes in urban areas (where the Public Libraries do not supply boxes of books to classes) the tutor's list is first sent to the local Public Library with a request for information as to which of the books are available there. On receipt of this information, a decision is made as to the purchase of books, and the list is then sent to the

National Central Library, with a request for the supply of those books which are not available in the Public or the Extra-Mural Libraries. The Central Library sends its books to the University, and a box is sent to the class containing Extra-Mural and Central Library books, further purchases being made if necessary when it is seen what the Central Library is able to supply. At the same time the class is informed as to the books available in its local Public Library, and urged to make full use of it.

In the case of classes in county areas round Birmingham the tutor's list is sent to the County Library with a note of those books which the Extra-Mural Library can supply, and these classes receive a box from the Extra-Mural Library and a box from the County Library. In this case, any application to the National Central Library is made by the County Library.

208. Nottingham University College gives the following account of the functions of its library :—

“ We do not regard this library as an independent source of supply, but rather as a supplementary provision. All the County Libraries in the area have established adult education sections and are spending considerable sums annually on the provision of recommended books. We cannot, of course, compete with this, and we have no wish to do so, so that our own library is becoming a less and less important element in the total supply. We use it now mainly to serve classes outside the range of the County Libraries, which are unable to obtain boxes of books from any local library. We are also building up sets of texts and text books, which are always a difficulty—although County Libraries give great help in this also.”

“ As far as the big centres, like Nottingham, are concerned, we are endeavouring more and more to wean our classes from dependence on the book box. The City Library is in general prepared to buy all the

books recommended for the use of our classes ; it is also prepared to exhibit them separately. We think our students ought to be taught to use the public library, both the lending section and the reference section. A book box, where there is an adequate local library, is probably a wasteful means of getting books to students. This does not mean that we have, in any single instance, abandoned the book box completely ; but when new and expensive books are asked for, we refer classes to the city library, having previously arranged for the books to be purchased."

209. Sheffield University, on the other hand, reports as follows :—

" Except in Derbyshire, the main supply of books is from the University Joint Committee Library. In Derbyshire, the County Librarian usually meets the needs of University Tutorial and Preparatory Classes. Occasionally we have received help from the West Riding County Council and the City of Sheffield. Our Tutors are encouraged to maintain contacts with local librarians, and this results in the books in the Class bibliography being added to the local library."

210. Having described generally the functions of Extra-Mural libraries, as they are understood by the various Universities, it remains to give a short answer to certain detailed questions as to their value in a system of book supply. These questions may be given under three heads as follows :—

- (1) Are the books limited to particular subjects or types and is any restriction placed on the price of new books ?
- (2) How far can the libraries meet specialised demands of adult classes, particularly for text-books, reference books and Government publications ?
- (3) How far can the libraries undertake to meet a demand for multiple copies for use by individual members of a class ?

To the first of these questions the answer appears to be that no general restriction is placed on the type of books other than texts and reference books and that no restriction is placed on the price, though there is a natural and proper reluctance to buy the more expensive books, when they can be obtained from other sources such as the Public Library or the National Central Library. The attitude of the Extra-Mural libraries may be summed up in the following reply given by the Birmingham University Librarian :—

“ Each request is considered on its merits in the light of such questions as, for example, whether it is vital to the work of the class, whether it is likely to be in demand in the future, whether it can be supplied from some other source, and whether its purchase would mean the refusal of requests from other classes for books equally essential and equally likely to be in future demand.”

211. To the second question the answer is that Extra-Mural libraries are fairly well able to meet specialised demands, so long as they remain moderate. There is a reluctance to spend funds on cheap text-books, which could be bought by the students privately, or on costly reference books which can generally be procured from other sources. As to Government Publications the demand is so small that no difficulty has been found in meeting it. In general it may be said that Extra-Mural libraries have already found it necessary to co-operate in practice with such other sources as the Public Libraries and, if the demand for specialised types of books increased, the necessity for greater co-operation would become obvious.

212. As to the third question our information is that in every case multiple copies are stocked and a partial attempt, at any rate, is made to meet the reasonable demands of classes. But the attempt has only been successful by insisting that the cheaper form of text book shall be bought by the students, by cutting down the

supply to one volume between two or more students, and by co-operating as necessary with other sources of supply.

Supply of Books in London

213. As in the provision of classes, so also in the supply of books the London County Council takes the most prominent place. It maintains a very complete and up-to-date library for the use of teachers and a circulating library for the use of students at Literary and General Evening Institutes. In addition, a separate library is maintained at each Literary, Men's and Women's Institute and a small allowance is made each year for additional books.

214. In the circumstances it is not to be expected that the demand on the Public Libraries from organised classes would be very large. These Libraries are, of course, independent of the London County Council and are controlled by the twenty-nine Metropolitan Borough Authorities. In so far as they can assist the work of Adult Education, whether by lending collections of books or by supplying lists of books on selected topics suitable for close study, they are in all cases prepared to do so, and we have no doubt that they would do their best to meet any fresh demands. For the present, however, the functions which they are called upon to perform are not extensive.

215. There is, however, a most important University Tutorial and Extension Library in connexion with the University of London Library with a stock of some 12,500 volumes and the following account of its activities is taken from a memorandum kindly prepared for us by the Goldsmiths' Librarian:—

“The University Library,” he says, “sends out travelling libraries to University Extension and Tutorial Class Centres, at which full sessional courses are carried on. It is sometimes possible to make similar arrangements in connexion with those Terminal Courses for which the University

Extension and Tutorial Classes Council is responsible. The procedure is as follows:—A stencilled list of the books in the Library is issued to each Tutor or Lecturer who in due course sends in his requisition together with a separate demand for books not included in the stencilled list, but which, he thinks, should be supplied. All reasonable requests are met as far as possible from stock or by purchase out of grants, which at present amount to £250 per annum for Extension Courses and £500 per annum for Tutorial Classes. The number of additional volumes added to the library in 1930–31 was 1,300. In the session 1931–32 sixty-nine Tutorial Classes were supplied with 5,484 books against requisitions totalling some 5,860 books; so that, on an average, the full needs of each Class were met with the exception of only seven books. Twenty-three University Extension Centres received 1,785 books. The Residential Summer School in August, 1932, was supplied with 958 books.”

Supply of Books in Wales

216. In Wales the main source of book supply is still the National Library. The work of this library for Adult Classes began as far back as 1914, when there were only seven organised classes throughout the whole of Wales. In the last completed session 1931–32 no less than 357 classes were supplied and 8,296 volumes were issued on loan. The procedure is simple. Each class tutor is requested to send in to the National Library at Aberystwyth a list of books likely to be of use to the class. So far as possible these are collected and are sent out on loan in a box to be retained for the duration of the class—in most cases for a period of six months. Where necessary the National Library acts as an intermediary and passes on applications to the National Central Library in London.

217. The County Libraries in Wales have participated to some extent in the work, and it is evident from figures supplied to us that in certain Counties some at any rate of the classes are being supplied in this way. In such cases

the National Library supplies only those books which are not available in the County Libraries. It is hoped that, in due course, the County Libraries will be able to extend their work in this direction, so that application will be made to the National Library only for the more expensive books or for books which lie outside the normal scope of the County Libraries.

With the exception of one or two Libraries in South Wales, the Urban Libraries have not so far given much assistance to Adult Classes.

218. An important step in the organisation of book-supply was taken in 1931, when the Library Authorities in Wales and Monmouth adopted a Regional System with the Regional Bureau at the National Library of Wales and a Sub-Bureau at the Cardiff Public Library.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS

I

The Problem Stated

219. In our preceding chapters we have described the methods used by Local Education Authorities to encourage the development of Adult Education, and the relations at present existing between them and the other bodies engaged in the work. We now turn to the question of the future. The Adult Education Movement is still in an early phase of its development. It has grown more rapidly during the past ten years than at any previous period of its history; it will experience, doubtless, temporary set-backs. But it is probable in our view, that the growth will continue. It is inevitable and proper that Authorities responsible for other departments of educational activity should be increasingly interested in it. What practical forms should their interest assume?

220. To ask that question is to be reminded at once of numerous possibilities. Are we, for example, to visualise the adult education of a generation hence as predominantly a service directly administered, like existing Technical Classes or Evening Institutes, by Local Education Authorities, which will take the initiative in organising classes, appoint the teachers, and generally determine through their officials the character of the educational provision made? Or should such Authorities pursue the policy of leaving the organisation of non-vocational education for adult students to other bodies, while assisting financially and satisfying themselves as to the educational quality of the work carried on? Or is it desirable that both these types of provision should exist side by side, and, if so, is it possible to indicate their respective spheres? If Universities and voluntary organisations continue, as

hitherto, to play a principal part in Adult Education, what attitude should Local Authorities adopt towards their work? Should they regard it, as was not infrequently the case in the earlier days of the Movement, as a department of educational activity with which, though meritorious in itself, they were not directly concerned? Or should they view its encouragement, as an increasing number of them do to-day, as an integral part of their functions, and if so, on what lines can their action most usefully proceed? Of the various methods of financial assistance to classes described above, is it possible to select one which is so clearly superior to the rest that it should be generally adopted, or do the varying conditions of different areas require varying arrangements to correspond with them? Apart from questions of finance, is any new machinery required to facilitate harmonious co-operation between Public Authorities and voluntary-organisations?

Certain Axioms of Adult Education

221. Such questions could be multiplied. In considering them, it is expedient, perhaps, to recall certain commonplaces, of which every one is aware, but which, like other commonplaces, are not always remembered when the moment comes to apply them. The first is the complexity of the educational efforts which are summarised by a convenient, but somewhat misleading, shorthand as the Adult Education Movement. That movement, in reality, is less one movement than several, which have the common characteristic of being concerned with men and women, as distinct from children and young persons; but which differ, in a greater or less degree, in the types of student whom they attract, the interests to which they appeal, the educational methods which they employ, and the standard of intellectual achievement which they aim at attaining. This diversity is not conducive, of course, to neat systematisation, and, in spite of the lessons of experience, its significance is still sometimes overlooked. But it is one of the conditions so intimately interwoven with the existence of Adult

Education in England, that either to ignore it, or to attempt to eliminate it in the interests of administrative symmetry, is to pour away the baby with the bath-water.

The second truism is that, as a matter of history, adult education has developed, not exclusively, but largely, as the intellectual expression of movements and organisations, social, religious and industrial, whose functions were not, in the first place, primarily educational, but which, having united men for one purpose, whatever that might be, supplied a means by which later they could act together to meet their educational needs. That characteristic is found in all departments of education in England ; it has left a profound mark, for example, on English Universities. But in Adult Education, which deals with mature students, it obviously possesses special significance, and, since flowers will not grow, if they are severed from their roots, due account must be taken of it.

The third commonplace is that administrative efficiency, though not the final criterion of educational arrangements, is, nevertheless, of very great importance. Slovenly and slipshod organisation tends to result, in the long run, in slovenly and slipshod education. Quite apart from the financial assistance given to classes established by voluntary bodies, the debt which such bodies owe to the criticism, at once stimulus and restraint, of the Board of Education and Local Education Authorities is genuine and substantial. The obligation, it may be added, is not wholly on one side. If to-day Local Education Authorities are increasingly interested in Adult Education, the principal reason is the interest aroused, and demands formulated, as a result of the pioneering work of voluntary organisations.

Advantage and Limitations of the Local Education Authority

222. The forces which have contributed to the expansion of adult education have, therefore, been diverse. That diversity has greatly increased since 1918, as a result of the

development of educational activities by organisations previously little concerned with them ; and, since there is no reason to assume that finality has been reached, there is every probability that it will be even greater a decade hence than it is to-day. In such circumstances the problem presented by the subject referred to us cannot be solved in terms of mutually exclusive alternatives. It is a question, not of selecting one form of administrative organisation, and one alone, but of indicating the way in which different types of educational activity, all of which have their place, can best develop their distinctive virtues, and strengthen each other by judicious co-operation.

223. Thus, to consider more in detail certain of the questions raised in a preceding paragraph, there is clearly a place for the direct provision of non-vocational classes for adult students by Local Education Authorities. Such provision, on any considerable scale, is among the most recent developments of Adult Education. It is made, outside London, on a comparatively small scale ; nor must it be forgotten that, if London be excepted, a considerable, if not the greater part of the classes in question have hitherto been concerned, for example, with Domestic Subjects, Wood and Metal work, Home Nursing, Ambulance and Physical Training, which, while highly valuable in themselves, are somewhat different in character from those most generally pursued in classes organised by voluntary organisations. It remains true, however, that in dealing, not with all kinds of adult education, but with some departments of it, Local Education Authorities start with advantages which are not possessed to the same extent by voluntary bodies. The fact that they are already conducting classes of a technical or vocational character gives them a clientele to whom they can appeal. They employ for other purposes a large staff of teachers, some of whom are well fitted for certain types of work among adult students. They are able to provide facilities for practical, craft and recreational work of a kind not covered by the Adult Education Regulations, and to do so on a scale which no

voluntary organisation could hope to rival. Commanding, as they do, machinery which is co-extensive with a whole area, they are in a position, if they please, to plan their arrangements so that all parts of it are covered, and that classes are physically accessible to all sections of its population. Assuming the whole responsibility themselves they do not require that a spontaneous effort of organisation should be made by students, or bodies representing them, as a condition of meeting their educational needs. Precisely because, as official bodies, they are—or ought to be—detached from sectional interests, they can act as a common denominator of the tastes of individuals, who, while desiring facilities for education or recreation, are repelled, rather than attracted, by the social atmosphere of voluntary educational movements, or are reluctant, for one reason or another, to assume obligations which membership of classes organised by such movements may involve.

224. These advantages are genuine. It is to be anticipated, in view of them, that the volume of adult aducation directly organised and administered by Local Education Authorities will increase in the future. But this form of provision has also, we will not say the defects, but the limitations, of its qualities. Its strength lies, if the metaphor may be allowed, in an extensive rather than an intensive, cultivation of the educational field. It provides facilities for persons who are prepared to take advantage of them; it is not equally well calculated, perhaps—though, of course, there are exceptions—to arouse a conviction of educational needs among individuals and movements as yet unconscious of them. Being necessarily detached from the interests of any particular group, whether social or intellectual, it does not always develop the corporate spirit which is no small part of the educational influence of a good school or college, and which is found, in varying degrees, in classes where members are united by the sympathies which spring from membership in some movement or society. It neither makes exacting demands on the willingness of students to assume responsibility for the success of the

educational effort in which they are engaged, nor gives them the sense of themselves playing their part in determining the character and methods of the education offered them. On the whole, and with exceptions, it has been most successful in promoting classes in subjects which, without being directly vocational, have an interest which is practical and utilitarian, rather than philosophical or scientific. The results which it produces are often of great value, but it would probably be agreed that the most advanced types of adult work have hitherto been associated more often with Universities and voluntary organisations than with Local Education Authorities. The methods of the classes organised by the latter are normally more formal, the contact between teacher and students less intimate and familiar, the part played by instruction larger, and the place given to discussion, individual tuition and social intercourse smaller.

225. To call attention to these features of the work of Local Education Authorities is not at all, it need hardly be said, to depreciate its value. It is merely to point out that different methods of organisation have different merits, and are to be regarded, therefore, not as competitive with but as complementary to, each other. We agree with the statement of the County Councils Association that "it is not a question of substituting the ordinary administrative machinery for the work of voluntary associations"; and we would supplement it only by saying that any policy adopted, or rather, policies—for the circumstances of different areas vary widely—must be such as to allow both types of effort to develop to the full their distinctive qualities. The special virtue of direct provision by Local Education Authorities is that it is in a position to supply a comprehensive network which when fully developed, ensures that facilities of some kind are universally accessible. That is one aspect, and an important aspect, of the problem to be solved; but it is only one. The awakening of individuals and organisations to a realisation of their educational needs: the development of organs through which

those needs can become articulate ; the stimulus to effort supplied by movements and societies, which widen the student's horizon, and deepen his sense of responsibility by enabling him, instead of being the passive recipient of education, to play an active part in moulding its character ; the association in classes of men and women who share common interests outside them ; the promotion of free criticism by students of each other and of the teacher by them all, are equally indispensable. It is primarily through the action of voluntary bodies that these essential elements in a vigorous system of Adult Education have been contributed.

The Advantages of Voluntary Effort

226. The view sometimes expressed, therefore, that the work of such bodies represents a passing phase in the history of the Movement which was necessary in its infancy, while voluntary effort was required to claim a new territory for education, but which is destined to be superseded as classes administered by Local Education Authorities are more extensively established, seems to us a superficial one. Even if, which is far from being the case, the pioneering days of adult education were over, it would still remain true that, as is emphasised in the interesting memorandum submitted to us by the County Councils Association, it possesses "a distinctive character, differing from other evening school work," which it is important to preserve. That character it owes partly to the fact that, while aided by official encouragement, it has enjoyed a large measure of freedom in developing the educational methods best calculated to meet the varying needs of different types of students. It has evolved on the basis of a partnership between public authorities on the one hand and voluntary organisation on the other. If its financial stability could not have been secured in the absence of the assistance to adult classes provided by the former, neither the enthusiasm which it has evoked, nor the seriousness of the work which, at its best, it has produced, would have been attained without the efforts of the latter. It is essential in our view, that this partnership should continue.

227. The reasons for desiring its continuance have already been indicated, and we need not do more than briefly recapitulate them. To announce the establishment of a class is easy; to draw into it men and women who left school at 14, and who, though keenly interested in one group of problems or another, have never thought of such problems as the subject-matter of education, and are quite unaware, that, by attending it, they will be helped to study them under friendly teachers in a congenial atmosphere, with fellow-students who share their interests, is very often the reverse. To provide an audience for a lecture, or brief course of lectures, requires less effort than to maintain in existence a large number of classes in non-vocational subjects, regularly attended, making often, and properly making, exacting claims on their members, lasting for several years at a time and leading to similar classes in the future. Propaganda to attract men and women who, like many working-class students, feel diffidence, and the establishment of the close personal relations which cause the members to feel a class to be their own and give it continuity, are alike indispensable.

228. An official body can, of course, undertake these tasks; but it would probably be agreed that they are in some ways easier for a voluntary organisation. The latter has greater freedom in carrying on missionary work on behalf of education in societies and movements, churches and chapels, clubs, co-operative societies and trade unions. It has greater elasticity in arranging the vital details of class organisation, which, trivial though they sometimes seem, are apt to make, nevertheless, the difference between success and failure, to suit the varying needs of different groups of students. Precisely because it is not, like a Public Authority, providing for all persons in an area, but normally, while welcoming all students who join its classes, has a special appeal for this group or that, it has been in a position to create in its classes an atmosphere of informality and intimacy, which has, indeed, dangers of its own, but which gives them a peculiar hold upon their students, and

which, when accompanied by the necessary safeguards, greatly heightens the quality of the education given in them. The work of voluntary bodies possesses, in short, something both of the virtues and of the failings of a living personality. On the one hand, it is liable to occasional relapses into carelessness and inefficiency. On the other hand, when wisely directed, it achieves a spontaneity and zest, the educational value of which can hardly be exaggerated. In a world, where education easily degenerates into routine, even the aberrations of vitality are not wholly unwelcome.

The Growth of Co-operation

229. These considerations are reinforced by others of a more general character. The activities of an Adult Education Movement, providing, perhaps, in the aggregate, for something approaching 200,000 students, are now so familiar that it is not always remembered how remarkable a phenomenon that Movement is. In reality, however, its existence on its present scale should give ground for surprise to the thoughtful observer, and, unless it does so, its significance is misinterpreted. In spite of superficial resemblances of phraseology, nothing comparable to it in dimensions or in organisation exists in any other country. Neither on the continent of Europe, nor in the United States, would it be possible for the official hierarchy of the educational system, central and local, to act in regular and friendly co-operation with the diversity of organisations and movements, academic, social economic and religious which take part, directly or indirectly, in the Adult Education Movement in England. In England itself, that co-operation was not easily established, nor, in spite of appearance, is it easily maintained. In Scotland, in spite of the fact that the same adult education movements embrace both countries, it does not at present exist to the same degree as south of the Border. The policy of the Scottish Education Department has been to recognise for purposes of grant only classes conducted by School Boards, or, since the Education Act of 1918, by the

Authorities of Counties and four cities, and to apply to classes in non-vocational subjects the regulations designed primarily for evening classes of a technical character. With the reasons for that policy we are not concerned. It appears to be held, however, by Scottish educationalists of wide experience, including representatives of the Universities conducting Tutorial classes, that it has not been as conducive as the English system to the development in Scotland of activity in the sphere of non-vocational adult education.

230. Adult students differ widely, not only in their intellectual interests, but in the spirit in which they approach education and in their conception of the ends which they desire it to serve. The fact that classes are organised under the auspices of some society in which they have confidence offers them a guarantee that their requirements and tastes will receive consideration both in the practical arrangement of the work and in the educational methods employed. Organisations, in their turn, desire to promote education among their members; but, while agreeing as to its importance, differ in the interpretation which they place upon it, and in their view of the note which it should strike. Their readiness, as organisations, to regard adult education with sympathy, and to put their weight behind it, is due partly to the fact that it has been possible for them to carry into education something of the ideals which they value and the spirit which they cultivate in their own activities. Even public bodies require occasionally to be reminded that a new group of students is knocking at the gate. Voluntary organisations which focus and formulate their varying demands render a service, not only to the individual in question, but to Local Education Authorities themselves. They interpret aspirations to which those who feel them often lack the experience to give effective expression. They sometimes stimulate into activity those who, but for their representations, would not be aware that such aspirations had existed.

The successful performance of these tasks has the independence of Voluntary bodies as its necessary condition. They can promote education because they are trusted by their constituents, and they are trusted because they are known to be autonomous. The result has been a diversity of educational effort and achievement, which could have been attained so fully in no other way. Within the general framework of the Board's regulations—a framework which, thanks to the discriminating insight of the Board, has become more elastic—a variety of movements and organisations have been able to play their part in the Adult Education Movement in the manner which best suited their different inclinations and aptitudes. Thus the Adult Education Movement has assumed, if the analogy may be permitted, a federal, rather than a unitary, character, and that character has enabled it to enlist the support of individuals and bodies who would otherwise have been indifferent to it. It is a synthesis in which each element, while meeting the others on the common ground of a belief in education, retains the characteristics which nourish its vitality and make it itself. It achieves catholicity, not by eliminating idiosyncrasies caused by differences of opinion, but by deliberately welcoming them. It is a rope woven of various strands, a pattern fashioned of many different colours. The rope is stronger, and the pattern richer, precisely because each element has been encouraged to retain its distinctive character and make its individual contribution.

Certain Difficulties

231. A machine is more easily handled than a living organism. It is obvious that this diversity creates problems which would not exist in its absence, or, at least, would not exist in the same degree. It makes large demands on the imagination and tolerance of all engaged in the movement. There is the danger of sectarianism, of a concentration of attention on certain parts of the field to the neglect of others, of misunderstanding or failure adequately to

co-operate on the part of the different bodies engaged in the work. The first danger—sectarianism—has not proved in practice a serious one. Classes organised by voluntary organisations are open to inspection by the Board, and, in many cases, to visitation by Local Education Authorities. Bias and partiality in the treatment of subjects have, on the whole, we think, been successfully avoided. That, apart from rare exceptions, such as occur from time to time in all departments of education, has been the verdict both of the Board's inspectors and, as far as University Tutorial classes are concerned, of the Universities; and we note with satisfaction that their opinion is endorsed by the County Councils Association. On the second and third points—the danger, that is, of concentration on certain parts of the field to the neglect of others and of misunderstanding or inadequate co-operation—certain suggestions are made below. If it be asked, however, what are the advantages of a system under which classes can be organised in one or other of the various alternative ways described above, and discretion is left to voluntary bodies in choosing which, in any given circumstances, to employ, we cannot doubt what the answer should be. It has contributed greatly to widen the appeal of Adult Education and given continuity to its development. These qualities are among the most valuable features of the Movement. In any steps which may be taken to strengthen its weak points, it is of the first importance that they should be preserved.

II

The Need of Local Co-operation

232. It will be gathered from the foregoing paragraphs that we do not propose any radical changes in the present system. The main obstacle to an ordered and economic development of adult education is, in our view, historical, and is, in practice, gradually being surmounted. Adult Education in this country was built up in the past by the

successive efforts of Universities and voluntary bodies, each concerned to develop some new type of instruction or to explore some new territory. Progress was through a series of new and independent endeavours, not through the gradual and ordered development of local areas.

233. No doubt this was inevitable and even beneficial. The succession of pioneer movements gave to adult education a strength and virility which could never have been achieved by any other means. But in the circumstances existing to-day Local Education Authorities being trustees for the educational interests of all sections of the community, are naturally anxious that the facilities available in their area for adult education should be envisaged as a whole; that the classes should, so far as possible, be evenly distributed, and that proper demands should be met without needless overlapping. No Authority would aid Secondary or Technical Schools without first satisfying itself on these points; yet in Adult Education they are commonly ignored. To take an example, a Local Education Authority receives an application for financial aid to a programme of classes. Often it does not know, without special inquiry, how far the classes are needed to fill gaps in the existing provision; whether the requirements of the particular localities concerned have been studied dispassionately; and whether the aims and purposes of the particular classes proposed have been sufficiently considered. Too often, then, it is forced to judge the merits of the application on irrelevant and inadequate grounds.

234. From the point of view of the promoters, too, the position is unsatisfactory. In making their application for assistance to the Local Education Authority they are still met sometimes by Committees who are inadequately informed on the subject of adult education; they find themselves opposed by local or personal prejudices; and, if they succeed in obtaining assistance it is largely as the result of personal persuasion without any guarantee of continuity for the future.

235. These difficulties point to the necessity for a more systematic organisation on an area basis. In other forms of education, this function would of course be discharged by the Local Education Authority; in adult education it is, for several causes, unreasonable to expect the Local Education Authority unaided to appreciate fully the needs of all sections of the community in its area and to plan the most economical methods of supplying those needs. Co-operation is of the first importance.

236. We believe too, that, in the future, Adult Education will be faced with a task far greater and far more important than any it has known in the past. The advent of Broadcasting, the development of the Cinema, the quickening of voluntary service in many directions have brought within the Movement a new generation of students. If the Movement is to assimilate these new students; if new methods are to be used, as they should be used, to stimulate the imagination and to prepare for the more exacting demands of systematic or, as they are sometimes described, "formal" courses; if the available funds are to be wisely and economically spent, co-operation in one form or another is an essential preliminary.

237. In several parts of the country this need is fully appreciated and we have been able to describe in a previous chapter schemes of co-operation, which may serve as a model for the future. We believe that, if these schemes are studied, some areas will gain new ideas for improving their own arrangements, while others, who have not yet appreciated the need for co-operation, will—like the pupils of Dr. Blimber—"feel it very painful to be singular."

The Nature of Local Co-operation

238. In general the functions of such schemes will be advisory, not executive. Their details will, however, vary according to the circumstances of the areas they serve. The needs of rural areas obviously call for different treatment from those of urban districts and the schemes will

be in some respects dissimilar. Again, much will depend on the situation of the University; counties with a strong local University are more favourably placed than those in which the University connexion is remote and vague. Yet again, policy will be influenced by the stability or otherwise of the voluntary bodies. In some areas the Authority will be called on to support and be responsible for voluntary efforts; elsewhere its attitude will be one of benevolent interest. Finally, in some counties delegation by the Local Education Authority to District and Local Councils is the rule and the arrangements will of necessity be different from those in which business is concentrated in the Committee and officials of the County Council. But the essential feature of all schemes is that each organisation shall have its sphere reasonably well defined. Where, as is not uncommonly the case, a County falls within the ambit of two Universities, or where two or more organisations providing the same type of work exist in the same area, every effort should be made to delimit by agreement their respective spheres of influence.

239. What will be the authority behind these schemes of co-operation? Proposals have been made in the past for setting up Adult Education Joint Committees with full educational and financial control of all work in the area. There are, we think, three main objections to proposals of this kind. In the first place, Joint Committees are not always suitable bodies to take control of funds, and in the case of work under the Adult Education Regulations it is doubtful whether the arrangement is permissible. In the second place Local Education Authorities cannot legally combine with Universities or voluntary bodies for the exercise of their statutory duties and powers. In the third place, it is, we think, important to preserve the integrity of Responsible Bodies, whose status constitutes one of the chief guarantees of "value for money" in Adult Education. We think therefore that, in general, statutory and voluntary bodies should continue to be responsible for their own classes and courses. Where however the Joint Committee

takes the form of a Rural Community Council it will no doubt take responsibility itself for those parts of the work, for which it is peculiarly suited, and will hold funds for the purpose. For the rest, the strength of co-operation will lie in the goodwill of the members, and the Local Education Authority, which is fitted by its very position to take the lead in any local schemes, should not assume any predominance likely to destroy this goodwill.

Confusion of Aims and Standards

240. One of the difficulties at the present time is the confusion of aims and standards in the shorter courses. It must be recognised that these shorter courses have more than one function. One-year and Terminal Courses are sometimes intended as a preparation for Tutorial Classes; at other times they are complete in themselves. Similarly Extension Courses have in recent years developed new functions. This makes it all the more important that the aim of any given course should be clearly apprehended, and we believe that this is not always the case. There is evidence in some areas of a certain laxity in standards on the part of responsible bodies, tutors and students alike. Considerable space was devoted to a review of this difficulty in the Report of His Majesty's Inspectors on Adult Education in Yorkshire, and in the last Report of the Committee on "The Scope and Practice of Adult Education." We can hardly be surprised, therefore, that in many areas the Local Education Authority has complained that the cost of maintaining such courses is out of all proportion to the value of the instruction, and that equally valuable results could be achieved in a course provided at a substantially lower cost by the Local Education Authority.

241. Another feature of the present situation is the rapid growth of the shorter and less intensive types of course under the Adult Education Regulations. While University Tutorial Classes have increased during the last seven years by 36 per cent., Terminal Courses show an increase of 166 per cent. and there are correspondingly large increases in

Extension and One year Courses. We naturally welcome any evidence of an increased desire on the part of the public to pursue serious courses of study, and we are far from suggesting that every short course should inevitably lead on to a Tutorial class. The danger of the present situation lies in concentrating on certain parts of the field to the neglect of others and so losing that balance on which the Adult Education Movement depends for its stability.

242. It is for reasons such as these that the County Councils Association has suggested that all One-Year and Terminal Courses should be brought under the responsibility either of the University or the Local Education Authority. The suggestion is an interesting one, and, if carried out, would do much to simplify the position.

243. But the solution lies not in greater simplicity, but in a closer study of the demand and a better adaptation of the means to meet it. A tailor does not improve his business by supplying all his customers with clothes of stock size. Moreover, there are certain practical objections to a general system of control by Local Education Authorities. In the first place, it seems to us that to place on Local Education Authorities the responsibility for all the shorter courses of less than a University standard would be to throw a heavy and unnecessary burden on public funds. In the second place, the assumption of financial responsibility by the Local Education Authority has certain disadvantages, some of which we refer to in a later paragraph. In the third place, the suggestion, if adopted, would involve a reversion of the policy deliberately accepted by the Board in regard to work under Chapter III of the Adult Education Regulations. This last point is clearly put in a recent article in the "International Quarterly of Adult Education," where it is shown that, before the War, there was a certain reluctance on the part of the Board to "envisage as a permanent arrangement the need for other bodies in educational charge of the work than the Universities for the higher work and the Local Education Authorities for the rest." It is stated that, for various reasons, not

many of the Local Education Authorities cared to assume responsibility for such classes and that most of them preferred to find in the Board's inspection and recognition of the classes a guarantee justifying contributions from the local rates. "When the Board fell in with such view", it continues, "very rapid progress was made with the continued support of the Authorities."

244. It is, of course, not strictly true to say that Local Education Authorities must rely on the inspection and recognition of classes by the Board as a sufficient guarantee of their efficiency. They have in this, as in other forms of education, full opportunities for criticism and we shall discuss in a later paragraph how these opportunities can be taken. But it remains true that recognition under the Adult Education Regulations is, in fact, accepted in most cases as a guarantee of standard. This throws on the Board a serious responsibility, and we are not sure that it is reasonable to expect that they should discriminate at the stage of recognition between courses which do or do not fulfil all the implications of a One-Year, Terminal or Extension Course. We believe, however, that much can be done by means of the Area Inspection Reports prepared from time to time by His Majesty's Inspectors in the direction of assessing the value of the work. We believe, also that as the schemes of local co-operation described above become more general there will be less chance of confusion. In a well organised area care would be taken to see that all grant-aided Extension, One-Year and Terminal Courses were, within their limitations, of as high a standard as University Tutorial Classes.

245. It is on this assumption—and on this alone—that we can justify the higher remuneration paid to part-time tutors of classes recognised under Chapter III of the Adult Education Regulations as compared with similar classes provided by Local Education Authorities. But we hold it to be a reasonable assumption, and we are interested to note that the County Councils Association have come to the deliberate conclusion that there should not be any

attempt to assimilate the scale of remuneration in such classes to the scale adopted for ordinary evening institute classes.

Responsibility for Classes

246. What then will be the function of the Local Education Authority in the actual provision of classes? At present most Authorities are concerned mainly with the provision of classes in practical, recreational and other subjects, which are not eligible for recognition under the Adult Education Regulations, but they also do a good deal of work similar to that done by Responsible Bodies. The Local Education Authorities for the West Riding of Yorkshire and Lancashire, in particular, have made notable contributions to the development of the Movement. We do not think that any useful purpose would be served by trying to dogmatise on the question, what type of course is appropriate to a Public Authority. The defect of the present situation lies, we think, in its very simplicity. Under the old Evening School Regulations any suitably constituted body of Managers could provide courses in a large variety of subjects and could earn grants. To-day the position is different; in most areas there are only two alternatives—provision by or under the responsibility of the Local Education Authority and recognition under the Adult Education Regulations. Either then the Local Education Authority is pressed to undertake work for which, in some cases, it is not best suited; or the Adult Education Regulations are strained to include instruction in Drama, popular lectures and the like. The real question is not whether the Local Education Authority or a Responsible Body should undertake work, but what is the Body best qualified to undertake it. In these days voluntary organisations are more and more specialising in such subjects as arts and crafts, drama, music, physical training and pioneer work generally; and it should be one of the chief functions of local co-operation to consider whether certain types of work cannot be done more satisfactorily, not to say economically, by delegation to national and county

organisations with special experience and facilities. Our aim is a double one—to raise the standard of work under the Adult Education Regulations and to relieve Local Education Authorities so far as possible, of the burden of direct provision. Their task is, we believe, the more important one—in the words of the Act—of promoting the general co-ordination of all forms of education.

247. There are, however, two spheres in which as financial conditions improve, we believe the Authority must continue to feel a special responsibility. The first is that of large urban areas, in which Evening Institutes specially devoted to non-vocational work can be justified. Adult Education Centres have become familiar to us in London and certain other large cities and are a well-known feature in certain parts of the Continent; and where the need for them can be established we believe that the Local Education Authority is the only body capable of providing the necessary premises, equipment and teachers. In saying this we are not unmindful of the excellent Colleges and Educational Settlements already provided by voluntary Associations.

248. The second sphere is that of new Housing Estates. It is well known that in the post-war period most areas have witnessed the development of new Housing Estates, and in some parts of the country there has taken place a complete transformation from rural to urban conditions. In almost all such cases development has been extremely rapid, and there has been no opportunity for philanthropic and educational bodies to provide these facilities which would normally be supplied in residential areas. We understand that considerable enterprise has been shown by the formation of New Estates Community Associations, which have already held three national conferences and have done much to improve conditions. We have no doubt that Local Authorities, who have themselves been responsible for planning and laying out many such Estates, will do all in their power to support the efforts of these Associa-

tions and to supplement those efforts where necessary. We have read with great interest the evidence on this subject given by the Association of Municipal Corporations.

Relations with Voluntary Bodies

249. We pass now to consider more in detail the relations between the Local Education Authority and Universities or Voluntary Associations. At the present time Authorities generally give assistance in one of two ways—either by taking financial responsibility or by contributing fixed amounts to approved courses; and, since these will no doubt continue the normal methods for some time to come, it behoves us to examine some of their implications. The main objections to the former method, under which the Local Education Authority takes complete financial responsibility for certain types of courses—usually One-Year and Terminal Courses—are three. In the first place, it throws on the Local Education Authority the responsibility for deciding how many courses shall be provided, and in this way limits the enterprise of the voluntary organisations. In the second place, it tends to ignore the inherent difficulties of creating a popular demand, and to reduce the type of courses to a uniform level. In the third place, it raises problems as regards the supply and remuneration of tutors. If the Local Education Authority supplies the tutors itself, they are frequently unfamiliar with the methods of the particular organising body; if, on the other hand, the Local Education Authority agrees to pay the salary, what scale is to be adopted? At what point should the Authority exceed the salaries paid under its Evening Institute Scheme?

250. Nevertheless, we are impressed by the success which has attended this simple form of co-operation in one or two counties. We believe that the system of financial control by the Local Education Authority has much to recommend it in areas where the voluntary bodies lack something of stability and need the full support of the public authority. But if the system is to work smoothly

the Authority must be prepared to consult with the voluntary organisation in such matters as the choice and remuneration of tutors, and to use certain discretion in the enforcement of detailed regulations for the conduct of classes in rural districts where conditions of transport are difficult.

251. The more usual course, however, is that by which the Local Education Authority contributes on a fixed scale towards classes not directly under its control, and in such cases it is clear that it must be in a position to satisfy itself that the work of such classes deserves public support. It goes without saying, therefore, that the classes in question must be open to all students (up to the practicable number) who desire to join them and are able to profit by them, irrespective of religious, political or other affiliations. It is equally a matter of course that classes must comply with three simple conditions—they must be conducted by competent teachers, who know their subjects and have the experience and personality to present them to adult students; the programme of work must be submitted in advance to the Authorities concerned; and the classes must be open to visitation by the Authority.

252. These principles have long been accepted by voluntary bodies, and the only question which arises is as to the methods of best giving effect to them. The first two conditions may be considered together. In the case of University Tutorial and Preparatory Classes Local Education Authorities have been disposed, as a rule, to accept the fact of supervision by a University Joint Committee as a satisfactory guarantee of the standard of work; and, in view of the obvious undesirability of unnecessarily duplicating visits to classes, that attitude seems to us reasonable. All grant-earning classes are open to inspection by the Board of Education, and the body providing them is responsible to the Board both for their educational efficiency and for compliance with its administrative requirements. Further, the Local Education Authority is in a position, on receiving an application for aid to a class,

to inform itself, before the class starts, as to the academic qualifications of the tutor. In the case of One-year classes, a minor practical difficulty sometimes arises in connection with the submission of programmes, owing to the fact that demands for classes for groups of students are frequently not received till the autumn, while Local Authorities desire that plans should be laid before them by June. It is obviously important that Local Authorities should know their probable commitments as early as possible, and voluntary organisations are clearly under an obligation to do all in their power to meet that requirement. It is also important, however, that promising groups of students should not be discouraged from applying for a class, merely because they have been unable to formulate their demand as promptly as was to be wished, nor would that result be desired by the majority of Authorities keenly interested in Adult Education. The reasonable course would appear to be that voluntary bodies should submit their programme in as complete as possible a form at the date which best suits Local Education Authorities, and that the latter should practise a wise indulgence in entertaining subsequently applications for classes, which for one reason or another, have been unavoidably delayed.

253. The third condition is that classes aided by a Local Education Authority should as a matter of course be open to visitation by them. This is a matter to which the County Councils Association has attached importance in its memorandum ; and, so far as we are aware, voluntary bodies have never raised any objection in principle to such visits. If, however, an Authority desires to make a practice of visiting classes, it is clearly important that the task should be entrusted to persons who can be relied upon to perform it with tact and knowledge. A hasty impression of the work of adult students is peculiarly liable to be misleading ; nor are the subjects taught in many adult classes, or the methods of teaching them, matters on which a lay opinion can be regarded as authoritative. All personal contacts which promote a friendly understanding between repre-

sentatives of an Authority, students, teachers and the voluntary body organising the class are obviously to be welcomed. They dissipate misconceptions of the nature of the work, satisfy the Authority that its money is well spent, and, under favourable circumstances, stimulate the students by creating the feeling that their class is a matter of local interest or even pride. But, as an aid to an Authority in deciding whether a class should be assisted or not, a preliminary scrutiny of the tutor's qualifications is more reliable, we think, than an attempt to assess his work in detail.

The Need for a Concerted Plan

254. We look forward, however, to a time when Adult Education in an area will be organised on a concerted plan and not as an aggregation of individual courses. Flexibility and fluidity are essential if the system is to be worked well and economically, and these can only be secured by the judicious use of staff tutors. Too often at the present time courses are put forward under the Adult Education Regulations simply because it is the only way of earning grant. We believe that, as co-operation increases, Local Education Authorities will be more ready to accede to requests for contributions in the form of a lump sum in aid of an agreed programme, or the salary of a staff tutor, or the expenses of a Settlement; and, where such contributions have no connexion with work recognised under the Adult Education Regulations, it is important that they should attract grant from the Board of Education.

255. This may be the appropriate place in which to refer to a point of detail bearing on the same question. At present applications for grant under the Adult Education Regulations are submitted individually for each course on Form 121 T. and copies of this form are sent to the Local Education Authority. We think it important that all Universities and Voluntary Associations should prepare for the Local Education Authority of the County concerned a full Schedule of the courses they propose to organise and should send it in at the earliest possible moment.

Special Considerations in London and Wales

256. In two areas of the country the situation is peculiar and deserves a separate notice. London is, as we have already seen, peculiar in its size and in the unusually complete system of Adult Education which it has built up over a period of sixty years. In this system the London County Council takes the lead, and its provision is evenly and economically distributed. The University and the voluntary bodies co-operate locally with the Authority, and, in some cases, share the same premises. This arrangement, we feel, works well in practice, and calls for no elaboration.

In Wales much progress has been made during recent years, and most of the Local Education Authorities aid in varying degrees work done under the Adult Education Regulations. There has also been a real improvement during the past few years in co-operation between the voluntary bodies themselves, particularly in South Wales. The interesting development in the South Wales Coalfield has already been referred to in a previous section of our Report, and the recent Report of the Committee on "Educational Problems of the South Wales Coalfield" put forward proposals for the formation of an Advisory Council for cultural occupations in South Wales. In Wales the framework of co-operation is already provided; what is needed is a deepening of the measure of co-operation that already exists as between the University, the Approved Associations, and the Local Education Authorities, and— even more urgently—a fuller realization by Authorities of the need for encouraging Adult Education in their areas and for supporting the Voluntary Bodies that provide it.

Premises

257. In the Report on "Pioneer Work and other Developments in Adult Education" considerable space was devoted to the question of Premises, and in general we agree with the conclusions there reached. But in certain respects the outlook has changed, and a brief restatement of the problem is therefore desirable.

258. In a few cases the joint use of premises by Adult and Technical Classes has become a matter of policy. We do not think that any good purpose is served by confusing the aims of adult and technical education, but we wholly agree that in some respects the curricula are related; and, where the two are housed together, much is gained by the contact of study and by the sharing of corporate life. It is unlikely, in present circumstances, that separate rooms can be provided solely for adult classes, but it may be possible in some cases to reserve, during the evening, rooms which have been occupied for Art or Technical work during the day, and we should welcome such an arrangement.

259. In the Elementary Schools the case is otherwise, and we cannot expect the surroundings to be as congenial. Fortunately in this direction, too, there has been a great improvement. The introduction of Craft and Practical Rooms into the plans of new and remodelled schools; the more general use of tables and chairs instead of desks; and the greater emphasis laid on the School Hall as a focus and centre of life in the village or small town have made the schools far more attractive to adults. We anticipate that Local Education Authorities will be asked to continue their present practice of lending the school premises for adult work and we are glad to know that in most areas they do this willingly and free of all charge other than payments for light, heating and cleaning. In exceptional cases, however, it has been reported to us that Adult Education is treated as a poor relation and gets what is left over after the other evening activities of the Local Education Authority have been provided for. In so far as this is true, it argues a regrettable lack of appreciation. For the demand in Adult Education has to be created, and the public are not likely to be attracted by ill-lighted and inconvenient classrooms.

260. In some areas the Public Authority has made available rooms in Municipal Offices or Public Libraries; in particular we have noted an increasing tendency for Libraries to be used for Broadcast Listening Groups and

other classes. For various reasons we do not feel able to make any recommendations on the subject, but it is worth pointing out that the growing interdependence of Adult Education and Public Libraries is fostered and the problems of book-supply simplified, where organised classes are actually held on the premises of the Public Library.

261. It will of course remain true that the benefits of a permanent home for adult education are inestimable. Let anyone, who has any doubt in this matter, pay a visit to the City Literary Institute, the Working Men's College, Morley College, Mary Ward Settlement or the Cripplegate Institute in London or to some of the best provincial centres. But it is constantly impressed upon us that, to ensure success, the supply of students and the demand for classes must be greater than is generally to be found even in the larger centres of urban life. To some extent, attractive premises and an enterprising Principal create their every demand, but the financial risk is generally beyond the means of voluntary organisations. Nevertheless, there are many excellent examples of adult colleges, some of which are described in the Report on Pioneer Work; and of recent years the appearance of new Community Centres, where adult work shares the premises with other types of social activity, has been a hopeful sign. We invite readers to study the plan of Sawston Village College in Cambridgeshire and of the Community Centre recently erected on the Watling Housing Estate in Middlesex.

The Rural Problem

262. Rural districts present a special problem of their own and this is probably the appropriate place to refer to the organisation of adult work in country villages. For it is becoming increasingly evident that the future of organised village life is likely to centre round the Village Hall. In the past the use of the local hall has been rendered difficult, partly owing to the prohibitive cost of hire, partly by the fact that its control was generally vested in bodies who were not always sympathetic to the work of

organised adult education. To-day, largely owing to the activity of the National Council of Social Service and certain other agencies, the number of Village Halls is steadily increasing and in a number of cases they are controlled by a Council representing all classes and interests in the village. The provision of classes and the selection of tutors will, of course, be done as part of the County or regional Scheme, whether by the University, the Workers' Educational Association, the Local Education Authority, the Rural Community Council or other organisation. But it is of the first importance that close consultation should take place with the village Council, under whatever name it works, and it is equally important that the village Council should understand how to make known its needs and through what channels it should address its applications.

Tuition Fees

263. The Scale of fees in classes recognised under the Adult Education Regulations affect the Local Education Authority in two ways—first by augmenting or reducing the net deficiency towards which in many instances they contribute ; secondly by challenging comparison with the fees charged in Evening Institutes. It is true that the income from fees goes in most cases to defray the local expenses of organisation, while the Local Education Authorities contribution is applied towards the tutor's salary. But there is, none the less, an indirect connexion between the amount of tuition fee and the liability of the Local Authority.

264. The suggestion is sometimes made—especially during a period of economy—that non-vocational courses should be as nearly as possible self-supporting. In general we should not support this view. At one end of the scale there are classes of a University Honours Degree standard which aim at a real emancipation of mind and character : at the other end there are classes in practical subjects which give profitable occupation to those who lack all opportunities, and which serve as a first introduction to

study. Both these types have an irresistible claim to public support. But, between these, there are also certain types of instruction—courses of popular lectures or work of a recreational character—which cannot make such strong claims on the community. It needs, therefore, to be emphasised that the existence of a demand is not always an argument for supplying education at the cost of the State, and to do so only weakens the claims of more serious instruction.

265. Assuming, however, that the instruction is worth while, fees depend on the ability of the class to pay. Speaking generally, the Adult Education Movement has in the past catered for just those types of the community which have missed, often for economic causes, the benefits of Further Education. It is, therefore, not surprising if the fee both in Evening Institutes and voluntary courses appears small in comparison with some other types of instruction. The value of a University Tutorial Class or of a Men's Institute may be greatest for just those persons who can least afford them. On the other hand, it must be admitted that of recent years the Movement has attracted large sections of the population, particularly in courses of the literary and artistic type, who can well afford to pay. University Extension has usually charged a high fee on the ground that it attracts students well able to pay for their advantages; it is a question how far the distinction between Extension and certain other types of class still holds good.

266. In any comparison of fees in voluntary classes and Evening Institutes it should be remembered that, in addition to the class fee, students in some voluntary classes—as for example those of the Workers' Educational Association—are called on to pay a membership fee in addition. Occasionally an inclusive fee is quoted, but, where this is not so, an addition of 2s. or 2s. 6d. has to be made to the class fee for the support of local branches besides contributions to the central organising body and payments for books and materials.

267. There is also another point. Both Local Education Authorities and Voluntary Bodies may be said generally to aim at the principle that no person wishing to join a class and willing to undertake the obligation of attendance should be denied membership by reason of inability to pay fees. But, whereas the remission of fees in Evening Institutes falls on public funds, similar remissions in voluntary classes diminish the limited resources available for administrative and organising cost. This is of some importance, since classes under the Adult Education Regulations are almost the only remaining example of higher education, where the deficiency of income is not met by the Public Authority or by Endowments. There is, therefore, a reasonable presumption that the fullest possible income from fees will be extracted from students in voluntary classes.

268. As a rule classes organised by the Workers' Educational Association have a fee of 2s. 6d. to 5s.—according to the circumstances—together with a Membership Fee of varying amount. Fees for similar courses in Evening Institutes vary considerably, but have generally ranged from 2s. 6d. to 6s., though increases have recently been made of as much as 25 per cent. On these figures there is not, we think, any obvious discrepancy in the two scales. On the other hand, the relation which the fee bears to the total cost of the course is considerably smaller in voluntary courses than that in Evening Institutes, even when allowance is made for the upkeep of premises. This is, of course, due to the higher remuneration usually paid to the class-tutors.

269. Speaking generally we are of the opinion that, while fees should no doubt be kept constantly under review in all types of courses, the present rates are not unreasonable, and we should deprecate any light attempt to assimilate fees in voluntary classes to those in Evening Institutes. But we feel it necessary to emphasise that the comparatively small proportion of the expenditure borne

by fees in voluntary classes recognised under the Adult Education Regulations can only be justified on the assumption that the selection of subject, the method of treatment, and the thoroughness of the instruction in the classes are maintained at the high level, which we have come to expect of them.

Aid to Students

270. We do not propose to consider in any detail the question of aid to students. This matter was the subject of full discussion in a previous Report of the Committee, and to re-examine the conclusions there reached would occupy more space than we can afford. We have received from the County Councils Association a very valuable summary of their views, and the conclusions which we set out below are in general agreement with those views :—

- (a) We assent generally to the opinion expressed by the County Councils Association that Scholarships should, if possible, be made tenable at Universities or at least at Colleges whose activities can be brought into intimate touch with the work of Universities.
- (b) At the same time we are satisfied that there are many men and women who, after attending Tutorial classes or some suitable form of part-time education, will profit much and will increase their power of serving the community, if they can enjoy a year of full-time study; but who would not be able to take a full degree course at a University and for whom even a year of intra-mural study at a University is not the most suitable form of higher education.
- (c) Most Authorities award Senior or Major Scholarships to enable any student, who has given evidence of exceptional ability (usually by gaining an open award), to proceed to a University. We do not think, however, that these

awards take sufficient account of the peculiar circumstances and merits of the adult working-class student.

- (d) If, therefore, there are funds available for the purpose, we suggest that special conditions for awards to adult students should be drawn up on the lines adopted by Kent, Lancashire, Nottinghamshire and Darlington. The awards should be tenable at Universities or Residential Colleges recognised by the Board of Education, and the conditions of award should prescribe the necessary qualifications in regard to age, residence, employment and previous education. No stipulation should be made as to the future occupation of the student at the end of the course.
- (e) Selection of candidates should be made on the lines of :—
- (i) reports by the tutors ;
 - (ii) personal interview ;
 - (iii) examination, if necessary.
- (f) Awards should be sufficient to enable the student to take advantage of the course, and should take full account of any other source of income. If voluntary bodies or Educational Trusts make awards, it is important that they should either cover the whole expenses of the course or should be made in close co-operation with the L.E.A. Unless special arrangements are in force, the Authority should not be expected to supplement the awards of other bodies.
- (g) We think that Local Education Authorities might consider whether in certain circumstances available funds cannot be laid out to better advantage in assisting students to attend Summer Schools and Vacation Courses.

III

The Supply of Books

271. We have stated above that the main obstacles to an economical and ordered development of adult education are in practice being gradually surmounted, and we have suggested that the most important part of our task has been to lay before the reader a detailed account of some of the schemes of local co-operation, which are actually in being. Broadly speaking, the same conclusion applies to the important question of the supply of books to adult classes. We believe it will come as a surprise to most of those concerned in the work to find how closely the Public Libraries in all types of areas are co-operating to ensure a regular supply; and it is for this reason that we have thought it worth while in a previous section to describe the present position in some detail.

272. The main sources from which books are supplied to Adult Classes are the Public Libraries, the National Central Library,* the Libraries of Extra-mural Departments, and certain stocks maintained by Workers' Educational Association Districts and other Voluntary organisations. So far as we know tutors can, in most cases, apply to any or all of these sources simultaneously; and, unless local arrangements have been made between the various Libraries, as is the case in a few areas, there is bound to be overlapping and wasteful expenditure.

273. We consider, therefore, that, as circumstances permit, there should be one main source of supply, which should also act as a line of communication to secondary and supplementary sources, and we suggest that this should be the Municipal and County Public Libraries. Our reasons for this view are briefly as follows:—

- (a) The Public Library service is maintained, apart from voluntary outside help of a temporary and special nature, by local rates. It should, therefore, be organised and stocked to meet all

* In Wales the National Library. In view of the special conditions in Wales the whole of this Section should be read in the light of paras. 216-218.

the normal requirements of the local ratepayers. In so far as it undertakes special duties in connexion with the supply of books to adult classes, it can—and, we think, should in normal times—receive special assistance from the Local Education Authority.

- (b) The Public Libraries are, to an ever increasing degree, staffed by men and women of a reasonably good general education, who, in addition, are trained in the purchase, cataloguing, classification, repairing and distribution of books. The importance of this professional qualification is often overlooked.
- (c) County and County Borough Councils, being Authorities both for Adult Education and for Public Libraries, are in an ideal position to make effective arrangements between the two services. Similar arrangements can be made by co-operation between County Areas and non-County Borough or Urban Districts.
- (d) The Class Tutor is able to confer in good time with the Public Librarian; examine the available stock personally; discuss possible additions; and arrange for exchanges during the class-period. In addition he can reasonably require the students to familiarise themselves with local resources with a view not only to the immediate requirements of the current subject of study, but also to their subsequent private study.

274. We consider that in normal circumstances the Class Tutor under the directions of the Responsible Body should apply for the books he requires to the Public Librarian of his area; and that, if, when the resources of existing stocks and special purchases have been exhausted, other books are required, it should be the Public Librarian's duty, not the Tutor's, to make application to the National Central Library or, in special cases, to Extra-mural Libraries. In reaching this conclusion we have had in

mind the abundant evidence, summarized in an earlier Section of this Report, showing that Librarians and Tutors as well as Education and Library Committees are in fact working together effectively on these lines. Moreover, there is a recent, but obviously vigorous, tendency towards official regional co-operation between the larger Public Libraries in different areas.

275. The normal reserves to the Public Libraries will be the Regional Bureaux, where such exist, and the National Central Library. In saying this we do not in any way depreciate the services or minimise the importance of the large Extra-mural Libraries. They were responsible for maintaining a regular supply to their classes at a time when no other sources were available, and to-day they have valuable functions to perform in the system of Book Supply. If, therefore, the Extra-mural Departments prefer to continue their present system of supplying their own classes with boxes of books, they will have ample justification for their decision.

But we believe there will be general agreement that it is unsound for Libraries to stock and distribute books which are held in local or regional Library areas and can be readily obtained. We would suggest, therefore, that, where possible, the organisation should apply to the Public Library in the first instance. In that case, the Extra-mural Library would exercise two main functions. In the first place, it would, by special arrangement with the Public Libraries in the area and the National Central Library, be available as a reserve for its own classes when the required books were not available, and in particular would stock multiple copies of texts and other volumes unlikely to be found in Public Libraries. Secondly, it would act as a first source of supply to any of its classes which might be outside the normal range of a Public Library. As an example of the way in which an Extra-mural Library can perform specialised functions of this kind, we would refer to the account of the Nottingham University Library given in paragraph 208 of our Report.

276. We do not think, from the information at our disposal, that the stocks maintained by the Workers' Educational Association and other voluntary organisations are of sufficient size or importance to require special consideration. We would suggest, therefore, that they continue to supply books as and when they are required to supplement the main sources of supply.

SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS

1. Adult Education is a complex movement and its origins were not primarily educational, but social, religious and industrial. It cannot however overlook the great importance of administrative efficiency. (Paras. 219-221.)

2. Local Education Authorities start with several advantages in the field of adult education, but they have also their limitations. Their efforts, therefore, and those of voluntary organisations should be complementary to each other, not competitive. (Paras. 222-225.)

3. There are solid reasons for maintaining the existing partnership between statutory and voluntary bodies. The division of functions on which this partnership is based is to the advantage of both, and is a unique phenomenon in the history of adult education. (Paras. 226-229.)

4. The wide diversity of interests which exists among students can only be focussed by voluntary bodies working independently but united as a federal whole within the framework of the Adult Education Regulations. (Paras. 230-231.)

5. Speaking generally the Adult Education Movement is unsystematic and this causes difficulties both to Local Education Authorities in the administration of their areas and also to voluntary bodies in their approach to Local Education Authorities. The remedy lies in schemes of local co-operation, of which several excellent examples exist. Such schemes, which can be varied to suit local circumstances, act as a clearing-house, avoid overlapping, and preserve the necessary balance as between different types of courses. Schemes of local co-operation should depend for their authority on the goodwill of the members, not on any artificial sanctions. (Paras. 232-239.)

6. One of the weaknesses, at the present time, is the confusion of aims and standards and the disproportionate growth of less intensive courses. To meet this the County

Councils Association has recommended that all recognised work be brought under the Universities or the Local Education Authorities. We fully agree that the high standard of work under the Adult Education Regulations must at all costs be maintained, and it is only on this basis that the comparatively high fees to part-time tutors can be justified. But we think this result is better achieved by the criticism of H.M. Inspectors and by schemes of local co-operation. (Paras. 240-245.)

7. We believe that Local Education Authorities should be ready to undertake any kind of work, which circumstances require, and we do not attempt to place any limits to the kind of provision for which they may be responsible. But we think it is a mistake to attempt to divide the whole field between Responsible Bodies and Local Education Authorities. Some types of work can be more satisfactorily and economically delegated to Rural Community Councils or non-recognised bodies of accepted status, which are specially qualified to do them. (Para. 246.)

8. Nevertheless there are certain spheres—specially those of big urban areas and housing estates—where the Local Education Authority has a special responsibility for seeing that the necessary facilities are provided. (Paras. 247-248.)

9. We believe that, while some Authorities will prefer to take financial responsibility, aid by Local Education Authorities to voluntary classes will, for some time to come, generally take the form of a fixed grant per class, and we believe that incidental difficulties can be met by tact and consideration on both sides. But we look forward to a time when Adult Education will be based on a survey of the needs of the area and organised on a concerted plan with the flexibility and fluidity essential to an ordered and economical development of the work. (Paras. 249-255.)

10. We have no doubt that separate premises are of inestimable value to adult education, but we think that it is inevitable that for many years to come the Movement will

continue to rely on Local Education Authorities for the use of Day School premises. We are glad to record a definite improvement in conditions, and we hope that the improvement will be maintained. In rural areas the Village Hall is becoming to an increasing degree the centre of organised life. (Paras. 257-262.)

11. Tuition fees depend, as in other forms of education, on the educational value of the courses and the ability of the class to pay. The type of course provided by the Adult Education Movement at its best and the class of student catered for has necessitated a comparatively low fee in proportion to the cost of provision. We do not think that any general revision of fees is called for, but, in so far as there has been any dilution of standards or change in the class of students, we think that the possibility of higher fees should be carefully reviewed. (Paras. 263-269.)

12. We agree that scholarships awarded by Local Education Authorities should be primarily tenable at Universities and Colleges in close touch with Universities. But we do not think that recognised Residential Colleges should be excluded. We think that such scholarships should generally be awarded under special schemes, distinct from the ordinary Major Scholarships. In the absence of special arrangements, the Authority should not be expected to supplement the awards of other bodies. We think that the possibility of using available funds to send suitable students to Summer Schools or Vacation Courses should be taken into account. (Para. 270.)

13. We consider that, as circumstances permit, there should be one main source for the supply of books, which should also act as a line of communication to secondary and supplementary sources; and we suggest that this should be the Municipal and County Public Library. The National Central Library should act as a reserve to the Public Libraries. We suggest also that Extra-mural Libraries should arrange to work in co-operation with the Public Libraries by a division of functions. (Paras. 271-276.)

APPENDIX I

METHODS OF FINANCIAL AID BY LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES

1. Aid by Local Education Authorities to Universities and Voluntary Bodies is given in one or other of the following ways :—

- (a) Block grants.
- (b) Class grants.
- (c) Deficiency grants.
- (d) Financial responsibility.
- (e) Aid to students.
- (f) Loan of premises.

2. We propose to take each of these methods in order and to give a short description of its working and the circumstances in which it is most usually adopted. It should be understood that two or more methods are frequently combined. For example, it is not uncommon for an Authority to provide premises and equipment for classes and to make a grant in aid of the same classes. Again, an Authority may decide to take responsibility for a limited number of classes of a particular kind and to make class grants in aid of the remainder ; or it may offer to pay the deficiency on a specified number of classes, and make a fixed block grant in aid of the rest.

3. It should be realised that the statistics, which we have collected, refer to the financial year 1929-30. The policy of such payments and the specific amounts have in many cases been reconsidered since that date.

(a) *Block Grants*

(i) A certain number of Authorities—eleven Counties and ten County Boroughs—make an inclusive block grant to the local University or University College. The grant may take one of three forms :—

- (a) An annual sum for all purposes with no conditions as to its allocation. An instance of this is the grant of £9,000 paid by Manchester Local Education Authority to the University.
- (b) An annual sum for all purposes, it being stipulated that it shall be spent partly on Extra-mural work. An example of this is found in Birmingham where the Local Education Authority makes an annual grant of £26,000 to the University in respect of its activities. A condition of the grant is that the University shall maintain Tutorial

classes and appoint lecturers to give evening lectures to adult workers as considered desirable by the Joint Committee of the University and the Workers' Educational Association.

- (c) An annual sum towards the salaries of Full-time Extra-mural Tutors or the cost of an agreed programme of Adult Education. Examples of this method are found in the Counties served by Bristol University Extra-mural Department.
- (ii) Certain Authorities—six Counties and thirteen County Boroughs—pay a block grant to the Workers' Educational Association towards the cost of classes organised in the area. The amounts vary from £10 to £300. In some areas a special grant is paid towards the administrative expenses of the local W.E.A. Districts.
- (iii) Ten Counties make their grants to the County Federation of Women's Institutes in this way, the grants varying from just over £30 to £350.
- (iv) Most Counties, which aid Rural Community Councils, do so in the form of a block grant. The outstanding examples are Gloucestershire, Somerset, Derbyshire, Leicestershire, Lincolnshire (Lindsey), Nottinghamshire and Cheshire. Amounts vary from £100 to £450.
- (v) Certain Local Education Authorities, *e.g.*, Birkenhead, Bristol, Plymouth and York make contributions towards the work of an Educational Settlement in the form of a block grant. Amounts vary between £25 and £80.
- (vi) A few Authorities make block grants to other organisations not mentioned above. Kent, for example, contributes to the English Folk Dance Society; Northumberland to the County Handicrafts Guild; Nottingham to the Y.W.C.A.; Oxfordshire to the Red Triangle Federation, the Country Folk Dance Society and the Union of Village Clubs. In certain County Boroughs the Authority supports the local Literary Society or St. John's Ambulance with a small grant.

(b) *Class Grants*

(i) By far the most common method adopted by Local Education Authorities of paying grants to University Joint Committees and the W.E.A. is the "Class-grant" method. Under the Adult Education Regulations all recognised classes and courses provided by Responsible Bodies earn grant at a fixed rate based on three-quarters of the tutor's salary. There is thus a deficit on each class of course of one-quarter of the tutor's salary. In addition there is the cost of organising the class, hiring the premises, if necessary, and paying incidental expenses. Against this may be set the tuition

fees paid by students. Towards the deficit on each class or course most Local Education Authorities are in the habit of contributing a fixed sum settled according to a schedule. According to our information twenty-six County and forty-two County Borough Authorities make grants in this way in respect of University Tutorial, One-Year or Terminal Courses under Joint Committees and the W.E.A. In a number of cases the rates have not been quoted, but the following Table shows the normal amounts :—

	£25 <i>or</i> <i>over.</i>	£20 <i>or</i> <i>over.</i>	£15 <i>or</i> <i>over.</i>	£10 <i>or</i> <i>over.</i>	£5 <i>or</i> <i>over.</i>	<i>Under</i> £5.
University Tutorial Classes (40 areas)	16	14	7	3	—	—
One Year Courses (29 areas)	—	—	4	18	6	1
Terminal Courses (15 areas)	—	—	—	1	10	4

In addition some Local Education Authorities pay a separate grant to the W.E.A. for administration purposes on a prearranged rate per class or course. Buckinghamshire, for example, pay £1 and Nottinghamshire £2 per class.

(ii) A comparatively few Authorities—seven Counties and the same number of County Boroughs—adopt this method of aiding University Extension Courses. The rates vary between £5 and £25 for a full length Course. As might be expected some Authorities have provided a sliding-scale according to the length of the course—Nottinghamshire, for example, has definite maximum rates for short Extension Courses of six lectures and under six lectures respectively.

(iii) Some Authorities—Leeds, for example—adopt the Class Grant method in aiding Educational Settlements.

(c) Deficiency Grants

(i) Only one or two Authorities use the method of Deficiency Grant in aiding Tutorial and Chapter III classes under University Joint Committees and the W.E.A.

(ii) The method of Deficiency Grant is commonly adopted by L.E.A.'s. in the case of University Extension Courses. According to our information six Counties and eight County Boroughs make their grants in this way. The procedure generally follows one or two lines :—

(a) In some cases the Authority makes itself responsible for meeting the deficiency on each approved course, though it is not unusual for it to place an overriding limit on the amount of deficiency for which it will be liable.

(b) In other cases the Authority co-operates with a Local Extension Lectures Committee and agrees to make up the deficiency on the year's working up to a fixed amount or a fixed percentage of the total.

(iii) The London County Council adopt this method in assessing their aid to the larger Institutions in London such as Morley College, Mary Ward Settlement and Toynbee Hall.

(d) *Financial Responsibility*

(i) Four Authorities take financial responsibility for University Tutorial Classes and sixteen (seven County and nine County Boroughs) for One-Year and Terminal courses. The term may mean either of two things. It may signify that the Authority undertakes all the financial obligations of running the course; or it may mean that it undertakes to pay the salary of the tutor. In most cases it bears the latter interpretation and some Authorities, besides paying the tutor, make a grant for administration to the organising body.

(ii) Ten Authorities (five County and five County Boroughs) assume responsibility for the cost of University Extension Courses.

(iii) Most Authorities in their relations with the County Federation of Women's Institutes make themselves responsible for the teacher's salary. The majority of Local Education Authorities recognise teachers found by the County Federations, who, as a rule, if not fully certificated, have passed a test held by the National Federation of Women's Institutes, which issues a special teaching certificate for certain branches of handicraft. Some Authorities, however, refuse this recognition.

(iv) The relations between Local Education Authorities and the Co-operative Union are of this kind. The Union organises classes in premises supplied by the L.E.A. The classes work according to the Co-operative Union syllabus and take the examination. Teachers are appointed on the recommendation of the Co-operative Union and the Local Education Authority pays their salaries.

(v) Certain Authorities adopt this method in dealing with the Educational Settlements. In Walthamstow the Authority takes financial responsibility for the teaching costs; in Bristol it assumes full financial responsibility for the expenses.

(e) *Aid to Students*

(i) Local Education Authorities, which award scholarships, bursaries or grants to adult students for full-time study, may be divided into three classes :—

(a) Four Authorities—Kent, Lancs., Darlington and Hull—have drawn up formal schemes for the award of one or more scholarships at a University or other approved

Institution. The West Riding of Yorkshire awards one scholarship annually and is also prepared to make one or two special grants to deserving candidates.

- (b) Notts. has a formal scheme for the award of two scholarships tenable at Nottingham University College. Durham and Glamorgan award scholarships annually at Ruskin College. Middlesex and Kent award bursaries annually at Hillcroft.
- (c) Other Authorities are prepared to consider applications for grants tenable at Universities, University Colleges or Residential Colleges. According to our information sixteen Authorities have actually made awards to Universities or University Colleges in recent years; but a number of other Authorities have expressed their readiness to make awards, if called upon to do so. The following information of awards to students at Residential Colleges (other than those referred to in (a) and (b) above) has been supplied to us :—

Avoncroft.—Over a period of seven years awards have been made by six Authorities.

Fircroft.—Over a period of six years awards have been made by eighteen Authorities.

Hillcroft.—Over a period of seven years awards have been made by twenty Authorities.

Ruskin.—Over a period of five years awards have been made by sixteen Authorities.

Coleg Harlech.—Awards have been made by six Welsh Authorities in the one year 1929–30 to students at this College.

- (ii) Ten Authorities have made awards in recent years to summer schools or Vacation Classes.

(f) *Loan of Premises*

According to the information supplied by L.E.A.'s. it would appear that 38 County areas out of a total of 49 are in the habit of letting the Workers' Educational Association or other bodies hold classes and courses in Provided Schools. Of the total of 38, about 18 make no charge whatever; eight stipulate for a remuneration to be paid to the caretaker; four require the expenditure of fuel, light and cleaning to be defrayed; six make a nominal charge of an amount not stated; two make a fixed charge of 1s. 6d. or 1s. 6d.

Of the 79 County Boroughs, 29 report that they allow the use of accommodation in Provided Schools. Of this total 21 make no charge, while the remainder, with one exception, make a purely nominal charge. In the exceptional case it is worth while noting that the high charge of 3s. 6d. per room and 15s. to 50s. for the use of the Hall is made.

APPENDIX II

SCHEME OF CO-OPERATION IN THE COUNTY OF
LEICESTERSHIRE

(1) An autonomous County Committee for Adult Education is set up.

(2) The Committee is constituted as follows :—

Loughborough College	4 representatives.
University College, Leicester	4 ..
University College, Nottingham	4 ..
Leicestershire Local Education Authority	1 representative,

together with 13 representatives of voluntary associations nominated by the East Midland District of the Workers' Educational Association.

The officer responsible for the direction of extra-mural activities at each of the three Colleges is included in each case among the four representatives appointed respectively by the associated Colleges.

(3) The Committee is responsible for the educational supervision of the following types of classes in Leicestershire :—University Tutorial; Preparatory Tutorial; One-Year Classes and Terminal Courses. It is responsible for the appointment and payment of part-time tutors. The academic secretary of the Committee corresponds directly with the Board of Education and grants are paid by the Board and by the Local Education Authority to the Committee for part-time courses, the County Authority being responsible for the appointment and payment of all full-time tutors on the staff of the Adult Education Department of Loughborough College.

The Committee has complete autonomy in the administration of this work in Leicestershire. The University bodies concerned exercise the required academic supervision through the presence of their representatives on the Committee.

(4) In order to provide for the discussion wider problems of adult education and to stimulate work of a pioneer character in addition to formal class work, it is arranged that, in addition to the Joint Committee referred to in paragraph (2) an Area Committee should be established to consist of the representatives mentioned in paragraph (2) together with three additional representatives of the Local Education Authority and three representatives of voluntary associations, other than those nominated through the Workers' Educational Association.

(5) The Administrative centre of the work of the committees is Loughborough College, and the Head of the Department of Adult Education at the College acts as academic secretary to the Committees.

(6) The University bodies concerned (Nottingham and Leicester) are directly responsible for the provision of University Extension Courses, and the new Joint Committee acts in respect of these courses as the Organising Body, not as the Supervising Body. All requests for University Extension courses come through the Leicestershire Joint Committee and are passed on to the University body concerned. The Head of the Department of Adult Education of University College, Nottingham, and the Director of Extra-mural Studies of University College, Leicester, act jointly on the new Joint Committee as Secretaries for University Extension work.

APPENDIX III

COUNTY ORGANISATION UNDER THE BRISTOL
UNIVERSITY EXTRA-MURAL SCHEME*(a) Gloucestershire*

The County Committee is a standing sub-committee of the Gloucestershire Rural Community Council. The Director of Extra-Mural Studies has been elected Chairman, and the Resident Tutor is a member of the committee. The committee consists of representatives of the following bodies, with the addition of H.M. Inspector and certain co-opted members :—

- University of Bristol.
- Gloucestershire Education Committee.
- Workers' Educational Association.
- Gloucestershire Federation of Women's Institutes.
- Y.M.C.A.
- County Union of Teachers.
- British Broadcasting Corporation.
- Forest of Dean Local Committee.
- County Library.

The Gloucestershire Education Committee has made an annual grant of £250 (now reduced to £125) to the Gloucestershire Rural Community Council for its adult educational work. Out of this grant the Community Council pays the Tutorial Classes Committee £100 per annum for the tutor's services, expending the rest of the grant on the fees and expenses of additional lecturers (retaining a small sum to cover administrative costs).

(b) Somerset

The County Committee is a standing sub-committee of the Somerset Rural Community Council. The Director of Extra-Mural Studies has been elected Chairman; the Resident Tutor for the County acts as organising officer, and the Resident Tutor at Street is a member of the Committee which consists of representatives of the following bodies, with the addition of H.M. Inspector and certain co-opted members :—

- University of Bristol.
- Somerset Education Committee.
- Workers' Educational Association.
- Somerset Federation of Women's Institutes.

Young Men's Christian Association.
 Young Women's Christian Association.
 Adult School Union.
 British Legion.
 British Broadcasting Corporation.
 County Library.

The Somerset Education Committee makes an annual grant of £200 to the Somerset Rural Community Council for its adult educational work. Out of this grant the Community Council pays the Tutorial Classes Committee £120 per annum for the tutor's services, expending the rest of the grant on the fees and expenses of additional lecturers.

(c) *Local Scheme at Street (Somerset)*

The local scheme at Street, which includes villages within a radius of 10 miles of that town, is a joint scheme between the Tutorial Classes Committee, the Street Higher Education Committee and the Street Educational Trust. The Resident Tutor is Principal of the Street Technical School. He takes one tutorial class and the rest of his time is given to village work. There is no special local committee. The tutor's salary is refunded to the University by the Street Educational Trust (£350) and the Street Higher Education Committee (£50).

(d) *Wiltshire*

The County Committee is an *ad hoc* committee of which the Director of Extra-Mural Studies has been elected Chairman. The Resident Tutor acts as organising officer. The Committee consists of representatives of the following bodies, with the addition of H.M. Inspector and certain co-opted members :—

University of Bristol.
 Wiltshire Education Committee.
 Workers' Educational Association.
 Wiltshire Federation of Women's Institutes.
 Young Men's Christian Association.
 British Broadcasting Corporation.
 County Library.

The Wiltshire Education Committee makes to the University (Tutorial Classes Committee) an annual grant of £150 towards the tutor's salary and expenses and the cost of additional lectures.

(e) *Dorset*

The County Committee is an *ad hoc* committee of which the Director of Extra-Mural Studies has been elected Chairman. The

Resident Tutor acts as organising officer. The Committee consists of representatives of the following bodies, with the addition of H.M. Inspector and certain co-opted members :—

University of Bristol.

Dorset Education Committee.

Workers' Educational Association.

Dorset Federation of Women's Institutes.

Dorset Rural Community Council.

Young Men's Christian Association.

Association of Elementary Teachers.

Association of Secondary Teachers.

Rovers.

Rangers.

Dorset Association of University Extension Committees.

County Library.

The Dorset Education Committee makes to the University (Tutorial Classes Committee) an annual grant of £60 towards the tutor's salary and expenses and the cost of additional lectures.

APPENDIX IV

STATISTICS OF ADULT CLASSES PROVIDED BY L.E.A.'S. IN ENGLAND (1929-30)

Subject.*	Counties.			County Boroughs.			London.			Total.			Totals.
	In Evg. Insts.	In Tech. Colls.	Outside Evg. Insts. & Tech. Colls.	In Evg. Insts.	In Tech. Colls.	Outside Evg. Insts. & Tech. Colls.	In Evg. Insts.	In Tech. Colls.	Outside Evg. Insts. & Tech. Colls.	In Evg. Insts.	In Tech. Colls.	Outside Evg. Insts. & Tech. Colls.	
1. Economics and Economic History	35	12	44	38	61	5	12	4	4	85	77	53	215
2. Philosophy and Political Science	8	2	12	3	3	5	23	5	—	34	10	17	61
3. Psychology	15	3	12	6	2	2	19	5	2	40	10	16	66
4. Sociology and Anthropology	12	—	31	1	—	1	55	3	—	68	3	32	103
5. History and Literature of Religion	1	—	1	3	—	—	3	1	—	7	1	1	9
6. Literature	147	43	101	102	45	5	180	8	2	429	96	108	633
7. Elocution and Drama	68	5	75	113	47	10	266	40	20	447	92	105	644
8. Languages	211	159	—	346	379	8	354	269	8	911	807	16	1,734
9. Welsh	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
10. History	43	4	47	18	33	3	58	7	6	119	44	56	219
11. Geography	20	4	35	33	42	—	22	5	—	75	51	35	161
12. Science	97	64	17	160	273	4	102	—	—	353	337	21	711
13. Appreciation of Music	23	3	49	27	9	4	53	7	—	103	19	53	175
14. Appreciation of Art and Architecture	1	—	11	8	2	1	53	3	1	62	5	13	80
15. Handicrafts	565	54	79	358	95	1	449	59	7	1,372	208	87	1,667
16. Domestic Arts	2,008	285	291	1,586	478	30	714	289	32	4,308	1,052	353	5,713
17. Home Nursing, Ambulance and Hygiene	494	41	51	154	54	7	280	45	31	928	140	89	1,157
18. Art	147	22	5	94	54	—	49	4	1	290	80	6	376
19. Folk Dancing, etc.	59	6	41	73	4	2	107	34	3	239	44	46	329
20. Music (Vocal and Instrumental)	119	12	12	103	13	2	378	120	15	600	145	29	774
21. Physical Training	188	66	—	211	57	10	564	92	13	963	215	23	1,201
Totals	4,255	785	914	3,437	1,651	100	3,741	1,000	145	11,433	3,436	1,159	16,028
	5,954			5,188			4,886			16,028			

* Subjects numbered 1 to 14 are classed as Academic.

* Subjects numbered 15 to 18 are classed as Practical.

* Subjects numbered

19 to 21 are classed as Recreational.

APPENDIX IV—*contd.*STATISTICS OF ADULT CLASSES PROVIDED BY L.E.A.'S.
IN WALES (1929-30)

Subject.*	Counties.	County Boroughs.	Totals.
1. Economics and Economic History	18	1	19
2. Philosophy and Political Science	1	—	1
3. Psychology	1	2	3
4. Sociology and Anthropology	—	—	—
5. History and Literature of Religion	—	—	—
6. Literature	20	3	23
7. Elocution and Drama ..	3	—	3
8. Languages	117	3	120
9. Welsh	35	5	40
10. History	5	—	5
11. Geography	12	1	13
12. Science	74	3	77
13. Appreciation of Music ..	2	—	2
14. Appreciation of Art and Architecture	—	—	—
15. Handicrafts	314	27	341
16. Domestic Arts	343	82	425
17. Home Nursing, Ambulance and Hygiene	147	23	170
18. Art	30	1	31
19. Folk Dancing, etc.	1	—	1
20. Music (Vocal and Instrumental)	56	7	63
21. Physical Training	8	4	12
Totals	1,187	162	1,349

* Subjects numbered 1 to 14 are classed as Academic.

.. .. . 15 to 18 Practical.

.. .. . 19 to 21 Recreational.

APPENDIX V

 DETAILS OF UNIVERSITY EXTRA-MURAL LIBRARIES
 (1932)

Library.	Total No. of Volumes.	Average additional volumes annually.	Annual sum available for purchase of books.	Remarks.
Birmingham ..	1,226	500 (approx.)	£100	Library has only existed for 3 years.
Bristol	2,500	400	£3 per class	—
Cambridge ..	14,000	400	£100-£200	—
Hull	6,476	Initial stock of 2,025 p.a.	£1,447 for first 3 years; £100-£150 in future.	Library has only existed for 3 years.
Leeds	3,150	Not stated, but 330 in 1930-1.	£2 per class.	—
Leicester .. .	1,250	500 (approx.)	£75-£100	Library has only existed for 3 years.
Liverpool .. .	3,000	120	Not fixed	—
London	15,500	1,000 (approx.)	£750	Suitable and adequate accommodation is being provided in the new University Library building at Bloomsbury where facilities will be given to Class Tutors to examine the available stock personally.
Manchester .. .	1,800	150	No separate grant, but £50 set aside.	—
Nottingham .. .	1,912	Figures for last 3 years: 164, 40, 55.	£80 hitherto, but no amount fixed in future.	Reduction in annual supply due to improvement in arrangements with County and other Libraries.
Oxford	26,144	Not stated	£224	Annual amount was reduced to £160.
Sheffield .. .	2,600	140	£50	—
Southampton ..	130	—	Probably £25	Library only one year old.

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BOARD OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL PAMPHLETS, No. 98

THE
WORK OF JUVENILE
ORGANISATIONS
COMMITTEES

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LONDON

PRINTED AND PUBLISHED BY HIS MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE
To be purchased directly from H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE at the following addresses:
Aldershot House, Kingsway, London, W.C.2; 120, George Street, Edinburgh
York Street, Manchester 1; 1, St. Andrew's Crescent, Cardiff
15, Donegall Square West, Belfast
or through any Bookseller

1933

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Gokhale Institute of Politics
and Economics, Poona 4.

PREFATORY NOTE

This pamphlet has been prepared by the Board of Education Juvenile Organisations Committee as an account of the work that is at present being done by Juvenile Organisations Committees in various parts of the country, and to indicate what in their view are promising lines of development.

The Board have published the report at the Committee's request. They believe that it will be of special interest to all those who are concerned with welfare work among young people.

THE WORK OF JUVENILE ORGANISATIONS COMMITTEES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Seventeen years have passed since the Home Secretary formed the Central Juvenile Organisations Committee, in the hope that by cooperation among the voluntary bodies concerned with welfare work amongst juveniles something might be done to stem the tide of juvenile delinquency that seemed during the war to be rising throughout the country. The Central Committee soon found that to make their work effective something more than cooperation between national organisations was required, and they therefore set to work to encourage the formation of Local Committees whose functions would be to co-ordinate and stimulate the work of the various juvenile welfare units in their several areas.

Gradually a wider conception of the functions and possible sphere of usefulness of Juvenile Organisations Committees began to appear, and the original emphasis on the prevention of juvenile delinquency became less and less marked. It was realised that the most satisfactory way of achieving even that limited object would be to concentrate on the extension of the positive social and educational work of the existing juvenile organisations, and on forging stronger ties between these voluntary organisations and the schools, the Education Authorities, the After-care Committees and similar statutory bodies.

The essential relationship between the work of the Juvenile Organisations Committees and the work of the Education Authorities was brought into prominence by the passing of the Education Act, 1918, which emphasised in many of its provisions the importance of the continuance of education after the elementary school stage, and the value of extra-mural activities, particularly in regard

to social and physical training, in the inculcation of that informed and habitual spirit of citizenship which is the aim of all education.

Accordingly, in 1918, the Central Committee was transferred from the ægis of the Home Office to act as an advisory committee to the Board of Education. At the same time Local Education Authorities were encouraged by the Board (in Circular 1137, and later in Circulars 1338 and 1356) to take the local Juvenile Organisations Committees into consultation, and to regard them as local advisory committees on juvenile welfare work, standing in the same relation to the Local Education Authority as the Central Committee does to the Board of Education.

During the vicissitudes of the years immediately following the war, and owing largely to the fact that the bringing into operation of those sections of the 1918 Education Act dealing with continuation schools was postponed, the work of the Central Committee, and to some extent of the Local Committees also, was interrupted for some years. In 1924 it was taken in hand again. Progress at first was slow, but a fresh stimulus was provided by the Conference of all Juvenile Organisations Committees in 1928, which made it clear that the representatives of national and local organisations were deeply impressed with the value of the work already being done, and with the possibilities which the movement contained. Since then the Central Committee has been reconstituted so as to be more representative of Public Bodies, National Voluntary Associations and local Juvenile Organisations Committees while retaining the co-operation of many private individuals of experience and knowledge of juvenile welfare work. The development of the local Juvenile Organisations Committees in many localities is also proceeding apace.

That such development is needed no one who observes the trend of the times will be disposed to question. The young people who are unemployed are in great danger—which it is to be feared many have not succeeded in

escaping—of a slackening of physical and mental fibre, as the result of want of employment for mind and body. In any case, it seems clear that one of the greatest problems of this century for employed and unemployed alike is the right use of the abundant leisure which the use of machinery is bestowing upon them.

The work of the voluntary bodies concerned with welfare work amongst juveniles is thus becoming of increasing importance and fortunately the larger organisations, at any rate, have shown no disposition to be weary of well-doing. Rather have they interpreted the signs of the times as a call to them for fresh vigour in their work. It is significant that during the six years from 1924 to 1930 the membership of the half-dozen leading organisations affiliated to the Board of Education Juvenile Organisations Committee increased by over 50 per cent. in the case of boys and nearly 100 per cent. in the case of girls. And this increase was not merely the enlargement of one organisation at the expense of another; all of them were able to show progress of approximately the same order. At the same time it must be admitted that this development has not been sufficient, and that further effort, further expansion of existing activities and constant creation of new lines of development are needed if the voluntary organisations are to fulfil their purpose of ensuring that every boy and every girl is guided into right ways of life and proper modes of thought.

During the 17 years for which Local Committees have been in existence there has been a very great variety in the extent and nature of the work done. At the present time, when the need for extension of Juvenile Organisations Committee work is so obvious, the Central Committee felt that it would be of service to compile a description, brief but comprehensive, of the kind of work undertaken by Local Committees, arranged under different categories; in fact, to pool the experience of all the Committees throughout the country. To that end they have obtained from

each Local Committee accounts of its work, and from this a general survey has been made. Possibly many Committees will find that nine-tenths of what is here described is already known to them, but it is hoped that they will consider the time spent on these notes well bestowed if they find the remaining one-tenth of value in furnishing them with hints of new lines of activity upon which to embark, or for the expansion of work which they already undertake. It is hoped, too, that Committees faced with special difficulties may derive encouragement and assistance in seeing how other Committees have been faced with the same difficulties, and the means that have been tried to overcome them.

In the description of the various activities, a number of local Juvenile Organisations Committees have been mentioned by name. It should, however, be understood that such reference is not intended to imply that other Committees are not performing similar functions; to have made this account comprehensive in that respect would indeed have necessitated a much more bulky, and probably unreadable, document. The inclusion of a particular name merely means that the activity in question was stressed in the replies to the Questionnaire which the Central Committee circulated.

The notes are of necessity brief and condensed and so only convey a broad outline. No doubt, however, the experience of Committees in similar lines of activity will enable them to fill in the details for themselves. If additional information is desired on any particular point, the Secretary of the Central Committee will be glad to supply it or to put the Local Committee into touch with those who have actually undertaken the work.

CHAPTER II

AIMS AND OBJECTS

The object aimed at in the formation of local Juvenile Organisations Committees is to bring together in each district representatives of juvenile organisations, social workers and others concerned with welfare work among young people, in the expectation that by this joining of forces the effectiveness of all the organisations acting together will be considerably greater than the sum of their comparatively unrelated individual efforts. The particular means by which this end can be attained are various.

In the first place, the Committees form common meeting grounds where problems affecting all juvenile organisations can be discussed in the light of the experience gained by each organisation in its own special method of attack, and suggestions made for improved methods of work. It is difficult to say how far this function is already realised in practice, but there is good reason to believe that considerable scope exists for development, and that the benefits to be derived from discussion and from the formation of a pool of experience and ideas are far from being fully obtained.

Secondly, out of discussion of common problems, common action naturally arises. For common action in connection with the arrangements for a display or the formation of games leagues, the Committees are the most natural channel of cooperation, and there are, in fact, few which do not undertake work of this kind. But it seems that the Committees are not always used for other equally important forms of cooperation which might well be carried further than they are at present.

Again, little use appears so far to have been made of the potentialities of the Committees as expressing the common voice of the constituent organisations. Individual organisations can turn to their national organisations when they

desire to make themselves heard regarding national questions. The Juvenile Organisations Committee is the appropriate channel for making their united views effective in matters of local concern ; it provides a means of expressing the consensus of opinion of the organisations, and is well fitted to approach the local government bodies. Some Committees have in fact made representations to local councils in matters affecting the interests of juveniles, and have had the satisfaction of seeing that their representations have been given the full consideration to which they were entitled.

In the third place, the Committees, being representative of all kinds of voluntary effort, should have available complete information on the extent, distribution and nature of the voluntary work already carried on throughout the district. Being thus able to take a general view of the juvenile work in their area, they are consequently in a position to ascertain where there is the greatest need for development, where fresh effort should be applied and what precise form that effort should take. In other words, the Juvenile Organisations Committees are fitted to act as a common council in which the various organisations can visualise their problems as a whole, and are consequently able to plan their work with due regard not only to their own individual circumstances, but also to the circumstances of other organisations and the needs of the district.

The second and equally important function of a Juvenile Organisations Committee is to act as a link between the voluntary bodies engaged in juvenile welfare work and the local government authorities.

On the one hand, it is obviously important that juvenile organisations should already be in touch with young people during the critical period when they have just left school, and are for the first time left to their own devices without the steadying influence of school discipline, but are still impressionable enough to be ready to follow the

guidance of sympathetic leaders who can win their confidence. Organisations should therefore get into touch with young people if at all possible as soon as they leave school, or even during their last year of school attendance. This they are being enabled to do through the medium of the school teachers, the Education Authorities and the After-Care Committees. On the other hand, the voluntary bodies have a wealth of experience of, and a method of approach to, the juvenile mind which is of the utmost value to the statutory bodies in their ever increasing concern with the after-welfare of school leavers.

The Education Act of 1921, recognising the value of social and physical training in the well-being of young people, gave Local Education Authorities power (Section 86) to "supply or aid the supply" of such training. Aiding the supply usually takes the form of assistance to voluntary organisations, but the direction of this assistance among the various kinds of these organisations, doing work of very different nature in different localities, and, in many cases, not very well known to the general public, might well have proved a very difficult task. The Juvenile Organisations Committees however, representing all kinds of voluntary work, are able to act on behalf of their constituent bodies with the Local Education Authorities, advising the latter as to the application of their aid and on all matters concerning juvenile organisations. The intimate connection between Juvenile Organisations Committees and the Juvenile Employment and After-Care Committees, arises naturally from the fact that the work of both is largely concerned with the same young people. So intimate, indeed, is the connection, that it is not uncommon to find officers of Juvenile Employment Committees, or the Managers of Juvenile Employment Exchanges acting as secretaries or organisers to the Juvenile Organisations Committees, in which capacity they are able to establish those personal relations with the young people which are important for the fulfilment of their work as employment officers, and at

(3) To act as a link between juvenile organisations and Local Education Authorities (and other statutory bodies interested), working with them to promote juvenile welfare.

(4) To assist voluntary organisations in the recruitment of leaders and helpers and to act as a clearing house, finding suitable opportunities in juvenile organisations for all persons whose services as leaders are made available.

(5) In general, to carry on activities which are beyond the scope of any single organisation.

CHAPTER III

EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES

It is perhaps only to be expected that in the past the main efforts of Juvenile Organisations Committees have been largely directed towards the provision and supervision of what may broadly be termed "recreational activities," and that the greatest measure of success has been achieved in the field of physical and social training. Experience shows that the surest way of approach to the juvenile mind is by means of sport, or other physical activities. When once a firm contact has been established in this way, it becomes easier to stimulate and retain interest in forms of mental recreation which otherwise might merely repel the young boy or girl who has just left school. In any case, however, the encouragement of the "team instinct" as opposed to the "gang instinct," the development or the preservation of the sense of *esprit de corps*, and the fostering of healthy habits of living and of the right use of leisure have in themselves a social and an educational value which is fundamental to national well-being.

But while the interest of Juvenile Organisations Committees in various forms of physical recreation looms large in the picture of the work that is being done, the more specifically educational and moral aspects of the work and the organisation of activities which may be classed together under the heading of educational activities have not been neglected.

It is indeed one of the special virtues of the work done by Juvenile Organisations Committees that its educational aspects, while fundamental to and permeating the whole, do not as a rule present themselves to the eye of the observer as among the prime objects of the movement. But for this reason it is difficult in a short account such as this to describe in adequate fashion the large amount of educational work that is being done. In this chapter, therefore, only those activities that are most clearly related to the organised

system and institutions of public education are mentioned ; reference to some of the others will be found in later chapters in connection with the social and recreational activities of Juvenile Organisations Committees.

Evening Classes

Most Juvenile Organisations Committees actively co-operate with the Local Education Authorities in persuading young people to attend Evening Institutes and other courses of further education. In a few cases such attendance is a condition of admission to the Leagues and other social and recreational activities organised by the Juvenile Organisations Committee. In others, as, for example, in Oxfordshire, the Local Education Authority's arrangements for evening instruction have been worked out in consultation with the Juvenile Organisations Committee, and the voluntary organisations represented thereon, so as to suit the particular needs of the juvenile mind in the districts concerned. In many cases special courses are arranged by Local Education Authorities for the members of particular juvenile organisations. Sometimes these courses are given in the Evening Institutes, but quite often they are organised as part of the ordinary club work and are conducted in the premises of the club itself. Thus the London Joint Council have special arrangements with the London County Council whereby any juvenile organisation can be affiliated to L.C.C. Evening Institutes. L.C.C. teachers may be obtained for club classes in all subjects and these classes may be held either at the evening institutes or at the clubs themselves. It is understood that the facilities are widely used by juvenile organisations. Similar arrangements are in force at Bristol, Leyton, Portsmouth, Southampton and other places.

Many Juvenile Organisations Committees have the services of organisers or "Visitors" who call on the parents of elementary school leavers or of young persons who are unemployed or partially employed and persuade them to

encourage their children to join one or other of the voluntary organisations in the district and to attend evening classes. Usually, as at Bradford, the Visitor is also a member of some of the Juvenile Employment District Committees, or an officer of the Juvenile Advisory Committee, and great advantage is derived from this duality of function.

Arts and Crafts

Many Committees encourage singing and dramatic work, and incidentally find this of great value when indoor displays are given for propaganda or for the raising of funds. One Committee organises a Folk Dancing Festival, another conducts every year a very successful Musical Festival, while a large number include singing, elocution, hobbies, handwork, craft work, and so on among their subjects for competition. Others own cinema equipment, or lanterns, and arrange for travel talks and popular lectures in the evenings in school halls and other buildings. Although the comparatively limited or less immediate appeal of this type of work may make some committees hesitate to take the initiative, it is to be hoped they will not neglect to organise such activities wherever there appears to be any possibility of success; and that they will not refuse at any rate to hold out a helping hand to, say, a struggling dramatic or some kindred society.

Dramatic Societies

Drama does not on the whole appear to take a very prominent place in the activities in which Juvenile Organisations Committees are interested. In several cases, however, Dramatic Societies have given valuable assistance in raising funds, and their work is of course admirably suited to participation in displays, exhibitions, and other co-operative efforts to interest the public in the work of juvenile organisations. Besides the somewhat limited utilitarian reasons for encouraging such societies, however, there is also the fact

that their activities have an educational and recreative value of a very high order. The practising and rehearsing of a play is a business requiring the most intense activity, and is therefore an extremely happy time—although the participants may not feel so until afterwards. The members of a society producing a play have to learn also the invaluable lesson of cooperation with others to achieve a common end, namely; a successful production; while the reading and choice of plays, the casting of the parts, the training of the actors, the management of the infinite number of details that have to be looked to, provide the members with most useful and interesting experience of that vivid kind which stays in the memory.

Folk Dancing

Although a large number of Juvenile Organisations Committees include Folk Dancing in their displays, it is doubtful whether this stimulating activity receives the attention which it merits in the regular work of juvenile organisations. In a report (Educational Pamphlet No. 55) on Music, Art and Crafts in Training Colleges it is said :

“The influence for good of the Folk Song and Folk Dance has been incalculable. Folk music has sent the winds of Heaven through the Colleges. Its simplicity and naturalness give a never-failing criterion. It has probably been the main factor in raising the level of taste in the Colleges”.

CHAPTER IV

RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES

Playing Fields

The usual difficulty in the way of providing for physical recreation is the lack of grounds. Accordingly, Committees have set themselves to augment the provision of Playing Fields open to young people's organisations. Many Committees rent or lease pieces of ground suitable for the purpose, and allow affiliated organisations to use them, either entirely free or at a reduced rate. A number, such as Liverpool, Middlesbrough and Northampton, have been able to raise enough money by public subscription, or otherwise, to buy land, Liverpool having attained the possession of no less than 100 acres and Middlesbrough of 20 acres of playing fields.

In addition to providing more Playing Fields, Committees have been able to arrange with Local Authorities for a reduction of their charges to be made to Juvenile Organisations for the use of pitches in public parks and recreation grounds, the cost of which is sometimes prohibitive unless special concessions are made: no juvenile organisation could be expected, for example, to pay £1 a match for a pitch, which is the charge made by one Authority. In a number of instances the public authority have leased a ground, or handed it over at a nominal rent to the Juvenile Organisations Committee which thus in effect administers it; while in one case the Juvenile Organisations Committee administers a 10-acre playing field for the local branch of the National Playing Fields Association.

Some committees have been able to obtain the use of school playing fields when these are not required by the school. One committee has induced Senior Football and even Cricket Clubs to give the use of their ground; the difficulty here is to induce the Senior Clubs to give the proposal a trial; once they are assured that their ground will be properly looked after, no objections are likely to

be made. It is not uncommon for a Senior Football Club to lend its ground gratis for an important match (e.g., between teams representative of different districts).

Net-ball courts can be more easily supplied than football and cricket pitches. A common practice is to obtain from the Local Education Authority permission to use school playgrounds on Saturday afternoons for this purpose, the playgrounds often being already equipped and marked for the game. Courts can also be very easily provided in the ordinary playing field, as they take up very little space. Wherever introduced, Net-ball Leagues appear to have been exceedingly popular, showing how great the demand is among girls for a game of this kind. As less attention is generally paid to girls' games than to boys' games in voluntary organisations, there is probably even more need for them, and committees should not overlook this fact when arranging for the allocation of grounds, or the organisation of leagues. It should also be remembered that cricket must now be included among the games favoured by girls.

The popularity of Tennis is so well known as to require no elaboration here, but the fact that Rounders and Badminton have also attracted a considerable following wherever they have been introduced is worthy of special comment. The equipment required for Rounders, in particular, is so unambitious that an effort on the part of juvenile organisations to break down the impression, which still persists in the minds of many young people, that Rounders is only "a kid's game" would be well repaid. Generally, it may be said that every encouragement should be given to those games which require but a small space. Stool-ball, which is popular in Sussex and Kent, is another example of this kind of game.

In one or two cases the Juvenile Organisations Committee have provided huts for use as dressing room accommodation on fields which are leased or owned by them. Committees will sometimes be faced with a choice between

spending money on an object such as this and extending, say, the provision of playing fields, and only local conditions can determine the choice. In some circumstances the need for changing accommodation on the field may be so great as to outweigh even the need for extending the playing field provision.

Under this head may also be mentioned, though it scarcely concerns playing fields, the steps taken to improve facilities for Swimming among juvenile organisations. Generally, this takes the form of arranging for young people to be admitted to the public baths at reduced charges. One Juvenile Organisations Committee buys blocks of tickets from the Baths Committee and distributes them at a reduced rate to members of affiliated organisations, part of the difference between the reduced rate and the full rate being made up to the Baths Committee by the Juvenile Organisations Committee from its funds. Another Committee hires the Corporation Bath for certain periods and admits juveniles at prices about half the standard rate. In other cases Committees have arranged for the Public Baths to be reserved at certain times for their members. One Committee even obtained the use of a school bath on two evenings a week for its members.

The Birmingham Committee advise that it is essential for Juvenile Organisations Committees promoting competitions in various branches of sport to secure affiliation to the local governing bodies of the sport. It will then be found that provided efficient organisation and administration is proved, the governing bodies will regard the Juvenile Organisations Committee as being the proper body to organise competitions for juveniles and will grant special facilities and terms.

Leagues

After the provision of Playing Fields comes the question whether they are being used to the best advantage. The question of the lay-out, and care of playing fields is too

wide a subject for inclusion here. Reference should be made to the publications of the National Playing Fields Association and to the pamphlet on School Playing Fields, issued by the Board of Education after consultation with that Association (Educational Pamphlet, No. 80). In some cases, however, full use may not be made of the grounds that are actually available owing to lack of arrangements for playing matches, or to want of organisation in particular teams. In such cases the Juvenile Organisations Committee steps in to organise leagues, for which a nucleus at least can always be obtained by encouraging the formation of teams from organisations already affiliated, and arranging for games between them. In some districts and in some games, of course, strong and well-organised leagues already exist, in which case the Juvenile Organisations Committee does not trouble to enter the field. Even in the most favoured areas, however, it sometimes happens that some particular game is not well catered for, or some section of the community is unable to take part in the existing leagues; for example, boys' games may flourish, while perhaps nothing is done for girls' games. Interesting experiments which might be copied widely are a mid-week league for shop assistants, and a mid-week league for unemployed youths under 21 years of age. In some cases it has been found that schools are able to offer mid-week facilities in the use of their playing fields. Generally, Committees survey their district to see whether the existing leagues, if any, cater properly for all sections, and then step in to fill any gap they may find.

Football Leagues are commonly organised by Juvenile Organisations Committees some of which find it necessary to run two or three different leagues, e.g. for players of different ages. Net-ball Leagues are perhaps next in popularity, with Cricket and Hockey coming after, while quite a number of Committees have Boxing Leagues and Swimming Leagues and in the north country Rounders

Leagues are coming into prominence. One Committee organises a Stool-ball League for girls. In one or two cases leagues for indoor games also exist.

It is uncertain whether all Committees arrange for referees in matches played in these Leagues, but any Committees which do not do so should consider the matter. Besides ensuring the orderliness of the games the appointment of a referee makes the players feel that a genuine and active interest is taken by the Committee in the games. It has been found too, in one mining district, that well organised Leagues with properly appointed referees and a strong discipline Committee, worked wonders in raising the tone and discipline of the boys participating.

Training for Games

An interesting arrangement has been made in Kent to improve the play of the various organisations. Prominent sportsmen, both professionals and amateurs, have agreed to go round the playing fields, without previous notice, to give advice to the teams playing there. It is understood that so far the arrangement has proved highly successful.

Physical Training

Many of the Clubs run by Juvenile Organisations Committees concentrate on physical training by means of gymnasium classes and are, in effect physical training clubs. In other cases Committees hire or otherwise provide halls, fit them up as gymnasia and run classes in them. Practice varies as to the method in this case, since some Juvenile Organisations Committees apparently recruit for these classes anyone who cares to join, while others allot different evenings to different affiliated clubs or organisations, who attend for instruction as units. Sunderland obtained the loan of a hut from the Local Education Authority, equipped it as a gymnasium and let it at a low rate (the cost of heating and lighting) to Juvenile Organisations. Stockport have an arrangement with the Stockport

Harriers to take a section of Juvenile Organisations Committee boys and train them, while similar arrangements are made with the Stockport A.S.A. with regard to swimming instruction for young people associated with the Juvenile Organisations Committee.

It is not uncommon, too, for the services of Physical Training Instructors to be made available, either by Juvenile Organisations Committees or by Local Education Authorities, to clubs which desire them. In Sunderland the Local Education Authority's Physical Training Instructors are members of the Juvenile Organisations Committee Executive, and in Manchester the Local Education Authority's Instructors lecture on the subject and act as judges in physical training competitions organised for juvenile organisations. Instruction in swimming is also provided on similar lines by Juvenile Organisations Committees. In one instance instruction and demonstrations in tennis playing are available for girls.

In some cases classes are held for the instruction of club and other leaders in physical training. This could be very valuable work but requires a fairly prolonged course, with periodical revision, in order to reach and maintain a reasonably high standard of proficiency on the part of the leaders.

It may be mentioned here that the National Council of Girls' Clubs have in their service two organising instructresses of Physical Training whose work consists of organising courses and giving occasional classes in connection with Girls' Clubs. The services of these instructresses are available to units not members of the National Council on payment of a small fee.

CHAPTER V

SOCIAL ACTIVITIES

Clubs

A large number of Juvenile Organisations Committees, finding that in certain parts of their area, or possibly over the whole district, the number of voluntary bodies working among juveniles was inadequate for the needs, have themselves stepped into the breach.

Usually, of course, the pressing need is in respect of young people approaching the age of 18 and in many cases unemployed. For these the activities of the Scouts, Brigades, Guides and similar organisations, being designed primarily for younger people, are not specially adapted. Probably the best provision in these circumstances is a recreational and occupational club. Last year Plymouth ran a club of this kind for unemployed juveniles with conspicuous success and no doubt there are a number of other examples.

In the past therefore, the action of Juvenile Organisations Committees has generally taken the form of starting boys' or girls' clubs, open on several evenings a week, and frequently with physical training and gymnastics prominent among the activities. At Barrow-in-Furness the Juvenile Organisations Committee have as part of their Headquarters a Central Hall and gymnasium in which a club is run every evening, with a very large membership. Latterly the club has opened in the afternoons for unemployed boys and has proved very successful indeed. The difficulty of opening a club in the afternoons is, of course, that voluntary help is seldom available. This difficulty can be overcome where the Committee employ a full-time organiser while in other cases something might be done to enlist the services of an unemployed man, if it were possible to find a suitable person.

Practice as to the management of clubs varies. Some Committees, having formed clubs, withdraw control when they have become self-supporting, or else transfer the

immediate connection to the appropriate Organisation (e.g. The Federation of Boys' Clubs) in the locality. In some cases as e.g. in a district where unemployment is particularly severe, it is scarcely to be expected that clubs should be entirely self-supporting, and in that event the Committee must of necessity continue its connection. The ultimate object in all cases, however, should be to make the club self-governing and self-supporting. In all cases, too, the club should be encouraged to affiliate to the appropriate national organisation (e.g., the National Association of Boys' Clubs or the National Council of Girls' Clubs) through the appropriate local union, if there is one.

In this connection an administrative question of some importance arises. The fact that the younger juveniles are usually well catered for by the large organisations of Brigades, Scouts, Guides, etc., has naturally meant that the developments undertaken or stimulated by Juvenile Organisations Committees have usually been on club lines. Thus, not only have individual clubs been started or controlled by Juvenile Organisations Committees as noted above ; in some cases the committees have functioned as a local federation of clubs rather than as a committee representative of all organisations. Where such a local federation does not exist, there is of course good reason why the Juvenile Organisations Committees should use its influence and even take the initiative in bringing about the necessary local co-operation ; several committees, e.g., Southampton, Swindon, West Ham have done very useful work in this way. But the fact that the functions of a Juvenile Organisations Committee are wider than those of a local federation of clubs should always be borne in mind.

Again, there are circumstances where there may be need for the establishment of new units of every kind. A particular example is to be found on new housing estates. Families are being moved from overcrowded districts, where juvenile associations are usually concentrated, to the

outskirts where, as yet, nothing of this kind is provided. So far as present information goes, however, few units have actually been started on new housing estates. Examples to the contrary are to be found in Liverpool and in the Kent mining areas, while a number of Committees have in mind the possibility that a need may develop, and are keeping a watch on the situation in their particular districts.

One of the great problems of a mass of young people whose homes are cramped and overcrowded is how to occupy their leisure on Sunday evening. The usual resorts of amusement are closed, and a restless spirit, not to mention the discomfort of an overcrowded house, drives them into the street. One Juvenile Organisations Committee made a very interesting experiment towards the solution of this problem; they hired a hall, provided music, periodicals, facilities for some games and for obtaining refreshments, and opened the hall on Sunday evenings. The first season of the experiment was remarkably successful, though legal difficulties, owing to the fact that 2d. was charged for admission, led to its being abandoned, for the time being. Another Juvenile Organisations Committee also opened a club for Sunday evenings but it became so popular that it proved impossible to carry on in the premises used, and the club was given up until more commodious rooms could be obtained.

Old Scholars Clubs

The useful work which Old Scholars Clubs have been doing in unostentatious fashion for so many years has not been fully realised by Juvenile Organisations Committees in the past, and their importance as a branch of juvenile welfare work has not been recognised as it should have been. With the development, however, of the new ideas in educational organisation clubs run in connection with schools, and particularly senior schools and secondary schools, have been increasing steadily in numbers, in influence and in breadth of vision.

They are run by teachers, school managers and old scholars : some of whom are themselves parents. Sometimes a Parents Association is an offshoot of the Old Scholars Club. These older members take a keen interest and give substantial service in all that concerns the activities of past and present scholars ; some of them are the stuff of which leaders are made, and here perhaps is an untapped source from which to draw leaders for other organisations. To Old Scholars Clubs other organisations sometimes turn for recruits and when boys and girls pass to other towns and villages their Old School Club can see to it that they are introduced to the right organisation.

The Clubs enjoy unique opportunities for getting hold and keeping hold of the " awkward " boys and girls as well as of those who merely join to retain a share in school sports. Some of them are specially helpful in finding the right job for the restless adolescent. At holiday times and on early closing days it is not unusual for members to come back for matches with present scholars and there is now a chance of extending this intercourse in other ways, e.g., in dramatic work, in Folk Dancing and in Natural History. Not only will this be good for past scholars, but also for the children in the upper classes of the schools who, in course of time, would automatically pass into the Old Scholars Clubs on leaving school. The new senior schools with their better organisation, premises, playgrounds and workshops are giving opportunities for which many teachers have long waited and a great push forward in work among adolescents might, therefore, reasonably be expected as a result of the reorganisation of schools which is taking place on the lines recommended in the Hadow Report.

Another question of vast importance to the village life of England is bound up with this policy of reorganisation of schools. Rural children are now being taken to senior schools in large villages and in towns and, leaving their own small village school behind them, they are being

brought into close contact with other boys and girls of their own age, and are learning as never before what the team-spirit means, what self-government means. It is hoped that they will carry back this spirit to their own villages, but there is the danger that they will, on the other hand, forget their own village and associate themselves too closely with town life. This must be prevented, and it can be prevented if the right machinery is set up, if the village spirit is cultivated by arranging that children from the same village are united as a team in the senior school competitions, and if the teachers and managers of village schools will co-operate in making it easy for their old scholars to use the old village school as a centre, welcoming them at all times and still claiming them as members. If each village has its Old Scholars Club with a junior branch consisting of the children of 11+ who are still at school in the towns, there seems to be no reason why the school reorganisations should not revivify village life instead of denuding it of many of its best features. The village club could be run by the older members and should be backed by village folk, including the village teacher, the parson, the squire and the managers. It could become as useful an institution as the Women's Institutes which have introduced new life amongst the women in the villages. The young members who are still at school in the towns could arrange to give simple displays of the things which they are learning in the larger school and could introduce new games and new competitions for the benefit of the older members.

In this respect, then, we are faced with the same problem that has always beset juvenile welfare work even in the towns. The mistake has been made of losing the children at the end of their school life and trying to catch them again later. It is becoming ever more clear that contact between juvenile organisations and the young people must be made in the school and not out of it, and that contact

must be continued right through the early period of adolescence. The Old Scholars Club is one way of making the contact continuous and certain.

As an example of the encouragement given to Old Scholars Clubs by a Local Education Authority, the experiment inaugurated in Staffordshire in 1920 may be mentioned.

The County Education Committee, having experienced great difficulty in keeping in touch with old scholars by means of After-Care Committees, decided to experiment along the lines of forming clubs for old scholars of both sexes. They granted the free use of schools for the purpose, subject to the observance of certain conditions; they paid school caretakers additional allowances, not exceeding 1s. 6d. per evening, for services in connection with club meetings; and they made a grant of 25 per cent. towards the initial expense incurred in the purchase of equipment.

The scheme was taken up enthusiastically by public-spirited people all over the county, and especially by the teachers in the schools who saw in it a unique opportunity for strengthening the ties of affection between them and their old scholars. It has proved a complete success.

In the main, membership was restricted to those who had passed through the school around which the club was formed. But the only conditions laid down by the Education Authority were

- (a) that the clubs must be self-governing,
- (b) that in principle they must be self-supporting,
- (c) that they must be entirely undenominational in character and open to all old scholars between the ages of 14 and 18.

Camping

Several Committees maintain more or less permanent camps. Middlesbrough have a holiday camp at Marske, with permanent Headquarters, through which a thousand

children pass each season. Bristol organise a standing camp from May to September, with occasional week-end camps beyond that period, while Hendon have five acres of land (allotted by the District Council) at Moat Mount, on which a permanent Headquarters' hut has been erected, the land being available free of charge for the use of affiliated organisations. At Plymouth the organisation of camping facilities has been undertaken on a somewhat large scale. Two camps are run throughout the summer months, one at Maker capable of accommodating 200 of one sex at a time and the other from 40 to 45. Schools as well as juvenile organisations take advantage of the facilities offered. At Barrow-in-Furness a week-end camp, with equipment and adult supervision, is maintained. Portsmouth Juvenile Organisations Committee administer a permanent camp, which is owned by the local Rotary Club. For the use of this camp 1s. per head per night is charged; the camp is said to be used more by girls' than by boys' organisations. Cardiff Juvenile Organisations Committee organise a summer camp, taking 300 children at a time. In West Ham the Juvenile Organisations Committee organise week-end camps in Hainault Forest, leaving the arrangement of summer camps to the individual organisations. Another notable development in camping is seen at Brighton and Hove, where the Committee organise a camp which is attended both by working boys and by boys from public schools. The 60 acres of land which is leased by this Committee is available also for ordinary camps organised by the affiliated organisations.

One or two Committees, apparently considering that there is a greater demand for camps among girls than among boys, organise camps for girls only. The London Joint Council, incidentally, besides organising a camp for girls, organise also a camp for leaders of girls' organisations, which suggests a useful way of providing practical camping instruction where there is likely to be most need of it, as well as a course of a more general kind in leadership.

In addition, a number of Committees who do not organise camps (as well as some who do) possess camping equipment, which can be hired out cheaply to affiliated organisations. One Committee find they can hire out bell tents at the rate of 1s. a night each, this charge being just sufficient to cover repairs and replacements.

Mention should be made at this point of the arrangements made by the Central Committee with the War Office for the loan of camping equipment to approved juvenile organisations. A charge has to be made to cover the cost of depreciation and handling of the equipment, since the War Office have no power to bear any part of the cost of the scheme out of monies voted by Parliament. This charge has appeared high to some organisations, but in actual practice it has been found to be less than that made by contractors for similar services, especially when regard is had to the quality of the equipment issued.

The scheme is as yet only in an experimental stage and so far only two Juvenile Organisations Committees as such have taken advantage of it. The fact, however, that in 1931, the first year of the scheme when the charges were higher than they are now, equipment was drawn by various voluntary organisations for over 13,000 camper-weeks (i.e. number of campers multiplied by number of weeks of camp) seems to indicate that a useful purpose is being served. Full details of the scales of equipment on which the issue is made and of the conditions governing the loan will be furnished on application to the Secretary of the Board of Education Juvenile Organisations Committee.

Play Centres

Play Centres are not exactly in the direct line of Juvenile Organisations Committee activities, but Committees have been able to render valuable assistance in this work by providing helpers. Many Local Education Authorities run Play Centres in poor districts for children of school age. " These centres provide after school hours, and in some cases on

Saturdays and during holidays, for the recreation and physical welfare of children under adequate supervision, and are usually conducted in the premises of public elementary schools or in the summer in the school playgrounds or in recreation grounds. During 1931-32, 188 centres with a total average attendance of 47,719 children were conducted by 35 local authorities and 110 centres with a total average attendance of about 19,300 children were conducted by 23 voluntary bodies".*

One of the difficulties that has stood in the way of a more rapid extension of play centres has been the need for assistance in running them, as well as the fact that if they are conducted entirely by paid helpers the cost is higher than many authorities are prepared to face. Juvenile Organisations Committees have an opportunity here of meeting a very definite need by arranging for the more responsible of the members of their affiliated organisations to act as helpers in play centre work. At the same time a properly organised scheme of assistance might be found to be of service as a preliminary training for youth leadership, the first requirement of which is the development of a sense of social responsibility and the cultivation of *savoir faire*. Moreover, here is an opportunity of social service by the young people themselves to their younger brothers and sisters. The opportunity of giving something of themselves to others is a valuable training in citizenship.

At present, unfortunately, there is little to record of the activities of Juvenile Organisations Committees in this direction. Bradford and Wakefield obtain workers for Play Centres run by the Local Education Authorities (in the latter case the Juvenile Organisations Committee started the Centres, the Local Education Authority afterwards taking them over). Cardiff, at the request of the Local Education Authority, organised a Centre in a slum area with very successful results. Brighton and Hove run two centres, receiving a grant from both the Brighton

* The Annual Report of the Board of Education, 1932.

and the Hove Local Education Authorities in aid of their work generally, while Middlesbrough also receive a grant for their work in running five Centres.

Displays, Exhibitions and Competitions

Displays and Exhibitions form a valuable means used by most Juvenile Organisations Committees for the furthering of their work by propaganda ; incidentally they also provide a useful supplement to the funds of the Committees, and in many cases serve as a focus for the year's work of activities (such as athletics) in which Leagues are scarcely practicable. A combined display or exhibition organised by a Juvenile Organisations Committee, in which all the affiliated organisations take part, also serves as a rallying point for the various organisations. Joint rallies such as those organised each year at Cardiff and at Brighton and Hove form excellent occasions for developing the spirit of cooperation among the units and among the individual members. Displays lend themselves particularly well to the kind of work done by the Boys' Brigade, Guides and Scouts, who can give Exhibitions of the most spectacular of their activities. Sometimes a display of work can be combined with an Annual Sports Day to provide a varied and attractive programme. Generally speaking, however, such a combination is undesirable on account of the extra strain on the young people taking part. At intervals during the winter months Hendon Juvenile Organisations Committee organise entertainments in schools, the programme consisting of displays of work done by organisations (e.g. Girl Guides), short plays and songs. They have also organised a Camp Fire Sing Song and a Historical Pageant, depicting picturesque incidents in the history of the district.

In swimming most Juvenile Organisations Committees hold galas and where there are a number of Boxing Clubs in a district Boxing Tournaments have been held. Inter-Juvenile Organisations Committee football matches have

been arranged, with gratifying results, both financially and otherwise; for such a match one of the local senior clubs can usually be persuaded to lend its ground. For athletics practically all Committees hold Annual Sports.

Unusual lines have been struck out by two southern Committees, one of which organises a Musical Festival, and the other a Folk Dancing Festival. In these matters everything of course depends on local conditions, but it is probable that such Festivals could be much more widely spread as part of juvenile welfare work.

For Exhibitions the favourite subjects appear to be hobbies and handicraft (or arts and crafts)—with side shows of the usual kind as accessories.

Other Competitions are held in conjunction with Hobbies and Handicraft Exhibitions besides those which form the subject of Musical and Folk Dancing Festivals and Annual Sports. Some of the activities which the Committees have found could be stimulated by competition between individuals and organisations are First Aid, Needlework, Music, Nature Collections, while one Committee has included under this head Art, Elocution and Literary subjects. Physical training lends itself particularly well to competition between teams entered from all kinds of organisations.

Other Types of Work

There is also a large amount of work carried out by Juvenile Organisations Committees of a miscellaneous character, which cannot well be classified. In not a few cases, e.g., Manchester, London and Southampton, the Juvenile Organisations Committees have arranged with Local Education Authorities for the latter to provide Instructors or Teachers for various subjects for clubs. The services of Handicraft Instructors are frequently made available in this way, and instruction for folk dancing and country dancing can also be obtained. Shrewsbury have singing and dramatic classes. In some cases the instruction is confined to club leaders who are given a course, e.g., in

Handicraft or Physical Training, with the object of enabling them to instruct others in their clubs in turn.

Under this heading may be mentioned another plan which has been adopted in one or two cases, namely, the giving of lantern or cinematograph lectures or talks on any kind of subject, especially travel and adventure—likely to interest young people. Brighton and Hove possess projectors and lanterns and have given numerous talks in school halls, the use of the halls being given free by the Local Education Authority. In Coventry, where lectures are also given, the audience is composed partly of young people from affiliated organisations and partly of scholars nearing the school leaving age, who are invited as potential recruits to the organisations, advantage being taken of the meeting to do some useful propaganda work for the movement.

In Newcastle, the Juvenile Organisations Committee work is conducted in close connection with the Migration Committee's Boys' Migration Training Hostel. At Sunderland, the Juvenile Organisations Committee experimented with the provision of specially selected cinema programmes for young people, but the experiment was not successful, as the cinema theatres were available for the Committee's experiment only at times unsuitable for ordinary commercial showing.

A number of Committees publish a handbook for the use of workers among young people's organisations. A typical handbook of this kind (which should be distinguished from the small book issued by some Committees to school leavers) contains, besides lists of Juvenile Organisations, with the names and addresses of their officers and remarks on the kind of work done, miscellaneous information likely to be useful to such workers: e.g., some brief notes on the essential points regarding Unemployment and Health Insurance, educational and library facilities, information regarding Juvenile Courts, names of Probation Officers, etc.

The handbook compiled by the Birmingham and the Liverpool Juvenile Organisations Committees are particularly full and informative and it is said that they have proved of immense value to all engaged in social work.

Special surveys have also been made by Juvenile Organisations Committees from time to time. An excellent example of this type of work was the Survey of Children's Cinema Matinees carried out by the Sheffield Juvenile Organisations Committee in November, 1929, and the similar inquiry made by the Liverpool Juvenile Organisations Committee in 1931. Surveys such as this in connection with matters that are having far-reaching effects on the social life of our times are of exceptional value.

In closing this chapter a word of warning should be given. It will be abundantly clear that the scope for a Juvenile Organisations Committee in promoting inter-organisation activities is very wide. It would, however, be unwise for any individual Committee to undertake all, or even a substantial part of, the activities described, as regular features in their annual programme. It should be remembered that the individual organisations have, or should have, a programme of their own. In the cases of Scouts, Guides, Brigades, etc., the scheme of work may be elaborate and exacting, and such organisations, to fulfil the purposes for which they are designed, cannot afford to spend a large amount of time joining in or preparing for inter-organisation competitions.

This is only to say, of course, that when considering their annual programme, the Juvenile Organisations Committee should have regard to the particular characteristics of their constituent organisations. But it is a point that is frequently forgotten with the result that in a number of districts the constituent organisations have been asked to take part in so many joint activities that they have been led to feel that affiliation to a Juvenile Organisations Committee could only result in a stifling of their own corporate life. One or perhaps two joint displays annually with, however, continuous consultation and cooperation in matters of common interest, will often make for a more healthy and helpful Juvenile Organisations Committee than frequent suggestions for joint enterprises.

CHAPTER VI

FINANCE

Local Education Authorities are empowered by Section 86 of the Education Act, 1921, to make arrangements, with the approval of the Board of Education, to supply or maintain or aid the supply or maintenance of facilities for social and physical training in the day or evening.* A substantial portion of the funds supporting Juvenile Organisations Committees comes from Local Education Authority grants—a proportion of which, of course, is met by the Board of Education grant on Local Education Authority expenditure. There are, however, many ways in which these grants are supplemented, and in some cases Committees contrive to perform very useful work with little or no Local Education Authority assistance. Exhibitions, displays, sports, bazaars, dramatic performances, and similar ventures are common sources of revenue. In one or two places the football or cricket side of the work helps, as for example if a big match can be arranged and a charge made for admission; and in at least one instance a tennis tournament provided funds. Private subscriptions also are common; and in one instance no less than £120 was obtained by a local dramatic society who gave performances for the special purpose of raising money for the Juvenile Organisations Committee. In another district the local police force gave the proceeds of a football match. Rotary Clubs and firms have also contributed.

Juvenile Organisations Committees may be accepted by the Inland Revenue Authorities as charitable organisations for the purposes of Finance Acts and Income Tax Acts, subject to the adoption of a suitable form of constitution and to the examination of accounts, where necessary, to ensure that the income is applied in the furtherance of the charitable object, namely, the social, physical, mental and

* The type of person for whom such arrangements may be made is specified in the Section. It is quoted in full in Appendix II.

moral welfare of boys and girls. Their income in these circumstances is free of tax and in addition they may be included in the List of Charities for subscribers to the Subscriptions to Charities—Tax Free Scheme. Under this Scheme subscribers who covenant for a period of seven years, if they live so long, to make a definite subscription to the funds of a charity are exempt from tax on the amount of their subscription.

Some Committees derive a certain amount of income from affiliation fees, but quite a large number charge no fee and affiliation is effected simply by registration. Where a fee is required it is usually in the region of 2s. 6d. ; sometimes 2s. 6d. for each organisation whatever its size, sometimes 2s. 6d. for organisations with, say, less than 50 members and 5s. for those above that number ; occasionally the fee may range from 2s. 6d. to 10s. according to the number of branches or units in the particular organisation. In two districts the fee for each organisation is 1d. per member between the ages of 14 and 18, in one case being paid apparently by the organisation, in the other by the members of the organisations themselves. One Juvenile Organisations Committee has no fixed fee and simply raises funds from the affiliated associations as required for any particular purpose.

In the matter of making grants to constituent organisations the practice differs widely. Some Committees make grants for almost any purpose, including the purchase of equipment, the payment of teachers and instructors, hire of rooms, etc., while others refuse to make grants except for what may be called capital purposes (e.g., equipment) and not for current expenditure. Others again only make loans which must be repaid ; for instance, a loan may be made to a football club for equipment at the beginning of the season and is repaid during the season. A large number on the other hand make no direct grants whatever, believing that the best policy is to use their funds to provide facilities

(such as playing fields) at a low cost or entirely free to youth organisations. In this matter, owing to the great variations in local conditions, variety of practice is only to be expected. In many residential districts there would be little justification for money grants to clubs as the children could reasonably be expected to provide the money themselves. In a distressed area, however, members might be unable to spare even a few pence. Except in such distressed areas, however, it seems preferable to follow the example of those Committees which make no direct grants, and to concentrate on the extension of facilities at a low cost.

There are also considerable variations in the office machinery by which grants are distributed. In some cases the Local Education Authority make a block grant and leave it to the Juvenile Organisations Committee to distribute, requiring only a copy of the annual statement of accounts. In other cases, however, the grants are made direct by the Local Education Authority on the recommendation of the Juvenile Organisations Committee. In one or two instances the City or Borough Treasurer acts as the Treasurer of the Juvenile Organisations Committee. As a rule it seems that applications for grants from individual units to Juvenile Organisations Committees must be submitted through the local headquarters of the units, if they have one.

CHAPTER VII

SOME PROBLEMS

Having touched on the directions in which Committees have turned their efforts, it may now be useful to glance at some of the special problems facing all Committees and see how they have been attacked. First of all come the twin problems of increasing the number of young people enrolled in organisations and of finding a larger number of leaders to run the clubs, troops, companies and other units of these young people.

Recruiting of Members

As regards the first of these, it is generally recognised that (except for organisations which accept young people at the age of 11 or 12) any systematic attempt to enlist recruits is likely to be most profitable amongst school leavers. There the organisations have a definite group of boys and girls to whom their efforts should be directed, and with whom it is comparatively easy to get into touch through the schools. Some remarks on this question have already been made in Chapter V in connection with Old Scholars Clubs. Other methods of contact with school leavers have, however, been tried in the past with varying success.

In many cases meetings of school leavers are addressed by members of the Committee or by the Secretary, or by the Juvenile Employment Officer. The variation of this method adopted in London seems likely to be particularly effective: there the Juvenile Organisations Committees work in close cooperation with the Juvenile Advisory Committees who, in the course of their work, give talks to school leavers on continued education, opportunities for and types of employment, and recreation after leaving school, the last of these leading to recommendations concerning the organisations that are available and advice on how to join. It is obvious that a speaker who can advise on the problems of finding employment, the subject

which most nearly touches the school leaver, will be listened to with added attention when he comes to speak of recreation and young people's organisations. A similar and very valuable aid to recruitment is the practice, which is not uncommon, of Juvenile Employment Officers putting in a word for the different juvenile organisations when interviewing school leavers. In other cases where an After-Care Committee has been established the Juvenile Organisations Committee naturally works in close co-operation with it, and the Care Committee often finds it useful to be able to recommend a young person to an organisation which is suited to his or her needs. The cooperation of teachers is also valuable as they can, like a Juvenile Employment Officer, drop a word in season regarding juvenile organisations to the boy or girl on the point of leaving school.

In a number of cases Juvenile Organisations Committees issue a small pamphlet or booklet to each child leaving school, containing a list of the organisations in the district, the times and places of meeting, with a brief reference to the work they do and any subscriptions required, the whole being prefaced by a short statement (of a page at most) of the advantages of joining one of the organisations. These pamphlets are not at all elaborate; they are small in bulk and are cheaply produced, and would seem likely to serve a useful purpose. It must be said, however, that one Committee tried this method and abandoned it in favour of addresses to school leavers. On the other hand, another committee tried the practice of giving socials to school leavers and gave this up as useless. In other places so-called "Youth Weeks" have been organised, but the return for the effort involved has usually been small.

At least two Committees have come to the conclusion that special methods of recruiting are ineffective and (though they express it somewhat differently) consider that everything must depend upon the units themselves, since a good unit will always find recruits without difficulty (Members will bring their friends and the friends will stay),

whereas no amount of persuasion will induce people to stay in a poor unit. This conclusion is also endorsed by several national organisations.

In spite of some opinions to the contrary, however, there does seem to be a justification for making arrangements to see that young people are at least made aware of the opportunities they have of joining organisations in their districts. Whether this is best done by issuing a small book to school leavers or by holding meetings of school leavers, or by the Juvenile Employment Officer in the course of his duties, can only be decided in the light of local conditions—and possibly finance where a pamphlet is concerned. It might prove very instructive, however, if Committees which have tried special arrangements for recruiting would endeavour to find out through leaders of affiliated organisations how far their arrangements do in fact influence recruiting. They might seek to obtain a rough idea of what proportion of members is said to have been influenced by, e.g. appeals, advice from a teacher, a pamphlet, recommendation of friend, and so on, and of the general opinion of members regarding the effectiveness of the methods adopted, and thus keep a check on any experiments made towards a solution of this problem. The Central Committee will be glad to hear of any information obtained on this point.

Recruiting of Voluntary Workers

One or two Committees find that there is no lack of voluntary workers, but general experience is of the contrary kind. Indeed, the greatest problem facing Juvenile organisations to-day is the want of leaders, and it is this and not so much the want of money that sets a limit to the extension of their work.

A number of Juvenile Organisations Committees have tried systematically to recruit leaders and workers, usually by appeals of a public nature, such as addresses to secondary schools, training colleges, and the like, but as a rule little

success appears to have attended these measures in the past. It must be remembered that many ex-secondary school scholars with admirable gifts for leadership are very fully engaged in their late 'teens and early twenties in preparing for their vocation by full-time attendance at College, or by attendance at evening classes and in Technical Colleges. Notwithstanding this, a number of organisations have recruited their best leaders from ex-secondary school pupils, being careful not to make too many demands upon their scant leisure. Experience seems to have shown that the surest method of obtaining voluntary workers is the method of personal approach. Generally speaking, anyone who has not of his (or her) own volition found some kind of social work to do would only be induced to take it up by a direct request addressed to him personally by some particular person to do some particular piece of work—a request coupled perhaps with a certain amount of persuasion. When faced with the task of obtaining workers from the general mass of population by such means Committees have too often regarded it as hopeless to attempt, and in most cases units have been left to recruit workers as best they might, unless the Committee's Organiser or Secretary were able to enroll a number of helpers by personal efforts.

In some instances, however, a more regular means of obtaining helpers has been available. For example, certain Committees have obtained very great assistance through Toc H and the League of Women Helpers. At least one Committee has been assisted in this way by a local Rotary Club. Generally, however, it may be said that Committees have not established the close contact with bodies of this kind that experience in some districts shows to be desirable. Rotary Clubs being associations of industrial and commercial men can do much for juvenile organisations in many ways apart from the recruitment of workers, and there is good reason for thinking that if they are suitably approached they will as a rule be ready to interest themselves actively in Juvenile Organisations Committee work.

As has already been indicated, it is difficult to obtain regular workers from what may be called the outside public, i.e., from among the people who are not and have never been connected with juvenile organisations. There seems reason to believe, however, that a substantial number of potential leaders is allowed to drift out of the organisations, simply because the few persons who happen to know the young people concerned, at the time when they are becoming rather old for continued membership, are not aware at the moment of any place for which a new leader is required. If there were a regular arrangement for keeping this potential talent and distributing it as far as possible where most needed, it would be easier to maintain the present work, and some leaders might be liberated with a view to further extension. The problem is one which concerns all organisations, and it is one in which united action is absolutely essential since any workable scheme must necessarily cover as large a number of organisations as possible, in order to obtain a steady supply of potential leaders and a continuous correlation with the vacancies. In addition, some organisations may well find that they cannot even maintain their position without outside assistance in the way of leaders, while others, it is to be hoped, will find that they can obtain more leaders than is necessary for the whole of their requirements.

Recruiting from the units themselves has also a double advantage, for leaders obtained through this means will know the work thoroughly and will know what conditions to expect, and as they have already spent several years in their organisation they are most likely, when they take up the work of leadership themselves, to carry it on for a substantial period. Persons who come in without previous experience in juvenile work are often very valuable indeed, but too often their attendance is apt to be irregular.

There is perhaps some danger in too much reliance on internal recruitment in that a unit may tend to run itself into a groove. New blood often means new ideas and new

life, while "in-breeding" sometimes leads to stagnation. This danger, however, is lessened if the leaders are recruited, as is often the case even now, from the field of all the organisations instead of from the particular organisation to which the unit belongs. This broader field of recruitment indeed is desirable on general grounds, and it is hoped that Juvenile Organisations Committees will be active in the establishment of inter-organisation cooperation in this way.

Group leaders should regard it as part of their duties to be on the watch for persons who would be useful as leaders and to see that any possible talent of this kind is not lost. Anyone who shows signs of having the qualities required for leadership should be encouraged to think of taking up some kind of work (not necessarily in the same organisation) and even to help elsewhere while he remains a member of his own organisation. Spasmodic single appeals are probably not of much value in the finding of leaders, as the effect of such appeals is only temporary. Occasional suggestions to the persons concerned made by the officer or leader who would put before the member the idea of taking up this kind of work, allowing him to become accustomed to the idea, seems a more promising line of approach. If the suggestion is brought up at intervals to the future leader the idea becomes more familiar and natural to him, and afterwards, when he rather outgrows the unit, a place is found for him (probably in another unit and possibly in another organisation) and he drops naturally into the kind of work of which he had been thinking for a long time past. Leaders would inform the Central Association of those whom they thought likely people, and when the time was ripe the organisation would find a place for them.

It seems fairly certain that juvenile organisations will have to rely largely on recruitment from within to continue their work, and if a shortage of workers at one point and possible excess at another is to be avoided all organisations must coordinate, and the Juvenile Organisations Committees

are the most natural means for this co-ordination. Committees should therefore consider whether they can, in consultation with their affiliated organisations, draw up a regular system of recruiting voluntary workers from young people who are members of the organisations and are becoming old enough for responsibility. The Juvenile Organisations Committee can draw up a panel of helpers, noting the special interests (sport, handicraft, music, etc.) of each, and with this information available can put a helper in touch with an organisation needing a person with his or her special interests and gifts.

The chief difficulty in the way of establishing a scheme of this kind is the reluctance of organisations to consent to the transfer of possible leaders from their own ranks to those of another organisation. But this difficulty should largely disappear if there is a constant endeavour on the part of the actual leaders to induce likely members of their units to carry on the work by becoming leaders themselves; some organisations which find they cannot produce enough leaders for themselves will then be assisted by others which, owing perhaps to the kind of work they do and the kind of young people they attract, have a higher proportion of the responsible type than the others. Much can be done to solve the problem of obtaining leaders, but only if the stronger organisations are prepared to help the weaker.

Training of Youth Leaders

A number of Committees have special courses for youth leaders. Reference has already been made to courses of this kind in physical training and craft work. In addition, a series of lectures on leadership has been given in various centres by the Kent Juvenile Organisations Committee who have also held a week-end course for leaders of Boys' Clubs. The topics dealt with include—"Club Building and Organisation," "Club Activities," and "The Club Manager." The London Joint Council arrange special camps for the leaders of Girls' Clubs.

Courses in physical training and handicraft and other special subjects could usefully be attended by leaders of any organisation. Greater difficulty might be experienced in drawing up a course of leadership unless it were confined to the needs of one particular type of organisation, as conditions of work vary so much that it might be hard to cover the problems raised in, say, a scout troop and a boys' club within the same course. In any event, some organisations in many districts already have arrangements for the training of leaders in their own special type of work, and a Juvenile Organisations Committee might, therefore, confine itself to providing courses for leaders in special subjects common to several organisations. It will be necessary to ensure that the length and competence of the course are adequate to ensure a permanent result, and in some subjects refresher courses might be required, to which leaders who have already been trained might return at intervals to freshen their knowledge.

The relation of local Juvenile Organisation Committees to affiliated organisations

It may be in point here to say something concerning the relations between the local Committees and their affiliated organisations. Actual contact seems to be mainly through attendance of representatives of organisations at meetings of the Committee, reports made by these to the Committee, and circulars sent from the Committee to the organisations. There may be more direct contact in connection with, say, applications for grants from the Committee, or with work for some common purpose such as the running of competitions, or for the arrangement of displays and exhibitions and so on. In some cases, the only contact is by means of letters and circulars. In others, visits are sometimes paid by the Secretary and by members of the Committee to the constituent organisations, but it is generally recognised that great tact is required in such

contacts, as units are very sensitive regarding their independence: one Juvenile Organisations Committee states that visits are never paid except on invitation. In such cases there seems to be no objection to its being made known that an invitation to visit would be welcomed—as it is hoped it would be—by representatives of the Committee. On the face of it, there would appear to be no good reason, however, why hospitality arrangements should not gradually be built up.

Generally, the attitude of the different organisations towards the Juvenile Organisations Committee seems to vary according to their strength: weak organisations are glad to avail themselves of the assistance the Committee is ready to give them, and of the advice of the Secretary if he is himself a person of experience in the work of juvenile organisations. Strong organisations on the other hand are apt to be jealous of their independence.

Actually, this nervousness—indeed suspicion—of organisations regarding possible interference with their liberty by a body like the Juvenile Organisations Committee should be entirely groundless. Voluntary effort is at present so far from covering the field open to it in any area, and there is such a vast extent of untouched territory, that the groups could for all practical purposes expand and multiply indefinitely without coming into competition with each other. There is room, and more than room, for every kind of club, troop or company. Consequently, if there is no overlapping the only need is to expand the work, and all that the Juvenile Organisations Committee requires to do is to help its affiliated organisations to grow, which entails no encroachment on their autonomy. Every organisation and group working amongst young people should be made to realise that the sole object of the Juvenile Organisations Committee is to help their work, and that if they need assistance they will be welcome, while if they consider they do not need assistance they will equally be welcome in the

hope that they will be able to add something to the common stock and be of some assistance to the less fortunate members of the affiliation.

This last point raises a problem which is rather acute in one or two districts—fortunately in one or two only. It appears that in a few instances strong local organisations, feeling that they have nothing to gain from the activities of the Juvenile Organisations Committee, have either not affiliated or have taken no active part in the work. It is of course possible that a local organisation of units may be strong enough to go its own way and to do all that it desires in the way of inter-unit activities without the assistance of the Juvenile Organisations Committee. But to refuse to take part in the work of the Committees for that reason displays a most unfortunate misconception of the working of these Committees. Their object is to assist the work of juvenile organisations generally; this can be done to some extent by making grants of money or providing facilities for the use of organisations. But to be really effective assistance must largely take the form of personal service. An instructor may be required to teach Handicraft or Folk Dancing or referees needed for league games, or people experienced in camping to assist in running a camp. As the Committees are composed mainly of representatives of various organisations the only way of obtaining such personal services seems to be through the organisations. This, however, is only possible if a good proportion of those affiliated are fairly strong and able to help the weaker ones. If Committees are left mainly to weak organisations which join simply in order to obtain help, their usefulness will obviously be small indeed. The working of an ideal Juvenile Organisations Committee would be largely a matter of mutual help between the organisations themselves and it is in this spirit that juvenile organisations should be asked to take part in the work. If the matter is presented in its true light it is unlikely that any organisation would refuse to cooperate.

APPENDIX I

BOARD OF EDUCATION JUVENILE ORGANISATIONS COMMITTEE

Constitution

1. The Board of Education Juvenile Organisations Committee shall be constituted in four groups :—

Group I consisting of representatives nominated by national organisations formed for the purpose of welfare work amongst juveniles.

Group II consisting of official representatives nominated by the Board of Education (2), Home Office (2), Ministry of Labour (1), Scottish Office (1), County Councils Association (1), Association of Education Committees (1), Association of Municipal Corporations (1), London County Council (1).

Group III consisting of representatives of Local Juvenile Organisations Committees, one representative being nominated in respect of each group of Juvenile Organisations Committees in each Division in which the Board's Inspectorate is organised.

Group IV consisting of personal members, including not less than three teachers, nominated by the President of the Board of Education.

2. Subject to paragraph 8 below, the term of office for members in Groups III and IV shall be three years. The term of office for members in Groups I and II shall be such period not exceeding three years as the Associations or Departments concerned may decide.

3. If any representative in Groups I and II is unable to attend a meeting of the Committee the Association or Department concerned may nominate a substitute to represent them at that meeting.

4. The Chairman of the Committee shall be appointed by the President of the Board.

5. The Board of Education will detail one of their officers to act as Secretary to the Committee and will provide any necessary clerical assistance.

6. Travelling expenses, etc., of members of the Committee incurred on the business of the Committee will be defrayed by the Board of Education at the rates approved for official Committees.

7. In the first instance the following national organisations shall be invited to nominate representatives to Group I :—

- (i) Boys Scouts Association.
- (ii) Girls Guides Association.
- (iii) National Association of Boys' Clubs.
- (iv) National Council of Girls' Clubs.
- (v) Church Lads' Brigade.
- (vi) Boys' Brigade.
- (vii) Jewish Lads' Brigade.
- (viii) Girls' Life Brigade.
- (ix) National Council of Social Service.
- (x) National Playing Fields Association.

After consultation between the President of the Board and the Committee the President may invite other national organisations answering to the description for Group I to nominate representatives on the Committee.

8. In the first instance the local representatives for each Division shall be nominated by some local Juvenile Organisations Committee in the Division chosen for the purpose by the President of the Board. Such representatives shall remain members of the Committee for two years or for such shorter period as may be necessary for the local Juvenile Organisations Committees in the respective Divisions to establish machinery for the election of local representatives by the Juvenile Organisations Committees in each Division.

APPENDIX II

DRAFT CONSTITUTION FOR LOCAL JUVENILE ORGANISATIONS COMMITTEES

(*Note.*—The following draft is for guidance only and is not intended to be an exhaustive statement of the constitution of a Juvenile Organisations Committee. It is, however, important that no modification should be made in the Section headed PURPOSE.)

TITLE

1. The title of the Association shall be "The Juvenile Organisations Committee" (or similar title).

PURPOSE

2. The purpose of the Committee shall be to promote the mental, moral, physical and social welfare of children and young people.

3. In order to achieve its purpose the Committee shall undertake all or any of the following objects :—

(1) To stimulate local interest and public opinion about all questions affecting the welfare of children and young people, and to secure that so far as possible boys and girls have every opportunity of becoming healthy, happy and useful citizens.

(2) To bring together all local organisations formed for the purpose of welfare work among boys and girls so as to secure mutual help and avoid over-lapping and waste of effort.

(3) To ascertain how far the needs of boys and girls in the district are being met by existing local organisations.

(4) To make a survey of existing local organisations and to compile and keep up to date a handbook for the information of voluntary workers, parents, education authorities, school teachers, magistrates and probation officers.

(5) To strengthen existing activities, to suggest the lines upon which any new work should be framed and to assist in its development.

(6) To encourage the various organisations to support one another in matters of discipline and control and to facilitate the transfer of boys and girls from one organisation to another when this may be desirable.

(7) To co-operate with the Local Education Authority for the area in developing the possibilities of Section 86 of the Education Act, 1921, under which facilities for social and physical training may be provided or aided by the Authority—

(a) by placing at their disposal the experience of voluntary organisations for work among boys and girls ;

(b) by securing voluntary workers to help in Play Centre schemes and social and club work in connection with the schools.

(8) To obtain particulars as to available open spaces and playing fields suitable for organised games for both boys and girls and to co-operate with the appropriate Committee of the Local Authority with a view to meeting demands in this respect.

(9) To develop healthy recreation and physical training by the organisation of inter-club activities and competitions.

(10) To consider in consultation with the Magistrates and Probation Officers to what extent voluntary organisations may be able to assist Probation Officers in carrying out their work.

(11) To consider in co-operation with the Juvenile Employment Committee or Juvenile Advisory Committee in what manner the Committee may assist in questions relating to employment of boys and girls, and in persuading unemployed boys and girls to attend Approved Courses of Instruction.

(12) To obtain, collect and receive money and funds by way of contributions, subscriptions, grants or legacies, and to receive gifts of property of any description for or towards the objects of the Committee, or any of them.

(13) To assist any Body or Bodies financially or otherwise in the furtherance of the above purposes or any of them.

(14) To do, or cause to be done, any other thing which the Committee consider to be desirable for the promotion of the above objects or any of them.

CONSTITUTION

4. The Committee shall consist of representatives of boys' and girls' organisations, and of (other voluntary and public bodies, such as those set out in the Schedule).

5. The organisations represented on the Committee shall be entitled to nominate the number of members shown in the accompanying Schedule. (This Schedule to be drawn up by Committee.) Further organisations may be added or the representation may be increased by resolution of the Committee, due regard being had to the basis of membership and the number of branches. Where,

however, organisations in an area are affiliated to a federation, representation on the Committee shall be through the federation and not from individual units.

6. If any organisation desires at any time to withdraw, or if the Committee at any time cease to approve it, such organisation shall thereupon cease to be an affiliated organisation.

7. The Committee may co-opt additional members not exceeding one-third of the number of representative members.

8. The Committee shall meet as occasion may require, but *at least* quarterly for general purposes, and annually for the purpose of election of officers and the presentation of the accounts and the report.

9. The Committee may appoint a standing Executive Committee, which shall have full charge of the conduct of business and shall report thereon to the General Committee from time to time.

FINANCE

10. Organisations, other than public bodies, represented on the Committee may be required to pay an annual contribution.

Note.—The following schemes of contributions are in force in three large towns :—

(i) Organisations with membership under 50	2s. 6d. per annum.
Organisations with membership over 50	5s. per annum.
Organisations with branches ..	10s. per annum.
(ii) Organisations having one branch only	1s. per annum.
Organisations having two to five branches.. .. .	2s. per annum.
Organisations having six to ten branches.. .. .	3s. per annum.
(iii) Organisations pay an annual subscription of 5s. per representative.	

11. The Committee shall take such steps as they consider desirable to collect subscriptions from private individuals or firms towards the expenses incurred in connection with the work of the Committee.

(*Note.*—Local Education Authorities also have power, with the approval of the Board of Education, to aid the work of Juvenile Organisations Committees. Section 86 of the Education Act, 1921, provides as follows :—

“ Miscellaneous Powers.

86. For the purpose of supplementing and reinforcing the instruction and social and physical training provided by the public system of education, and without prejudice to any other powers, a local education authority for elementary education as respects

children attending public elementary schools, and a local education authority for higher education as respects other children and young persons and persons over the age of eighteen attending educational institutions, may, with the approval of the Board of Education, make arrangements to supply or maintain or aid the supply or maintenance of—

(a) holiday or school camps, especially for young persons attending continuation schools ;

(b) centres and equipment for physical training, playing fields (other than the ordinary playgrounds of public elementary schools not provided by the local education authority), school baths, school swimming baths ;

(c) other facilities for social and physical training in the day or evening.”)

12. The income and other funds or property of the Committee shall be applied for the objects specified in paragraphs 2 and 3 of this constitution and for no other purpose.

13. The Committee shall keep proper accounts of income and expenditure, assets and liabilities, etc., and shall prepare an annual statement of accounts which shall be duly audited.

14. Any property purchased by the Committee, or bestowed on them by way of legacy or otherwise, shall be vested in trustees appointed by the Committee for the purpose.

(Note.—It is desirable that the trust deed or conveyance should make clear that the property is held on charitable trusts.)

15. If the Committee shall cease to carry on its functions, any remaining funds or other property shall, after discharge of all liabilities, be held on trust for the promotion of the mental, moral, physical or social welfare of children and young people in such manner as the Charity Commissioners or the Board of Education may direct.

OFFICERS

16. The Committee shall appoint a Chairman, a Secretary, a Treasurer, an Auditor or auditors, and may also appoint a Vice-Chairman and an Organising Secretary. These officers shall also hold the like office in the Executive Committee, where appointed. A President and Vice-Presidents may also be elected and these offices may be held “honoris causa.”

17. The Committee, or the Executive Committee where one is appointed, shall appoint a Finance Sub-Committee and may from time to time appoint such other Sub-Committees as may be found necessary. The proceedings of the Sub-Committees shall require confirmation by the Executive Committee, or by the General Committee if no Executive Committee is appointed.

ALTERATION OF CONSTITUTION

18. The Committee shall have power to alter this Constitution at a meeting specially convened for the purpose at the request of not less than three affiliated organisations. At least seven days' notice of such meeting must be given and the nature of any proposed

alteration must be specified in the notice. Not less than a majority of the members of the Committee must be present at such meeting, either personally or by proxy.

ANNUAL REPORT

19. The Committee shall prepare an Annual Report copies of which shall be furnished, with the statement of Accounts, to the Board of Education Juvenile Organisations Committee, the Local Education Authority and such other bodies as may be determined by the Committee.

SCHEDULE TO APPENDIX II

SUGGESTED LIST OF ORGANISATIONS TO BE REPRESENTED ON LOCAL JUVENILE ORGANISATIONS COMMITTEES

<i>Organisation</i>	<i>Persons to whom the Invitation should be sent</i>
<i>(1) Boys and Girls Organisations :</i>	
Church Lads' Brigade ..	The Local Battalion Secretary.
The Boys' Brigade.. ..	Do.
Boys' Own Brigade	Do.
Jewish Lads' Brigade	Do.
Boy Scouts	The Local Commissioner.
Lads' Clubs	Secretary of Local Federation (if any).
Y.M.C.A. (Boys' Branches)	Local Secretary or Chairman.
Girls' Clubs	Secretary of Local Federation (if any).
Girl Guides	The Local Commissioner.
Girls' Guildry	Local Correspondent.
Girls' Friendly Society ..	Diocesan Secretary.
Girls' Life Brigade	Local Correspondent.
Y.W.C.A.	Local Secretary.
<i>(2) Educational Bodies :</i>	
Education Committee	Director of Education.
Care Committees or School Managers.	Do.
School Teachers	Secretary, Teachers' Association.
<i>(3) Local Committees for Juvenile Employment.</i>	
	Director of Education, or Secretary of the Juvenile Advisory Committee.
<i>(4) Juvenile Courts :</i>	
The Justices	The Stipendiary Magistrate or Chairman of the Justices.
The Clerk to the Justices Probation Officers	} Clerk to the Justices.
<i>(5) Parks and Gardens Committee :</i>	The Town Clerk.
<i>(6) Other Organisations Carrying on Social or Educational Work among Children and Young People.</i>	Local Secretary.

APPENDIX III

BOARD OF EDUCATION JUVENILE ORGANISATIONS COMMITTEE

LIST OF MEMBERS

Chairman : The Duchess of Atholl, D.B.E., M.P.

Secretary : P. Wilson, Board of Education.

Asst. Secretary : J. Gibson, Board of Education.

<i>Group</i>	<i>Nominated by</i>
III Lancelot Allen, Esq.	Nottingham J.O.C.
IV Miss M. G. Allen	President of the Board of Education.
I The Rev. Cyril M. Armitage	Church Lads' Brigade.
III The Hon. Mrs. de Beaumont	Cambridge J.O.C.
II H. E. Boothroyd, Esq., H.M.I.	Board of Education.
IV R. F. Cholmeley, Esq., C.B.E., M.A.	President of the Board of Education.
IV C. E. Clift, Esq.	President of the Board of Education.
II Sir Cyril Cobb, K.B.E., M.V.O., M.P.	London County Council.
IV Miss S. E. Davies	President of the Board of Education.
I Capt. L. F. Ellis, C.B.E., D.S.O., M.C.	National Council of Social Service.
II Miss E. A. Ford, H.M.I.	Board of Education.
IV G. Rex Gifford, Esq.	President of the Board of Education.
IV Mrs. Ogilvie Gordon, D.Sc.	President of the Board of Education.
I E. G. Greenwell, Esq.	Association of Juvenile Employment and Welfare Officers.
IV Professor F. Hall, M.A., B.Com.	President of the Board of Education.
I E. M. Halsted, Esq.	Jewish Lads' Brigade.
IV W. B. Hards, Esq.	President of the Board of Education.
II J. F. Henderson, Esq.	Home Office.
IV Henriques, Capt. B. L. Q.	President of the Board of Education.
III Councillor H. Hiles	Cardiff J.O.C.
II } Dr. P. D. Innes	Association of Education Committees.
III }	
I Lt.-Gen. Sir Hugh Jeudwine, K.C.B., K.B.E.	British National Cadet Association.
III Commander G. V. Kenyon, R.N. (Retd.)	Sunderland J.O.C.
I Miss E. M. Langley	Girls' Friendly Society.
I R. L. Murray Lawes, Esq.	National Playing Fields Association.

<i>Group</i>	<i>Nominated by</i>
II Major A. Leycester-Penrhyn	County Councils Association.
I Mrs. MacAndrew	Girls' Guildry.
IV W. Merrick, Esq.	President of the Board of Education.
IV Lt.-Col. J. M. Mitchell, C.B.E., M.C.	President of the Board of Education.
II C. F. Mott, Esq.	Association of Municipal Corporations.
I P. B. Nevill, Esq.	Boy Scouts' Association.
III A. W. Oyler, Esq., O.B.E. ..	London Joint Council of J.O.C's.
IV Mrs. E. V. Parker	President of the Board of Education.
I E. F. Piercy, Esq.	National Association of Boys' Clubs.
III Miss Lucie Redfearn	Liverpool J.O.C.
I G. Stanley Smith, Esq., M.C.	Boys' Brigade.
III Grayson Stone, Esq.	Extra Metropolitan J.O.C's.
IV Miss E. Strudwick, M.A. ..	President of the Board of Education.
III A. E. Thomas, Esq., M.B.E.	Middlesbrough J.O.C.
I Miss A. E. Towers	Girls' Life Brigade.
II F. N. Tribe, Esq., C.B.E. ..	Ministry of Labour.
I Miss S. J. Warner, O.B.E. ..	Girl Guides' Association.
I Miss Dorothy Warren, LL.B.	National Council of Girls' Clubs.
III E. L. Watkins, Esq.	Plymouth J.O.C.
II J. E. de Watteville, Esq. ..	Scottish Office.

APPENDIX IV

LOCAL JUVENILE ORGANISATIONS COMMITTEES

LIST AND SECRETARIES

Northern Division

Gateshead ..	W. J. Baty, Esq. ..	25 Highfield Road, Gateshead.
Newcastle-upon-Tyne.	Rev. A. H. Robins	The Education Office, Northumberland Road, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, 2
Sunderland ..	Com. G. V. Kenyon, R.N. (Retd.).	27, John Street, Sunderland.
Tynemouth ..	C. W. Robson, Esq.	Juvenile Employment Bureau, Education Offices, South Preston Villa, North Shields.

North-Eastern Division

Bradford	..	E. W. Woodhead, Esq., M.A.	Education Office, Town Hall, Bradford.
Brighouse	..	J. S. Hird, Esq., M.A.	Manor House, Brighouse.
Halifax	E. Smith, Esq. ..	Council of Social Welfare, Clare Road, Halifax.
Middlesbrough	A. E. Thomas, Esq., M.B.E.	101, Grange Road, Mid- dlesbrough.
Sheffield	..	Miss M. L. Harford	16, St. James Street, Sheffield.
Wakefield	..	A. Osbourn, Esq. ..	Service House, Brook Street, Wakefield, Yorks.
York	J. Somerset, Esq. ..	7, Woodlea Avenue, Acomb, York.

North-Western Division

Barrow-in-Furness	G. I. Gibbons, Esq.	J.O.C. Office, Strand, Barrow-in-Furness.
Birkenhead ..	The Secretary, Ju- venile Organisa- tions Committee.	Education Offices, Hamil- ton Square, Birken- head.
Blackburn ..	J. F. Carr, Esq. ..	Education Offices, Black- burn, Lancs.
Bootle ..	T. A. Jones, Esq. ..	17, Keble Road, Bootle, Lancs.
Chester ..	F. H. J. Wilkinson, Esq.	Bishop Lloyd's House, Watergate Street, Chester.
Liverpool ..	Miss L. Redfearn ..	14, Castle Street, Liver- pool.
Oldham ..	J. B. Hibbert, Esq.	66, Block Lane, Chadder- ton, Oldham, Lancs.
St. Helens ..	R. A. Pilkington, Esq.	Eccleston Grange, St. Helens, Lancs.
Stockport ..	R. J. Boyle, Esq. ..	35, Greek Street, Stock- port.
Wallasey ..	S. Gidman, Esq. ..	10, Comely Avenue, Egremont, Wallasey.
Waterloo - with - Seaforth and Litherland.	G. S. Dewhirst, Esq.	Education Offices, Town Hall, Waterloo, Liverpool, 23.
Wigan ..	H. Bottomley, Esq.	Juvenile Employment Bureau, Town Hall, Rodney Street, Wigan.

West Central Division

Birmingham ..	Dr. P. D. Innes ..	Chief Education Officer, Education Department, Council House, Birm- ingham.
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Bristol	Miss E. L. Tivy, M.B.E.	12, Nelson St., Bristol, 1.
Coventry	F. H. Harrod, Esq., B.A.	Education Department, The Council House, Coventry.
Dudley	G. A. Ashton, Esq.	"Woodlawn," Hartle- bury, nr. Kiddermin- ster, Worcestershire.
Gloucestershire ..	H. W. Household, Esq.	Education Office, Shire Hall, Gloucester.
Hereford	C. A. Rouse, Esq. . .	Education Office, Union Street, Hereford.
Leamington Spa	E. A. Baxter, Esq.	55 Radford Rd., Leaming- ton Spa, Warwickshire.
Shrewsbury	Wm. Jas. Mackay Sutherland, Esq.	Shrewsbury Juvenile Organisations and Wel- fare Committee, The Juvenile Employment Office, 77, Wyle Cop, Shrewsbury.

East Central Division

Hucknall	J. A. Phillips, Esq.	Knitwear Works, Wig- wam Lane, Hucknall, Notts.
Leicester	H. Davenport, Esq., B.A.	Young People's Employ- ment Bureau, Great Central Street, Leices- ter.
Lincoln	C. W. Hooton, Esq.	City Education Office, 4, Lindum Road, Lincoln.
Northampton ..	A Cochran, Esq. . .	233, Abington Avenue, Northampton.
Nottingham	Herbert Sands, Esq., F.C.A.	30 Park Row, Notting- ham.
Oxford	F. H. Gibbens, Esq.	38, Wellington Square, Oxford.
Oxfordshire	E. A. Joseph, Esq.	Rural Community Coun- cil, Barnett House, 26, Broad Street, Oxford.

Eastern Division

Cambridge and County.	A. L. Peacock, Esq., D.P.A.	Juvenile Employment Department, Shire Hall, Cambridge.
St. Albans	Mrs. Lilas Night- ingale.	49, Carlisle Avenue, St. Albans, Herts.

London Division

London (Joint Council).	Miss M. de M. Leathes	Joint Council of London J.O.C's., Room 526, County Hall, Westminster Bridge, S.E.1.
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Extra-Metropolitan Division

East Ham	.. R. J. North, Esq. ..	20, Harpenden Road, Wanstead Park, E.12.
Edmonton	.. F. E. Geary, Esq. ..	Edmonton J.O.C., Eldon Road School, Edmonton, N.9.
Hendon J. E. Cuthbertson, Esq., M.A., M.Litt.	Education Department, Town Hall, Hendon, N.W.4.
Leyton G. E. Fawcett, Esq.	Juvenile Employment Bureau, 590, Lea Bridge Road, Leyton, E.10.
New Southgate..	H. R. Smales, Esq.	Education Offices, 96, Natal Road, New Southgate, N.11.
Tottenham	.. G. W. Ette, Esq. ..	Tottenham J.O.C., 84, Broadwater Road, London, N.17.
Walthamstow	.. G. T. Butterfill, Esq.	17, Third Avenue, Walthamstow, E.17.
Wembley	.. F. E. Griffiths, Esq.	Wembley J.O.C., Council Offices, Wembley, Mx.
West Ham	.. B. J. Dover, Esq. ..	283, Upton Lane, Forest Gate, E.7.
Willesden	.. A. E. Temple Cole, Esq.	7, King's Parade, Okehampton Road, N.W.10
Wood Green	.. Grayson Stone, Esq.	Education Department, 10, Stuart Crescent, Wood Green, N.22.

South Eastern Division

Aldershot	.. Miss K. Taylor ..	West End Infants' School, Queen's Rd., Aldershot.
Beckenham	.. J. R. Hambridge, Esq.	Education Department, Town Hall, Beckenham.
Brighton	.. A. J. Prior, Esq. ..	The Royal York Buildings, (Rooms 85 & 86), Old Steine, Brighton.
Bromley	.. G. P. L. Syms, Esq.	Municipal Buildings, Bromley.
Croydon	.. E. Hockley, Esq. ..	Eldon House, Wellesley Road, Croydon.

Hastings..	..	L. H. G. Baker, Esq., M.A.	11, Elphinstone Road, Hastings.
<i>Kent County</i>	..	L. Shoeten Sack, Esq., O.B.E.	The Community Council, 1, Holmesdale Terrace, Folkestone.
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Maidstone	..	A. W. Peacock, Esq.	Education Department, Tonbridge Road, Maid- stone.
Medway	R. L. Wills, Esq. ..	Elm House, 15, New Road Avenue, Chat- ham.
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Tunbridge Wells	..	Dr. J. Lister ..	Technical Institute, Tun- bridge Wells.
Penge	W. T. Kaile, Esq. ..	Education Offices, Town Hall, Anerley, S.E.20.
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Winchester	..	John A. Peart, Esq.	City Education Depart- ment, 3, The Square, Winchester.

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Somerset	..	Capt. O. W. Drew ..	14, Hammet Street, Taunton, Somerset.

Wales

Aberdare	..	J. C. Poole, Esq. ..	Mardy House Church School, Aberdare, Glam.
Cardiff	I. Williams, Esq. ..	Education Offices, City Hall, Cardiff.
Neath	Miss M. E. Bowen ..	Employment Exchange, Neath.

APPENDIX V

SOME NATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS TO WHICH JUVENILE ORGANISATIONS COMMITTEES MAY LOOK FOR TECHNICAL ADVICE

1. The National Council of Social Service, 26, Bedford Square, London, W. C. 1.
All general questions relating to Social Service work, social charities, etc.
2. The National Playing Fields Association, 71, Eccleston Square, London, S.W.1 (or the respective County Playing Fields Associations).
All matters connected with the provision, preservation, maintenance and use of Playing Fields and Recreation Grounds.
3. The British Youth Hostels Association, E. St. John Catchpool, Hon. Secretary, 18, Bridge Road, Welwyn Garden City, Herts. Youth Hostels, Hiking, etc.
4. The British Federation of Musical Competition Festivals, 22, Surrey Street, Victoria Embankment, London, W.C.2.
5. The English Folk Dance and Song Society, Cecil Sharp House, 2, Regent's Park Road, London, N.W.1.
6. The British Drama League, 8 Adelphi Terrace, London, W.C.2.
All kinds of dramatic activity, Library of plays, hiring of costumes, advice on production.
7. The St. John Ambulance Association, St. John's Gate, Clerkenwell, E.C.1.
First Aid and Ambulance Work.

BOARD OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL PAMPHLETS, No. 97
(INDUSTRY SERIES, No. 13)

THE TRADE AND TRAINING OF THE CARPENTER AND JOINER

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LONDON

PRINTED AND PUBLISHED BY HIS MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE

To be purchased directly from H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE at the following addresses:
Adastral House, Kingsway, London, W.C.2; 120, George Street, Edinburgh; 2
York Street, Manchester 1; 1, St. Andrew's Crescent, Cardiff;
15, Donegall Square West, Belfast
or through any Bookseller

1933

PREFATORY NOTE

This report was prepared for the Board's information by those of H.M. Inspectors who are specially concerned with the facilities for education for the trade of the Carpenter and Joiner.

The Board have decided to publish the report as an Educational Pamphlet but they do not thereby assume responsibility for the views expressed in it.

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I. INTRODUCTION

1. *The Woodworking Trades and the Use of Wood*

The object of this pamphlet is to review briefly the conditions affecting the training and education of youths entering the trade of carpentry and joinery, to give a summary of the educational provision made for them in technical schools and colleges in England and Wales, and to make suggestions concerning the future arrangement and development of this work.

The craft of the woodworker is of great antiquity. The tools used as well as the various processes and constructions have shown little change over long periods of time. Only in comparatively recent times have these methods been seriously disturbed by the use of other materials or of new methods in woodworking, and particularly by the utilisation of power-driven machinery.

In the past the use of wood has naturally been most extended and most highly developed in those countries where there were ample supplies of suitable native-grown timber, but the great development in transport facilities has in modern times rendered almost nugatory the differences between thickly and sparsely timbered countries, with a consequent widening of the uses to which wood has been put in all progressive states.

In our own country profound changes took place in the woodworking crafts when, as a result of the depletion of home-grown supplies of timber, the rapid growth of urban population and the desirability of the erection of town dwellings less liable to destruction by fire, timber came to be used much less extensively as a structural material in dwelling houses than it had been in the past. Similar changes took place in the use of timber of heavy scantling for buildings, bridges and other large pieces of construction,

following the introduction of cast iron, wrought iron and steel and, later, of reinforced concrete. More recently the use of metal fittings in the place of wood has steadily increased with consequential effects on the demand for joinery.

It should, however, be noted that in all the industrialised countries of the world there have been remarkable increases in the variety of uses to which wood is put, together with a corresponding increase in the amount of wood used and in the number and complexity of the separate trades using wood. Thus to-day, in this country, in addition to the carpenter and joiner concerned principally in the construction and maintenance of buildings, we have the cabinet-maker, the pattern-maker, the rail and road vehicle builder, the packing-case maker, the woodworking machinist, the saw miller, together with many other minor woodworking occupations. In these circumstances therefore, it is not surprising to find that, even in a country like our own into which the bulk of the timber must be imported, the annual consumption of timber is considerable, while the total output of the timber-using trades stands high amongst the industries of the country.*

It is probable that this extended use of wood will continue, since as a constructive material it has great advantages, being cheap, easy to work, light yet strong, permanent under suitable conditions and offering attractive possibilities as a decorative material. In addition the rapid development of more efficient methods of manufacture, assembly and use, the introduction of wood in such prepared forms as plywood and laminated board, the adoption of standard specifications and better methods of publicity, and the application of the methods of scientific research all tend to maintain the demand for wood by increasing the number of purposes for which it can be used.

* See "Third Census of Production of the United Kingdom" (1932), published by H.M. Stationery Office, price 7s. 0d. net.

2. *The Trade of the Carpenter and Joiner*

The Census figures indicate that the majority of carpenters and joiners are employed in the building industry, the remainder being distributed among shipbuilding, engineering, transport, mining, chemical and other industries.

In the building industry the carpenters and joiners constitute numerically the largest skilled trade. This is shown by the following Table, which gives the estimated numbers of persons insured under the Unemployment Insurance Acts at July, 1932, and employed in the various building trades.

<i>Occupations.</i>	<i>Estimated No. of insured persons, July, 1932.</i>	
Carpenters and Joiners	134,250
Bricklayers	81,310
Masons	22,290
Slaters	6,940
Plasterers	28,120
Painters	114,090
Plumbers	37,180
Labourers to above	239,390
All other occupations	193,340
Total	<u>856,910</u>

This relative position of the carpenters and joiners among the building trades has been held by them over a long period. It appears likely that it will be maintained since, in spite of the great changes which have taken place in recent times in the methods of building in general and in the relative importance of wood construction, there has been no marked decline in the number engaged in this trade though there have been some variations. This is shown by the table below. In addition, though the percentage of unemployment among carpenters and joiners is at present high, it is below the average figure for the whole of the building trades.

*Number of insured workers engaged in Carpentry and
Joinery in the Building Industry between 1914
and 1932.*

<i>Jan., 1914.</i>	<i>July, 1920.</i>	<i>July, 1925.</i>	<i>July, 1927.</i>	<i>July, 1932.</i>
126,800	133,400	111,500	123,570	134,250

3. *Entry into the Trade*

The normal method of entry into the trade, and practically the only one officially recognised, is that of apprenticeship. In making such a statement, however, it is necessary to give the widest possible meaning to the term "apprenticeship." Thus it may cover arrangements varying from "indentured apprenticeship," involving a formal written contract to provide proper training, to verbal agreements of a very indefinite character.*

With regard to existing custom in this trade it may, however, be said that entry upon apprenticeship normally takes place between the ages of 14 and 16 years, while the completion of apprenticeship or entry into journeymanship does not as a rule take place before the age of 21 years. During this period of 5 to 7 years the apprentice, no matter by what title he is known, is commonly considered to be "learning his trade." In the latter period of unindentured apprenticeship—sometimes described as an "improvership"—there may be little or no definite attempt at training on the part of the employer, and the apprentice may be liable to dismissal because of inefficiency or of slackness of trade.

There is as a rule no lack of applicants for entry to the trade of carpentry and joinery and, on the whole, the type of applicant is relatively good. This is probably due to a number of causes. In spite of modern changes this is still a trade in which it appears possible to get a good training as an "all-round craftsman." It is a trade which

* For a more complete statement see "Report of an Enquiry into Apprenticeship and Training, No. II, Building, Woodworking and Allied Industries," (1927), published by H.M. Stationery Office, price 6s. 0d. net.

makes a strong appeal to that desire for constructive achievement which is present in many boys, for whom some of the more highly sectionalised manual occupations of to-day have apparently little to offer. It is considered to be a "clean job," and is probably less affected by the vagaries of the weather than almost any other building trade. In addition, for the capable apprentice and journeyman, employment in it may still open the way to more substantial positions, such as charge-hand, foreman, clerk of works, builder's manager and even building employer.

These boys are now being drawn from a wider educational field than formerly. In addition to those who come from the ordinary elementary schools, they come in increasing numbers from central and senior schools, from junior technical schools, and occasionally from secondary schools. While the consequent improvement in the quality of the apprentice is widely appreciated, it can hardly be said that this development is due to any organised effort on the part of the trade generally to attract or select a better type of apprentice. The attractions inherent in this trade still appear to be the dominant factor.

*4. Problems of Apprentice Training and Education.**

In this country the view has usually been held that the apprentice is entitled to expect from his employer as complete a training as the nature of the work undertaken by the employer will allow. In the past the results achieved on this basis have been reasonably satisfactory. Thus, in the case of carpentry and joinery, though the amount of systematic training given to the apprentice varied considerably between one employer and another, the range of work undertaken was, as a rule, sufficiently extensive to ensure that the apprentice obtained good experience during his apprenticeship.

* For a more comprehensive discussion of these questions see "Report of an Enquiry into Apprenticeship and Training, No. VII, General Report," (1928), published by H.M. Stationery Office, price 5s. 0d. net.

To-day changes of a far-reaching character are taking place in the trade, which render it increasingly difficult to maintain these conditions and to ensure that the apprentice carpenter and joiner obtains both good experience and effective training over a sufficiently wide field. The great extension in the use of woodworking machinery has had a marked effect upon the conditions existing in all but the smallest woodworking shops, while the use of machine-made doors and windows and the use of metal windows has reduced the range and altered the character of the work now done in the ordinary woodworking shop. Again, the increase in the number of the large firms—undertaking extensive contracts over a wide area and often sub-letting large sections of their work—often renders it difficult to provide a proper balance of “inside” and “outside” experience for every apprentice.

The existence of these difficulties and of the undesirable effects which these changes are having upon apprentice training have been generally recognised. Much good work has been done in an endeavour to maintain satisfactory conditions, both by individual firms, large and small, and by the various bodies interested in the training of apprentices. In at least one local apprenticeship scheme a clause is inserted in the Indenture which enables the employer, acting through the local Apprenticeship Training Committee, to transfer his apprentice for a period to some other firm, if by reason of the nature of the work undertaken by him normally, or during the apprenticeship of a particular apprentice, he is unable to offer or provide for him a proper range of experience. These arrangements have also been utilised successfully to provide special experience for apprentices showing exceptional ability in one direction or another. Such facilities are not easy to establish and are unfortunately by no means general.

Another clause which is now commonly added to indentures, and one which bears directly on the same problem, is that under which the employer undertakes to assist the

apprentice to receive adequate technical instruction during his apprenticeship. While formerly attendance at a technical school was a matter left more or less to the apprentice, so that only the more energetic and ambitious usually gained benefit thereby, it would now appear to be more necessary than ever to view such instruction as an essential part of every apprenticeship. It certainly offers means whereby the apprentice's knowledge may be increased, his experience widened, and the effects of narrow or specialised practical conditions corrected as far as they may be in this way.

In this connection it may be noted, however, that, owing to the differing range of experience available to apprentices and also to the varying attitude among employers towards the problems of apprentice training, it is often extremely difficult for the schools to prepare a course of instruction in carpentry and joinery with any assurance that it will dovetail with equal effectiveness into the practical experience of individual apprentices, or that it will in all cases satisfy the requirements of individual employers. This would appear to be a case where there is serious need for some association between the trade and the schools of a less casual and intermittent character than that existing to-day, depending often upon infrequent meetings of advisory committees or disconnected visits of the teachers to the shops or of employers and operatives to the schools.

It is of interest to note that, as continental practice shows, conscious efforts are being made elsewhere to solve this problem of co-ordinating methodical instruction in the schools with practical experience in employment. The solutions at present proposed and in operation range between the full-time trade schools, of which examples exist in several continental countries, to the other extreme wherein the school is limited to instruction in general subjects and theoretical technology, while the whole of the practical instruction is given by the employer, for which purpose he may employ foremen and workmen who have been specially

trained to give such instruction. In all these methods there is a more or less complete course of training in practical work in the early stages of apprenticeship, based on a fairly precise analysis of the requirements of the trade and close co-operation between the trade and the schools. Following this the apprentice may become either what we call an "improver," or a fully qualified journeyman at a rate of pay somewhat less than that of the adult workman.*

In this country, though the contact between the technical schools and the trade is fairly close and is improving in effectiveness, it does not yet appear to be so intimate or so effective as in some of the continental schemes. In the absence of a much more complete investigation than has yet taken place, and a more definite announcement of the requirements of the trade in these directions, it is not at present possible to indicate which, if any, of these several solutions are likely to be adopted and developed in this country. Meanwhile it is clear that nothing but good will come of the more thorough investigation of these problems by the school and the trade both separately and jointly.

A number of suggestions have been incorporated in this pamphlet, which it is hoped will lead to a more effective and extended use of existing facilities and to their development on lines peculiarly suited to the present-day needs of the trade in this country.

5. *Organised bodies interested in Apprentice Training*

(a) *Trade Apprenticeship Committees*

In spite of the premier numerical position occupied by the carpenter and joiner among other building craftsmen, there is no national organisation concerned directly and solely with his interests at the apprentice stage, as is the case in some of the other building trades. Fortunately, among both employers and operatives, there are many

* For further particulars see "Trade Schools on the Continent" (1932), published by H.M. Stationery Office, price 2s. 0d. net.

persons who take a keen interest in the general problems of apprenticeship and are well-qualified to deal with them. These persons have done valuable work, acting either individually or on one of the local apprenticeship committees.

No separate local apprenticeship scheme dealing only with carpenters and joiners is known to exist in this country. The local schemes which deal with apprenticeship training in the building industry in general, either cover all the trades or only those not already served by schemes of their own. In addition the national organisations of both employers and operatives take a general interest in these problems and discuss them from time to time. It is of interest to note that the Amalgamated Society of Woodworkers conducts an annual Prize Competition among apprentices, based mainly on problems in construction.

These local committees vary in character from those which issue and sign indentures and keep a register of apprentices, to others with a less definite constitution. All aim at fostering and supporting the provision locally of adequate technical instruction for the apprentices. Such committees encourage apprentices to attend suitable classes, either by persuading their employers to allow them time off for day-time instruction, or by providing inducements, such as annual prizes or increased wages for successful students. These committees follow no common plan in their organisation probably because, in the majority of cases, they have depended for their inception upon the energetic efforts of a few interested persons rather than upon any general concerted move by the industry as a whole. All of them, however, have rendered excellent service and their assistance has been welcomed by the Local Education Authorities.

An increase in the number of local apprenticeship committees would be a beneficial development, particularly if it could be accompanied by some effort on the part of the industry to co-ordinate their efforts and reduce their isolation. Such a development, in the case of carpentry

and joinery, would strengthen the support given to the technical schools and colleges locally in their efforts to provide adequate and satisfactory educational facilities for this trade. It would also tend to unite and to render more effective the strong craft interest which exists, not only among apprentices, journeymen and employers in carpentry and joinery, but also among general builders, architects and others to whom this interesting craft makes a strong appeal.

(b) *The Carpenters' Company*

This London City Company obtained its charter in 1477 and a grant of arms rather earlier, but documents in the Record Office show that it was active as early as 1333. It now occupies a Hall built in modern times on the site of an older Hall which perished in the Great Fire.

Among several directions in which the Company has assisted trade training and technical education may be mentioned the Trades Training School in Great Titchfield Street, London, W. The Carpenters' Company took the lead in founding this school in 1895, and eight other City Livery Companies collaborated in the provision of instruction in the various building trades.

The Company also provides annually two short courses of public lectures, one course being concerned with "Sanitary Building Construction," the other with "Carpentry and Joinery." Each course of lectures is followed by an examination which, in the case of Carpentry and Joinery, comprises written, oral and practical tests and extends over two days. Successful candidates are awarded, according to grade, a pass, a bronze medal, a silver medal, or even a gold medal. The possession of one of these awards carries some weight in certain quarters, and forms one qualification for membership of the Incorporated British Institute of Certified Carpenters. The Carpenters' Company lends its rooms to the Incorporated British Institute of Certified

Carpenters for its meetings and lectures, and also offers hospitality frequently to other organisations connected with the trade or with building in general.

(c) *The Incorporated British Institute of Certified Carpenters (the "I.B.I.C.C.")*

This Institute was founded in 1890, and incorporated in 1903. The aims and objects of the Institute are—"To uphold the traditions of an Historic Craft, and by its activities help to further these traditions and promote the general interest of its members." Monthly meetings are held at the Carpenters' Hall; lectures and visits to works are arranged frequently both in London and in the provinces, and a Journal is published quarterly. In addition to the London Section there are four provincial Sections and one in Australia. There are two classes of members—Fellows and Associates. Entrance to the Associate class involves the passing of one of three examinations, either that of the Carpenters' Company, or of the City and Guilds of London Institute, or of the Institute itself. For admission to the class of Fellows higher qualifications are required. Candidates for admission to either class must be over 21 years of age and must have worked in the trade for at least 5 years. There is also a Students' Section, into which candidates who have worked at the trade are admitted on attaining the age of 18 years and after passing an examination. At present the Institute has over 800 members, of whom about one-third are Fellows.

(d) *The City and Guilds of London Institute*

The City and Guilds of London Institute was founded in 1878, incorporated under the Companies Acts in 1880, and obtained the grant of a Royal Charter in 1900.

In the early years of its existence the Institute exercised considerable influence on the development of instruction in technological subjects, not only by the examinations which it arranged and still holds, but also by the payment

of grants in aid of such instruction, between the years 1879 to 1891, and in other ways. The Department of Technology, which is an important branch of the Institute, now holds examinations in over 80 technical subjects, of which Carpentry and Joinery is one. These examinations are held at centres throughout Great Britain, Ireland, the Overseas Dominions, India and the Crown Colonies.

In common with other institutions and bodies responsible for the holding of technical examinations, the Department makes use of a number of Advisory Committees. It has a separate Advisory Committee for Carpentry and Joinery, which consists of representatives of the Worshipful Company of Carpenters, the Institute of Builders, the Incorporated British Institute of Certified Carpenters, the Association of Technical Institutions, the Association of Principals of Technical Institutions, the Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions, a number of teachers and an employer nominated by the Institute, and one of H.M. Inspectors of the Board of Education. From this Committee a Moderating Committee is elected which is responsible for reviewing each year the draft examination papers before they are finally adopted.

II. THE PROVISION OF INSTRUCTION

6. *The general organisation of technical education*

The bulk of technical instruction in this country is given in the form of part-time evening instruction. Other arrangements, such as part-time day instruction and full-time instruction exist and are described below in so far as they concern the student of carpentry and joinery. Compared with the conditions which were very general at the commencement of the present century, the most striking change in the organisation of part-time technical instruction consists in the widespread adoption of organised courses of instruction, and the accompanying changes in examination arrangements, by which at least the earlier annual examinations are largely conducted locally, either by single technical institutions, by single Local Education Authorities or by Regional Examining Unions consisting of groups of such Authorities.

As a result the student of technology is now encouraged to enter at a suitable age upon a carefully graded course of instruction, comprising not only the principal subject in which he is interested, but also other subjects which are intended to equip him more fully for the study of his principal subject. In a well organised course in Carpentry and Joinery, for example, instruction is given in the theoretical and practical aspects of the trade and also in such ancillary subjects as geometry, calculations and science. The student is not as a rule allowed to pass from one year's course to the next above, until he has shown, by examination results and the general quality of his work, that he is capable of proceeding to a further stage in his studies. In the final stages he is usually prepared for some well-recognised examination of a national character.

Since these arrangements are necessarily more elaborate and less readily grasped by the non-expert person than the relatively simple arrangements which were formerly

considered sufficient, it is of great importance that the young apprentice should be fully informed with respect to such facilities as are available, and that he should receive the necessary guidance, advice and support to enable him to choose a proper course of instruction, to enter upon it as soon as possible and to continue therein until he completes it satisfactorily. It is also incumbent upon those responsible for the preparation and development of such schemes of instruction that they obtain the services of those best able to assist them in respect of both the educational and the industrial aspects of these studies. In all this work local representatives of the trade can be of considerable assistance as members of school, local, regional or national advisory bodies.

7. Evening classes for Carpenters and Joiners

In entering upon his technical studies, the young apprentice will usually be called upon to decide whether he intends to limit himself to the study of subjects related directly to his trade or whether, granted the ability to do so, he intends to take up studies over a wider field, embracing several trades or a complete industry. For the apprentice carpenter and joiner this will usually mean a choice between a "Trade Course" in Carpentry and Joinery, and a General Building Course. These two types of courses are described below.

The completeness of the scheme of instruction provided at any school will be conditioned mainly by the size of the school and the magnitude of the local demand. The latter will depend upon the support given to the school by local trade representatives and upon the number of apprentices who can be induced to attend.

In very small schools it may not be possible to provide a complete and independent course of instruction for carpenters and joiners. In such cases one or two complete years of a suitable course should, if possible, be maintained, from which successful students may pass forward

to a larger school to complete their studies. Where, however, the small school is so isolated that transfer is impossible, combined classes may have to be formed, including students at different stages. Where this arrangement is unavoidable, full recognition should be given to the drawbacks inherent in the plan, suitable modifications being introduced into the curriculum and syllabuses and more time allowed in which to complete the course of instruction.

(a) *The Trade Course in Carpentry and Joinery*

This type of course is intended for the apprentice who desires to make a thorough study of his own trade, both on the theoretical and the practical sides. Such courses may extend over four, five or even six years. The student should enter the course about the age of 16 years. The educational standard of entry which is required, is reached, in the case of the ex-elementary school pupil, by previous attendance at a two-year Preliminary Technical Course held at an Evening Institute. If, however, the apprentice has previously been in attendance at a junior technical school or a secondary school, his educational training will usually justify his exemption from some part or the whole of the Preliminary Technical Course.

As a rule the trade course will be based upon attendance at a technical school on three evenings per week, during a winter session of from 25 to 28 weeks. One evening each week should be devoted to the theoretical study of carpentry and joinery, by means of drawing and written work, another evening to practical work at the bench, and the third evening to the study of some useful ancillary subject, such as calculations, geometry, building construction, or science.

In the largest institutions special advanced classes will be available in such specialised subjects as Handrailing, Stair-building and Shopfitting. These will usually be taken by capable students following the successful completion of the Trade Course described above.

(b) *The General Building Course*

The other alternative open to the apprentice carpenter and joiner is to attend a General Building Course. In this type of course he will acquire a knowledge of the building industry as a whole. The standard of entry is higher than for a trade course, while the instruction is naturally much more comprehensive and general. Usually these courses are divided into two portions, a Senior Course of three years' duration, followed by an Advanced Course of two years' duration. The principal subject of study in the Senior Course is Building Construction, to which are added such subjects as Mathematics, Building Science and Geometry. In the Advanced Course these subjects may be carried to a higher stage and in addition various subjects such as Builders' Quantities, Sanitation, Surveying, etc., may be studied.

The majority of schools providing general building courses are now approved for the granting of National Certificates, under the arrangements made jointly by the Institute of Builders and the Board of Education. Ordinary National Certificates are awarded on the successful completion of a Senior Course, and Higher National Certificates at the end of an Advanced Course.

An apprentice carpenter and joiner who has entered upon a general building course and has obtained the Ordinary National Certificate in Building may be well advised to proceed next to an intensive study of carpentry and joinery. Such a candidate would be entitled to receive the Full Technological Certificate of the City and Guilds as soon as he has passed the Final Examination in Carpentry and Joinery, in virtue of the fact that he holds an Ordinary National Certificate.

From what has been said it will be seen that normally the existing arrangements in technical schools and colleges are sufficiently elastic in character to enable the apprentice to choose a course of study which is reasonably well suited to his needs, his ability and his aims.

8. *Day Classes for Carpenters and Joiners*

Considerable attention has been given in recent years to the provision of day classes for apprentices in the building trades, and there is increasing recognition among employers and others of the advantages to be gained by day-time attendance. In 1928 there were 50 centres at which part-time day classes had been established for students engaged in the building trades.* This number is steadily increasing. These classes have usually been initiated either by the Local Education Authority acting independently, or as a result of the establishment of a local apprenticeship or advisory committee. The largest numbers of apprentices in attendance in 1928 were at Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds, Cardiff and Swansea, at all of which except Leeds there were joint official arrangements between the industry and the Local Education Authority. In the same year there was a total of 2,337 building students in attendance at such classes and of these 673 were carpenters and joiners. Nearly half of these apprentices were 16 years of age or under, and the majority attended for one day per week, in their employer's time, usually without loss of wages.

The arrangement of the curriculum for students in part-time day classes is usually similar to that already described in connection with evening classes. The majority of the students attend for one whole day or for two half-days per week. The yearly session is generally of longer duration than for evening classes. As a rule the students also attend on one or more evenings per week. Thus, in addition to the general advantages to be gained from attendance in the day time, the students are able to devote more time per session to their studies. This extra time is used in a variety of ways. Either the total duration of the course may be shortened, the progress made in each year being more

* See "Day Classes for Building Apprentices," (1928), obtainable of H.M. Stationery Office, price 4d. net.

substantial than in the shorter evening sessions, or the opportunity is taken to broaden the character of the instruction and to cover a wider field of study.

In view of the fact that permission to attend part-time day classes is only given, as a rule, during the early years of apprenticeship, the day-time instruction is generally planned to enable the students to complete their studies in the evening courses as they grow older.

9. *Junior Technical Schools*

There is no provision of full-time instruction of a senior standard in Carpentry and Joinery, but among various forms of full-time technical instruction which might be utilised by the boy intending to enter this trade, mention should be made of the Junior Technical School.

Students normally enter these Schools about the age of 13 or 14 years and continue for two or three years, thus completing the course about the age of 16 years. These schools may be roughly grouped according to their aims as technical, commercial, domestic work and art.* Except in certain large centres of population, and particularly London, the schools in the technical group cater for students who intend to enter any one of a related group of trades. In the majority of the provincial schools it is the engineering trades which are thus served, since the engineering industry has given strong support in the past to these schools. In a few cases, however, where the local representatives of the building industry have shown a willingness to give similar support and to employ boys who have completed their training at these schools, it has been possible to introduce simple modifications in the curriculum of the schools in an attempt to increase the direct value of the instruction to

* For a more complete statement of the character and aims of these schools see "The Junior Technical School," (1930), obtainable at H.M. Stationery Office, price 6d. net.

boys entering one or other of the building trades. Such Junior Technical Schools may be described as pre-apprenticeship schools preparing for the "Constructive Trades." More developments of this nature might be carried through with the support of the industry, the benefits to be derived being mutually advantageous to the industry and to the schools.

Only in and around London has the support of the building industry been sufficiently definite and extensive to enable complete Junior Technical Schools of Building to be maintained. In these schools the curriculum is directed generally towards the building industry as a whole, while some amount of definite trade instruction is given in the final years. Since these schools are more or less similarly organised it will be sufficient to describe one of them in detail.

The Junior Technical School of Building at the Northern Polytechnic Institute is intended for boys over 13 years of age who propose to enter one of the crafts connected with Building. The course is of three years' duration, and the school has four sections: carpentry and joinery, brick-laying, plumbing and decorating. On entry a boy is asked what trade he desires to follow. The final decision in this matter is, however, postponed until the end of the first year. During the first year, in the time devoted to workshop instruction, each boy spends one term in each of three out of the four workshops serving the crafts named above. He is thus enabled at the end of the first year, with the assistance of the school staff and after consultation with his parents, to select that trade which seems best fitted to his abilities, aims and temperament. From this time onwards, while the instruction in certain general subjects is common to all the sections, each boy devotes particular attention to the trade which he has chosen, while instruction in technology and the workshop instruction is centred mainly in that trade.

The following weekly time-table indicates the subjects included during the full course and the time given per week to each of them in each year of the course at the Northern Polytechnic Institute. From this it will be seen that, while instruction in general subjects predominates in the first year, increasing attention is given to technology and to practical instruction in the workshop as the course proceeds.

Weekly Time Table for Carpenters and Joiners.

	1st Year.	2nd Year.	3rd Year.
	Hours.	Hours.	Hours.
Geometry	2	2	1½
English	5½	4	2½
Mathematics	4	2½	2
Physical Training	1½	1½	1½
Physics	2	1½	—
Art	3	4½	2½
Chemistry	2	1½	—
Building Construction	4½	4	3
Sanitation	—	1	1
Building Science	—	—	2½
Materials	—	—	1
History of the Crafts	—	—	1
Setting Out	—	—	2½
Workshop Practice	8	10	11½
Totals	32½	32½	32½

As indicating in some measure the way in which these schools are valued by the industry it may be mentioned that, under the "Model Scheme of Apprenticeship of the London Building Trade Joint Apprenticeship Committee" a boy who has satisfactorily completed the course at a junior technical school of Building and has obtained a certificate of proficiency from the Principal, may count the

period so spent as part of his apprenticeship and start at the corresponding rate of wages. There are other localities in which this privilege is offered to the students.

10. *Attendance at evening classes*

In his technical studies it is noticeable that the apprentice carpenter and joiner generally exhibits wider interests than apprentices in any of the other building trades. Thus he is to be found not only in the trade courses provided specially for him, but also, and in large numbers, in the general building courses. This is true of all parts of the country. It would therefore have been very difficult to give exact figures of the total number of carpenters and joiners in attendance at technical classes, since such figures would require a careful and laborious analysis of the occupations of students attending a considerable variety of classes.

The following particulars, taken from Table 62 of the Report of the Board of Education for England and Wales for 1932 * may, however, serve to give some general indication of the position. The figures show that, after Building Construction, the classes in Carpentry and Joinery form the largest single group in building subjects. In the year ending 31st July, 1932, there were 812 classes in Carpentry and Joinery, with 14,815 class entries, and 52 classes in Woodworking Machinery, with 763 class-entries.

* " Education in 1932," price 3s. 6d. net of H.M. Stationery Office.

III. THE ORGANISATION OF THE INSTRUCTION

11. *The aim and duration of the Courses of Instruction*

Among various problems to be settled by the schools in the conduct and development of this work, some of the most difficult are those connected with the planning of suitable courses of instruction. Such courses should aim to cover with reasonable thoroughness all accepted trade practices, and at the same time be so arranged that they will respond readily to changing demands following the adoption of new methods by the trade. These aims must be accomplished within a curriculum which is neither so full nor so difficult as to place impossible demands upon the apprentice.

These problems are at present of peculiar difficulty in this trade since, as has already been pointed out, changes are taking place which are having profound effects upon the employment and training of apprentices. Though the nature of these changes is hardly in doubt, they do not yet appear to be of such magnitude as to justify alterations of a revolutionary character in the courses of instruction at present provided. Some general adjustments, however, do appear to be necessary and a number of suggestions are given below.

In the development of such courses as are here being considered there are usually two strongly marked tendencies. The first is towards the retention in the syllabuses of material which has proved to be of considerable value in former days and with which the majority of the teachers are familiar. The second is the insistent demand for the inclusion of new material. Unless considerable care is exercised there is a danger of the courses of instruction becoming so overloaded that only the most capable apprentices can hope to bring their studies to a successful conclusion. There appears to be need therefore for some generally accepted ideas as to the aim and duration of such courses.

It is suggested that what may be called the "normal trade course" in carpentry and joinery, should aim at providing the apprentice with a knowledge of the theoretical and practical aspects of current practice in the trade in all ordinary work, together with some practical experience in correct tool-manipulation and in a reasonable range of examples of wood construction. In a suitably planned course the apprentice of average ability ought to be able to acquire the groundwork in four winter sessions from the age of 16 years, provided that he has been suitably prepared for entry into such a course at that age.

With regard to such specialised sections of the trade as handrailing, circle-on-circle work, shopfitting, and form-work and shuttering, it is further suggested that wherever the demand justifies them, advanced classes should be established in these subjects for the more capable apprentice and the journeyman.

The removal of most of the specialised work from the normal course, except perhaps for an elementary and general introduction, would lighten the course, as compared with current practice in the schools, thus enabling a higher proportion of apprentices to complete the normal course with satisfaction to themselves and benefit to the trade.

The separate treatment at an advanced stage of the more specialised sections of the trade, would make for greater thoroughness and for greater elasticity in planning the instruction as a whole. The trade representatives would also have more effective and more numerous opportunities for influencing and encouraging the development and extension of instruction in these important sections, and in the treatment of new methods not yet firmly established in the trade.

Though the proposals outlined above may not appear to the ordinary reader to be of a very revolutionary character, they are such as should secure the best use of existing facilities and experience within the schools, and at the same

time open the way to a fuller and more complete treatment of new and unusual work. They should certainly assist in the development among the apprentices of such a measure of general adaptability and skill in woodworking as would contribute largely to the solution of those problems which arise in times of changing practice in a trade.

The nature of the instruction given to carpenters and joiners may now be surveyed in greater detail. It will be convenient to do this under the three heads of (a) theoretical instruction, (b) workshop instruction, and (c) instruction in ancillary subjects. This threefold division is usually followed in planning the courses, and is a convenient one for educational and administrative reasons.

12. Theoretical Instruction in Carpentry and Joinery

In a four-year normal trade course of the type described in para. 11, instruction in the First Year should be mainly of an introductory character so far as the technology of the trade is concerned. It should deal with all the simpler forms of construction involving the less complicated wood-work joints and the common modes of fixing. These should be illustrated by drawings in orthographic projection and by sketches, with the addition of brief descriptive notes, the latter, at this stage, being usually written down from dictation, following brief explanatory talks by the teacher.

The details of carpentry which should be dealt with include the fixing of wall plates and lintels; the methods of constructing and laying single wood floors; the construction of untrussed roofs, with adequate treatment of the methods of finding the lengths and bevels of common rafters in plain roofs without hips or valleys. Work in joinery should include simple door frames and linings, the construction of ledged and braced doors and of the common four-panelled door and simple casement frames and sashes. All the simple tools should be discussed and described in notes. Notes should also be made of the common kinds of

timber in general use, the market forms, both plain and machined, and the manner in which timber is measured and sold, including also notes on natural seasoning and the changes which take place in wood with changes in moisture content.

Considerable time should be spent in the acquirement of some measure of skill in drawing, both with and without instruments, so that the progress of the students at later stages may not be hindered by lack of skill in this direction.

In the Second Year the work should include the simpler forms of trussed roof, with the methods of forming openings and gutters and preparing for lead work. The trimming of floors and the construction of floors of larger span should also be covered. Roofs with hips and valleys should be dealt with, and the geometrical work involved in finding all the necessary lengths and bevels.

Various kinds of temporary carpentry should now be introduced, such as are involved in the timbering of foundation trenches, the construction of centering for arches of small span and for simple concrete work. In joinery, double-hung sashes and the more elaborate forms of case-ment frames and sashes should be included. Panelled doors and panelled wall framing should be dealt with together with all the usual interior wood finishes to walls, including door and window openings, as well as the usual methods of fixing these. The treatment of stairs should include straight flights with closed strings, risers, treads and landings.

Both in drawing and in note-taking greater facility and more originality and independence on the part of the student should be expected and encouraged at this stage. Periodical inspection and assessment of notebooks by the teacher should not be omitted at any stage.

In this year the references to tools might include brief descriptions of the principal woodworking machines, together with a simple statement of the kind of work for which each is suited.

In the Third and Fourth years the work already introduced should be developed to a further stage. This development should follow two courses. There should be the development of instruction arising out of the greater complexity of the parts, as in temporary work, roofs, windows, doors, door openings, stairs and interior finishings. There should also be that arising out of those problems—new to the student at this stage—which involve the co-ordination of the efforts of a number of men or departments, such as are involved in the preparation of and manufacture of material and fittings at the shop and the erection and fixing of them in the building. The former aspect of the instruction will necessarily involve more detailed and more difficult work on the drawing board, while the latter will be dealt with in short lectures followed by adequate note-taking. At this stage, in view of the experience which most of the students will have gained, the teacher may well encourage discussion of some of the simpler problems of organisation. In this way he will be enabled to learn something of the circumstances which his students have to face, and have an opportunity of increasing their confidence, not only in the capacity of their teacher but—and this is perhaps more important—in the soundness and value of the knowledge and experience provided for them in the school course.

New work which will be dealt with will include particularly those sections which depend upon the application of solid geometry for their proper solution, such as the setting out of large arch centres of unusual outline, the intersection of mouldings and surfaces, the formation of curved and irregular roof surfaces, and a simple introduction to circle-on-circle work in windows and doors (limited say to two-piece heads), and to handrailing (see below). In addition some consideration should be given to the design and construction of large weight-bearing timber structures, such as beams (trussed and untrussed), large arch centres, roof trusses, gantries, shoring and formwork for reinforced

concrete. This is work which should involve some amount of calculation and also some knowledge of the relevant mechanical principles.

The problems involved in the co-ordination of machine work and bench work should be considered, particular emphasis being laid upon the effects which these new methods may have upon the traditional methods of jointing, framing and general construction. The capacities of the various machines should be demonstrated and the students should be acquainted with the various safety devices for machine users.

There should be some study of the use of such materials as veneers, ply-woods, pulp-boards, laminated boards, and metal-faced boards, and of the methods of construction associated with these materials, and also with the special problems of sound-proof or acoustic construction and heat insulation where wood is used.

A more extended treatment of timbers in general use should be given. Since the variety of timbers in general use is considerable and is tending to increase with the greater use of Empire timbers, an attempt should be made to classify the various timbers in broad groups, and to give chief attention to those qualities and differences which affect the use of wood for constructional purposes. Elaborate botanical descriptions, though of great interest, should be avoided.

A more thorough investigation of the problems of seasoning and preservation of timber should be made at this stage. Artificial seasoning should be considered in some detail, including references to the practical problems involved in the use of the ordinary types of drying kilns. Out of this study will naturally develop a consideration of the various conditions in buildings affecting the permanence of timber constructions, the effect of moisture changes, the need for adequate ventilation, and a knowledge of the destructive diseases affecting timber and of the use of preservatives.

In all this work full use should be made of the various publications issued from time to time by the Forest Products Research and the British Standards Institution.

Mention has already been made of examples of advanced classes, conducted at some of the larger institutions, in Handrailing and Stair-building, in Shop-fitting and in Formwork and Shuttering. The following brief details will serve to indicate the scope of the work which may be attempted. In Staircasing, in the Fourth Year, the student should have dealt with the design and construction of simple cases of "open newel" and "geometrical" stairs and with the construction of various shaped strings and steps. In the special class beyond this stage he will deal with more difficult and unusual cases, including possibly, staircases which are circular or elliptical on plan. For these he will prepare suitable designs and working details from general dimensions taken from plans or from an actual building.

In Handrailing in the Fourth Year he will have been introduced to the method known as the "tangent and square cut" method, or to the "normal section" method, but not usually to both. He will probably have constructed easings and wreaths for several straightforward cases. These will usually include at least the quarter-turn to a level landing or a return twist to wall, the pair of wreaths for a half-space landing, and also a scroll wreath for a straight flight, the dimensions in all these cases being carefully selected so as not to give rise to complications beyond the capacity of the student at this stage. In the advanced course this work will include a fuller treatment of the methods in general use together with more difficult examples of the cases mentioned above, and of wreaths over "irregular," circular or elliptical plans. Finally, workshop methods, including the fitting of iron cores and the use of machinery for cutting and moulding wreaths will be fully discussed.

The advanced course in Shopfitting will deal with the general problems of shop front design, including all special window fittings, interior fittings and independent and airtight show cases. Special fittings, such as are required in offices, banks, etc., will also be included.

In the advanced course in Formwork and Shuttering all the ordinary work involved in the formation of floors, beams, columns, walls and roofs will be dealt with more fully than is possible in the normal course, followed by such special formwork as is required for stairs, vaulting, domes, ornamental and pre-cast work.

13. *Workshop instruction in Carpentry and Joinery*

The chief difficulty met by the teacher when dealing with workshop instruction in the early stages of such courses as are here outlined lies in the entire lack or the very moderate range of manual skill possessed by the young apprentice. Most boys have some rudimentary knowledge of wood-working tools, obtained either at a day school or in some other way before entry on apprenticeship. This will have been supplemented by early experience as an apprentice in the shop. It is to be feared, however, that there are few shops in which the young apprentice receives systematic instruction in tool manipulation during the early stages of his apprenticeship. If the number was greater the teacher's problem could be dealt with on more systematic lines and the instruction become correspondingly more effective.

The skilled teacher of practical work is properly expected to place great emphasis upon the acquirement of correct habits in tool-manipulation. This he generally endeavours to do. Exaggerated hopes are, however, often entertained with respect to what can be achieved in this direction, the severe limitations under which he works being too often forgotten. Thus, under the best conditions in a part-time evening course he may only expect to have each apprentice under his charge for practical instruction for a matter of

about 50 hours per annum, i.e. for about 1/40th of the time which the apprentice will spend in his every-day employment.

It follows, therefore, that the practical instruction in the First Year of the course can only be of the simplest kind and must in the main be limited to the correct use and care of all the common bench tools, and to the construction of the more fundamental types of wood joints. The latter afford excellent practice in setting out and the use of tools on work which can be comprehended by the young student. Preferably these joints should be incorporated in some simple piece of construction, forming either portions or the whole of such items as wall plates, simple door and window frames, portions of floor and roof work and of benches, trestles, tables, shelving and drawers. Each object should be constructed either from a neat dimensioned sketch or from a full-sized drawing. The common modes of fixing should also be dealt with, such as the use of nails, screws, glue, wedges, and pins.

In the Second Year more difficult joints will be attempted while the pieces of construction will usually be larger and, wherever possible, should form complete units. Thus, doors and sashes will be fitted to and fixed or hung to suitable frames. Similarly, complete roof trusses or floor details may be attempted to some scale less than full-size. It should be noted, however, that in constructing roof work and floor examples full-size sections may be used if the lengths of the members are reduced to bring the whole structure within reasonable limits. Some simple stair work should also be included.

The use of setting out boards or " rods " should be fully developed at this stage, and no piece of work should be constructed until these preliminary stages, including the preparation of a " cutting list " for the timber, have been passed. In view of the time necessary to complete the larger examples and of the considerable amount of timber

involved, a number of them may be completed as "team work," two or more students participating in each piece of work.

In the Third and Fourth Years more difficult work will be attempted including most of the items of construction dealt with under the head of theoretical instruction (see para. 12).

In their Fourth Year those students who propose to take the Final Examination of the City and Guilds of London Institute will prepare during the session a piece of "Specimen Work." In the past the examples submitted in this connection have ranged over a very wide field, from relatively simple pieces of carpentry made full-size, to intricate models of construction done to a very small scale and approximating rather to model-making than to either carpentry or joinery. Again, while the work in some cases has clearly been executed as part of a complete session's practical work, other pieces have been so elaborate as to have occupied most of, if not more than, the time allocated to practical work in the final session. Since it would appear that the purpose of the submission of specimen work, taken together with the practical examination test, is solely to enable the examiner to judge whether a candidate has reached a satisfactory level in general skill and dexterity, over-elaboration in the details of the examples chosen and an excessive expenditure of time thereon appears to be unnecessary and should be avoided.

Owing to the courtesy of the City and Guilds of London Institute, it has been possible to inspect the whole of the specimen work in Carpentry and Joinery submitted this year (1933). Although the range of examples is still very great, too considerable in fact to lend themselves to ready summary in this pamphlet, it would appear that, in comparison with former years, a definite preference is being shown for work which is free from elaborate detail. The

majority of the examples chosen exhibit all of the more desirable qualities of straightforward craftsmanship in wood.

Much of the work reached a high level of excellence, and it is significant of the choice of examples that, apart from some excellent examples of handrailing, some of the best work is shown in the construction of doors, windows and panelling details. It is not of course suggested that mouldings and other elaborations should be omitted where they are proper to the piece, but in all such cases a proper relation must be maintained between the demands made upon the student and the level of skill to which he has attained.

The working drawings which accompany the specimen work should similarly not be over-elaborated, nor done in a style of draughtsmanship which is unfamiliar to or beyond the capacity of the student. Both the design and details of his chosen piece of construction should be based upon careful study of and selection from good examples.

It is unfortunate that, though the specimen work is eventually returned to the schools, there is no opportunity for the schools to view the work as a whole or even to know what types of examples are being selected generally. Though there are obvious dangers in the work becoming stereotyped if certain pieces of work appear to find favour, yet considerable help would be rendered if, from time to time, photographs of groups of the best examples could be made available to the schools, either through the technical press or in other ways.

With regard to the practical work, which it is suggested should be done in advanced classes, this should be viewed as work which is separate from and beyond the normal instruction and examinations established solely for the apprentice carpenter and joiner. Enough experience has been gained in various parts of the country to show that it is possible to make provision in this direction which will prove attractive and valuable, both to the capable apprentice

and the more skilled journeymen. In such work the trade should look to see the development of current craftsmanship carried to its highest stage, and the skill and knowledge of the well-trained craftsman applied to the modern problems of the trade. It would appear therefore that it is here that, in the best interests of the trade, some scheme might be devised which would have for its chief aim the more systematic development of the highest forms of craftsmanship in wood, either by the offer of awards or by the publication of results in such a form as to facilitate comparison, criticism and commendation.

Although modern practice tends to remove from the sphere of the craftsman nearly all the major problems of design, and although it may be quite proper that for many students much of this advanced instruction should consist mainly of workshop practice and instruction, yet it has been found that, for those students possessing some skill in draughtsmanship, most interest is created if they attempt some simple design. Thus these students may prepare a general design for the complete interior fittings of a wood-panelled room, a shop, a bank, a staircase, etc., following which they may prepare working drawings for some section and execute a portion of it in wood. In every case such work should only be planned after a careful survey of existing work of a similar character, either as measured from existing examples or as illustrated in the technical press. For this latter purpose a small library of up-to-date trade journals and books is invaluable. In this connection the work of the teachers would be greatly facilitated if architects and builders would assist them by the loan of working drawings and photographs of recently executed pieces of woodwork of outstanding merit.

14. *Instruction in Ancillary Subjects*

As already explained, in a course for carpenters and joiners occupying 3 nights per week in each winter session,

one evening is usually devoted to theoretical instruction, a second evening to workshop instruction and a third evening to one of several ancillary subjects. This latter instruction usually embraces the subjects of Calculations, Geometry, Applied Science and Building Construction.

In a normal Four-Year Course the instruction in Calculations starts with a revision of elementary arithmetical work, and then goes on to develop the general rules of the mensuration of areas and solids and show them in use in connection with trade calculations and trade methods of measurement. At an early stage the use of duodecimals in the calculations connected with trade quantities will be explained and suitable examples given. The use of symbols in building-up formulae may very well form part of the work on mensuration, from which further work on algebra may be developed naturally and easily. The use of the right-angled triangle, together with its practical applications, will be dealt with very fully. Finally the use of graphs for plotting experimental results, in the analysis of costs, and the use of logarithms and logarithmic calculators will be explained.

In Geometry simple work on the construction of scales, angles and plane figures will lead up to the treatment of orthographic or solid geometry, a proper understanding of which is of such vital importance to the carpenter and joiner. As a basis of sketching and for other purposes the student should acquire a knowledge of both oblique and isometric projection at an early stage.

The bulk of the geometrical problems involved in straightforward roof-work will have been completed by the end of the third year. The more difficult work involved in the intersection of curved surfaces, as in vaults and domes, and an introduction to work of double curvature and to hand-railing will be dealt with in the Third and Fourth years, when the student may be attempting work of this nature

in the workshop class. Some work in graphic statics as applied to framed structures, may be done in the geometry class if it is not fully covered elsewhere.

With regard to the instruction in Applied Science it must be said that up to the present it has not in general received as much consideration as its importance justifies. In part this has no doubt been due to the difficulty of apportioning the necessary time in a course which is already fairly full. The major difficulty, however, appears to arise from the fact that this section of instruction has not yet been fully explored, so that few teachers are able to deal with it except in a somewhat limited fashion. This latter defect is, however, being steadily remedied, thanks to the efforts of a number of the more progressive teachers. Its solution is being aided by useful information which is being issued by the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, based upon work done in connection with the Building Research and the Forest Products Research.

In many schools it has not been found possible, owing to difficulties of organisation, to establish separate science classes for carpenters and joiners. In these cases the students take the wider and more general subject of Building Science, which provides most of the instruction they need, together with other valuable work of more general application in building.

Where, however, a separate Science class can be formed for carpenters and joiners, the work may be roughly divided into two main sections ; that dealing with the strength and other general qualities of the materials used by the carpenter and joiner, and that dealing with the mechanical problems involved in the larger timber constructions. In addition there should be some work on the use of hoisting tackle and on the stability of scaffolding. In the first section the principal work will be the investigation of the strength of timber in compression, tension and bending, and also the seasoning and preservation of timber. All this work should

be dealt with experimentally as far as circumstances allow, including the carrying out of practical tests on some form of testing machine. In the second section, in addition to the usual graphic analysis of the forces acting in triangulated structures, some work should be done on the strength of timber joints. At the end of the course the student should at least be able to design timber beams and simple framed structures for all normal requirements.

With regard to the subject of Building Construction, these students will usually attend a class designed for the general building student, no special departure from the normal treatment of this subject being made on their account. Where, however, a separate class can be formed for carpenters and joiners, it will be possible to take advantage of the fact that these students, having already dealt with their own trade with some fullness, can spend more time on the work of the other trades with which they are less familiar. It may be pointed out that the main object in the case of these students is to obtain, through the study of Building Construction, a useful acquaintance with the work of the other trades and with the problems which arise in co-ordinating these trades on a building in process of erection. It is often found to be most advantageous, therefore, to take this subject towards the end of the normal trade course rather than at the beginning, since a certain maturity of outlook and a modicum of general experience on the part of the student is thus ensured.

Finally it may be mentioned that certain students of Carpentry and Joinery derive great benefit from the study, at a suitable stage, of the subject of Builders' Quantities, and facilities are frequently provided which allow of this being done.

15. Examination and Certification

As has already been pointed out (see paragraph 6) the outstanding changes in the organisation of part-time technical instruction in recent times have been the widespread adoption

of organised courses of instruction and the development of local arrangements for the annual examinations. At the commencement of the present century the principal examinations in technology were those held by the City and Guilds of London Institute and by the Board of Education.* These examinations were completely external in character, that is, the schools had no voice in the preparation of syllabuses and the setting of papers. Following an increase in the number of full-time teachers employed in technical institutions, and an accompanying and general improvement in the professional qualifications of both full-time and part-time teachers, these arrangements have been gradually supplemented by others in which a much greater share in the work of examination is undertaken by the teachers and schools locally.

At all stages up to the final stage, the annual examinations taken by students are now largely local examinations. The necessary arrangements—including the preparation of syllabuses and the setting and marking of the examination papers—may be made either by a single school, in the case of the larger institutions, by a single authority, in the case of some of the larger county boroughs and administrative counties, or by a group of authorities acting together for this purpose as a regional examining union.

The County Authorities which at present organise schemes of instruction and examination for their own schools are Kent, the West Riding, Surrey and Glamorgan. The principal regional examining bodies are the Union of Lancashire and Cheshire Institutes, the Northern Counties Technical Examinations Council, the Union of Educational Institutions and the East Midland Educational Union. It may be noted in passing that each of these bodies holds examinations in Carpentry and Joinery.

* For fuller particulars of these arrangements and later developments see "Report of the Departmental Committee on Examinations for Part-time Students," (1928), obtainable of H.M. Stationery Office, price 1s. 0d. net.

Subject to certain differences in detail the Councils of such bodies appoint a number of Advisory Committees to deal with the principal sections of technical instruction. Such Committees usually include representatives of the Education Authorities, principals, teachers, members of the trade or industry concerned and Inspectors of the Board of Education. The Building Advisory Committee will deal *inter alia* with the subject of Carpentry and Joinery, and will prepare syllabuses, suggest suitable examination arrangements and may nominate examiners for the consideration of the Council.

In general these examination arrangements have proved to be adequate for the purposes for which they have been established. Taken together with the adoption of organised courses of instruction, they have undoubtedly assisted in raising the general level of instruction and attainment, by helping the teachers to a better understanding of the problems involved in the preparation of syllabuses of instruction and the holding of examinations, and, in the case of the larger bodies, by making available generally the knowledge and experience of the most capable principals and teachers in each area. It is interesting to note that in Carpentry and Joinery, as in most technical subjects, a number of the persons assisting on these bodies and in the work of examination are directly connected with the trade.

These changes have, however, increased the need for some general system of co-ordination over the country as a whole. Fortunately, in the case of Carpentry and Joinery, there has always been a general desire that students should aim at taking the Final Examination of the City and Guilds of London Institute in this subject. The majority of the organised courses have therefore been planned to prepare students for this examination. In addition, and as a result of recent discussions, it is hoped that steps will be taken in future to increase the measure of co-ordination at the intermediate stages of the instruction, between the examinations of the City and Guilds and those conducted locally by the schools as described above.

In the case of the Final Examination in Carpentry and Joinery of the City and Guilds, a provisional certificate is awarded on the results of the examination, which consists of a written test, a practical test and the submission of a piece of Specimen Work. A Full Technological Certificate may, however, be obtained by the successful candidate if, in addition, he can satisfy the Institute as to his "knowledge of allied branches of Science and Art." As a rule this condition is fulfilled by the satisfactory completion of an organised course of instruction which includes a suitable range of ancillary subjects, and the Institute is prepared to approve courses for this purpose. In recent years there has been a substantial increase in the number of students taking the Final Examination (see Table below), as well as an improvement in the standard of the work done. The proportion of successful candidates who claim the Full Technological Certificate, though it is increasing, remains surprisingly low. It is to be hoped that all concerned will in future encourage apprentices both to qualify for and to claim this more complete form of certificate.

*City and Guilds of London Institute's Examinations in
Carpentry and Joinery*

	<i>Number of candidates for Final Examination.</i>	<i>Number of candidates who passed and received provisional Final Certificates.</i>	<i>Number of Full Technological Certificates awarded.</i>
1925 ..	193	109	12
1926 ..	235	154	12
1927 ..	271	174	36
1928 ..	284	161	26
1929 ..	376	231	31
1930 ..	442	283	35
1931 ..	526	323	86
1932 ..	544	342	60

16. *Qualifications of Teachers*

The great majority of teachers of Carpentry and Joinery are part-time teachers so far as this subject is concerned. There are those who are wholly engaged in some form of teaching, and those who are variously employed in the daytime, but principally in the trade of carpentry and joinery itself or in building, either as journeymen, foremen, managers or employers. As may be expected, teachers drawn from such varied sources can offer qualifications and experience in great variety, and there is little doubt that, taken as a whole, the teaching of the subject has been enriched thereby.

Some teachers happily combine skill in teaching with knowledge of their subject and extensive practical experience, but such are unfortunately in a minority. While it can be said that, in varying degree, all the teachers have either had some practical experience in the trade or have been closely associated with it, and are at least expected to hold some suitable qualification, such as is represented by the Full Technological Certificate of the City and Guilds of London Institute, there are yet to be found many teachers who lack some of the qualities necessary for successful teaching.

On the whole the arrangement of the work in organised courses has tended to reduce the effects of some of these weaknesses, by enforcing a more careful grading of the instruction, and by spreading the work of instruction among several teachers, so that each may be selected for those sections with which he is best fitted to deal. Such arrangements are, however, only possible in the large schools. The smaller schools are often faced with considerable difficulty in finding and in retaining capable teachers of this subject. In any case the number of qualified persons in a particular area can never be large, and some of these hold responsible positions in the trade which often make it either impossible or unprofitable for them to undertake evening teaching for such remuneration as can usually be offered. In addition

the work is difficult and arduous and is rarely undertaken by anyone not keenly interested in technical education and the trade.

The position is probably easier in the case of workshop instruction than it is in the case of theoretical instruction, since there are usually a larger number of men prepared and qualified to undertake practical instruction in Carpentry and Joinery than to teach the theoretical side of the subject. It is, however, a mistake to assume that instruction in workshop classes is easier than in other classes or less in need of well-qualified teachers. Indeed, substantial advances should be expected in the methods of practical instruction in the future. Such advances will require the service of well-qualified and skilful teachers, and also a larger measure of active co-operation between the schools and the trade than at present exists.

The development of means for the more methodical training of teachers of trade subjects has often been discussed. The difficulties to be faced are, however, considerable and in view of the comparatively small number of full-time teachers required it is unlikely that, at any rate at present, any very substantial arrangements could be established. Some experience has been gained in this direction on the Continent (see para. 4), where also it is appreciated that the increase of part-time day instruction, by increasing the number of full-time teaching posts and thereby the demand for better trained teachers, assists substantially in the solution of this problem. A considerable increase in part-time day instruction for carpenters and joiners, though desirable, is hardly likely to take place under existing conditions in this country. Improvements in the general qualifications of the teachers must therefore be looked for in other directions.

Fortunately experience shows that the general level of teaching in these subjects is rising. The more methodical and more extended instruction now given to carpenters and

joiners, is producing a number of young men with a sound knowledge of the subject and with a wider range of technical knowledge and experience than was formerly the case. This is particularly so where these young men obtain, in addition to suitable qualifications in their own subject, some qualifications in a wider field, such as is now represented by a National Certificate in Building. For such of these as are capable of becoming successful teachers, the larger schools can render a valuable service by offering to them 'posts as assistant teachers of Carpentry and Joinery or of closely allied subjects, and by supervising their work and gradually increasing their responsibilities as opportunity offers and their powers and experience justify. Excellent training for these teachers may thus be provided without any elaborate and new machinery. The responsibility for the development of this section of the work rests mainly with the Principals and Heads of Building Departments in the larger technical institutions, to whom its importance will be apparent.

A course for teachers of Carpentry and Joinery was organised at one of the recent summer courses of the Board of Education for teachers of building subjects. The response was good and the teachers appeared to derive considerable benefit therefrom. The number of teachers, particularly part-time teachers, who can devote nearly a fortnight to such a course is, however, small, so that it may not be possible to repeat such courses very often nor to cover more than a section of the whole of the teachers of the subject.

To reach a wider field short week-end or local part-time courses have also been organised, both by Local Education Authorities and by the Board of Education. Though none of these courses have been devoted solely to the subject of Carpentry and Joinery but have usually covered a wider field, they have done useful work and have contributed to the improvement of the teaching generally.

There remains the possibility of short courses or even single meetings, being planned and organised by some representative trade body, solely for teachers in such a subject as Carpentry and Joinery. In the case of Plastering and in several trades not connected with building, this plan has been tried with marked success. Not only are the subjects of instruction discussed at such conferences in direct relation to the problems of both the trade and the school, but the teachers are encouraged to feel that their efforts are appreciated generally and that they are making a definite contribution to the progress of the trade.

17. Accommodation and Equipment

For the proper instruction of carpenters and joiners accommodation is necessary in classrooms, drawing offices, workshops and experimental science laboratories. The accommodation needed, however, is relatively inconsiderable and, in all except the largest schools, some of it may be used in common with students in other groups.

A convenient arrangement which is possible in moderate-sized schools, is to provide rooms equipped so that they may be used either for lecture classes or drawing classes. This can be done by providing flat-topped tables suitable for either written work or drawing. The room should be fitted with adequate cupboard space for the storage and display of models of construction, or a separate storeroom provided or cupboards fixed in the corridors. For the display of models during the lesson either a large lecture table or a hinged side table should be provided. The blackboards must be ample in area, convenient in use, well illuminated and readily seen from all parts of the room. In some schools excellent use is made of both glass-fronted cupboards for the display of models, samples of timber and other materials, and of picture frames with backs which are readily removed for the display of photographs and drawings of important or interesting pieces of construction. Such a collection should be kept up-to-date and suitably

labelled. These rooms may vary between 500 and 800 square feet according to the size of the classes to be accommodated and the cupboards and other equipment to be fixed therein. The rooms should be so fitted that a projection lantern or epidiascope may be used.

In smaller schools a room of this type may also be fitted with a supply of gas and water and a few sinks fixed, including one in the lecture table. It may then be used occasionally for simple experimental work. In the larger institutions it is preferable that the students of Carpentry and Joinery make use of the laboratory accommodation provided generally for the Building Department. In addition to the usual equipment for dealing with the subject of Mechanics, there should be apparatus for making moisture tests on timber, and for the microscopical examination of timber sections or photographs thereof. There should also be facilities for the testing of timber in bending at least, and if possible also in tension, compression and shear.

While it is true that the majority of technical schools in this country possess woodwork shops, it cannot be said that many of them are really adequate either in size or equipment. Some of the older shops so provided are small and fitted with large unwieldy benches, which are unsatisfactory in use and which seriously reduce the number of students who can be accommodated. Many others, provided in more recent times, have been planned to be used by woodwork classes for young students below 16 years of age. The benches are therefore often too short, too low and too closely spaced for the older students attending in the evenings.

Additional difficulties also arise where the shop and the tools are used by different sets of teachers and different types of students in the day and the evening. The condition of the tools after use by the younger day school students is rarely such as to serve adequately the requirements of the

older evening student, who can ill afford to spend a considerable part of a short evening class in preparing the tools he needs. This difficulty has been solved in several schools by the provision of different sets of tools for day and evening classes, at least in the range of tools most frequently used and most liable to damage in unskilled hands. Finally, few of the existing shops are fitted with any woodworking machinery, and in this respect at least are probably not adequate for the needs of to-day, when so much machinery is in use.

In planning a new woodwork shop at least 40 to 50 square feet of floor space should be provided per student. In the larger institutions, in which a fair amount of woodworking machinery will be provided, this is best accommodated in a separate but adjoining room, thus allowing for the proper planning of the machinery room and the provision of adequate space about the machines. In smaller schools, however, both machinery and benches may have to be accommodated in one room. In this case the machines should be separated from the benches by a clear space, which is desirable in the interests of safety, but which may be utilised for setting-out large work. The benches may be about 5 ft. long, though even shorter benches may be provided if there are at least two larger benches for setting-out or glueing-up large pieces of work. A side bench will be necessary to accommodate the glue pots, while there should be adequate tool storage. It is convenient to provide sets of the tools most frequently required in racks near the benches. The arrangements for storing the tools should be well-planned, so as to be readily supervised and checked. Ample storage for timber must be provided, either in a store separate from but adjoining the workshop, or in a space provided within the workshop and suitably enclosed by a wire-mesh screen. The former method is preferable.

There is one respect in which all the existing school woodwork shops, except in the case of two or three of the

largest institutions, are seriously defective; that is in respect of suitable wall and floor space to be used for the erection and fixing of wood fittings, such as doors, windows, panelling and moulding. This is an aspect of the practical instruction which has been almost wholly neglected in the past, partly no doubt because it does not fit in readily with examination requirements, but mainly because of lack of room. With the modern growth in the use of manufactured joinery, the methods adopted in fixing it in position are becoming increasingly important. It is therefore suggested that, wherever wall and floor space can be given over to this work, either in the workshop or elsewhere, schools should carry out experiments in this direction and endeavour to build up a technique in this important aspect of practical instruction.

The demand for the provision of instruction for wood-cutting machinists is increasing, so that it is likely that all the larger institutions will eventually provide a fairly considerable range of machines. On these machines it will be possible to conduct demonstrations of great value to the students of Carpentry and Joinery. It is suggested, however, that even in the smaller schools the installation of some woodworking machinery would be of direct use to the classes in Carpentry and Joinery, enabling the material to be easily and rapidly prepared for the students, especially in higher stages when the rudimentary operations in the preparation of timber to given dimensions have been mastered. Much of the routine work may thus be reduced and time saved. These machines would also enable larger and more complete pieces of construction to be attempted, and would afford the students experience in the co-operation of bench-worker and machine-worker, as occurs to-day in practice in all except the smallest shops.

Moreover, small-sized machines, embodying the best principles of construction, are now available. These are less expensive and occupy much less space than similar machines

formerly obtainable, and they are thus less open to some of the most serious objections raised formerly to the installation of woodworking machinery in school workshops.

Probably the most useful machine, where by reasons of space or expense only one can be installed, is the circular saw bench with rising and falling table or spindle. Following this and probably next in order of importance is the small hand-feed surface planer, with 9-in. or even 6-in. cutters. This is a useful type of machine and is invaluable for preparing all material of simple section. These machines should be included in the equipment of all but the smallest school workshops. If other machines can be provided a band sawing machine will probably be chosen next, after which may come the thicknessing machine, the spindle moulder, the 3- or 4-cutter machine, mortising, recessing and tenoning machines and a woodturning lathe. A complete equipment can, of course, only be provided in the largest schools. Where only a small amount of machinery is provided arrangements should, if possible, be made with local employers, enabling the advanced students to visit wood machine shops, where they may inspect the machines, and the lay-out of the shops, and see the machines in use.

III. SUMMARY AND GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

In the preceding sections an outline has been given of the conditions which to-day affect the education and training of the apprentice carpenter and joiner. It is therein shown that the employment and training of these apprentices have been subject to changes, both within and without the trade, which have resulted in great variations in the attitude of employers and others towards these problems. These changes have rendered it difficult for the technical schools on their part to offer courses of instruction which are completely satisfactory and generally acceptable. While there has been no concerted effort on the part of the trade to find a satisfactory solution, there have been a number of persons connected with the trade and with technical education who have appreciated the importance of this work, and who have endeavoured to assist in the development of it on satisfactory lines. Much valuable work has been accomplished in this way, but, if further progress is to be made, it is probable that the contact between the trade and the schools will have to be put on a more permanent and less casual basis in the first place, by the establishment of a greater number of local apprenticeship committees or advisory committees, or in other ways.

The general structure of the existing courses of instruction in Carpentry and Joinery and of the arrangements for examination and certification has been explained, since it is important that their nature and purpose should be generally understood by persons engaged in the trade and by others. Most of the courses of instruction have been revised in recent years, and it would appear that, in the main, these courses are now reasonably suitable in form and content, and sufficiently elastic to allow of ready adjustment to the changing needs of the times. It is suggested, however,

that the normal trade course in Carpentry and Joinery must not be allowed to become either too long or too difficult. In the form of a properly organised part-time course, it ought not as a rule to require more than 4 years' attendance from the age of 16 years.

The normal trade course should be planned to give to the young apprentice a good all-round knowledge of his trade, first because this appears to be the only way to correct possible deficiencies in his experience as an apprentice, and second because in this way he is more likely to be fitted for the varied demands which may be made upon him if, when he reaches the journeyman stage, he moves from one job to another, or if he is required to undertake work of an unusual type in the future.

For older students who have completed a normal course, and for skilled journeymen who may desire to undertake such work, arrangements might be set up which would encourage the establishment of advanced classes in certain special sections of the trade, and the production of advanced examples of construction and craftsmanship. In this work a closer and more effective association of the trade and the schools is desirable. Such a development would not only tend to the production of craftsmen of exceptional skill, but would encourage experiment and research into new methods of wood construction and into the solution of current problems, such as the standardisation of wood fitments. These are aspects of the subject of carpentry and joinery which are at present practically untouched. They are of obvious importance in the future development of the trade.

The advantages of attendance at part-time day classes have been set out. It has been shown that, both to the trade and to the educational services, definite advantages would accrue from the more widespread development of part-time day courses of instruction for carpenters and

joiners. Attention has also been drawn to the facilities for full-time education of a 'pre-apprenticeship type in Junior Technical Schools. Some reference has been made to similar forms of instruction abroad

The nature of the qualifications generally offered by teachers of Carpentry and Joinery has been set out, together with a statement of some of the difficulties which have to be faced by the Education Authorities in selecting and appointing such teachers. It is suggested that, while the general qualifications and capacity possessed by these teachers are improving, considerable progress may be still possible. In this connection, failing the establishment of more complete methods for the training of teachers of such subjects, useful work may be accomplished by the more frequent engagement of assistant teachers in the larger institutions. The conduct of courses or conferences arranged for teachers of Carpentry and Joinery would also be beneficial. In this work the trade could render valuable assistance.

A brief survey has been included of the present provision of accommodation and equipment for classes in carpentry and joinery. From this it would appear that, as soon as financial circumstances allow, substantial improvements might be made with the object of bringing this provision into closer consonance with modern requirements. In particular improvements seem necessary in the extent of the workshop accommodation and in the nature of the workshop equipment. Little or no provision is at present made for practice in the fixing and erection of woodwork, and there are still many workshops in which there is no woodworking machinery.

Some small amount of machinery seems desirable in all except the smallest workshops, while in the larger schools, where instruction may be provided also for woodcutting machinists, a fairly complete equipment of machinery is

needed. The latter schools should be able to devote considerable attention to the problems arising out of the organisation and co-ordination of bench-work and machine work. These problems arise in practically all shops, large and small. They are still far from being completely solved, and it is of great importance that young men coming into these trades should have some knowledge of their nature and treatment.

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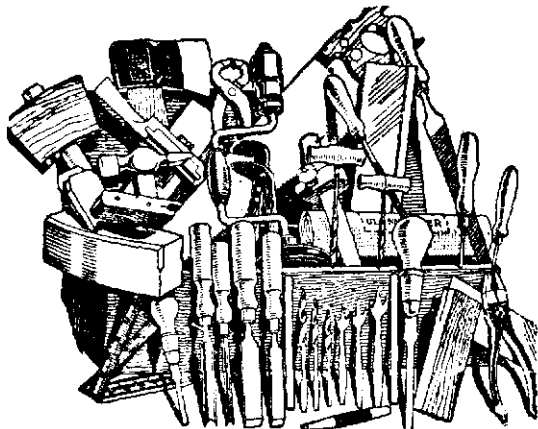
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