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THE NATION'S NEED

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THE NATION'S NEED

CHAPTERS ON EDUCATION

EDITED BY
SPENSER WILKINSON



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INTRODUCTION

I

INTRODUCTION

BY THE EDITOR

THE following chapters treat of various portions of that English education of which the systematic organization is recognized as the nation's need.

There is perhaps no healthier sign of our condition as a nation than the general prevalence of the belief that our system of education is defective and needs to be improved. He must be a superficial observer who attributes the prevailing discontent to any lack of efforts in the educational field. The reign of Queen Victoria was filled up with a continuous series of improvements in education, and with a steady growth of schools of all classes, of colleges, and of universities. Yet in spite of the labours of three generations there is to-day a louder cry for improvement, the sincere expression of a determination, than has been heard before in this country. One reason may be that while every one has had some sort of education nearly every grown man feels keenly conscious of defects in the training which he received, and is anxious that his children should not suffer from the mistakes which he thinks were made in his

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own case. Accordingly most men, and most women too, have views on education, tinged as a rule with reaction against the system to which they were subjected. A second cause of dissatisfaction arises from the visible imperfections of the systems at work among us. Business men have for years been telling us that when they want correspondence clerks to write their foreign letters they find the product of the German school more useful than that of the English school. The heads of great industries proclaim that they are handicapped in competition with German industries of the same class by the better scientific equipment of the specialists whom the Germans employ. Our universities, old and new, alike depend for the bulk of their text books in all subjects of study on the German universities. Whether the student deals with Greek or Latin, with modern languages, or even with English, with chemistry or with geography, he must have recourse to the works of German professors. The demands made on the schools by reformers are of every variety. The public schools are criticized by one set of observers for the narrowness of their curriculum ; by another for the inefficiency of their instruction ; by a third for their devotion to outdoor games. The board schools are condemned by some for giving instruction without forming character, and by others for the lack of thoroughness in their instruction.

If in this Babel of complaints and suggestions we attend chiefly to those who are connected with or engaged in the work of education, we find two dis-

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tinct notes predominant. On the one hand are those who echo the voice of Matthew Arnold, and say with him that the aim of education is to enable a man to know himself and the world. They are the advocates for giving a prominent place in the school course to the natural sciences and to modern languages. On the other hand the younger teachers, under the influence of recent German theory and practice, maintain that the choice of school subjects must be mainly determined by the use which can be made of them in the formation of character, which, according to this view, is the chief end of all education.

Behind these two clear notes is one of deeper tone. There is to be a national system. The State is to organize education. That conception having been reached there can be no going back from it. On no subject within the memory of living men have our people ever so clearly made up their minds as on this. Whatever may be the action of parties or the attitude of churches, England is henceforth to take her part in the bringing up of her children. This being the all-important feature of the present stage of the movement towards education, the *Morning Post* entrusted me a few weeks ago with the task of preparing for its readers a comprehensive account of existing English education from the primary school to the university and the special colleges in which young men are trained for the national services. For this purpose the co-operation of a number of teachers and others practically engaged in educational work was obtained, so that each branch of the subject

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is reviewed by a writer conversant with its practical aspects. The writers were selected for their competence in this respect without inquiry as to their party leanings or political views. It is hoped that the series of papers now collected into this volume may be of some use, not only to those who are anxious for the co-ordination of the many educational efforts now made with too little relation to one another, but also to parents anxious about the training of their children and to many of those who are giving their services as members of local educational bodies. If the book should serve only to illustrate the meaning of the classification of schools and the conception of education which prevails in each class it will not have been prepared in vain.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL



II

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

By F. S. MARVIN

I. The Ideal

A DIAGRAM was published not long ago showing the relative proportion of the population of England and Wales (1) educated only in elementary schools, (2) educated in all other kinds of schools and institutions put together. The resulting picture is most striking. Compared with the great mass of those who have no other systematic education than the elementary school, the rest of the population is a tiny streamlet, a few hundred thousand compared with some thirty or forty million. Two conclusions spring at once to the mind as soon as this fundamental fact is apprehended.

One is that, however influential the smaller section of the population may be socially, politically, or intellectually, yet with our modern conditions of government the greater mass must be immensely preponderant. The second, that though a few of the greater section will pass out of the primary school and continue their systematic education elsewhere, yet for the vast majority of the whole the primary courses will be the end. We must, therefore, frame

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our elementary school curriculum so that, while stimulating further study and permitting exceptions, it may be, as a whole, complete and valuable in itself.

This vast system of elementary State schools is throughout the civilized world practically the outcome of the democratic movement of the Nineteenth Century. England, France, and Germany advanced in the earlier stages with curiously equal steps. In Prussia an effort at general elementary education was made by Frederick the Great, but was not carried out owing to his many other expenses and occupations. In France the Convention, at the instigation of Condorcet, voted, but never enforced, a national system of education. In none of the three countries was the work seriously taken in hand till after the Napoleonic Wars. It is interesting to note that England and France took the first decisive State action in the same year, 1833. In that year Guizot passed his Act establishing primary schools in France, and in England the first State grants were given towards the construction of schools for the poor. Since that time the process of building up and developing the system has gone steadily on, but in England more slowly and in a more piecemeal fashion than in the other two countries.

Nature suggests a division of man's preliminary educational period into three equal parts of seven years each. The first seven years of the child's life are naturally occupied by what may be best termed his "maternal education." This corresponds in our elementary school system to the infant school, which

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the French call "École maternelle." The second period from seven to fourteen will be occupied by a general fundamental education, which must differ according to the destination of the child in the last seven years and after, but will aim, on the whole, rather at arousing an intelligent interest in the main facts of the surrounding world than at a systematic training in any special order of phenomena. This period corresponds to the normal period of the elementary school for older children. Then in the last seven-year period from fourteen to twenty-one we have, or should have, the systematic training in the natural sciences and history and art of those who can afford to postpone earning their livelihood, and, above all, of those who will in later life have governing and teaching functions to perform.

Such seems to be in outline the ideal general scheme, and it is noticeable that we are gradually approximating to it, rather from below than from above. Every official return shows us an increase in the number of children attending the elementary schools between the ages of thirteen and fourteen, an increase quite out of proportion to that of the earlier years. And London, with some others of the largest towns, has recently, by amending its bye-laws, put the full scheme of elementary education into force. That is to say, in London at the present time no child can by law leave school unless he is either fourteen years of age or has passed the Seventh Standard, which, as the average child enters the standards at seven and passes through one a year, comes to the same thing.

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This bye-law will, no doubt, gradually become general, at first in the large towns. Thus the second period of elementary education from seven to fourteen is being steadily filled up by the whole population in England, though we are still considerably behind the best educated countries, especially Germany and the United States, in this respect. Meanwhile there has been a falling off in the last two years of the numbers attending the elementary schools in the earlier period, i.e., between three and seven. This is doubtless partly due to the slackening in the increase of the population, but probably also means that more parents are now keeping their youngest children at home than was the case when the State first offered to educate them, free of charge, in 1891. So far as this is the case, it must be a matter for rejoicing to all who regard the earliest education—at any rate to the seventh year—as necessarily “maternal” in character and, wherever possible, a personal duty for the mother.

We noticed that the French recognize this character in infant schools by terming them “*Écoles maternelles*,” that is to say, schools where the methods of teaching must be, as far as possible, such as a wise mother would adopt in educating her own children, methods aiming primarily at the simplest training of the senses, and based on the affectionate attachment of the child to the teacher, and the affectionate association of the children in the class and the family with one another. Our English name of “Infant Schools” suggests by its etymology the other main

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purpose of these schools, namely, the training of those who cannot speak. The teaching of distinct, connected and intelligible speech has always been one of the weakest points in our English elementary schools, though one of the most important. But it is gradually receiving more attention, especially in that part of the system where the fundamental work has to be done, viz., in the infant school. Simple notions of shape and size and number are, of course, necessary as the first steps in the training of the senses, but, side by side with these, and taking still more time and trouble, goes the training in speech, and it is now recognized that this should precede any teaching of reading and form an integral part of all object or observation lessons. The rudiments of writing and drawing naturally come in as ancillary to these, and play and imaginative stories complete the curriculum.

The course of work for an infant school is thus tolerably easy to define, though the difficulties in the way of carrying it out are very great. The great assemblies of little children in one building or playground, the teaching of forty, fifty, or even more of them by one, often young and inexperienced woman, present such obvious dangers and drawbacks that many persons have wished rather to discourage than promote their attendance. In Sweden, in many parts of Germany, and elsewhere the regular State-schooling does not begin till the seventh year, and yet the children about eleven or twelve appear to be as well advanced as ours. How-

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ever, at the present time, especially with the social conditions of our large towns, the infant school is a necessity and an immense boon.

From seven to fourteen years of age we have the normal period of primary or elementary education throughout the world, gradually being attained, as we have seen, in England. In this the problems of general aim and choice of subjects and arrangement of curriculum become more complicated; but much would be gained if we could accustom ourselves in England to regard the question first as a whole and afterwards in detail instead of obscuring the general issue by beginning with the discussion of the difficulties of detail.

In the first place the main issue is, as is generally admitted, entirely independent of any political or religious differences. For purposes of national education the State must regard, and always has regarded, the children as the end, apart from the particular schools in which they may be educated. The question is, given a normal seven years in school for the child, what is the best use which can be made of the time?

In England and in France, as distinguished from some other countries, especially the United States, the Central Government has always laid down the main lines on which the national elementary education should proceed, and it is probable that this power of direction, though used less in detail, will be retained long enough by both countries to make the system generally uniform and permanent. The

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lines on which development may be expected arise from the rational expectation that, as the people as a whole become better educated, short cuts may be discovered and time saved in the earlier stages of school life, which may enable more to be done in the later years. Language, mathematics, and science would each afford an easy instance. Take the case of language. At the present time it is rightly considered out of the question to teach any foreign language in the average primary school, and very little is taught of our national literature. This arises from the imperfect knowledge of the English language itself which the children acquire out of school and in the lower classes of the school. It could not be considered an impossible or an unreasonable thing in the future for a considerable number of scholars in primary schools to learn something of another language than our own, considering that children privately taught or in higher schools will, as a rule, have made some way in one or two foreign languages before fourteen. We shall probably meet this case some day by applying to the higher classes of the primary school a common practice of the secondary school, and allow a certain option of studies. One boy might then make some inroad into a branch of practical science while another was acquiring the elements of a foreign language. These cases are, however, likely to be rare exceptions for some time to come ; meanwhile, we need to have clearly in our minds the complete course which may be expected of the average elementary school.

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The problem is to use the seven years of school life to make the child as efficient a member of the society in which he lives as possible. The definition will seem vague and commonplace, but it is impossible to restrict it to narrower terms. Efficient and social are the capital points, and both rest on character and interest. Here, of course, the teacher and the enthusiast for education are liable to fall into a disappointing and dangerous fallacy. Whatever the school may do in the five or six hours out of the twenty-four it cannot counterbalance, though it may modify, the influence of the remaining eighteen. All we can hope to do is so to model our curriculum and inspire our whole system that the school may make entirely for efficiency and the social spirit.

Efficiency, as a product of the primary school, must mean, beside physical development, mental activity and interest on the part of the scholar and a grasp on the elementary facts of the world and the society in which he lives. The social spirit must mean some knowledge and attachment to the past, especially of his own country, and a readiness to subordinate himself and co-operate with others in the work of life.

All the details of the school curriculum should be settled in accordance with these general ideas, and it is fortunate that, though as Englishmen we revolt from this high priori method, we generally "muddle through" in the end to the same conclusion for practical and particular reasons. So it has been with this matter of an elementary school curriculum.

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Every school must now provide some simple teaching about the facts of physical nature, whether it be called elementary science or object lesson, and every school must give instruction in geography, which is generally interpreted to mean the main facts about all the countries and leading peoples of the world. This, taught with the adjuncts of drawing, arithmetic, and elementary geometry and mensuration, should put the scholar in practical contact with the outside world; and whether this instruction is given in such a way as to leave him ready and eager to use his powers or not, is precisely the question for which some form of inspection of the schools is needed.

The second, the social aspect of the work, is a subtler thing, much more difficult to define, to prescribe, or to test, but certainly no less important. On this side we have the teaching of language, literature, history, and such moral teaching as may be independent of the direct religious teaching. This side, as a whole, is unquestionably weaker in our English schools, largely, no doubt, from our reluctance or timidity in dealing with general ideas. Language teaching, as we have seen, is little developed, even composition, as a part of the work of every class, being a recent introduction. Literature is less, and less well, taught than either in France, Germany, or the United States, and the general teaching of history by regular lessons has only just begun. The anomalies of our spelling and our weights and measures are, no doubt, respon-

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sible for a large consumption of time which would otherwise be spent on developing the humane side of the curriculum. Some of it might be saved by legislative reforms which it is impossible to discuss here. Some might even now be saved, without legislation, by a little more boldness in dealing with the complexities of arithmetic and a little more science in dealing with the anomalies of our sounds and letters.

Some such scheme for teaching history as Professor Withers drew up two years ago for the London School Board will ultimately make its way into the schools, and will serve as a rallying point for literature as well as history. It contained two features of much interest and importance for the development of popular education, not, of course, new in themselves, but practically unknown in English elementary schools.

The first, the inclusion in history teaching of great heroic tales, whether strictly historical or not, beginning with our own, but aiming ultimately at including in the child's horizon the noblest legends of mankind.

The second, the devotion of one class out of the seven to the study of great characters and movements in general history, while at the same time making the English history study more intensive by returning in the highest class of all to a deeper study of some one aspect of our own annals and institutions. All these features would certainly form part of an ideal elementary course, but they are at present found very rarely and in a fragmentary condition.

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NOTE.—Since this chapter was written, Professor Withers, whose scheme for teaching history is alluded to, has passed away. His early and lamented death removes one of the ablest and most devoted supporters of a sound and general system of national education. It is remarkable that the syllabus here referred to will remain as the best and most considerable part of the all too slender amount of written matter he has left behind. No better way could be devised to do honour to his memory than for school authorities and teachers to consider his suggested scheme afresh, and introduce as much of it as seems practicable into the school curriculum. The pamphlet was published at the offices of the London School Board.

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II. Comparison with Foreign Countries

WE traced in a previous article the main lines on which an elementary school course must be framed in any modern country of similar social conditions to our own, and we indicated briefly the way in which the actual elementary school in England is approximating to this standard. When it is seen that the problem is essentially the same in all these countries and is being solved on closely similar lines, it becomes all the more interesting and useful to consider the points of difference.

Here, again, we may safely exclude political and religious questions, because, however important they may be from other points of view, and however deeply they may exercise the public mind, yet within the school, from the purely educational point of view, they sink almost entirely out of sight. That is to say, the matter and the method of educating the young can be and generally are decided in the common schools on such grounds of common reason and consent as would be employed by parents in deciding on the education of their own children. That the United States have an *ad hoc* body for the government of their schools, that France has not, that England had something of both before the Education Act of 1902, are facts arising from differences in the political history of the three countries, and do not

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imply a different ideal of what the schools should do for their pupils and for the country, or any difference as to the method in which the school should be conducted.

There are, however, differences of organization which do tell considerably on the work of the school, and of these perhaps the most striking is the position of the superintending official or inspector. There can be no question that both in France, in the United States, and in Germany—probably in the order given—the powers of this official are greater than they have ever been with us. They extend in many cases, not only to prescribing details in the curriculum, but also to the appointment, promotion, and dismissal of teachers. To give an example of each. You would find in a given *circonscription* of Paris all the primary schools employing an identical system for writing, which would be prescribed by the *inspecteur primaire* for the district. And in the United States, as the appointment of teachers is in the hands of the Education Board for the town or district, the superintendent, as inspector and expert adviser of the board, will have the deciding voice in all questions of appointing and removing teachers. In England, as is well known, the central authority, which supervises the schools and makes itself responsible for their efficiency, is careful to leave to the local boards and committees of managers the responsibility for the choice and the dismissal of the teachers. And the Government inspector, whose business it is to inform the central office of the state of efficiency of the

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schools under his supervision, is not expected to insist on any particular method of instruction, though his personal influence, strengthened by his official position, will often, of course, be very great. He has not, however, in theory, to enforce anything except the provisions of the code, which have of late years become more and more elastic in detail.

We have here a difference of considerable moment, but the differences in the equipment of the teachers are greater and more important. Early in the last century England introduced the "monitorial" system of teaching, associated with the names of Bell and Lancaster. It was hailed in many places, especially in France, as a heaven-sent notion, enabling one adult teacher, stationed in the middle of a large square room, to inspire and superintend the teaching of any number of pupils by means of older scholars acting under his directions. In other countries the system, wherever tried, has been entirely discarded as a regular means of teaching; in England, acting on our national plan of piecemeal reform, we have gradually evolved from it the system of pupil teachers, which is still being constantly modified. The pupil teacher is now a young person over fifteen years of age and generally under nineteen, who is required to receive instruction, provided by the managers of the school, during part of each week and teach during the remainder. The arguments on the merits and possible further modifications of the system have been innumerable, and it is impossible to enter on them here; but, roughly speaking, it is

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defended on the two grounds (1) of providing a supply of teachers which it would be difficult otherwise to obtain, and (2) of keeping the future teacher from the first in touch with the practical work of his life. And, on the other hand, it is generally admitted that in the matter both of the general education and the professional training of the mass of our teachers we are considerably behind the highest standard of other countries. Hence in no other part of the educational field do we hear so many demands for improvement or see so much actually being done as in the training of teachers. The recent foundation of new training institutions side by side with university colleges and the addition of non-residential branches to the old residential colleges are two results of this activity, and at the same time the central authority has been endeavouring, by opening new channels, to widen the supply of teachers and draw them from different sources. Meanwhile the pupil-teacher system is preserved in its main features, the changes introduced aiming at increasing and improving the instruction they receive, without dissociating them from the work of teaching. In the other countries of our comparison the main differences are (1) that the teacher does not begin teaching at so early an age, not before nineteen or twenty, and (2) there is a much greater abundance of highly specialized training. Thus in France there is a completely-equipped *école normale* or training college for men and for women in every department.

Such comparisons as these can now be made in

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detail by reference to the series of *Special Reports on Educational Subjects*, issued by Mr. Sadler's branch of the Board of Education. A general circulation of these, either in whole volumes or, better still, in parts, would do more than anything to rouse general interest and inform the public on education. At present one hears even of free public libraries which have not provided themselves with the series. In one of the series, Vol. 9, on Education in Germany, will be found an article on the smaller elementary schools of Prussia and Saxony which is both useful in detail and suggestive in its general conclusions. It is quoted here for its evidence of how far a thorough training and deep-rooted educational traditions will enable teachers to make their work effective, even with greater difficulties of numbers and poorer conditions of work than we have in England. One will often see in Prussia larger classes than the average of sixty allowed to our certificated teachers at home ; and salaries, generally, both in France and Germany, are considerably lower. In these cases we are fortunately in advance and need be under no fear of a retrogression. But it is evident that in some respects the Prussian schools are doing more effective work for the ultimate national interests than ours, as in other ways the French and the American. England standing in the centre should be able to assimilate the strength of all three. It must suffice to give a few typical examples.

In Germany the teaching of language is generally far more thorough and effective than with us. The

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teacher starts with a more exact and complete knowledge of his own language and literature than is usual in England, and the established system of the schools involves both the more thorough study of good literary models and, most important of all, the clear and intelligible use of language in all lessons by the pupils themselves. In England the almost unrestricted choice of books allowed in the schools and the competition of publishers have led to a good deal of vulgarization in the literary matter employed, while our educational tradition has never laid sufficient stress on the necessity of the full and accurate expression of the children's thought, especially in spoken speech. A visit to any good class in Germany or France would show the difference.

If we specify this as a conspicuous merit in German schools, we might select in France their moral and patriotic lessons, and, perhaps, as still better, their elementary teaching of science. Every male student in a French *école normale* is expected before he leaves college to have made with his own hands a set of simple scientific apparatus, to be kept in a box also made by himself, and to be used in the school—generally a country school—where he is to work. And there is attached to the college a good-sized garden where he is taught useful horticulture. The seventh volume of Mr. Sadler's series shows in detail the efforts that are being made to bring the science of the schools into closer relations with the practical needs of the rural district.

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In the United States it is more difficult to specify single points of excellence, for the variety is much greater. But perhaps this very variety, the frequency and freedom of experiment, the enthusiasm for new ideas, are the greatest merits of their system. They, too, lay especial stress on the moral and social aspect of the school work, many of their authorities declaring that the whole of the school course should be directly subordinated to the social idea, and even in some cases organizing the school on the basis of a civic community, with wide powers of self-government, election of officers, and the like. This to the more traditional minds of Europe may seem anarchic ; but it is unquestionable that, by some means or other, a far stronger moral and social fervour is transfused among the older scholars than we can parallel in England. One reason may be that all classes of society meet together on the school benches, another that the sexes are generally educated together, while some might add that the larger proportion of women teachers must tend to strengthen the sympathies and moral interests of the scholars. Whatever the cause, the fact remains, and one reads of such delightful cases as where the richer girls, who were educated in the same school with some of the working class, on leaving school set up, furnished, and attended to a club where their poorer companions could come after factory hours.

Such are a few stray points in the comparison between our English elementary schools and those of our most important neighbours. If we were asked to

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sum up in short the balance between us, it would perhaps be true to say that whereas we are doing as well or better than they are, with our youngest children, with our defectives of various kinds, and—though this would be more doubtful—with our physical education, they are more successful, and go further, with the moral and intellectual education of the older scholars. Their children, as a rule, stay longer at school, they are trained more completely and more scientifically in their later years, and far better and more abundant opportunities are provided for passing on from the primary school to higher institutions. The French higher primary system has often been described: we have only lately begun to construct one. In some parts of Germany, apart altogether from the day continuation and secondary schools, every ex-scholar of the primary school is compelled to attend an evening continuation school until the age of sixteen. In some parts of America sixteen has recently been made the age for exemption from attendance at the day school.

So we have work to do in England and are hardly yet fully awake to its extent. But we have great advantages and should avoid the errors either of national depreciation or of thinking that our whole fortunes depend on a perfect set of State schools.

It is quite as common for us to overlook our advantages in dealing with this problem as to forget our deficiencies. One of the greatest—that indeed by which we are distinguished from all the neighbours whom we have just discussed—is this, that we

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possess a central authority which, while encouraging local freedom in accordance with our national tradition, commands the unquestioning obedience of the whole country. Germany and the United States are broken up; the United States Central Bureau has no authority nor administrative power whatever. In France, though the central authority is absolute in force and far-reaching in its prescriptions, it is faced by a rival power, as ubiquitous and hardly beaten down. In this respect, then, we have a unique advantage of the highest moment. Another is the spirit of compromise, which has never handed over our schools bound to any one set of educational doctrines, but has constantly admitted, if not new ideas, at least new applications, and has extended our system from a somewhat mechanical set of rudiments upwards to greater fulness and variety. A third advantage should be added, that we possess a strongly organized and vigilant organization of teachers, more powerful in the State than any organization of teachers abroad. We feel, no doubt, that their action is often strongly tinged by professional bias. But as this is the bond of union it is inevitable that it should influence the collective decisions. That there should be a collective and powerful voice to speak for those most intimately concerned in the actual working of the schools is a national advantage, and it has often been heard on the side of reform.

LOCAL AND CENTRAL
GOVERNMENT

III

LOCAL AND CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

Their Relation in Education

By GRAHAM WALLAS

CHAIRMAN OF THE SCHOOL MANAGEMENT COMMITTEE, LONDON
SCHOOL BOARD

I HAVE used the academic word "relation" in my title in order to suggest that I am dealing with a question which even an Englishman must admit cannot be settled without thought. An idiot can whittle a peg while another idiot is boring a hole. In both cases the shape will settle itself; but it requires thought to create such a relation between a hole and a peg that they will fit.

The present organization of the Board of Education at South Kensington and Whitehall is in the main due to a series of squabbles between official personages, and the present organization of secondary and primary local authorities is in the main due to a series of illogical political compromises. But the squabbles and the compromises have had no connexion with each other, and, in consequence, the most devoted

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official of the Board of Education is about as helpful to the most conscientious member of a School Board or Technical Education Board as a factory inspector is to a member of a Board of Guardians.

I do not propose to discuss the high matters of the "Code Committee" at Whitehall, or the Building Rules, or the curious way in which the Government advises or requires us to do things which they afterwards say they have known for years to be illegal. I will simply consider, by the light of my own experience, the relation in ordinary educational administration between local educational authorities and his Majesty's inspectors, who are the only local representatives of the Board of Education.

The system which existed before 1870 might at that time have been defended as the best possible under the circumstances. There was then no public education except in voluntary schools, which were in practice managed by the clergymen and Nonconformist ministers. As a small boy I used sometimes to drive round the country with one of her Majesty's inspectors. He used every day to examine a school in the three R's and lunch with the manager. After lunch there was a confidential talk in which he gave a few hints as to the means by which larger "payment" could be obtained for better "results."

But as soon as the Act of 1870 created large School Boards, collectively managing many schools and dealing perhaps with several of her Majesty's inspectors, the system became inapplicable to their case. All the inspectors could not lunch with all the board

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members and talk over all the schools. This difficulty was, in a rare moment of forethought, discussed by the first London School Board. Professor Huxley said: "If there was one thing more important than another for the School Boards it was that inspection should be given up by the Government and left to the energy of the School Boards." On the other hand the Rev. John Rodgers, who was also an able man earnestly desiring a workable system, said in the same debate: "When they had the work efficiently done by her Majesty's inspectors he did not see that they wanted it done again." Following the English custom the majority of the School Board halted midway between these two incompatible opinions. Board inspectors for London were appointed sufficient in number to relieve her Majesty's inspectors of some of their responsibility, but not sufficient to carry out an effective system of local inspection. Hardly any of the other boards appointed inspectors at all, and in the main the School Boards trusted to the annual reports of her Majesty's inspectors as affording enough responsible information for administrative purposes.

This arrangement, by which teachers were inspected by one authority and paid, promoted, and dismissed by another, was even before 1895 clumsy and apt to lead to injustice in the treatment of individuals, but it was not yet farcical. It might even have been argued that since the main duty of her Majesty's inspectors was to examine individually every child in every class and to tabulate results on a system invented by Mr. Robert Lowe, and since these results

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were fully communicated in the annual reports, the boards learnt in that way all there was to be told. The full absurdity of the present situation was only developed when in 1896 Sir John Gorst abolished individual examination, and in 1900, when he abolished the last remnants of "payment by results." At present hardly any School Board has, as I have said, any system of inspection of its own, no School Board has an efficient system, and yet all the guidance they receive from the Government Inspector consists of a few annual words dealing with each school in terms so cautious as to be meaningless—unless one counts the general essay on certain divisions of England and Wales which is published every three years in the Board of Education Blue Book.

It was peculiarly unfortunate that the method of abolishing payment by results was left to Sir John Gorst. He held an opinion which from time to time he stated with perfect frankness as to the complete unfitness of the Board of Education to give, and of the School Boards to receive, information on any educational point. He therefore made no attempt to create an intelligible relation between the Board of Education and the School Boards to take the place of that which he was abolishing, and did all he could to prevent such a relation from developing. During his term of office there appeared a really amazing series of "Instructions to her Majesty's inspectors," by which the inspectors were effectually prevented from either taking such steps as they thought fit to test the condition of any school or class, or communi-

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cating to a School Board their real opinion as to the efficiency of any teacher.

However necessary her Majesty's inspectors might think it to examine any class, they were by the instructions from 1896 to 1901 formally and with increasing stringency forbidden to do so unless the whole school had reached such a state that the very rare step of giving notice of the withdrawal of all grants had been taken. Her Majesty's inspectors were directed to form their impressions on surprise visits from watching the school at work under normal conditions (modified in an important respect by the fact of their presence), and after the visit they were to talk things over with the teachers. The presence of managers was also desired "if it can be secured."

"Such conferences," says the extremely Gorstian instructions of 1897, "will in future satisfy every useful purpose that has been served hitherto by communicating to the managers through your annual report a detailed account of your observations upon the work of the school."

The word "manager" in the language of the Code includes, of course, School Boards as well as the owners of voluntary schools. But these "conferences," suggested as a sufficient substitute to a definite report, can of course only take place to any good effect with a "one-man" manager (whose "presence can be secured" by sending a boy up to his house) or with the leading member of a parochial board. In the district covered by a large School Board a dozen "surprise visits" will be going on at

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any given time. The whole board obviously cannot attend them all, and even if the individual members spent their time in answering telephonic calls and in chatting with his Majesty's inspectors, reports by individual members of their recollection of the inspector's remarks would be useless for the purposes of administration. A large board, like every other large governing body, must necessarily initiate administrative action by collective decisions based either on written reports or on responsible verbal information given to the board or to one of their committees. They must act on reports which either are written or will, if challenged, be written.

But it is no exaggeration to say that Sir John Gorst's instructions carefully provide that no written report of any Government Inspector shall contain anything on which a board could base any administrative action to which any one can object—that is to say, any action at all.

The instructions of 1899 and 1900 (the last in which the departmental rules for the guidance of her Majesty's inspectors are published in full) say: "Your annual report should not enter into details as to particular portions of the school work, except where some special excellence or defect has to be noted, and you should avoid including in it any personal reflections on the teachers. The annual report should consist of a short description of the general character of the school as regards instruction, organization, discipline, premises, and apparatus."

The spirit as well as the letter of these instructions

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is carefully carried out, and we of the London School Board receive as our share of central administrative assistance an annual sentence of curiously unsatisfying eulogy for each of our schools and the chance of being occasionally introduced in some one's drawing-room to a courteous gentleman who is said to be a London inspector.

The School Board for London is, we are told, to be at once abolished, and, therefore, if this were a grievance personal to ourselves it would soon be cured. But the authorities which are to be set up by the Education Act of 1902, will nearly all be so far in the position of the London School Board that, whether in counties or in towns, they will have many schools widely separated to control and much serious official work to do. From which it inevitably follows that any expectation that they will be able to keep in touch with his Majesty's inspectors by being fetched down to individual schools for a few minutes' talk on the occasion of a surprise visit is absurd.

I have so far dealt with elementary education only, because no one claims that the South Kensington inspectors of the secondary branch of the Board of Education have any organized relation to the local Technical Education Boards at all. I am a member of the Technical Education Board for London, and I know the name of one secondary inspector, because he produced something like a riot in my constituency a year ago. But what his district or powers may be, and whether there are any other secondary inspectors for London, and what their names may be, I have

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not the least idea, and I am certain that my knowledge in this respect is well above the average of that of other members of the Technical Education Board.

During the last few years I have talked over this point with every one who would listen to me, and I find that the present position is defended from three points of view. The first is that his Majesty's inspectors have nothing to do with maintaining the efficiency of schools. Their sole duty is to advise the Board of Education that the Government grants are not being entirely wasted. No one acts on this view, and no one takes it unless he is cornered in argument. The next view, which was, I understand, that of Sir John Gorst, is that inspectors, whether appointed by the local or the central Government, have to do with teachers and not with boards and committees, and that they ought to influence teachers by wise advice and encouragement instead of terrorizing them by reports to their employers. I always find it particularly difficult to treat this view patiently. When one has to take part daily in the promotion or dismissal of teachers on the best evidence available it seems, to use Hilda Wangel's phrase, "so irrelevant." But it is widely held both by teachers and inspectors, and has a peculiarly disintegrating effect on the whole work of inspection. A pleasant young graduate goes about all day long surrounded by respectful children and talking to men and women whose strongest interest is to keep him in a good temper. He is informed from Whitehall that his

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sole duty is to make wise remarks, and he makes them to people who will obviously neither argue with him nor tell him when he makes the same remark on two successive visits. He is further directed that he is to avoid giving pain to any one, and it is hinted that if he incurs any administrative responsibility he will not be supported.

The third view is of the greatest importance, because it is apparently to serve as the basis for legislation. It is that no School Board or other authority shall (to use the words of the Education Act) "manage" the schools which it "controls." A separate committee of managers will be appointed for each school or small group of schools, and the inspector will deal with them only and not with the authority. He can then on the occasion of his visit send out for some of the managers and discuss things with them. The assumption on which the management clauses of the Act of 1902 are founded—that for every thousand children of the elementary school class ten educated and public-spirited persons can be found to do lifelong and unrecognized public work—seems to me unduly optimistic. The Government, however, have made that assumption, and since they have refused to define either of the words "management" and "control" they have apparently left the working of the system to be settled by experience. Will the managers or the authority promote an assistant of one school to be the head of another? If the authority, on what responsible information will they act if no provision is made that inspectors

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are to communicate with them? If the managers, how can they choose for a headship the best assistant from the schools of a whole county if they have no dealings except with the schools of a parish? They will, of course, always promote, if possible, from within their own schools. Who is to dismiss teachers, and who is to provide the responsible evidence? If things are simply allowed to drift for a year or two, the authority will find themselves compelled to appoint a few overworked county inspectors, who will be in a state of constant friction with the larger number of better paid Government inspectors; and the friction will certainly extend to the whole machine of administration, the managers trusting and communicating with his Majesty's inspectors, and the authority trusting and communicating with their own officials. If it is objected that such a state of things would not be allowed to exist because it would be absurd one can only point to the state of things now. The Dormouse showed himself a true political philosopher when, in answer to Alice's objection that treacle-fed children would be ill, he answered: "So they were, very ill." But in any case it is not true that in matters of government things can be started wrong and then put right. Unless the new authorities know from the first their duties they cannot possibly appoint the right officials. Nor, having once made their appointments, can they dismiss their officials. If new duties are afterwards imposed they will be carried out by the existing men, suitable or unsuitable.

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I have myself proposed no scheme because a scheme must deal with two things still to be created—the new local authorities and the new Board of Education staff; and because it can be thought out only by those who have the whole conditions under their control. One might, for instance, suggest that a few Government inspectors (Schulräte) should have definite official relations with many local inspectors (Inspektoren), but that arrangement might be good or bad according to the plans of the Government with regard to their existing staff. Or one might suggest a system of communications carried out either by responsible reports or effective conferences between the officials of the Central Government and the local authorities, but the working of such a system would depend on the relation the Government intends to create between the managers and the authorities. Finally, the whole thing depends on whether the Government will have one local staff for secondary and technical education, or, if they continue the present duplicate system, what is to be the relation between their “Whitehall” and “South Kensington” officials.

On the other hand, I have not much hope that the Government will even attempt to make a plan. After the long discussions which preceded the passing of the Education Act I expect to find that every one concerned will give his brain a rest. Details such as the question whether pupil teachers shall be under Whitehall or South Kensington, or whether a junior South Kensington inspector shall take precedence

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of a senior Whitehall inspector, will be settled somehow when they have produced the maximum amount of friction. Meanwhile, vested interests and official traditions will be created, and a set of relations will come into existence between South Kensington, Whitehall, the authorities, the managers, and their respective officials rather more absurd than the government of the Army before the Crimean War. We shall then tell inquiring foreigners that "it works somehow."

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IV

PRIMARY EDUCATION OF GIRLS

By CATHERINE I. DODD

MISTRESS OF METHOD, THE OWENS COLLEGE, MANCHESTER

I. General Conception of a Primary School

IT is as difficult to write about the primary education of girls without including boys as well as it would be to tell the story of Eden without alluding to Adam, for sex distinctions in the training of little children are as slight as sex distinctions in the cardinal virtues. "Education," as Herbart tell us, "is a vast whole of ceaseless labour which exacts true proportion from beginning to end ; merely to avoid a few errors is of no avail." Plato and Froebel, among others, have emphasized the importance of the beginnings of education. They have urged that as the senses and the limbs of little children develop before their reasoning powers, therefore the object of the educator must be to train the senses and the body to healthy and enjoyable activity, in the first instance, and gradually to lead the pupils to understand the world in which they live and to act rightly in it. This is the aim of primary education.

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First let us define our terms. Primary education in England commonly means an education which costs the parent little or nothing; it is usually uninspiring and utilitarian in character, and is intended to meet the needs of the working classes.

Children whose parents pay sufficient fees are generally understood to be receiving secondary education. In America and some countries of Europe the distinction is otherwise. There it is recognized that children's needs, desires, and aspirations do not depend on their parents' purses; that all children imagine, aspire, remember, judge, and reason pretty much alike, and the same methods, influences, and studies may be brought to bear on them all; therefore a primary school in some other countries is understood to be a place where children under fourteen are instructed.

In such primary schools slight modifications are made in the curriculum in the highest classes for those children who intend to continue their schooling after the age of fourteen. Briefly, the distinction in England is a class, and in the other countries a logical, distinction.

English school-books of bygone ages are instructive in indicating the aim of primary education in the past. To learn to read and to learn to pray seem to have been the whole duty of the child from Tudor times onwards, and so we find the A B C and Syllabarium frequently inserted in the Prayer Book to save the expense of a horn book. Indeed, one could glean a complete history of the development

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of the religious, moral, and intellectual ideals of our country by studying children's A B C books. Writing and arithmetic seem to have been rarely taught until the Nineteenth Century; and the instruction of girls seems to have been more limited than the instruction of boys. In the solemn preface of a weighty work on arithmetic by one Thomas Dilworth, published in 1740, we find this lament: "The fair sex are so unhappy as seldom to be found either to spell, write, or cypher well." And apparently few cared to have things otherwise, for in the same age we find the great Johnson calmly assuring the world that "Education is as well known and has long been as well known as ever can be," and this remark is characteristic of our attitude towards the education of children.

The staple fare in the primary school has always been more or less the dry husks of learning; the technicalities of reading, writing, the working of sums, and the parsing of sentences; and such studies alone can never awaken interest and inspire enthusiasm. Since the passing of the Education Act of 1870 the primary school curriculum has become comprehensive—particularly in the days of higher grade board schools—and girls have passed examinations in cooking and chemistry, algebra and agriculture, sewing and shorthand, and the more examinations they passed the more grants the school got and the more the world wondered and talked of progress; but the methods of teaching remained mechanical, while the subject matter was often uninspiring.

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Quantities of matter, often bearing no relation to anything within the girl's experience, and quite unsuitable to her stage of development, were thrust hurriedly on her, and there was no leisure left to cultivate her mind or put ideals before her. No grants, however, were paid for these elusive processes, so the schools continued to thrive, though it must always be remembered that there were exceptional teachers in many schools doing their best to make the teaching human, in spite of their manifold restrictions. Briefly, the teaching in our primary schools has been formal rather than vital, and formal teaching dulls feeling and deadens interest, though it may fill the child's mind with facts. Vital teaching, however, does more—it arouses interest, awakens sympathy, and warms the heart, for there is more satisfaction in regarding the child's mind as "a hearth to be made to glow" than as a vessel to be filled.

The result of all our primary teaching has been disappointing, and we are now recognizing how wasteful it is to spend school time chiefly in getting hold of the symbols of learning, for this kind of teaching is one-sided; it implants no ideals and no desires to make, to create, to produce.

Our haphazard manner of setting to work on educational problems is the cause of our national failure, for, firstly, we had no definite aim of education in view, and, secondly, no clear conception of right methods, for we had no theory of education to show us what to do and how to do it, nor did we want any, for England has always been unphilosophic in her

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educational endeavour, and wasteful as well, with the kind of wastefulness which accepts narrow ideals and cheap, ill-considered methods.

We are unfortunate too, in that we have never had a prophet to inspire our primary education and to give us faith and visions, and "where there is no vision the people perish." Other nations have been more fortunate, and in the stirring times at the close of the Eighteenth and beginning of the Nineteenth Century that passionate reformer Pestalozzi set himself in Switzerland to regenerate mankind by true aims and right methods in dealing with the education of poor and neglected little ones.

In Germany the philosopher Herbart and that practical visionary Froebel spent their lives in seeking educational ideals and the means of realizing them. And not only did they teach children themselves, but they trained teachers to teach while developing moral personality. France, too, had its prophet in Rousseau, with his bold paradoxes and hatred of formal methods and spoken words, and though he never taught himself, yet he inspired the world to make experiments in the rational education of children, and, moreover, he inspired Pestalozzi. And faint ripples of the wave of feeling concerning national education which swept the Continent at the beginning of the Nineteenth Century reached England, for Bell and Lancaster aroused tremendous enthusiasm at that time by devising an education for the masses whereby it was stated that one man could, unaided, teach a thousand children. The system was cheap

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it involved no philosophic thought, and as education was regarded as a philanthropic boon, to be given to the poor or withheld at pleasure, people found the same satisfaction in subscribing to it as they find now in subscribing for blankets at Christmas.

In the philosophy of education England is far behind the foremost nations of Europe, and maybe America as well, for we have not yet grasped the idea that our educational ideals determine the national progress.

We find Fichte the philosopher in his *Addresses to the German Nation*, after defeat in the Battle of Jena, eloquently enforcing the fact that education was the only means of raising the nation, and also expounding the methods of Pestalozzi. We find King William III sending teachers to Pestalozzi to be trained for their task, even under the firing of the enemy in the Napoleonic Wars. We find Froebel and his comrades discussing ideals of education around their camp fire at night during active service, and we find Herbart, in 1809, when occupying the Chair of Philosophy at Königsberg, formerly held by Kant, lecturing to his students on the aims and method of education, and teaching mathematics daily in a small school, which he had established to demonstrate his theories. These instances are cited to show how seriously other nations sought to solve their educational problems long before we thought about them at all.

Primary education in other European countries is older than our own, and it has higher educational

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ideals, because these countries have educated authorities with leisure to construct and power to impose these ideals ; for so long "as we have no clear general ideal at which to aim, all our agitation and legislation is little better than scrambling in the dark, and all our cleverness in adapting methods to partial and misguided aims only make the confusion greater." ¹ Among the countries working on philosophic lines in matters of education I should include Germany, Switzerland, and Hungary. There are probably more, but my practical experience does not extend to them. These countries recognize clearly that primary education has two things to do : firstly, to develop moral personality and to give the pupils generous ideals ; secondly, to train the eyes, hands and muscles of the children, so that the foundations of technical skill may be laid when they come to prepare for a calling in life.

Briefly, the primary school gives culture, develops character, and prepares for life. This is a comprehensive aim, and to reach it a definite theory of education is necessary, which will give us broad and firm guiding lines and show us how to appeal to the child's interests—practical, aesthetic, speculative, social, sympathetic, religious—and show us also the kind of atmosphere and environment in which the child is to be placed to suit his stage of development.

Most important of all, our theory of education must show how to choose the subject-matter of the school studies, how to make the most of the relationships

¹ *The Profession of Teaching.* By Archdeacon Wilson.

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existing between the various studies, and how to present the right ideas to the children at the right moment, so that they may miss none of their due effect.

The child's ordinary life and surroundings bring him into touch at various points with the world with which he will have to reckon by-and-bye. The object of the school instruction is to "Systematize these haphazard experiences, to get the child to express them, and gradually to graft upon them the vast stores of accumulated human experience which we call science and literature."¹ This grafting must be accomplished without overwhelming the child with floods of other people's thoughts and ideals, and so deadening his own interests. Thus the instruction of the primary school must help the child to interpret his own personal experience by the help of the experience of the race, and conversely to interpret science and literature in the light of its own experiments and personal feelings; for the school life and the home life should be in continual reciprocity, and the child will work at every step with that kind of pleasure produced by exercising initiative and overcoming obstacles. Qualified and trained teachers are also wanted, who know the details of educational theory and believe in them, and, having faith as well as knowledge, will work as artists loving their labour rather than as mechanics toiling on rigid lines without hope.

Theories of education which inspire faith and en-

¹ Professor Withers.

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thusiasm in their followers exist in other countries, and these theories affect the practical work of the schools in various ways.

The following are some of the chief characteristics of primary schools in Germany, Switzerland and Hungary :

1. Character matters supremely ; therefore history sacred and profane, in connexion with literature is recognized pre-eminently as the material "which makes for character." Bible stories, classic fairy tales, heroic stories of the Greeks and the Teutons, great periods of history illustrated by selections from the best literature—in a word, humanistic teaching, forms the staple fare of the curriculum. Heroic examples illustrating the primitive virtues of courage, courtesy, self-denial and the like are ever before the child in his early years, and later he is stimulated by the deeds of the national heroes of his land and the best thoughts of some of his country's greatest men.

2. The inner connexion of all knowledge is closely kept in view. All natural relations between literature and history, history and geography, geography and natural science, natural science and mathematics are carefully brought out ; moreover, drawing, brush-work, modelling, and architecture are used in the service of history, literature, and natural science, and singing and dramatic representation also serve to deepen interest ; for the school curriculum, if it is to be luring and really influence the child's mind and character, must be connected, firstly, with the child's actual feelings and experiences, and, secondly, must

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be interconnected in its own parts to the utmost extent.

3. Again, no subject of instruction is treated as an end in itself, but each as a means to a greater end ; thus, reading is a means to the acquiring of ideas, writing a means to the expressing of ideas, and figures a means to practical calculations, and mechanical accuracy in these arts are of secondary importance.

Also, reading, pronunciation, spelling, oral sentences, oral compositions, recitation, written composition, grammar, and writing are all a part of the study of the mother tongue which is of primary importance in the curriculum.

4. Geography and natural science begin with concrete instances. The teaching of these subjects is simple, practical, and always based on personal experience. The child's home surroundings form the material for the early years of school life. School gardens, school excursions in wood, meadow, and mountain, school journeys for several days to distant places of interest, visits to the mill, the farmyard, the potter's shop, and later to shipyards, paper factories, and coal mines, are all used in the service of the teaching of geography and natural science.

5. The aesthetic training is definite and systematic, School songs are chosen from the old folk songs. National games, in which rhythmic movements and singing predominate, are taught especially to girls. Dramatic representations of the events in literature and history are fostered. Systematic studies are

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made of pictures of great artists, and studies are made of the architecture of the churches in the neighbourhood and the churches visited on the school journeys, and windows, doorways, traceries, and mouldings are reproduced in drawing and modelling lessons.

And, lastly, the instruction is more educative ; it aims at culture of mind rather than accumulation of knowledge, and an earnest attempt is made to put the child into proper relations with the world around him and with mankind. Reading and writing are not the fetish of the primary school as they have been with us ; but the child must learn to see correctly and to talk about what he sees. Lists of dates and analysis of sentences matter little ; the children must know the worth of great men and their influence on their age, and the thoughts contained in the great poems. Finally the children learn to feel deeply, see truly, think clearly, and speak and write intelligently about what they see and think. This summary gives an imperfect impression of the methods in some of the best primary schools abroad. In Germany and Hungary the importance attached to ethical and national training and the cohesion in the school studies are particularly striking. It is only fair to state that the schools best known to me are the schools influenced chiefly by Herbart. "Character, not knowledge, is the aim of our education, and so we give our pupils classical and national literature," was a sentiment frequently expressed by teachers in Hungary.

In Switzerland the geography and natural science

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teaching was very impressive. It was simple, concrete, and thorough in the lower classes, and comprehensive in the higher. The uses made of the atlas and practical observations of the physical features of the country were excellent. Matthew Arnold, who visited primary schools on the Continent several times between the sixties and the eighties of last century, constantly records in his note-book "the teaching is more human than in England," and indeed it is, for the expansion of the heart as well as the head is the common aim, and the arousing of the child's interest the common instrument of instruction.

II. The Primary School and its Teacher

THE instruction provided for girls in primary schools in the early days of the code was very limited; for the old idea that a woman is best when ignorant died hard. Rousseau, Goethe, Ruskin, and others have supported this theory, and have written to prove that a little knowledge was enough for a woman, and have shown how this little may be administered. It is true that they wanted her to be charming as well as ignorant, and they were willing to make sacrifices to keep her charming, for Rousseau's Sophie is recommended to let the dinner fall into the fire rather than soil her cuffs.

Such fastidiousness, however, could not be advocated in the public elementary schools, which, according to the first systematized Code, 1860, were intended to promote the education of "children whose parents support themselves by manual labour." The girls of the working classes were required to be useful; so to attain this end a meagre and uninspiring school course, made up of the three R's, and knitting and sewing, was provided for her. It is true that the boy's course was uninspiring too, but he was spared the endless white seam and blue worsted stockings,

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which were supposed to fit her for domestic uses. He had more arithmetic instead, and some geography ; and if he became a pupil teacher he learnt a little algebra and Euclid, and later, if he went to college, he might do some Latin.

But luxuries of this kind seldom came to the girl. She had a dreary school life, and, if she became a pupil teacher, a drearier apprenticeship of four, and earlier, five years, during which time she drudged in school all day and toiled at night over sums and *Cornwall's Geography*. When she went to a training college she had more sums and more geography, as well as parsing and analysis, and much fine and unnecessary stitching. The idea prevailed at that time that the primary teacher must know only what she was expected to teach, and she had an arid time in poring persistently over elementary knowledge. The educational theory taught in those days was equally uninspiring. Tips in teaching, and hints concerning the management of large classes, were imparted to her under the name of school method, instead of broad general principles of education. Such were the schools and the training colleges of the seventies and eighties of last century.

After the passing of the Education Act, 1872, changes gradually made their appearance in the primary school. The schools—often badly-ventilated, badly-lighted, ill-arranged buildings—began to be built on a more generous plan, and what was known as the Prussian class-room type of building became popular. The ideal aimed at was a separate class-

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room for each class, a luxury rather than a necessity in those days. Many of the new schools were provided with cloak-rooms, wash basins, a hall for marching and drill, a teachers' room, and later, when domestic training became organized, kitchens and laundries were added, where cooking and washing might be practically taught, hence better teaching became possible. The influence of Froebel, too, was slowly making itself felt in the infant schools, and increased attention was paid to the fashioning and furnishing of infant school buildings; swings and toys were provided for the baby-room, and sand-gardens, and other attractions. Secondly, the curricula of the girls' schools began to include more subjects. Class subjects and specific subjects offered a wide choice to the aspiring teacher who wished to teach a little of many things, and gradually, too, manual training became a recognized part of primary school instruction, particularly in girls' schools. Manual training found its way into the curriculum chiefly through the industrial schools, where it was taught for social or economical reasons; for though this kind of work has been advocated for centuries by men like Comenius, Locke, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, and Froebel, it was advocated in vain. The influence of Denmark and Sweden did much to place manual work on a high educational level. Here it is clearly recognized that some sort of hand work is necessary for the complete training of the child; that by suitable manual work the eye becomes observant, the hand acquires dexterity, the muscles learn to be

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obedient to the will, and above all the dignity of labour is emphasized. The commonest forms of manual work in our primary girls' schools are needlework, cookery, and, in a lesser degree, laundry-work.

Needlework, in spite of the outcries which have been raised against the position occupied by this subject in the schools and training colleges—outcries chiefly by masters of mixed schools who wanted the time to teach something else—has still persisted in the curriculum. Needlework is now for the most part taught in a practical and useful manner. Patching, mending, making, darning, receive due attention, and the useless fine stitching of earlier days has been abandoned.

Drawing, too, is taught now on more rational lines in the best primary schools, probably owing to American influence, but, unfortunately, in many cases this subject is alternative to needlework, and often girls receive no training whatever in the use of brush and pencil.

In summing up briefly the changes that have taken place during the last twenty-five years in our schools we may notice—(1) increased attention paid to the school buildings; (2) a more extended curriculum; (3) recognition of importance of manual training and physical exercises; (4) needlework and drawing taught on more rational lines.

The girls' school differentiates from the boys' chiefly in manual work.

The pupil teacher system as well as the training

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colleges have been equally affected by the restless spirit which has been moving in educational matters in recent years. The conditions of the pupil teachers in towns have improved ; firstly, owing to the system of centres of instruction the pupil teachers have had more and better teaching ; secondly, owing to a decrease of labour expected from them they have had more time to profit by their instruction ; thirdly, their curriculum has broadened, and owing to the more generous lines of study they have been enabled to work for some college entrance examination like the London Matriculation or the Victoria Preliminary before entering college.

The introduction of day training colleges, which became possible under the Code of 1890, has given hundreds of girls the opportunity of taking a university degree course concurrently with their professional training.

The danger of overworking the student has been frequently discussed ; this danger however refers chiefly to the ill-prepared and the weaklings ; and the swift and the strong have accomplished this dual course with success. Indeed, the training course attracts many high school girls in the present day ; only, unfortunately, the good pupils are rarely recommended to take up the work of elementary teaching, and hence there is some disappointment in training this class of student ; for she either breaks down under the strain of the work in college, or she finds herself unable to cope with the difficulties of the primary school when her training is over. The contact with the univer-

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sities has helped to disperse the limitations which beset the girl under the old régime of the training colleges. She gains in breadth, intelligence of outlook, and she carries an inspiring atmosphere into the primary schools.

The times have been troubled and unrestful during the last decade or so ; but we have been gradually approximating all the while towards a better state of things, though we are still far from ideal.

Among the peculiar problems affecting the welfare of girls' primary schools are problems of organization. The old system of organization separated boys and girls, and placed them apart in distinct schools, controlled respectively by a Head Master and a Head Mistress. In the present day it is the fashion to advocate what is called co-education, which is said to answer in America. It is affirmed in favour of this system that boys and girls are placed together in families, and they grow up as naturally side by side as buttercups and daisies in spring time ; and, secondly, that the girl's gentle influence tends to refine the coarser male, and the boy's keener intellect tends to sharpen her wits.

One would reply to these persuasive arguments ; firstly, that the school is not a family, and the freedom which is perfectly natural between brothers and sisters, becomes laxity and roughness between casual boys and girls. And, secondly, there is no truth in the pretty theory about the gentle girl and the intellectual boy ; as a matter of fact some boys are gentler than girls, though not often, and certainly many girls are

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much quicker than boys, even in arithmetic, for the girl develops earlier.

My own opinion coincides with that of many schoolmistresses who know both systems—that it is undesirable to mix boys and girls in school after the age of twelve, and even from the age of ten the conditions should be carefully considered, and there should be constant supervision both in class-room and playground. In rural schools the mixing of boys and girls is often a necessity; but there is nothing to warrant the massing together of hundreds of boys and girls in our large towns.

In the mixed schools, which are now becoming popular, probably from motives of economy, the questions arise — (1) Shall the mixed class be taught by a man or a woman? and (2) Shall the general direction of the school be under a man or a woman?

In reply to the first question, we find that in England women teachers are preferred for the younger children, sometimes in boys' schools as well as mixed. It is urged that the woman has more patience and sympathy than the man, and this is probably true. The Englishman rarely possesses the qualities which make him an inspiring teacher of little children. The German who has a century of experience behind him, and in addition to infinite patience possesses faith in his mission, can teach even small girls, as well as boys, of six and seven, with an understanding and tenderness which makes one wonder why he was not born a woman. The rule in Germany is to separate

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the boys and girls, but the latter are frequently taught by men.

The mixed schools in England are almost without exception under the control of men, and as the qualities which a man ought to possess to be able to organize girls' education are exceptionally rare, the girls frequently suffer in consequence; conversely the qualities which a woman ought to possess to enable her to deal with boys over twelve are also rare, and the boys of from twelve to fifteen taught by a woman likewise suffer.

In conclusion, the best girls' schools in England consist only of girls, and they are controlled by women just as the best boys' schools consist solely of boys and are controlled by men; when the classes are mixed beyond a certain age the girls suffer, and so do the boys.

What is lacking in our primary schools? We hear on every hand that the methods are mechanical, the school instruction is not valuable in itself, nor does it influence very materially the future lives of the pupils. We lack high aims, a consistent theory of education, and teachers filled with faith and enthusiasm.

We want also more humanistic teaching, and more unity and definiteness in the curriculum.

Upon what principle, it is sometimes asked, is the curriculum of a school determined, apart from tradition and the requirements of examinations?

The primary school curriculum more than any other should be based upon the needs, the interests

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and activities of the child's mind, which may be grouped in the following manner:—

- (a) The social and sympathetic interests, which may be satisfied by a generous course of imaginative literature, history and language.
- (b) The speculative and practical interests, which demand nature study, geography, experimental science and practical work in school garden, care of plants, animals, and school journeys.
- (c) Reasoning or logical interest, which may be met by a study of number, calculation, measurement, and later arithmetic and geometry.
- (d) The artistic and constructive interests, which demand opportunities for expression in brush-work, modelling, drawing, singing, acting, games, etc.

Also practical manual training in domestic arts (needlework, cookery, laundry work, housework, etc.).

Then, with regard to methods of teaching :

Firstly—In the early years educate the child through his emotions and affections; for the intellect is not the only part of him worthy of school training.

Secondly—Lay stress on those subjects throughout the entire course which have an ethical rather than an intellectual content.

Thirdly—Weld the school studies, so far as possible, into an articulated whole.

It has been pointed out before that national education and the training of teachers stand in close relation

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to each other, and our hope for the future of the schools depends as much on the kind of training given to the students in the training colleges as it does on the present teachers in the schools.

Our aims in the training colleges are pitched higher year by year. We have long passed the stage when the primary teacher was expected to learn only what she was expected to teach, and no more. She had a narrow outlook in the past, and was hedged in by restrictions, and cut off and set apart from all other educational bodies, but all these things are changing.

University teaching is being introduced into the training colleges, and training colleges are being introduced into the universities. We want now to establish practising schools and *seminars* in connexion with the universities, where experiments may be made and educational theories worked out, and after many trials we may be able to get out of the rigid ruts where we have crept so long.

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ECONOMICS IN EDUCATION

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HYGIENE AND HOUSEHOLD
ECONOMICS IN EDUCATION

By ALICE RAVENHILL

INSPECTOR OF HYGIENE AND DOMESTIC ECONOMY UNDER THE
TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION COMMITTEE OF THE COUNTY COUNCIL
OF THE WEST RIDING OF YORKSHIRE

I. Hygiene

THE ultimate aim of a liberal education may be fairly described as twofold : the attainment of a high degree of national efficiency with its associated happiness and prosperity, and the incidental but essential production of physical and intellectual capability in the units which constitute the nation. To this end an important part of the process is to acquaint children with some conditions of their environment, present and to come, and to give them sound principles for their guidance in the right conduct of life, which, when apprehended, conduce to render compliance with restrictions more willing and self-control more consistent. That good habits may be and are acquired as the result of constant mechanical repetition is not disputed, but unless illuminated by an interested comprehension of the reasons which underlie parental or

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legislative commands they lack the foundation of intelligence which recognizes that reasonable self-respect and sympathetic consideration for others, not arbitrary caprice, lie behind the behests. So close indeed is the affinity between good habits and hygienic practice that to equip children with sound reasons for the former supplies them coincidentally with an elementary knowledge of the principles upon which health rules are founded.

Considered from this standpoint it will be readily recognized that a true character-forming educational study of hygiene, on which rational social existence must be based, cannot consist in mere tacit assent to hackneyed statements which assert the necessity for fresh air, good food, cleanliness and the like. Acquaintance with its elementary principles should be made along lines which would from the first actively influence conduct, and subsequently stimulate to individual observation of the moral, intellectual, and physical results associated with wholesome or unwholesome habits and homes. To this end an interested working knowledge of those forces is desirable which are potent to break the links in the long chain of cause and effect which bind men prisoners to disease and degradation. The blighted, saddened lives with which so many are familiar have weakened or killed men's "faith in the common perfectibility" of human nature, and have obscured the fact that the causes are in a great and increasing measure under human control. In the interests of national efficiency it is important to arouse adults to the economic effects

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of passively permitting a continuance of conditions detrimental to mind and body ; in the interests of the race it is of greater moment to lay in the rising generation a firm foundation of healthful habits on which to raise subsequently a superstructure of intelligent citizenship.

The limits of space prevent the exposure of those misconceptions which too often masquerade under the name of hygiene and seriously prejudice it as a school subject in the eyes of many authorities. The morbid craving for pathological detail, for instance, which poses as interest in physiology ; the faddists whose faith in patent foods and drugs would be ludicrous if not pernicious ; the inexcusable misapprehension which condones exposure of a young child's extremities under the plea of "hardening" ; the failure to discriminate between wisely-regulated physical exercises carried on under good conditions and excessive exertion under the stimulus of competition at irregular intervals—these are but a few of the erroneous delusions which will be eradicated only when hygiene has been wisely as well as widely taught.

In order to crystallize the abstract into the concrete it will suffice to cite one or two examples of the physical and economic results on the population of the omission of such hygienic training. The boy whose habitual slouch has resulted in a permanent contraction of the chest is hampered for life in intellect, as well as physically undeveloped, from deficient aëration of the blood in his cramped lungs ; the loss of nutrition to brain and nerves, the resultant diminished

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productive capacity and liability to ill-health are the unrecognized outcome of unsuspected causes dependent for their control or removal upon parents and guardians, scholastic or otherwise. It is simple enough to enumerate some few preventive measures ; the appreciation of their importance springs only from "right knowing." For instance, the slouching attitude may be averted by the avoidance of prolonged sitting in childhood ; by abundant active exercise in the open air during the whole period of growth ; by the cultivation of a self respect which seeks expression in a good carriage, and last, but by no means least, by the realization that no brain can exercise its full capacity when linked with a poor physique. Or take the case of a girl whose rickety bones and general debility are due to the mistakes of unenlightened parents ; she is not merely burdened herself with a debilitated frame, but the well-being of the next generation may suffer from a deformity chiefly induced by faulty nutrition and unwholesome surroundings.

Again, the serious annual drain on the country owing to the high death rate among infants is directly traceable to improper and irregular feeding, complicated by errors of dress, by dirt, and by absence of intelligent care—the results of carelessness and ignorance inexcusable in the light of present-day knowledge. The fact that each illustration advanced is common to all classes of society, though naturally more common and more open to comment among the less favoured of the population, points to the fact that the formation of good habits in early youth, reinforced

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later on by systematic instruction in responsibilities beyond a child's comprehension, should receive more consistent recognition in future from those who formulate the curricula of schools.

It must be always borne in mind that hygiene is not a subject apart; rather it is the "summing up" of other sciences and arts, emphasizing their application to the demands of daily life. It serves the useful purpose of a lens, by which to focus and to test, by observation and practice, the theories and information gained in the study of other subjects.

To formulate a definite scheme of instruction suitable to all elementary or secondary schools is impossible; the value of hygiene teaching depends so materially on prompt connexion with local customs and facts of daily familiarity to the pupils. A very free hand should be left to all trained teachers of the subject, and the test of observed influence on habits should be the criterion of success. The object in schools of all grades is to produce capable, thoughtful, healthy citizens. There must be no hint of specialism; broad, general principles applied to individual daily life must be selected; and no distinction is necessary between the teaching given to boys and girls from six to twelve years of age. Suggestions only are offered for such a course; much modification must necessarily be made to meet the varying needs. For instance, in schools where nature study is pursued useful associations are created by directing the children's attention to the difference between their bodies, homes, food, and clothing, and

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those of the plants, insects, birds, or animals they are watching, feeding, and protecting. If geography be a prominent feature in the time-table, then the influence of climate, formation of ground, vegetation, industries, and locality may lead to a wide field of inquiry and comparison between the customs and manners of civilized and savage nations, with their bearing on health. If history be the favoured topic, it is possible to impress many useful lessons by pointing out the influence of social progress upon the health of the people, as evidenced, for instance, by the gradual cessation of plague and famine subsequent to the adoption of more cleanly habits, to the introduction of more varied, wholesome food, and the development of a new style of domestic architecture, promoted by more peaceful political conditions, as well as by the employment of glass for the glazing of windows. Or to take another subject, elementary science offers even stronger attractions than hitherto where physics and physiology elucidate each the problems of the other, and the laws which govern gases and liquids are used to explain the *raison d'être* of the fittings which provide for the air and water supply of the family home.

The following plan has worked well in some elementary schools. In the first instance, it selects for the objects of "good habit" talks certain details of custom and environment familiar to the children, yet eminently attractive when the underlying reasons are worked out. Observations on the body; its activities and needs, the sense organs and their work. The

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home—its parts and their uses; how homes and persons are kept clean; what dirt is and how it is made. When and why meals are eaten; when, how, and why we sleep; the conception of health as a treasure to be carefully guarded and spent; these and similar subjects are found to supply topics enough for two or three school years, especially when the little folk are guided to observe and apply in their daily life the points discussed in school. The practice of a few cleanly, decent, methodical habits at six and seven is worth more than much ambitious book learning. It is found that three years can be well spent on these and a few more points, all susceptible of much amplification, application, and adaptation. At ten years old experience shows that a consideration of cleanliness can embrace not only that of the home, school, and person, but the cleanliness of streets, public buildings, markets, and shops. At eleven, a more detailed acquaintance with food and drink is appreciated, and observations on the use, kinds, amount, effects, and results of exercise and recreation appeal to both boys and girls. These subjects lend themselves satisfactorily to practical treatment and application, for though technical training is out of place in an elementary school, intelligent interest is quite easily aroused, and should be stimulated by just sufficient insight into the fascinations and difficulties of practical applications as to incite to a desire for more advanced technical study and regular physical training on leaving school. With children of twelve the duty of personal hygiene should be given in-

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creased prominence ; a *résumé* of the points previously presented contributes to this end. At this age the duties and responsibilities of citizenship can also be forcibly impressed ; in this branch of hygiene boys naturally differentiate from girls ; for the former "municipal housekeeping," for their sisters "domestic housekeeping," need the most emphasis, but, throughout the interdependence of both should be constantly indicated. Visits to public baths, municipal buildings, model dwellings, factories, and markets must all enter into this part of the training, which when thus systematically, tactfully, and attractively introduced has unquestionable influence on the habits and thoughts of the children.

In secondary schools, or where school life is happily prolonged, hygiene can be pursued from twelve years old and upwards along more directly scientific lines. It is now the custom to study general chemistry, physics, and biology by the laboratory method, as it is called, the idea being to oblige each pupil to work out all the data of an experiment or observation and to draw his own conclusions—in fact, to develop in him habits of careful observation, reflection, and inference. This object will fail of its attainment if concrete and fairly familiar material be not supplied for purposes of application. This is at hand in the form of man's place and part in nature. A most successful high school course in hygiene and physiology takes for its foundation the science work which precedes or runs concurrently with it. This is, during the first year, physiography ; during the

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second, botany and zoology ; during the third, general chemistry and elementary sanitary bacteriology ; during the fourth year, physics. The pupils in this co-educational school devote two hours a day for five months to hygiene in their third year. They first study air, water, simple bacteriology, and fermentation ; then they proceed to general physiology, cell and tissue structure, a study of food stuffs and digestion ; the special senses and the influences of environment and nutrition on mankind ; in conclusion they devote a short time to observation on some factors in the origin or prevention of disease. So far as possible the young people are first guided to make their own observations in the laboratory ; a set of directing questions are supplied to control these ; and when individual study is complete, the teacher in charge conducts a class lesson with the object of securing a clear understanding of underlying principles. This takes the form of a lecture or of a discussion, as seems preferable at the time.

The equipment in both these tested courses is not expensive or elaborate. In each every opportunity is seized to employ actual objects or surroundings for illustrative purposes rather than models, diagrams, or chemical apparatus. But in addition each school, each school task, each recess should supply a ready made object-lesson in health principles which, on small encouragement, will be carried out in practice far beyond the bounds of the playground. Even for the definite laboratory work demanded in the high school course, a few shillings per head suffices for the

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first installation, and the working expenses per head per year do not amount to more than three shillings. The habitual use of text books or "readers" is not, in my opinion, desirable at any stage of hygiene study in schools, though the former may be advantageously employed for reference purposes. The teacher should supply the theory required to elucidate the facts brought forward, especially in the lower classes, but it is eminently advantageous to train pupils to intelligent use of books of reference during the more advanced course in secondary schools. In so progressive a subject as hygiene the mere difficulty of keeping "up to date" is an argument against the adoption of any one book for the pupil's use. It is also preferable not to present the whole extensive sphere of hygiene to young people, rather its tenets should be linked by wisely varied reiteration to the conditions with which they are in personal touch. At the same time they must be led to realize that their own grasp of the subject is very limited; and at fifteen or sixteen their minds can be profitably opened to its vast scope and the importance of devoting further attention to its study in years to come. This may seem to entail much added strain and extra study on both teachers and taught. But should not the question of the relative values of subjects be faced at a time when national education, as a means to promote national efficiency, is engaging general attention? One nation where educational demands are high has solved the "time" problem in connexion with this subject in schools of all grades.

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It is not to be anticipated that the difficulties it presents will prove insurmountable in this country. Two infallible solvents exist in public opinion and the interest of the teaching profession; it remains only to secure and employ them.

The time is now at hand when no teacher of either sex should be recognized as qualified who does not possess a working acquaintance with the structure and functions of the human body, who has not made some practical observations of its great susceptibility to the influences of environment, who has not devoted some portion of his time to an intelligent study of childhood, and to a consideration of the first principles of sanitation.

Among elementary school teachers the possession of some theoretical knowledge on the subject is not unusual, but when tested by the practical methods employed in one or two instances its possessors are the first to admit that their theoretical information had not led them to any complete realization of the significance of the facts, had exerted no influence on individual habits, neither had it stimulated them to the introduction of sanitary practice into school life and work. Among the staff of secondary schools it is exceptional to find teachers who have devoted any systematic study to the subject; the exceptions would be women. The men who are engaged in forming the habits and characters of those boys whose future life entrusts the well-being of thousands of operatives, labourers, or ratepayers to their intelligent, sympathetic direction are not as yet required to know

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themselves, or to lead their charges to know, those first principles of hygiene and economics which demonstrate the interdependence of national health and national wealth. Is not the time ripe when a certificate vouching for the practical acquaintance with hygiene should carry great weight in a teacher's qualifications?

For the assistance of those members of the profession who have hitherto given little or no attention to the subject a short course, conducted by an expert in hygiene, would suffice to indicate its unexpected interest and educational possibilities. Physics, chemistry, mechanics, engineering and plumbing, geology, physiography, biology, of course physiology, bacteriology, agriculture—in each science the links are innumerable with the right conduct of life, and the opportunities for their practical connexion with healthy human existence occur on all sides. Or, take the arts, such as architecture and design, or those more immediately associated with the household—here, also, the bearing on daily life and openings to suggest reasons for the reforms desirable to secure wholesome environment for the community are readily apparent. To eyes once opened to the educational value of correlation, or to believers in the creed which links all learning with life, the difficulties of employing these subjects to impress personal and civic duties are by no means insurmountable. But until teachers are thus practically interested in, and prepared to teach the subject, its more general introduction into schools will be of little worth.

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Already a few opportunities exist for securing the information they desire, by those who have realized the need of such training after some years' active work in their profession. But it is a matter for great regret that general hygiene or even domestic economy are no longer either obligatory or optional subjects in the Board of Education's examinations for King's scholars or training college students; the rising generation of elementary school teachers will possess neither knowledge of or interest in this study. A somewhat successful course in practical hygiene for teachers which has been in operation for some three years is framed on the following lines. It opens with a study of life, its characteristics and requirements observed experimentally and practically by the students in the plant world. Air, water, and food, the three essentials to life, are then studied in some detail; but as the food requirements depend on the structure and activities of the body a *résumé* of the leading points in human physiology follows the lessons on air and water, and precedes those devoted to food. Personal hygiene in this course includes consideration of the influences on health of heredity, temperament, age, environment, habits, occupation, and so forth. Recreation and rest, handicrafts, hobbies, and high pressure all receive attentive consideration. Environment in the form of the dwelling is then gone into exhaustively. Decoration and house cleaning find a place beside the problems of warming, lighting, and ventilation. Sectional hygiene is next presented to these teacher-students. Naturally the greater part

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of the time thus available is devoted to the judicious care of children and the hygiene of school life and education. Public hygiene succeeds the sectional, and leads to an acquaintance with the obligations and responsibilities of citizenship, the causes of ill-health, and advisable preventive measures. The course concludes with an introduction to the interest and great value of vital statistics, with a concise review of the English system of local government. The prominent, indispensable feature of this course is that every principle and fact is illustrated and impressed by means of observation, individual experiment, or practical demonstration, and by field work. It is by some form of this method that every teacher should be trained for his professional calling, as well as in his capacity of instructor. Such a course would occupy about three hours a week for a year, given the general education presupposed to be possessed by such students. The syllabus of the examination for the Sanitary Institute's Teachers' Certificate in Hygiene will be found to demand much such a preparation. Where the tastes are scientific the study could be profitably and conveniently extended, but the above *résumé* brings forward what has been tested for several years, and has proved to be efficient informing, and stimulating.

The industrial energy and material prosperity evident in the United States of America seem to be in part due to the careful and prolonged school training in this subject of hygiene. Children are taught to admire and respect the human body, to understand

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its dependence on environment and its deterioration under abuse. The duty of efficient citizenship which they owe the State in return for the protection and advantages they enjoy under its shelter is impressed on the little people from early days. They are consistently trained to realize that no man either lives or dies to himself, and that the most insignificant unit exerts a good or bad influence on the prestige of the nation. For these and many other reasons hygiene is gradually attaining an important position in institutions for higher education. It is beyond the province of these essays to refer to the courses in sanitary science at technical institutes and colleges; I desire merely to mention that college courses have been successfully introduced in the United States, in some instances at the request of male students, sensible of their need for further information. Several leading universities, indeed, offer examples of the satisfactory inclusion of hygiene in their courses of study with no loss of prestige or sense of discredit. I shall be reminded that educational leaders in the United States hold very diverse views from those current in this country as to the function of a university. They publish abroad, for instance, their belief that the day is past when a university existed solely as a storehouse of learning, and maintain that it can no longer hold aloof from the activities of the world; it must train men in citizenship, and send them out competent to lead the nation in all wise measures of reform; it must lead its members as expert pioneers in every line of progress; service as well as scholarship should

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be its ideal. What is true for the new country is in this case equally true for the old; the solution of public health problems involves vast legislative, social, and administrative changes. Much can be accomplished towards the attainment of these ends by persevering, intelligent practical training of the young in schools, but the subject of hygiene will only attain its legitimate status in the eyes of the teaching profession and of the public when English universities throw open their doors to a subject intimately bound up with national, social, economic, and industrial life, the right conduct of which deserves the skilled attention and close study of England's most mature minds. National efficiency depends on the intelligent co-operation of every unit in the whole population, whether man or woman, rich or poor. Legislative enactments alone, or even the skilled and devoted supervision of the national health by a small body of professional men, are comparatively futile unless supported by this widespread and active public opinion in the formation of which all educational institutions should constitute a prominent factor.

II. Household Economics

TO thinkers of both sexes the home constitutes the centre of interest in any study of present social and economic progress, for it is no exaggeration to say that on the happy, healthy maintenance of family life hinges the political, commercial, and industrial welfare of the Empire. The manifest decadence of true home life in this country, though attributable to numerous and complex factors, affords certain evidence that the home is not fulfilling its function. Friction, fretful discontent, contempt for duties, which rightly performed afford scope for the employment of the highest intellectual gifts; this tale of disappointment to parents and demoralization among young people is painfully familiar in every grade of society. Careful and skilled observation describes some of the contributory causes in the blind bondage to custom and absence of adaptation to external conditions shown in many family circles and in most domestic procedure. Time-honoured habits, hedged about by tradition, are allowed to obscure the progress made in other forms of industry and in constructive invention; scientific methods are ignored of which advantage is taken in all occupations but those concerned with household affairs; time-honoured

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precedents are permitted to condemn the often legitimate changes consequent upon social developments. This disdainful, discontented attitude towards home life is not peculiar to, nor the fault of, one sex; nevertheless, as the office of home-maker devolves on women, it would seem especially advisable to secure in them a change of tone, and a fuller appreciation of the dignity and importance of housekeeping. It may be objected that efforts for many years past directed to this end have proved to a large degree abortive. If these efforts have been wise and efficient, their apparent failure points only to their prosecution with more intelligence and vigour—if they have been defective, it is but another reason for ventilating the whole subject.

Hitherto domestic economy has been confined to more or less dogmatic directions how to deal with the physical elements of human life, inculcated theoretically to young girls of the working classes, to whom the formal lectures on food, air, water, clothing and so forth, present fewer attractions than a lesson in drawing or a class in singing. The enthusiasm of few teachers has been stimulated in a subject to which little prestige was attached in training colleges. Their own preparation consisted chiefly in the acquirement of dry facts, the majority of which every one was supposed to know. That girls thus instructed frequently fail to grasp the intention of the lessons is a commonplace. The importance, for instance, of frequent bathing, which constitutes a portion of such a course of lessons, did not influence the habits of a

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mother of many, who, in reply to an inquiry, thanked God she had never had occasion to employ the bath with which her house was fitted ; the use of a bath to her mind being limited to the treatment of a child in convulsions. Learning without doing has been the undoing of English teaching of domestic economy. The introduction a few years since of domestic science, marked a forward movement. It was the result of an effort to secure more educational treatment of the subject, and to increase its value to the girls by making it a vehicle for simple lessons in elementary science ; these were framed to train observation and accuracy, to demonstrate the principles which underlie the processes of cleaning, cooking, and washing ; and thus to explain and to dignify them in the eyes of the children. But there is little capacity in early life to carry away a clear conception of the applications of an experiment seen but once. The demands on the child's reasoning faculty are far too great, when, in addition, it is expected to associate these scientific principles with household methods not always demonstrated practically in immediate conjunction with the experiment. The tender years of the little science students were scarcely taken into account by the advocates of this method ; interested they would be in the manipulations of the demonstrator ; competent to glibly relate or to note down from memory the steps in each experiment, but at ten or eleven years of age the immature brain is not adapted to store up principles apart from repeated practice—principles, too, which adult optimism anticipated

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would be subsequently applied at home, in courageous defiance of old conventions and powerful associations; or hoarded for six or eight years, until, as a wife, the girl is assumed to be free to initiate the new régime, untrammelled by home habits, or by the candid criticisms of neighbours. Cookery, housewifery, and laundrywork have also been taught, and that by practical methods, in our elementary schools for a considerable number of years to girls of eleven years old and upward, and to a small degree to older girls in secondary schools. But, though they are evidences of good results, these are scarcely commensurate with what were anticipated. The girls are undoubtedly interested and impressed, and the teachers well-qualified and zealous, but the courses are necessarily short, and habits become second nature only by means of prolonged practice. There are other substantial reasons for this disappointment in addition to those just enumerated. Reasons connected with the numbers to be taught, the limits of school life, the claims of other subjects, the expense involved, and so forth.

It is my opinion that while school life ends for the majority of girls at thirteen, their best training during this period for future responsibilities as wives and mothers will be found in the formation of practical good habits consistent with their age, based on a systematic study of hygiene, as suggested in a previous article, rather than by introducing the technical treatment of any part of the subject. Disappointment, for example, must follow any attempt to

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diminish the infant mortality of this country by endeavouring to train in the care of infants children themselves little more than babies. The place of an elementary school is not to teach in detail duties which cannot be fulfilled for many years ; its sphere is found in the general preparation of mind and body for the future specific duties and for the social claims of later life. If the proposers of such a course were to reflect on their own mental outlook at eleven years of age, the futility of the suggestion would effectually check its further promulgation. By all means interest all children, alike in elementary and secondary schools, in the importance and methods of right living, illustrated by such practice as is suited to their years. The child at work on roots and stems, on leaves and flowers and plants, is learning the laws of life and upon what life depends. Little girls and boys, too, can intelligently grasp the fact that young life is less hardy than more advanced ; that harsh and ignorant treatment of seedlings, for instance, influences their future growth and fruitage ; that a leaf scarred by injury bears the traces until it falls off ; that too much or too little food are alike detrimental to the living plant, and that each kind of living thing varies in its requirements from its companions and has diverse needs at different periods of its own life. But to expect children to practise these ideas on infant members of their own family, in the character of courageous reformers, savours, to say the least of it, of a scarcely attainable ideal.

It will be argued that girls of ten and twelve in

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certain classes of society will continue to take care of babies in spite of any demonstration of the impropriety of a system which imposes such premature responsibilities on their young shoulders, and therefore it behoves those interested in the national welfare to safeguard the babies by suitable preparation of the precocious nurses. No educationist, in the true sense of the word, could support this view. Education consists largely in supplying at the right moment the stimulus essential to the next step in development. It is an abuse and not a use of schools to call on them to antedate such stimuli ; such a process only leads to the ultimate detriment of the individual subjected to it. It is equally fallacious to substitute an attempt at technical training for the broad general culture consonant with the children's age.

I believe a good deal could be gained by the wise use and applications of nature study in elementary schools to develop more gentleness and understanding of baby needs in the elder brothers and sisters, but definite teaching on the preparation of suitable food, or, on the detailed care which should be expended on an infant, is of little worth from even the purely utilitarian standpoint before thirteen, or preferably fifteen, years of age. Introduce girls of eleven and twelve to ideas of the influence of cooking on food, and of the care necessary to keep food wholesome. Let them realize something of the difficulties associated with wrong methods in cleaning or washing, and experience the glow of pleasure which follows perseverance in learning the right way of doing. Encour-

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age in them a pride in gaining even a little power over their surroundings; ability to make simple dishes, or to mend straightforward rents, or to restore the burnish to a tarnished surface. That is, use familiar duties as pegs on which to hang habits of order, neatness, observation, accuracy, self-respect, and consideration for others; employ the acts of daily routine as opportunities for the application of facts learnt in school; forge with them a chain to link lessons with life. Every school should provide equipment of an inexpensive kind, and ensure sufficient space to permit individual practice of such simple domestic activities as occupy a prominence in the normal life of a child of these ages. But do not expect enduring results of a technical type; consider the practice lessons in cooking, sewing, or cleaning rather as invaluable agents in the concrete inculcation of those elementary health habits, the formation of which, under favourable circumstances, are potent in creating an interest in the right conduct of life, and a desire to pursue the study in fuller detail in after years.

A vivid interest in all that pertains to the home, a loving pride in any possible contribution to the well-being of its inmates, a realization that opportunities for the honourable application of all learning are to be found in family life—these and many more practical qualities should, and can be, thus systematically cultivated in every boy and girl from earliest infancy, not on a sentimental basis, but built securely on a firm foundation of facts. This method takes advantage of a child's innate instinct to do, and exercises it on the

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intelligent performance of such processes, in keeping with its years, as can be educationally employed in the schoolroom and habitually practised in home life. Meanwhile such a desire to do more, and to do it more perfectly, can be awakened ; such a belief in the dignity of all doing which promotes the well-being of the race can be stimulated, that, as years of discretion are attained, the impulse is aroused to complete the training technically, which was started educationally in early childhood.

The question assumes quite a different aspect when it is considered in relation to girls of thirteen and upwards. The physical and mental development associated with that and the following years permits a quite other treatment of the subject. All experience goes to prove the attractions and educational advantages offered by household science training at this period of life ; that is to say, if the subject be invested with its true dignity and connected by practice with its underlying sciences and arts. It is invidious if the less intellectual girls are consistently selected for this study, and unquestionably tends to depreciate what, in England at least, is still regarded askance in secondary schools. The method of treatment and amount of time devoted to it will depend on the position assigned to it. Thus it may be entirely an extra and voluntary subject ; or it may appear as a part of the science or art course (its rightful place) according to whichever of the two sides offers the greater attraction to the pupil ; or it may be introduced under the form of manual training, in which case the utilitarian rather

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than the educational side is apt to predominate. For in the high school it is the educational aspect which should be steadily emphasized ; there should be still no hint of premature specialization ; considerable dexterity will be attained in the various processes, but no suggestion of technical certificates should be countenanced.

In one successful high school the girls devote four hours a week for four years to this study, beginning at the age of thirteen. During these years they devote a similar weekly period in the first year to elementary biology, in the second to physiology, in the third to physics, in the fourth to chemistry. Their household science work is intimately correlated with their laboratory practice of these subjects, and also with great skill it is associated with their art training, history, and mathematics. The syllabus includes practice of plain cooking, laundry work, sewing, simple dress-making, and house sanitation. They visit shops, markets, and factories in connexion with the study of food ; museums and art galleries in connexion with needlework : public and private buildings in connexion with house construction. They are trained in the economics of their subject also, and show much interest in, and response to, this side of their study. Their school day is five hours five days a week, and the time allotted to this direct preparation for life is found conducive to excellence in other studies, a fact attributed to the activity and change of posture which accompanies it, to the valuable associations it forms between theory and practice, and to the new interest it fosters in daily duties. The scheme is susceptible

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of numberless variations; the important feature in any one adopted is its method.

It is the manner in which such a subject is taught which makes so wide a difference in the results on character, habit, and subsequent action. For example, mere cultivation of the imitative faculty should be avoided in sewing and dressmaking. The pupil must be trained to see with her mental as well as with her physical eyes; she must learn to develop initiative—what the Americans call “resourcefulness.” She must not merely learn how to take measurements, to cut, to fit, to sew seams, but she must be led to appreciate good form and proportion, and her taste in dress must be educated at the same time that she gains manual dexterity and greater keenness of observation. If English parents demanded this training for all their daughters high school courses would be organized with as comparatively little difficulty as in other countries, there would be immediate benefit to the pupils from the new interest brought into their school life, and the future gain to the nation would be assured. Not the least part of this would be the direct and indirect results of enlightening the directing classes on some of the difficulties which beset the homelife of the poorer population. A personal practical knowledge of domestic processes, and of the implements and materials essential to their satisfactory execution, cannot but awaken a keener realization among women that while the industrial classes are left in overcrowded, inconvenient, dilapidated houses, it is asking them to make bricks without straw to ex-

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pect scrupulous cleanliness, varied cooking, and refined intelligent habits. This fact is clearly emphasized in the last report of Dr. Hope, Medical Officer of Health for Liverpool, where he points out that the appalling rate of infantile mortality, amounting to nearly fifty per cent. of the births, is due largely to ignorance and bad environment. Dr. Hope carefully investigated the circumstances of upwards of a thousand consecutive deaths in districts where infantile mortality was excessive. In twenty-one per cent. the families were extremely and excessively dirty ; in eighteen per cent. the mothers went out to work leaving the infant frequently in the care of another child who could give it no proper attention ; while about eleven per cent. of the total were living in dwellings unfit for human habitation.

It is conditions such as these which increased knowledge on the part of all English women would do much to remove or to ameliorate.

Experience in the United States also shows that actual knowledge of cooking or cleaning by the mistress invariably alters her attitude towards her maids—one step towards the solution of the domestic service problem.

For girls whose training can be extended till nineteen or twenty years of age a less comprehensive high school course is found sufficient, as a complete technical course can be advantageously followed after leaving school. Of these this country offers a wide choice ; the tables are spread with a feast of opportunity, but they are sparsely furnished with guests, because few realize how indispensable is the fare provided for the

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well-being and prestige of the nation. There is urgent need to revive in the "lady" of to-day a realization that the term, in its true significance, means "loaf-giver," or one whose chiefest honour it is to see wisely to the ways of her household ; but in order to attract and to interest the more cultured of the community organizers of such courses would do well to look across the Atlantic, and observe the scope of some of the best examples of household economic courses in the technical institutes and colleges of the United States. These are usually sub-divided into courses in household science or in household art, as it is found that the personal equation bulks large in these advanced courses, and that the temperament to whom the sciences are congenial cares little for the arts, and where the arts are attractive the sciences appeal but poorly. Students can obtain certificates for separate branches of either of these two sub-divisions ; for instance, for cookery, or for dressmaking only. But they are invariably urged to complete their study of the whole group comprised in the selected sub-division, and usually follow this advice. The fundamental sciences and arts respectively constitute a proportion of each course, though they are naturally not treated as exhaustively as in a training course for teachers. Nevertheless, it is very rare to find them omitted, and the executive side alone offered.

The conviction is strong that a certain amount of theory and acquaintance with underlying principles are indispensable to intelligent, self-respecting work ; and the belief is fast gaining ground that as the applica-

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tion of her best efforts to home life is woman's highest duty, so her training must be worthy of its object. No serious student should be admitted to cooking or sewing class, to housewifery or dressmaking in technical institutes who cannot give evidence of adequate, if simple, preparation for what she undertakes. It has been well said that all merely mechanical repetition of manual work is drudgery. The woman who boils potatoes year after year without a thought of the how or why is a drudge. But the cook with a knowledge of principles carries on her work in a spirit of intelligence which raises it to the level of a fine art. Theory must support, or, more accurately, must precede practice ; the girl who knows nothing of the laws which govern the behaviour of gases, who is not clear as to the distinction between an acid and an alkali, and who does not care to learn, is probably the innocent sufferer from the defects of a system which passes for education. But to such, technical teaching, in its true sense, cannot be imparted ; and though the exclusion of these girls may lower the returns for a few years, more ultimate gain will result to the community from their relegation to another type of class. Those classes recognized as technical should be based on a clear though elementary acquaintance with science or with art as the case may be. To sanction a low standard for the sake of immediate small results brings a heavy penalty of subsequent depreciation and disappointment.

For older women and for those to whom circumstances have denied educational advantages in youth

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very simple purely utilitarian technical courses may be fitly retained. For the girl who has received a fairly thorough education the fact that she must exercise her mind as well as her hands in her household economic training should but enhance its dignity. At least it will place it on the same level as the profession or calling adopted by her brothers, and studied by them along similar lines. At whatever initial cost no better investment of public money could be made during the next twenty years than in the systematic technical training of girls and young women in household economics, which would, of course, include in its scheme thorough instruction in the care of children.

This broader, more liberal, more scientific conception of the subject has only dawned in recent years on those who, while seeking for the underlying causes active in the depreciation of home life, desire to see it restored to, if not elevated above, the dignified position it once occupied, and to them is due the selection of the somewhat unfamiliar designation "household economics." Broadly speaking, the skilful management of a home is a form of applied science and art. But to confine the subject of home economics within even these limits would exclude two of its most important branches. If home be the place where each individual should be ensured such conditions as will make him an effective human being, as much heed must be given to his ethical as to his physical surroundings. Again, as all careful housewives aim to produce the best results with the least expenditure, more serious, scientific study must be

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given to the economics of home consumption, with the result that the outlook extends itself until the expenditure of time and energy receive equal consideration with the outlay of money and material. Briefly, then, household economics in its entirety consists of certain domestic arts or activities, based on a number of sciences, and leading to the study of economics. Only those who have time and means to prolong their education much beyond the limit of elementary school life can secure its full advantages.

It is, therefore, conceded that, given such an extended scope, household economics must be variously modified to suit the needs of the many classes of girls who should devote time to its acquirement according to their possibilities; even where the study period is inevitably limited a teacher can nevertheless imbue her pupils with some conception of the dignity of their subject. Broad culture, open minds, social experience become indispensable qualifications of the teachers to whom such courses of instruction as have been discussed can be entrusted; their special preparation, too, for the work must be very thorough and comprehensive. It is the privilege of such women to strengthen family ties by forging new and strong links with the developments of modern civilization. It lies in their power to make for the prosperity of the Empire and the happiness of the home circle by quickening in their own sex the conviction that to contribute by skilful care to the healthful development of mankind is an honourable, responsible, and intellectual duty. These teachers must not be an

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isolated class, but must work in close sympathy and in intimate connexion with the general staff of the school or college to which they are attached, to the end that judicious correlations may be made with other studies, and so the essential chain of association be forged which stimulates both memory and action. An intimate acquaintance with the scholars under their care should also be maintained, without which intelligent individual training is rendered well-nigh impossible.

In conclusion, the wish may be expressed that the college women of England may lend their warm support to the promotion of this movement in favour of home reform. To secure a solid basis of scientific information on which to construct reforms, to enlist the co-operation of the best minds, to replace the timidity of partial or profound ignorance by the confidence of assured knowledge are surely reasons sufficient in support of this suggestion. So complex and many-sided a subject needs, too, the resources of a university for its satisfactory pursuit. Should not the demand for this recognition of its true status come from those women who best know what these resources are? Should not one aspect of productive scholarship among college women assume the form of diligent research directed to the promotion of a healthy race, reared under conditions of happy home life? Good homes are the basis of the highest and most fruitful civilization; to secure them for the British Empire depends on her women, her schools, and her educational zeal.

HIGHER EDUCATION IN FRANCE
AND GERMANY



VI

HIGHER EDUCATION IN FRANCE AND GERMANY

I. FRENCH SECONDARY SCHOOLS Their Lessons for England

By P. J. HARTOG

OWENS COLLEGE, MANCHESTER

DURING the past thirty years it is to Germany that England has looked for her lessons on Education. Writing in 1868, Matthew Arnold drew attention to more than one point in which French example might be profitably followed.¹ In republishing his work, in 1874,² he omitted the description of French schools on the ground that the practical value of the French system in affording lessons for English people's guidance was small. How far Arnold's judgment was affected by the French failure of 1870, it is impossible to say. But there can be little doubt that that failure was exaggerated both by Germans and by Englishmen. Europe saw with surprise the rapid recovery of France after mili-

¹ See in *Schools and Universities on the Continent* the chapter on "Discipline and Teaching."

² Under the title *Higher Schools and Universities in Germany*. See Preface, page v.

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tary defeat and the infliction of a debt thought to be crushing. It was indeed more than recovery, for just as the national humiliation of 1807 infused a new spirit into Germany, so the national humiliation of 1870 infused a new spirit into France, and in nothing has that spirit been made more manifest than in the reorganization and the revivification of her national system of education. The fact has not yet been sufficiently realized in this country. The judgment of Frenchmen of the present day who are acquainted with both French and English schools, and who are not slow to criticize their own country, may be summed up in a sentence: "L'instruction est meilleure en France, l'éducation en Angleterre"—(In France the intellectual training, in England the training of character, is better). From French teaching we have many things to learn, and in particular one fundamental lesson to which I shall return later. But we can also learn something from French defects into which, in our belated haste to move, we may presently tumble; and even more from the French treatment of difficulties common to the two countries. France has no doubt been more deeply transformed in some ways by the democratic spirit than England. She has advanced further in the problem of opening every career in the State to the most capable, for the benefit of the nation at large. But by so much more has she realized the danger of attempting to give the same education to all children alike without reference to the future lives of the less distinguished. Our new Education Bill brings with it not only national bene-

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fits, but national perils. It would, I believe, be an excellent thing if the money destined for secondary schools could be put aside for a year until the new authorities have had time to consider the great problems of secondary education that they have to solve. The creation, not of the efficient workers we need, but of *déclassés*, of men educated to be failures, of whom France finds that she has only too many, may easily result from misguided educational enthusiasm. Huxley once told an Irish jarvey to "drive fast," and the man immediately started off without knowing his destination. We are in danger of doing that just now.

One of the first problems that the new authorities will have to deal with is that of the higher grade schools, which correspond roughly with the "écoles primaires supérieures," described by Mr. Morant in the first volume of Mr. Sadler's reports.¹ There has been a tendency, inevitable with our present dearth of secondary schools, to transform the higher grade schools into schools preparing for university examinations. The Cockerton judgment, by removing them from the sphere of primary education, and the approval with which that judgment has been received by many educational authorities, have tended to accentuate that tendency. Now French experience shows that there is a real place for higher primary schools, carrying on the education of mechanics, foremen, clerks, and possibly small farmers from the age of twelve to that of fifteen. And against any

¹ *Special Reports on Educational Subjects*, vol. 1, 1896-7, pp. 287-374.

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transformation of such schools into secondary schools French opinion seems to be unanimous. They have a rôle of their own to fulfil. We must keep them to that rôle on the one hand ; and on the other we must see that we do not force into them or keep in them children who need true secondary education, and who are destined to form leaders and teachers rather than subordinates. The higher grade schools may easily fall between two stools, and be neither practical enough for the artisan nor cultured enough for those—and I include among them many, if not all, the teachers of our primary schools—who ought to come later under the influence of the universities. But if in France higher primary education is to be maintained and developed, secondary education has been organized so that a boy may come straight from a primary into a secondary school if his parents choose that he shall do so.

The first paragraph of the decree of May 31, 1902, embodying the reform of secondary schools, runs as follows : “Secondary education is co-ordinated with primary education, so as to form a continuation to a course of primary study extending normally over a period of four years” (the course of primary study being taken either in a primary school or in the “Preparatory and Elementary Divisions” of the *lycée*).

Secondary education in France is carried on largely by the State itself, and we may say almost entirely under the direction of the State. The Minister of Education, with the advice of an expert council, partly nominated by himself, partly repre-

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sentative, prescribes the study-plans for State secondary schools, and lays down the programme of university entrance examinations to suit those study-plans. Thus, not only the *lycées* supported entirely by the State, and the *collèges* supported partly by the State, partly by Municipalities, but also the numerous and important secondary schools carried on by priests and their rivals, the Christian Brothers, which receive nothing from the State, and private lay institutions like Sainte Barbe and the *École Alsacienne*, which receive a State subvention, all alike are bound to follow in their main lines the policy laid down by the Government.¹ Hitherto we in England have had the advantages of independence and variety in secondary education, advantages which France is now attempting to give its secondary schools by diminishing the guidance of the central authority, advantages which in England have been rendered in many cases illusory, by want of funds to carry out

¹ The Parliamentary Commission of 1899 obtained the following figures for the year 1898 for secondary schools for boys—

<i>Lycées and Collèges</i>	86,321	pupils
Unsectarian Private Schools	9,725	„
Ecclesiastical Schools	67,643	„
<i>Petits Séminaires</i> (also Ecclesiastical)	23,497	„
	187,186	„

Allowing for 1,576 pupils of private schools who also attend a *lycée* or a *collège*, the true total is 185,610 pupils. Of the 86,321 pupils in the *lycées and collèges*, 33,538 were on the classical side, 30,370 on the modern side, 21,982 in the preparatory classes, and 431 in special departments.

See *Enquête sur l'enseignement secondaire*, vol. iii. pp. 5-8.

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excellent ideas, by the caprice of parents on whom the schools depend, by the bewildering requirements of a host of independent examining bodies hopelessly out of touch with the schools whose pupils they have to examine. Obviously, with the new powers to be given to County Councils we are making an approach to French centralization and one that ought to help us greatly if we do not go too far in this direction. The whole system of French secondary education has recently been reformed, after a long and exhaustive report from a committee of the Chamber of Deputies. To discuss here the detail of these reforms is impossible. But there are two main problems which the new organization is designed especially to solve, and which present themselves in England just as they do in France. Boys in secondary schools may be divided into two classes—those who leave at fifteen or sixteen, and those who leave at eighteen or nineteen. The first problem is to devise means for giving something complete in the way of education to the boys who leave at the earlier age, and yet that shall not hinder the progress of the others. For that purpose the school life in the *lycées* and *collèges* is to be divided into two cycles, the first of four years, lasting from eleven to fifteen or sixteen, and the second of three years, from fifteen or sixteen to eighteen or nineteen.

The second problem is to give greater variety to curricula than is afforded by the old division into classical and modern sides. The plan laid down by the new regulations is somewhat complicated, and

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can only be summarised. In the first cycle there are only two divisions, as before. Division A, which includes Latin (with Greek as an optional subject), and Division B, in which the time devoted to Latin in A is replaced by additional time given to the mother tongue and to modern languages and science. All boys give five hours weekly to one modern language, and all boys learn natural science. In the first two years of the second cycle there are four sections. In the first both Latin and Greek are taken; in the second and third Latin is included, but Greek is replaced by an increased amount either of modern languages or of science; in the fourth there is neither Latin nor Greek, their place being taken entirely by French, modern languages, and science. But it must be understood that there are to be no watertight compartments in the schools. One of the main objects of the reform has been to abolish the old distinction between the classical and modern sides, with the difference of prestige that in France, as in England, has constantly tended to make the modern side a failure and a refuge for failures.¹ The boys are to learn

¹ Professor H. E. Armstrong writes (*Times*, November 24, 1902, p. 12): "No public school has yet given the modern side a fair chance. Both as regards teachers and taught, the modern side is always the resort of those who are relatively the intellectual duffers of school." The statement is consistent, as it is only fair to point out, with the view that a good many others besides "the intellectual duffers" are to be found on the modern side; and this is true in both countries. The French wish to give the modern curricula a "fair chance."

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history—on which great stress is laid—and other subjects together so far as this is practicable. After the end of the sixth school-year the first part of the *baccalauréat* examination (of which more is said below) has to be passed in the subjects of the curriculum chosen at school. In the seventh year the division of curricula is slightly different. There are two main divisions named *Philosophie* and *Mathématiques*, from the subjects to which in either most time is allotted. But the “philosophers” have to give some time to mathematics as well as to other subjects, and the “mathematicians” have to give some time similarly to philosophy as well as to other subjects. The school course is crowned by the second and final part of the *baccalauréat* examination.

The *baccalauréat* examination is always held in the university, and until now the examiners have consisted almost entirely of university professors and lecturers. Under the new regulations the Examining Boards will consist of members of the university faculties and of teachers from secondary schools in approximately equal proportions. Each part of the examination comprises, in addition to written work, three-quarters of an hour *vivâ voce* questioning. The principle of the examination differs fundamentally from that of most English examinations. In the written examinations the student is not harried and hurried by multitudinous questions on numerous topics, but is required to produce a careful, well-thought-out and finished piece of work. Subjects in which variety and extent rather than depth of knowledge have to

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be tested are treated in the *vivâ voce* examination, which is conducted by the examiners who have looked over the written work of the candidates on the previous night. The *baccalauréat* differs in one other essential point from English entrance examinations. In England it is the examination that forces a plan of study on the schools. In France, as we have seen, the needs of the school are considered first, and the examination shaped to suit the school programme. It is obvious that before long, if we are to achieve real progress in our secondary schools, we shall have to copy French and German example in this respect, and, while providing for local initiative and variety, cease to bewilder the schools by the requirements of an endless number of independent examining bodies. A conference between the different universities on this point is urgently needed as a first step towards reform. The interchangeability of university preliminary examinations is the first object to be aimed at.

I ventured to assert that French school teaching is on the average better than English. I do not say that French schoolmasters are the intellectual superiors of the English, but they have more time, better opportunities, and to some extent different aims. The master in a *lycée* is required as a rule to give only from twelve to fifteen hours' teaching weekly. And though in certain cases the new scheme increases this, for masters of lower forms, to a maximum of twenty hours, the Minister explicitly states :

“ Head masters are to be economical of the time

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of the staff: the masters require a large amount of spare time, not only for bodily and mental rest, but for the more independent work by which they maintain and renew their intellectual capital (*leur fonds*). The pupils profit by this no less than the masters; it may be asserted that university [meaning here secondary] teaching derives its chief value from the independent work of the teachers, which continually gives it fresh life and saves it from lapsing into routine."¹

These are certainly words that governors and head masters of many English schools might well take to heart. Assistant masters (and assistant mistresses) are sometimes so overworked as to lose all freshness of idea. The teachers in French *lycées* are, as a rule, men capable not only of writing text-books—and of doing without them—but of carrying on independent work of a kind which not infrequently brings them fame and a university chair. Probably the majority of French university professors have at some time or other been teachers in a secondary school. But there is, it must be remembered, another side to this question, as Mr. Sadler recently pointed out. How can we demand from our masters both that intense personal interest in their pupils and the exercise of those pastoral functions from which English boarding schools, at any rate, derive their chief value, and the interest in scientific and historic investigation expected from a teacher in a French *lycée*? With regard to boarding schools the question is easier to

¹ Circular published in *Le Temps*, July 20, 1902 (Supplement).

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put than to answer. In day schools, where the masters have only to supplement and not to replace parental action, the problem offers less difficulties ; to increase the numbers and leisure of the staff, and hence their opportunity for independent work, seems to be a mere matter of finance and encouragement. But even here the problem is not simple. Our system of competitive examinations for Government services does not test but assumes a certain training of character and knowledge of the world. How are we to give this training to boys, often coming from narrow homes, unless, by the help of masters who are first-rate both in intelligence and in character, we establish a real school life out of teaching hours ; unless, in fact, we borrow from our old public schools lessons which France is only too anxious to take from them at this present moment ?

Perhaps the one fundamental and unmistakable lesson that French schools have to teach us is the use of the mother tongue in education. The historic reasons which explain how it has come about that the French boy is taught to speak French unhesitatingly, to write French, to read the great French masterpieces in prose as well as poetry, and to understand them, while the English boy is brought up to be inarticulate, weak in the art of expressing himself on paper, and to know Cicero better than Swift or Burke, it is impossible to discuss here. But passing over the history of the subject, it is important to point out once more that while a knowledge of foreign languages is useful, a thorough mastery of one's own language is infinitely

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more useful, and that proficiency in the mother tongue cannot be acquired without study. In French secondary schools from three to five hours weekly are devoted to the study of the French language and literature from the age of eleven to that of seventeen, and from the age of fourteen onwards the grammar is cut off and the teaching is restricted to instruction in composition and literature. "The teaching of English" in English schools means all too often the teaching of minute grammatical irregularities and their explanations, the discussion of a text of Shakespeare which bristles with difficulties of detail, and, to pass at a bound from the particular to the general, an occasional essay on the "relative value of character and intellect" or a discussion of "true and false progress in a nation, with examples from ancient and modern history." I speak by the book. The teaching of French means something very different. It means, above all, the discipline in the art of thinking out one's own ideas and of putting them in a clear form before other people. If French is a clear language it is for this reason, that the teaching of its schools made it clear in the seventeenth century, and has kept it clear ever since. A French boy learns by constant practice that if he has to write on any subject he must arrange his ideas on some definite plan before he begins to write. He is given easy subjects, and is provided with most of his material and with a plan ready made to begin with; and he is taught gradually how to find his own material and to make his own plan. He learns not only by care-

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ful writing but also by careful reading. He studies his French authors not for obscure words, occasional difficulties, or occasional felicities, but for the ideas and facts they contain, and for the method adopted by each author in dealing with his matter and in presenting it to the reader. The supreme beauty of French style depends on an absence of "beauties of style." Everything is subordinated to the matter in hand. And thus the French teaching of style at its best is as exact and scientific as it is literary. We are told that many of our officers cannot write English letters, that our scientific students are incapable of drawing up reports, that our clerks cannot conduct commercial correspondence without long years of drill in an office. The remedy is obvious. Governing bodies must insist on the introduction of English teaching into the curriculum of every secondary school from the lowest class to the highest. They will not find either the school-masters or the parents very difficult to persuade that such teaching is necessary.

To other points of more technical interest in French education we can but allude. The question of Greek, as burning in France as in this country; the question of Latin for boys destined for commercial pursuits, on which distinguished commercial men hold equally strong and precisely opposite opinions; the compulsory teaching of drawing²; the teaching of mathe-

² All boys in the four preparatory years are to give one hour weekly, and in the first five years of secondary school life proper, two hours weekly, to drawing.

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matics, in which after long years we are slowly approximating to French methods ; the great subject of science teaching, in which we have something, though far from everything, to learn from French schools ; the training of teachers, the size of schools—which some important French authorities would like to see limited to four hundred pupils—all deserve our attention. But there is one significant symptom which must again be insisted on—the immense interest taken in these and similar details by the French public. Nothing could be more impressive than the great array of witnesses that appeared before the French Commission on Secondary Education presided over by M. Ribot, who drew up the general report himself. The obvious truth that the future of the country depends on the excellence of secondary even more than of primary education is realized in France, as it is in Germany, by men of all parties and all political colours. “The masters in England,” a great ironmaster of the Cleveland district bluntly declared on his return from America, “are only good to make knights of.” We must educate the masters. Then, and then only, can we do our best for the men and for the country at large. Our universities with their higher technical schools are overburdened at present by the necessity of supplementing the deficient secondary education of the students who come to them. The old Continental reproach that our universities teach what is taught in schools on the Continent is still true, and necessarily true. That reproach can only be removed by a very serious effort to reor-

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ganize our secondary schools, and, above all, to increase their teaching power.

NOTE.—Since the above was written a bill has been introduced into the French Chamber, by M. Chaumié, the Minister of Public Instruction, for the regulation of secondary schools for boys and girls other than those provided by the State or the municipalities (*lycées* and *collèges*). The bill stipulates that the architects' plans of all such schools shall be submitted to the State authorities for approval ; that the head and other members of the staff of each school shall possess university or other diplomas, varying in character and grade with the aims and programme of the school (the rights of existing teachers being respected) ; and finally that all schools shall be inspected by State inspectors at least once annually. (*Projet de loi sur l'enseignement secondaire libre*, published in *Le Temps*, Supplement, Nov. 7, 1902). It would be useless to quote further details of a bill that may undergo some modification before being passed. For an analysis of certain portions of the Report of the Committee of the Chamber of Deputies and a summary description of the situation in France, reference should be made to Mr. M. E. Sadler's invaluable essay on "The Unrest in Secondary Education in Germany and Elsewhere" (*Special Reports on Educational Subjects*, vol. 9, 1902, p. 114, *et seq.*).

Finally, I desire to add that a fresh inspection of French *lycées*, terminated just as this article goes to press in its present form (Jan., 1903), has given me no reason to modify the general views I have expressed.

VI

II. HIGHER EDUCATION IN GERMANY

By J. J. FINDLAY, M.A.

HEAD MASTER OF THE CARDIFF INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL FOR BOYS

ENGLISHMEN have heard too much of German education lately. It is now nearly twenty years since the first commission was sent over to inquire into the relation between the schools of Germany and the progress of the people in trade and commerce. Since then the theme has been worked out in every detail, and it has become the stock-in-trade of every public speaker, from the Earl of Rosebery downwards.

One of the most striking and alarming comparisons is the one introduced into the presidential address at the last meeting of the British Association. Professor Dewar's statistics emphasized the fact that we are "two generations at least" behind Germany in the matter of producing trained chemists.

All these criticisms, while they touch to some extent the problems of elementary education dealt with in the earlier papers of this series, are much more concerned with the higher work of teaching—

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secondary, technical, university. And while we are no doubt behind Germany in our primary schools, we at any rate have undertaken that work as a serious national responsibility. But in secondary education Germany and England are at opposite poles. Germany was the pioneer, and, if we include within her sphere the neighbouring Teutonic countries, from Austria, round through Switzerland and Holland, to Sweden, we have a group of countries which have developed an organized system of culture affecting every member of the community and every department of national life.

Now, we have not got anything like it in England and have never yet wanted to have it. We cannot imitate, even if we wished to do so, but it is important, if we are to learn anything from Continental experience, to discover why the Germans (using the term to include all the Teutonic peoples more or less) have undertaken this huge task with such eminent success.

The bottom fact in the whole situation is surely this: that the mass of the nation, in all these countries, are more like the Scots and the New Englander than the Englishman—they find pleasure in intellectual pursuits, in books, in ideas. These countries were poor and thrifty—once more like the Scots. While England was ever expanding in trade and travel, these countries were confined territorially and confined by pinch of poverty:—all the more greedily therefore did they take to culture. The contrast between England and the other Teutonic people is, in

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fact, far older than many people imagine. In spite of a few brilliant scholars and thinkers England has always been, since Tudor days, the land of wealth and pleasure, in contrast to the "plain living and high thinking" of her Continental cousins. The contrast has only now been forced on our notice, because we are realizing the fruits of this difference in national temperament. The Germans are reaping the reward of past generations, and we are also reaping as we have sown. The English boy does not love books or lessons, nor do his parents set him the example. When he leaves school he does not care to think, nor to study the technique of his calling, nor does his employer wish him to do so. In Germany the exact opposite is the case. As Mr. Michael Sadler has recently said: "Every department of activity becomes in a sense a school too. The employers are able to teach their juniors what they themselves do so well."

The contrast goes even deeper than this. The English boy and young man, and the girl too for that matter, is the outcome of a nation in easy circumstances—he doesn't worry! His parents do not mind much if he has an easy time in his boyhood—"let him run wild while he is young" is a common sentiment among us. The result in some cases is not wholly evil, for when once the young Englishman takes to his life's business *con amore*, he displays a freshness and vigour which is seldom witnessed in the plodding young German. But in far too many cases idleness in youth develops into indifference

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in manhood ; it ought to be possible during the years of education to impart something of the German style of intellectual industry without losing the freshness and buoyancy peculiar to young English lads.

But German secondary education has been sustained by another most powerful influence—an efficient central organization. The *Kultus Ministerium* (Department of Culture and Education) in Prussia has been in active operation for a century : prized alike by monarch and people as one of its most valuable departments of State, served from one generation to another by men of the highest endowments both in scholarship and public affairs.

The control of higher education is not child's play—it is of a highly expert character—and the amateur, dilettante handling of it which we have hitherto tolerated at Whitehall excites the ridicule of every statesman in a German State.

Here again the contrast applies to other branches of public business equally with education. Our Civil Service is not corrupt as in some countries, but it is idle, and satisfied with its own ignorance and inefficiency. In Germany the traditions of the great departments of State date from a time when national existence depended on patriotic devotion, when efficiency was the only alternative to extinction. It seems humanly impossible to achieve any such reform in the great departments of State in this country, and yet, without it, it is very unlikely that a powerful central authority will do much to improve our secondary schools and places of higher education. It is

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notorious that many officials at Whitehall and South Kensington know little at first hand of the teaching given in schools ; they might learn if they would, but they are not required to do so, and some of them are said to be as indifferent about such matters as the average Army officer is about the study of foreign languages or about the art of war.

The result may be witnessed in any German town ; and the ordinary German parent, though he has no voice in the management of a school, knows more about the aims and curricula of the various institutions in his town than the ordinary statesman in England knows about the British Army. The Volksschule, Höherebürgerschule, Gymnasium, Handelsschule, Realschule, are all at work in the public eye, leading to definite results, one depending on the other, without rivalry either among teachers or managers, every pupil following a scheme of education which has been mapped out in every detail by the combined effort of his teachers and of Government officials.

The public mind in England is already beginning to realize what an expert and diligent central authority could achieve if it would but take the trouble. The first problem for a German Minister of Education is to settle on types of schools, with continuous courses of study, liberal, technical, or commercial, adapted to the various needs of the community. Thousands of clever men have been at work on this problem, watching, reporting, developing, for a century. During the same period the utmost that

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England has done has been to pay so many shillings per head per pupil in "Science and Art."

Having settled the courses of study, the next task was to ensure that as many pupils as possible went right through the course, for it needs no great wisdom to see that a disjointed education, picked up in half a dozen places, with no common plan or aim, is a waste of the nation's money and of the pupil's energy. Hence the immense importance attached to the leaving certificates, issued from every type of educational institution as a witness that the pupil and the teacher alike have performed their task efficiently.

Most Englishmen regard these certificates as a matter of the smallest importance—in fact, they may scarcely be said to exist among us. An Oxford or Cambridge Local or a "Matric." certificate merely declares that the pupil at a given moment was able to show a certain amount of knowledge; the German certificate is evidence that the pupil for a given number of years has been under educational influence, has step by step acquired this and that branch of knowledge from competent teachers, and that he is now prepared to enter on some further course of study or to undertake the duties of some calling or profession. Unless we have a revolution at South Kensington it will take half a century before this branch of public service is intelligently controlled in England.

Naturally the equipment of efficient teachers has also taken a prominent place in the thoughts of German statesmen; they will permit no school, whether

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public or private, to undertake the charge of pupils without evidence that the staff has competent qualification for the discharge of its functions.

These are matters which the central authority is bound to supervise in every country where the responsibility for secondary education is seriously undertaken. In addition, it is of course true that the German states have found the necessary money to support the schools, but the question of raising or spending money has not been with them the one absorbing topic, as it is in English education. The money is found, and willingly, because the nation believes in the value of the work and trusts the men who spend it.

The independent, democratic spirit of the Englishman always mistrusts the cry for a strong central authority—he suspects that it may lead to tyranny, and he especially dreads its influence in education, because he knows how fatally easy it is to strangle the life of school with red tape. If education is to make any real progress, a great deal of initiative must be permitted to the individual teacher and to the locality, in spite of officials at the central office.

Now it must be admitted that the experience of Germany warrants to some extent this dread. It is enormously difficult for any vital reform to be accepted in official quarters, and the German schools are so imbued with traditions of the official kind as to stifle aspirations to independence almost before they have had time to breathe. It is only in recent years that a more liberal tone has come over some of the

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authorities, who now permit experiments here and there, such as those conducted in Frankfort, about which so much has been written of late.

But we cannot dispense with the central authority ; we have had enough of "chaos" in England, and we must endeavour to realize an administration which will ensure the benefits of common control without destroying the spirit of reform.

But there is another and more subtle feature in the German attitude towards the school that has to be reckoned with. No one who has become intimate with German school life, and has watched English and German children side by side, can fail to be struck by the contrast in their whole demeanour and style. The German pupil is passive, quietly ready to absorb all that is presented to him ; the typical English pupil is active, and needs the stimulus either of strong control or of interest in order to win his attention. This passive attitude is partly due to the august respect for education, supported alike by Government and by public opinion, but partly to the inherited instinct of races, who are still breathing for the first time the air of political liberty. The English child, and still more the American and the colonial child, has become during the last generation a different being from the child of the 50's. Parental authority is not what it was ; nor do we desire that it should be. We are likely in the present age to err in the opposite extreme and allow children to go their own way to an extent which would have appalled our grandfathers. This is a social condition which

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no organization can directly grapple with, but which must be allowed for in any contrast between the educational products of the two countries.

After such observations an inquirer may be disposed to regard the situation in England as melancholy enough. "My people love to have it so" seems to be the sole conclusion.

Precisely, and among a nation which has determined, for good or evil, to entrust its destinies in "the people's" hands, the only resource seems to be to convert the nation :—to lead a sufficiently large number of Englishmen really to believe that education is a blessing. In spite of all the talk in Parliament and in the Press, "the Man in the Street" does not believe in it—for his own children or for his employees. And little reason is there for him to do so. Here is the capital calamity! The majority of Englishmen, whether of high or of lowly station, look with little pride or enthusiasm on their own school days. Now and then a man will be found who remembers with respect or affection some teacher who influenced his mind or heart, but as a rule such influence was rather personal than professional; it was of the man rather than the teacher that the recollection abides. There have been thousands of devoted men and women, from Arnold of Rugby downwards, serving in our English schools, but very few have been teachers, and still fewer have been so fortunate as to establish a permanent and continuous school organization, such as every German school exhibits, sustaining a growing influence, intellectual as well as

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moral, from year to year. Our English people so far do not desire this, do not believe it possible—but they can change their minds! And it is the prime task of educational reformers at this moment to bring about this change of mind, partly by means of writing, but quite as much by producing practical evidence of the value of the secondary school, the technical school, the university, as elements in national prosperity. The evidence from Germany is overwhelming, but it is remote and does not come home to the experience of the ordinary Englishman. His conversion will only be accomplished as he finds that his own children and his neighbours' children are the better for the schooling they receive, when he finds that the fruits of school lessons are gathered not only in the office or the workshop but in general intellectual vigour, in serious purpose, in refinement and character.

If such a conversion be possible, we may be very sure that it will produce an enthusiasm, a support for education far surpassing that which has characterized the German states of the nineteenth century. For that movement in Germany took its rise in times of disaster and peril, when Napoleon placed his heel on Central Europe. It has marched step by step with the drill sergeant, and has been achieved under pressure. "The real victor in our wars," said Moltke once in the Reichstag, "is the schoolmaster." And the German teacher was created in order to preserve the existence of Germany against its foes on either flank. But Great Britain encounters no such pressure

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and fears no such disaster. If our people, therefore, come of their own free will to believe in education for their children, if this belief creates the spirit of sacrifice and devotion to a great cause, we may be sure that the system, the organization, the method, the spirit in which the work is done will differ wholly from that of Germany, while achieving even a more striking result.

We cannot, however, afford to fold our hands and wait for such great popular advance in sentiment. It is, indeed, not likely that any sudden and dramatic change will come over the nation, nor, indeed, ought we to desire it. The nation at large is year by year turning its attention to education, and we are gradually coming into a new atmosphere without fully realizing the change. Who dare have prophesied ten years ago that the First Minister of the Crown would himself master a complicated Education Bill, or that Mr. Chamberlain would be Chancellor of a university created solely by the enthusiasm of one civic community. And the change in the region of high politics is paralleled in the life of every county and town. There is plenty of ignorance, plenty of error and mistaken zeal, but there are the beginnings of enthusiasm, of belief. At this moment the zeal of sectarianism seems to have swamped the quieter devotion to education, but under the surface there is a deeper current which sets all the while in favour of genuine zeal for the welfare of the schools.

As far as secondary education is concerned, the nation's need at this moment is a public-spirited

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Board of Education. The Act of 1899, passed with so little controversy, may prove, in time to come, to have done for English children more than the Act of 1902. If Germany teaches us one thing most unmistakably it is that the expert officers of Government hold the destinies of secondary education in their hands, and that we have a right to demand from them a national service of the highest order, backed up by generous support from the Treasury; there is abundance of work to be done—teachers are to be trained, schools to be inspected, funds to be audited, authorities to be advised, Ministers, alas! to be taught their business—the work must be done promptly and thoroughly, and the staff of public servants, both in London and in the provinces, must be made to feel that great things are expected of them, and that these great things are concerned with the highest intellectual and moral interests of our country. Quite recently new men have been put at the helm of affairs by Mr. Balfour, and it is not too much to say that the Marquis of Londonderry and Sir William Anson may do distinguished service to England which will be remembered for generations to come—if they will respond to the situation. We do not ask them to imitate the methods of Germany or to try and reproduce the special products of German schools and universities, but we put before them the example of the great German statesmen who, a century ago, laid the foundations of an organization which has won the admiration of the whole world. Intelligence, patriotism, industry at headquarters during the next

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few years will establish a creditable system of secondary education ; but if at this crisis the nation is served by men of another type the loss will be infinite. Local authorities, organized by the best of Education Bills, cannot take the lead in devising measures for higher education—they must take their cue from the expert guidance of the central authority ; if sympathy, wisdom, leadership are lacking there, no amount of popular enthusiasm can supply their place.

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VII

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By J. J. FINDLAY, M.A

HEAD MASTER OF THE CARDIFF INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL FOR BOYS

I

THE meaning of the phrase "secondary school" is not yet fully understood by the general public, though it has been coming into use more and more during the last ten years. The Board of Education has finally adopted the term, but unfortunately it has suited the board's officers to label some of their evening classes also as "secondary schools," thereby adding to the confusion.

The secondary school, as it is coming to be known in England, includes every type of institution—grammar, intermediate, technical, or what not—that gives a continuous education day by day to boys or girls up to at least sixteen years of age, and up to nineteen years if they remain at school so long. This is a simple and clear account of the matter, and is based on common sense. The primary school takes charge of infants and of the children of the great mass of the nation up to the time when they have to leave school at thirteen, fourteen, or fifteen to earn their bread. The secondary school comes second; that is to say, it takes

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charge of the few who remain at school longer for a more extended education, with a view to fulfilling duties in life which require a longer period of schooling by way of preparation. In the third and final act the universities play their part, and if we wished to be logical we might call them tertiary schools. They receive just a few who are sifted out of the secondary schools to undergo a third course of training, since there are some very responsible callings which require a man to have a university equipment if he is to do justice to his career.

Now, the system and character of these three great types of educational institution is determined by the nature, moral, intellectual, physical, of the pupils who attend them. The child in the primary school, the adolescent in the secondary school, the student in the university, are three utterly different kinds of human being, and they each need a method of instruction, a discipline, a corporate life, a type of teacher corresponding to their peculiar needs. The student is a man—young indeed and often foolish enough—but he must be trusted with freedom and independence. If he wilfully neglects his opportunities he is old enough to know better and expects to reap the fruit of his folly. The pupil of the secondary school, on the road from childhood to manhood, is subject to rapid and vital changes both in body and mind, unfit to control himself, but yet eager to try his powers. The child in the primary or preparatory school presents a third type, and needs a wholly different mode of teaching and of government. He is

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by comparison with students and adolescents, submissive and teachable, eager to be interested, but ready to accept control.

These distinctions are not drawn from the speculations of psychology, but they are common sense observations appreciated by every father and mother who has brought up a family. They have been ignored in the establishment of schools simply because teachers and managers have thought about anything rather than the nature and needs of pupils. At one time the teacher or school governor is a clergyman, and plans his school so as to teach the traditional subjects of language and mathematics ; at another time he is a manufacturer, and thinks that chemistry ought to be the hall-mark of the school, because chemicals are playing so important a part in modern industry. Hence some secondary schools get to be labelled grammar schools and others technical schools, and the people at large are misled and confused. These confusions can be best laid by putting down in order the chief features of a good secondary school such as should be placed within the reach of every family in England.

The characteristic period of life for which the secondary school provides is the early years of adolescence—from fourteen to sixteen, seventeen, or eighteen—and the success of such a school depends on its ability to develop all that is best out of boys and girls of this age. But, since success in education depends on the continuity of the process during several years, a pupil ought to join the school in its

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junior classes before his twelfth birthday. And it often becomes advisable to establish preparatory departments for younger children in neighbourhoods where the primary or preparatory schools are inadequate. But this preparatory or junior work is not the most important ; the distinctive function of the secondary school is to train young people during the years of adolescence. Unfortunately the great majority of secondary schools in Great Britain cannot afford to make this their main business, for they live by competition—they have to take every pupil that offers, whether qualified or not. Thousands of boys and girls enter these schools for a year or two between the ages of twelve and fifteen without any pretence of securing a complete course of education. It must be borne in mind that the secondary school, like the university, is a privilege, an extra and honourable reward, given to children who are worthy of receiving further education. Whereas the primary school is required to welcome every child, whether backward or clever, brutal or gentle, and is expected to give all the greater care to those who have been neglected by the home, the secondary school has to perform a duty of exactly the opposite nature—it has to select, and, if necessary, to reject the unfit. It is popularly supposed in many quarters that unlimited schooling is an unlimited blessing, whereas the fact is that thousands of boys and girls are at this moment wasting their time and wasting public money in schools where they are uninterested, if not positively idle or vicious.

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So long as the parent chooses to pay the full cost of schooling, the responsibility for permitting a pupil to remain at school may be left to the parent. Even if the pupil is backward, he may be welcomed and allowed to take his chance. But the bulk of the pupils in any good secondary school ought to be of a different stamp. They ought to possess character and gifts to enable them to profit by the education, so that at the completion of the course they will be ready to enter on some career in life where they can render back, by their services in the Commonwealth, a good return for the outlay. Many of these will be children of parents who cannot afford the heavy cost of good schooling—in some cases the parents can pay a portion of the cost, in other cases they cannot pay any portion, and in yet other cases the parents may need a maintenance grant in order to house the pupils during the years of school attendance. But this expenditure is a sound investment of public money, if reasonable care is taken that the pupils who receive these benefits are worthy of them, and if due watchfulness is shown to ensure that they continue to do credit by increasing in industry, intelligence, and character year by year. The connexion between the primary and the secondary school ought to be easily maintained without friction or jealousy. There are a few children from humble homes in every neighbourhood who show exceptional promise both in talent and industry. These ought to be chosen out by their teachers while still young and given the opportunity of a secondary education.

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If after a short trial they fail to make progress the financial aid should be withdrawn, and they will lead happier lives by being compelled at an early age to earn their livelihood. But if they continue to fulfil the promise of earlier years they will prove an honour both to their homes, to the schools which have fostered their talents, and to the public purse which has found the means to encourage them.

Side by side with such pupils are many others whose parents need little or no assistance from public sources to pay the fees, and who expect nothing from the governors nor from the State beyond a watchful oversight and management in order to secure the maximum of efficiency. It has been sometimes asserted that pupils from primary schools cannot be educated side by side with children from wealthier homes because of social distinctions—the manners, the habits, the tastes of rich and poor, it is said, differ so widely as to make it difficult, if not unwise, to associate children of different “classes” within the same walls. Hence, on the one side, we find parents from wealthy neighbourhoods despising the local grammar school or high school because of the “mixture of classes”; on the other hand, we find agitators among the labouring classes claiming certain schools as especially designed for their benefit. But public institutions cannot recognize distinctions of caste, and the public secondary school has nothing to fear from the intermingling of children out of various social groups in the neighbourhood. This is readily perceived as we proceed.

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Such a school does not consider the whims of the parent, but the needs of the pupils. They are, one and all, selected and trained with a view to entering on careers in life for which a sound secondary education is necessary. Now, if a pupil attends the school from a slum neighbourhood he will not sink back to a slum livelihood; he has been selected *because he is fit for something better than unskilled labour*; it is believed that he will do honour to the community in some walk in life more difficult and more cultured, and he associates while at school with fellow-pupils who are designed for similar careers. The social status of the school, so far as it needs to be considered at all, is determined by the future calling of its pupils, not by their past upbringing.

It must not be assumed, however, that every pupil is expressly allotted to some definite calling as soon as he enters the secondary school. On the contrary, it is the duty of the school, during the years that a pupil attends, to observe his special gifts, and as time goes on to advise the parent in the choice of a suitable career.

The secondary school, in fact, has a double task imposed on it, equally with the university and the primary school. Its first duty is to impart a sound general education, developing the whole nature, guiding the disposition and taste, stimulating lofty desires and emotions, strengthening the homely virtues of character. Its second duty, which only comes into prominence during the later years of the

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course of study, is to provide separate preparation, by means of carefully-selected and appropriate pursuits, for the special career in life to which the pupil looks forward.

Outsiders, who do not know what the schools are doing, are often disposed to doubt the possibility of this combination of aims. They are inclined to say, "Let the school be satisfied with giving a general liberal education and leave the boy or girl to think about business or a profession when they have finished with school." But the plain fact is that this cannot be done nowadays. Many of the most important callings — law, medicine, accountancy, engineering, the Church, the Navy—are hedged round with preliminary examinations and requirements; unless the pupil satisfies these while at school he cannot make a fair start in his career. It is not the design of the school actually to embark on instruction relating to the professions or business, but we are compelled to adapt the curriculum during the later years so as to meet the views of those who will take our pupils in hand when schooldays are over. Nor is the task so complicated as might be at first supposed. There are dozens of careers in life to which a pupil may be allotted, but they all fall into a few well-marked groups. The pupil intended for the Church, for law, or for a literary career must specialize in languages and literature; he who chooses engineering or manufacture will spend the bulk of his time on mathematics and science; while the boy who presently is to enter an office or house of business will

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“specialize” in modern languages, geography and commercial studies.

The distribution enables us to sketch a programme of studies. The earlier forms are concerned with a curriculum which is entirely general or “liberal.” The leading elements in the culture of an educated man are all equally represented: Languages and literature, science and mathematics, art, music, physical exercises all play their part. Every pupil, without regard to the possibilities of his future calling, takes the same share in this portion of the course. But when this is completed he will proceed to higher forms of the school, in which sub-divisions are made, offering a choice of studies for a portion of the programme; and this choice becomes more elaborate the higher the pupil advances in the school, until, in his last year, his attention for many hours at a time will be directed solely to one or two branches which are in direct line with the career which by this time has been determined for him.

At the same time this specialization is not carried to an extreme. General liberal studies, especially in literature and the arts, still play their part; he is still a member of the school society, taking an active share, such as seniority warrants, in its corporate life; still subject to all the formative influences, indirect but none the less powerful, which every good school exerts on the disposition and character. All the great secondary schools of England have planned their schemes of studies on some such lines as this. At the top of the school there are

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departments or divisions expressly designed and equipped to give a preliminary training for business or the professions. The Army classes at the public schools are sufficiently well known; the engineering and commercial departments at University College School are also familiar to parents in London, as are also the special programmes at St. Paul's School for boys intended to win scholarships at Oxford and Cambridge. Other parts of the country illustrate other adaptations of the same idea, for it is in these higher forms of the school that opportunity is afforded for paying regard to local needs.

There has sprung up here and there, however, a different system, which has more in common with German custom. Managers and parents are so impressed with the importance of preparing boys for a career in life that they seek for a school designed expressly to train boys for the purpose. Thus the Municipal Technical Schools in Birmingham and Manchester and some of the Polytechnic Day Schools in London are really "fitting" schools for engineering or other careers. This tendency can only be deplored. The most important issues of school life are surely concerned, not with the particular bit of science or carpentry or Latin that a pupil acquires, but with the all-round training that he secures in culture and discipline. Both are important, but the last is the supreme matter. Now if a school, intended to receive boys and girls up to sixteen and seventeen years of age, starts out *from the first* with the idea of specializing for some exclusive career in life, the

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governors and teachers will inevitably make the life of the place, as well as the curriculum, narrow and one-sided. This effect has been produced with most disastrous results by the discredited policy of South Kensington, which gives valuable grants solely to encourage a few special branches of study in secondary schools.

What is here put forward has become fairly familiar during the past ten years among those who are at work on the subject, both schoolmasters and governors, but it is not yet understood by the public. And it is of the first importance that full, detailed programmes of study should be sketched out by the schools and laid before parents and others who are concerned. In this matter Bradford Grammar School has set an example which should be copied. Parents and the public are ready to welcome information ; at present they have little belief in the secondary school, for they have no means of estimating the benefits which a well-planned curriculum can confer.

This information to the public should carry with it a better organization of certificates and of other means for judging whether the school has adequately performed its task. It is quite true that examinations are sometimes an evil, and certainly they may be so conducted as to destroy the efficiency of teaching, but there is no need to go to excess. Examinations need to be reformed, but they must not be abandoned. It is fashionable at this moment to plead for inspection as a substitute for the individual examination of

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each pupil, but the rash experiment undertaken by Whitehall in the elementary school is not encouraging. No doubt the teacher has enjoyed greater freedom, and the children have reaped great benefit in consequence, but the gain has been accompanied by serious loss. It is asserted all over the country that children leave the elementary schools without as accurate an acquaintance with the three R's as was the case ten years ago, when "payment by results" was still in vogue. If this be so, it points to the necessity of some kind of individual examination of each pupil before he leaves school in addition to the general oversight exercised by an inspector.

All this is much more important in the secondary school because attendance is a matter of privilege, and any lack of efficiency is a grave wrong to the public as well as to the pupil. Hence there is no more important branch of the work that needs reform than that concerned with examination and inspection. The confusion existing between all kinds of certificates, some issued by the universities, others by the College of Preceptors, others by the Medical Council, the architects, the legal bodies, ought to be put an end to by the vigorous action of the Board of Education, and a system devised which would be easily understood by the general public, and would enable the outsider to estimate the meaning of what a pupil has achieved during the years of his school life. I have pointed out in the previous chapter how successfully this branch of organization has been worked in Germany, and there is no reason why we should not

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learn a lesson from our neighbours. It is worth while noticing how in Wales the County Schools have benefited from the attention paid by the Welsh Central Board to this branch of its duty. Most secondary schools in England are compelled by public opinion to turn their attention to matters of much less importance. A few clever boys have to be coached in order to win distinctions—prizes of books or medals have to be arranged: these and other meretricious devices inherited from primitive times, have to be worked for all they are worth in order to attract public attention and to maintain credit. If wealthy governors would give playfields or libraries or buildings, instead of prizes and medals, they would be helping instead of hindering the efficiency of their schools.

In the great cities, London, Edinburgh, Manchester, secondary day schools will be found containing a thousand or more pupils, while in country districts there are still many schools with less than forty. It is surely a matter of some importance to determine what are the fair limits below and above which the secondary school should not go. A thousand boys form a mob; the head master cannot know them all, nor can any other officer of the place; corporate life is impossible, except among the oldest pupils. And a huge gathering of this kind is certain to be ill-taught unless, as is very seldom the case, the parents pay a fee which completely covers the cost of the schooling. For every school is limited in income, and an excessive attendance commonly means that the class-rooms

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are overcrowded and ill-disciplined, the staff overworked, and the individual pupil neglected. The pride of governing bodies is often responsible for these errors—they are pleased to boast of a huge attendance, and parents are deceived because the school is sought after. At the other extreme the little school is equally unsatisfactory, though most gratifying results are frequently produced. Local jealousies in Wales have created too many tiny County Schools under the Welsh Intermediate Education Act, but it is marvellous to witness how successfully the teachers contrive to meet the situation. Now, the need for a large school arises out of the demands for specialization which we have discussed above. If there are only thirty pupils in the lower forms of a school, it is impossible to provide varieties of instruction for the half-dozen pupils who survive to the upper forms. Speaking roughly, it may be taken that a school of 400 is quite large enough, and that if the numbers fall below 150, the expense per pupil will be too great to warrant complete variety of equipment and staff. Hence, in scantily populated districts central schools should be established and the pupils should be brought to school as weekly boarders or otherwise if means of daily transport are unavailable.

The above are some of the features which should characterize every good secondary school in Great Britain, but they do not exhaust the list. Study and lessons cover only one side of school life: there are other forces at work of even greater moment. We reserve these for separate consideration in the following chapter.

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II

WE have maintained in the previous chapter that every boy or girl who is kept at study up to sixteen or eighteen years of age should attend a regular school, which provides not merely instruction in a few branches of learning, but a complete course of study, covering a series of years, planned from beginning to end to achieve definite purposes, both for general culture and for technical or professional ends.

Now, if a completely organized secondary school is required for the purpose of study, it is still more important for the training of character, for good behaviour and habits, right feeling and disposition. It is astonishing how reckless the majority of English parents are as to this side of the work of education. Fathers and mothers are not indifferent as to the moral welfare of their offspring—they watch their children, they often foster with great care the religious training, and they seek to create a happy and orderly environment in the home. But they do not seem to realize that school is a society, an active social organism which plays day by day on the disposition of every pupil who enters the building. Even with young children in primary and preparatory schools this is important, and at the other end of the scale,

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in the college and university, the influence of corporate life is of weight ; but in the secondary school the issue is vital to the whole situation. For the adolescent is beginning to feel independent of home surroundings, he is eager for the companionship of his kind, and he is open to all the sensuous attractions of the streets. The secondary day school is usually planted in the midst of a large town, open to the excitements and appeals which city life makes to growing youth, and yet the corporate life is allowed in many cases to take its own course, exactly as in earlier centuries, when a dozen streets and lanes contained the whole population. Within recent years the secondary schools of one great city in England were widely known for the low and vicious tone which was displayed by the older boys who attended them, but the evil was supposed to be unavoidable, and nothing in the way of reform was attempted. A boy's thoughts cannot be kept at study all day long, even in Germany, and unless a large society of boys are in some way guided and controlled in matters of conduct the peril is obvious. On the other hand, with the help of such guidance the corporate tone of school may be effectively raised, so that the school may become, quite apart from its course of study, a nursery of civic virtues.

Parents who recognize the gravity of these conditions often look to the boarding school for the remedy, and it is certainly true that a good boarding school, with discipline and traditions of the right kind, affords a security for character better than that

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offered by a day school where corporate life is deliberately neglected. The services rendered to English education by the great public schools will be described in a subsequent chapter. But a boarding school is an expensive luxury, and it is neither possible nor desirable to plan such an education as the normal system for the great bulk of boys and girls who are reared in English cities, and who need a complete secondary education. It is not desirable, because, among other reasons, it ought not to be necessary to alienate pupils from the quiet refinement of home life ; if a home is good, boys and girls cannot have too much of its influence.

In most day schools at the present time the teachers are fully alive to their responsibilities, and their personal individual influence is on the right side. It has always been a characteristic of the English teacher that he has felt and exerted his power as a sympathetic human being in intercourse with young people. But he is liable nowadays to lose somewhat of this quality. He is overstrained by the demands of examinations, of authorities, of public control—all these, while in themselves necessary, tend to make him more of an official, a part of a huge mechanism—the individual boy tends to be left to himself.

Hence the need for some system, or method, which shall counteract the tendency and give fair play to the humanizing element in school society. In most schools boys of athletic tastes are encouraged in school games, and boys of literary and scientific tastes are associated with their masters in field clubs

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or debating societies, but something more comprehensive and permanent seems to be necessary if the secondary day school is to achieve its function as a wholesome moral power in city life. It is impossible within the limits of a short article to indicate what is being done in some schools to achieve this end ; but it is sufficient to have called attention to the problem as one which concerns not only the individual teacher but the governors and parents who hold the destinies of these schools in their hands.

The moral training here contemplated is not solely concerned with personal influence from teachers ; it affects also the spirit of control to which pupils are to submit. The adolescent needs to be governed in a spirit very different from that which is required by the child—he is half-fledged, not yet free from childish instincts, but by no means fit for the garb of manhood—strict obedience needs to be combined with sympathetic comradeship by those who handle him. Hence, it is important to observe how large an authority is commonly entrusted to the staff, and especially to the headmaster of an endowed school. His powers in comparison with those entrusted to an elementary teacher, or in comparison with those permitted to the heads of affairs in other fields of labour are extraordinarily wide. Governors of such schools often resent the system, and fear the dangers to which “one-man power” is liable. There is no doubt that the possibilities of abuse are great : when a man is privileged to “appoint and dismiss” all his subordinates at pleasure, to expel a pupil at his sole dis-

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cretion, the public may well fear that mischief will follow, and it is likely enough that in days to come these powers will in some ways be limited. But the apology for the system must be sought in the nature of the pupils who attend the secondary school. They are just at the age when they require and respond to strong, unquestioned control. They are, by the will of their parents and the support of public resources, permitted to enjoy the leisure of school life at an age when others less fortunate are already subject to the discipline of the workshop and the office. If they are allowed licence—if they are permitted to regard school as a luxury provided for their enjoyment—they are fatally mis-trained. Hence the traditional tone adopted by the staff of good secondary schools, carrying out the spirit of the “schemes” under which the masters act, is one of a far more authoritative kind than is required either with young children on the one hand or in the universities at the other extreme.

The prevailing tendency, as we noticed in a previous article, of the present generation is to treat boys and girls more kindly than of old, and on the whole our children are the better for it. But it would be a grave mistake if the schools, and especially the secondary schools, were to respond to the new spirit of indulgence and freedom in the home by permitting laxity to prevail in the school. On the contrary, there is all the more need for the exercise of steady pressure, not unkindly or brutal, but always uniform and insistent.

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When a secondary school proceeds to organize its social life and discipline, there are certain pursuits, congenial to young people, which claim special attention, since they afford scope not only for the development of mind and body, but for the exercise of those habits of comradeship, obedience, and leadership which the adolescent finds so congenial. As captain of a game, as a prefect or monitor, as secretary of a field club or organizer of swimming races, a schoolboy is learning habits and ways which are necessary to the full growth of character. These pursuits ought not to be regarded as an "extra," alien to the proper business of the day school: they need to be recognized with proper allotment of equipment and time, side by side with lessons. Ample playfields in the fresh air, swimming baths, libraries, should be regarded as an indispensable feature in every good secondary school. In too many cases such equipment is left to chance. The boys themselves, or some of the assistant staff, have to provide as best they can what should be forthcoming from the school authorities.

For it cannot be denied that these sports and activities mean much more to boys and girls than amusement. They represent natural spontaneous modes of activity, and a human being can only be fully developed along the lines of his native impulses. City life is tending every year to lower the stamina of the race—the feeble child, stimulated on the side of intellect and repressed on the side of physique, becomes still more feeble in the next generation. The secondary day schools, as we have seen, are

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charged with the express duty of selecting and fostering the ablest, cleverest pupils from the whole city and neighbourhood; and the obvious danger, here as in Germany, is to load the schools with a large percentage of bright and clever, but anaemic and neurotic, specimens, who will do well enough at school, but will be exhausted before they begin to fight the battle of life. The only salvation lies in persistently preaching the doctrine of physical health; room must be found for every kind of physical activity.

And this activity need not be centred so absolutely on cricket and football. The school cadet corps ought to take its regular place and be welcomed as a familiar sight in every town. The young adolescent welcomes the discipline of drill if it be not unduly prolonged, and if, while learning to use the rifle, he is taken to camp for a fortnight of his summer holidays, he will at the end of his school course be a useful addition to the Volunteer forces of the country. Why should not every leaving certificate from a secondary school take note of these things? It is surely as valuable, from every point of view, to find "drill and rifle" endorsed on a certificate as to make mention of algebra or physiography.

More than this could be accomplished during the days of school if men of wealth and of energy saw the value of it to the nation. Boys can learn to do any number of things if they are given the opportunity; our traditional notions of school have bound us down far too much to the idea that lessons learnt at desks

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with books are the sole business of the place. Such traditions tend to cramp the normal activities of youth; nor are the books themselves better mastered on that account. Some boys could learn to ride and to manage a horse, others to cultivate a garden, others to use the tools of a workshop. All these practical arts are congenial to boyhood; they sit close to important duties of adult life. None of them, not even manual training, is essential to a liberal education, but some such practical activity is essential to all boys and girls, unless the home itself happens to have fostered these habits.

All that has been so far discussed has application to the needs both of boys and girls, for in broad outline the needs of both sexes, as regards general culture, are alike. But when we are planning the curriculum for the higher forms of a girls' school there are two points of difference; first of all, the demands of preparation for various careers in life are not so numerous—many girls take to teaching and a few to medicine or allied pursuits, but for the great majority a curriculum is needed which shall only specialize, if at all, in the direction of the domestic arts. All women should be interested in home life, whether they become mothers or no. The training in hygiene, cookery, and the like, advocated in earlier chapters of this series for girls in primary schools, ought in the secondary school to be continued, and treated in a fashion at once more intellectual and more practical. The adolescent, intellectually, differs from the child in her grasp, her powers of reason and judgment, and

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every pursuit offered to her at school ought to be presented with a due regard to the advancing intelligence. Instruction in domestic economy and cookery, even when made thoroughly practical, is too often lacking in the broad element of culture and science, sharply in contrast to the treatment of literature and languages in the same schools.

But there is a deeper problem affecting the education of girls. The girl, no less than the boy, needs attention to character and disposition, and she must develop her disposition with all the graces and refinements which mark her sex. Corporate life, here as among boys, plays its part, and the governors and teachers of these schools cannot command the confidence of wise mothers if they leave such matters to chance. It is not a question of etiquette or polish, or even of manners ; these externals are merely the signs of deeper influences which affect the whole character. In many neighbourhoods proposals are being adopted to educate boys and girls together, after the example of many County Schools in Wales, and the system has much in its favour in neighbourhoods where pupils are few, for, as we have seen in the previous chapter, the small school finds it difficult to achieve efficiency. The present writer believes that there is no more danger likely to arise from associating boys and girls in a *good* school than in associating brothers and sisters and cousins in a large family circle, but the dangers to character are grave indeed if the school is not "good," i.e., if the corporate life is neglected. The out-of-school occupations of such a community need

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to be guided with the same care that a mother gives to her family : the women teachers must be entrusted with tutorial charge of the girls, to foster their games and their social pleasures ; the men teachers must take the same interest in the manlier activities of the boys. Of late years some cheap schools have grown up in London and the large towns, in deference to the supposed needs for a free secondary education in which young, adolescent girls and boys are herded together with very little regard to the training of character, beyond the elementary attention given to sanitary requirements in the separation of the sexes. It is appalling to think how heedless public men are sometimes found in the arrangements they make for other people's children.

We have now sketched, in briefest outline, some of the main features which belong to an ideal system of secondary day schools. We can conceive of such schools—a few such, indeed, exhibiting some of the best features, have been at work in our great English towns for many years—but we can picture these, with enlarged activities and with many imitators in every part of England, serving the noblest purposes of civic life. While the great public boarding schools will continue for long to be, as they have been, the nurseries for the aristocracy and for the leaders in the highest departments of Imperial service, these day secondary schools should find their peculiar pride in training up the leaders in civic activity, in commerce, in agriculture, in municipal and county business all over Great Britain. Such schools would soon be re-

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garded with peculiar pride by citizens of all ranks, for all alike would share in their advancement. They would be maintained at great cost, but with willing sacrifice both by public money from rates and taxes, and by the generous endowments of wealthy citizens.

But to achieve such a result the right machinery must be devised, and reform is urgently needed in two directions ; firstly, in the constitution of local authorities and governing bodies ; secondly, in the equipment of well-qualified teachers. Wise control from outside, efficient service within : both are indispensable and neither at present are forthcoming.

The present crisis is scarcely the occasion for a discussion of local authorities, for the public mind is too much agitated by the political situation. But one hint may be ventured on without indiscretion. It is one aim of these articles to stimulate the personal interest of parents, of the many men and women who take no part in public life, but care for their children and desire to help on the cause of sound education. Now the time is surely ripe for pleading the claim of parents, as parents, to a voice and a place on the governing bodies of all schools. It would be an easy matter to arrange that every parent or guardian who has placed a pupil in the school should have a vote for one or more of the managers or governors, and the exercise of this right would stimulate not only their interest in education, but their acquaintance with the staff and with the methods of their school. There are many indications that the parent, side by side with the State and the Churches, is going to be recognized

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as a factor in school control, and the sooner such hopes are realized the better for English education.

The other problem—the provision of teachers for secondary schools—is the most difficult of all. If what here has been written is taken as a fair account of the nation's need in secondary education it will be agreed that the accomplishment of this ideal demands a body of men and women equipped both in learning and in the teacher's arts, after the same complete fashion that we witness in the medical profession. There are many such men and women hard at work in every part of England, but they have little inducement to make their calling a lifelong occupation—they are often paid less than an artisan, they are little esteemed in public opinion ; in many cases they are steadily overworked, and are only enabled to continue by the help of a long vacation in the summer.

If, in addition to the tasks now imposed on them, they are expected also to take an active share in the social and corporate life of their school, the burden would become intolerable. It is commonly thought that a teacher's life is very easy, and complaints such as are here made are received with scepticism. But the public do not know how entirely the conditions have altered during the last thirty years. Good teaching to-day involves hard, nervous, physical strain, and bad teaching is no longer tolerated. The teacher who hopes to satisfy either his own conscience or the demands of his superiors has to spend much of his leisure time, both in the evenings and in vacations, in preparing for his lessons, and he often becomes as

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greatly absorbed in this pursuit as the most eager business man—without the prospect of pecuniary advantage which stimulates the latter.

If, then, the secondary school is to do national service the nation must pay for it. It must staff the schools better and pay ungrudgingly for efficient service. It must spend, without stint from the Treasury, on universities and colleges where teachers are trained, and on all the necessary machinery by which such costly institutions are organized, supervised, and sustained. If the nation believes that the task is worth accomplishing, we may count on it to foot the bill.

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VIII

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

By JOHN CHARLES TARVER

I. Preparatory Institutions

NO satisfactory definition of an English public school has as yet been formulated; the term itself belongs to a phase in our educational history which is passing away, and the attempt to provide a definition would involve so many explanations and the enumeration of so many exceptions that it would tend to confusion rather than to clearness. In the circumstances the simplest way of stating the position of the English public school system is to trace the educational history of the ordinary public school boy, supplying comments and explanations where necessary.

The English public school boy is the son of parents belonging to the wealthy and professional classes; his family is not by any means always rich; if his father is a professional man, or employed in one of the higher public Services, his education is a severe strain on the family resources.

As a rule families whose sons have for one or two

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generations been educated in the public schools, are very reluctant to abandon the habit that they have acquired, and will submit to considerable inconvenience rather than deprive a boy of the advantages of this form of education. A small number of exceptionally clever boys are enabled by means of scholarships to earn part of the cost of their education; the average public school boy is, however, usually the son of well-to-do parents, and the large majority of the present generation of public school boys are the sons of business men connected with London and our other large towns, and most frequently residing in or near them.

Up to the age of ten the future public school boy is ordinarily taught at home. Should there be a good day school for young children readily accessible he will attend it. Very rarely indeed will he attend any elementary school brought into being by the Education Act of 1870.

At the age of ten he is sent to a preparatory school; this is usually a boarding school, it is situated in the country or at the seaside, or in some inland watering place. Such a school is the private property of its head master, the buildings have been erected or bought with his capital, extended and improved out of his earnings. Any man is at liberty to open a preparatory school, no licence is required from the Board of Education or any other recognized public authority; the buildings are not subject to inspection, though the proprietor in his own interests provides himself with satisfactory certificates from sanitary

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authorities ; similarly the course of study is just what he pleases to make it ; if he chooses for his own satisfaction to invite inspection or examination by some well-known examining body such as the College of Preceptors, or the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, he is at liberty to do so, and will be examined or inspected accordingly on the payment of fees, but such examination or inspection is purely voluntary.

The cost of education at a preparatory school varies according to circumstances. Where the material appliances, the buildings and playgrounds, are exceptionally extensive and costly the fees will run as high as £200 a year ; the average is probably £110 a year. The number of such schools is already large, and, for reasons which will be indicated subsequently, it tends to increase rapidly. There are probably, at least, two hundred such schools scattered about the country attended by an average of sixty boys apiece ; assuming an average fee of £110, English parents are paying annually £1,320,000 for this form of education alone. This sum is, if anything, under rather than above the mark, if we take it to represent the total cost of preparing boys for the public schools, including in it the fees of preparatory schools other than the preparatory boarding schools and the cost of home tuition.

A boy of ten on entering a preparatory school is generally required to be able to read and write fluently and to know the first four rules of arithmetic, but there is absolutely no compulsion in the matter, from

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an external educational authority ; one head master may demand this minimum, another may make no conditions ; as a rule it is demanded on the ground that, unless this minimum standard has been attained, the boy is unfit for class teaching.

The classes in a preparatory school are usually small, the average being ten ; the smallest classes are at the top and the bottom, providing for those boys who are either far ahead of their schoolfellows or far behind them ; individual attention is thus possible, and though such schools inevitably vary according to the capacity and conscience of their head master, it may be taken as a rule that a boy who cannot learn in an English preparatory school cannot learn anywhere. The most valuable and thorough teaching work that is done anywhere in the world is done in the English preparatory schools.

There is no organic connexion between the preparatory schools and the public schools. To this statement there is only one exception ; a few public schools have a preparatory department, but their boys are by no means exclusively drawn from this department. On the other hand, the course of study is chiefly prescribed by the fact that the school is preparatory to the public schools, and that a boy will not be admitted to a public school unless he can pass an entrance examination, and show that he is fit to be taught with boys of his own age. Speaking generally, the standard of this examination is uniform, though the public schools have not yet combined to formulate an entrance examination. The object of

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the entrance examination is to prevent the admission of backward and neglected boys, who would remain for long periods in the lower forms of the public schools, and do no good to themselves, and some harm to their school-fellows. There is, however, no authority which compels a public school to impose an entrance examination or which fixes the standard of such an examination; a school which is young and struggling, or which has temporarily fallen out of fashion, may practically dispense with an entrance examination, as it cannot afford to reject boys; on the other hand, if a school is enjoying a vogue, and has a sufficient number of applications entered in advance to ensure the maintenance of its numbers for several years, the entrance examination may assume a competitive aspect, and its standard be raised accordingly.

The ordinary subjects of the entrance examination are Latin, French, arithmetic, algebra, Euclid, with Greek for boys intended for the classical side. A paper of general questions in history, geography, and literature is also usually set.

The age at which a boy leaves a preparatory school varies from thirteen to fourteen and a half; boys of fifteen and upwards having some difficulty in getting admitted to the public schools, and have to show that they can take a high place, the presence of such boys in the lower forms being rightly considered undesirable.

In order to be admitted to a public school at the age of thirteen a boy is required to show that he can

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translate an easy Latin author with the aid of a dictionary, and knows his Latin accidence; the standard in French is about the same; if Greek is taken, not much is required beyond a knowledge of the accidence; in arithmetic, accuracy in the first four rules, and a power of dealing with simple arithmetical problems must be shown; algebra is not taken beyond simple equations, Euclid beyond the first book; the object of the general paper is to ensure that attention has been given to the acquisition of general information. The entrance papers are carried beyond these standards, because the same papers are usually set for candidates of all ages, and it is desirable to give a well-prepared boy of thirteen an opportunity of qualifying for forms higher than the lowest. Oral examination, as well as written work, is sometimes used, and in doubtful cases a boy will generally be given the opportunity of redressing failure in his written examination by a *vivâ voce* test.

These statements apply only to the ordinary boy, not to the small number of boys who compete for entrance scholarships; for these a different examination, demanding very much higher proficiency, is provided. Few certificated masters employed under the regulations of the Board of Education would be able to compete in languages or mathematics at the age of twenty with a boy who wins an entrance scholarship on those subjects at one of the public schools at the age of fourteen.

The head master of a preparatory school is in one respect between the devil and the deep sea. On the

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one hand the success which he values, and which he knows to be a worthy success, is the transmission of a series of boys to the public schools thoroughly well prepared to take advantage of the opportunities there offered to them ; on the other hand he knows that this particular form of success does not appeal so strongly to the imagination of the parents, on whose favour his financial prosperity depends, as deference to their crude theories of what education should be ; he has to deal with parents at the outset of their educational experience, and is expected to adapt his course to their wishes ; many of the parents who interview him previously to entering their boys have not even made up their minds that they will eventually send them to a public school, and for these the statement that such and such subjects are prescribed by the public schools has little weight. In spite of this the preparatory schoolmasters as a body deal faithfully with their boys, and bravely carry the flag of sound education.

At the preparatory school in some cases, indeed in too many cases, over-much attention is given to supervision out of school ; games are thoroughly taught ; this is good, but it is not good that even little boys should always be under the eye of a master. Here the parental and chiefly the maternal influence is predominant. Dread of bullying and of bad language, of colds and torn clothes, has turned most of our preparatory schools into expanded nurseries, in which the excellence of the teaching is impaired by the enervating influence of constant

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supervision out of school. Even the individual attention in school has its weak side; little boys cannot learn too soon to rely on themselves, they must be allowed to fail, and to acquire moral strength through failure; the parental prejudice is in favour of the assumption that any failure, whether moral or intellectual, is the fault of the teacher, and as the preparatory schoolmaster is dependent on the goodwill of the parent, he takes care to eliminate chances of obvious failure, even though the price paid is the weakening of the moral and intellectual fibre of the pupil.

It might seem that a long description of the private preparatory schools is irrelevant to an account of the public schools, but the two are really one. The preparatory schools are, it is true, locally separated from the public schools, but they are none the less part and parcel of the same system. A hundred years ago, and even less, boys of all ages from seven to twenty were taught in the same schools, as, for instance, at Eton; there was no necessary separation, even in boarding-houses, between very young and very old boys. It is only within the last fifty years that the public schools have ceased to take boys under thirteen except in separate houses and a separate department. Thus the preparatory school is really the lowest forms of the public school lopped off and sent to a distance.

A boy enters the public school system, not when he enters a public school, but when he enters the preparatory school which leads up to it; an organic connexion between the two instead of the present loose

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association would materially improve both, and is eminently desirable in the interests of the assistant masters at preparatory schools if for no other reason.

The fact that the public school system includes the private preparatory school is of the first practical importance. There is a widespread feeling that somehow or other the public school stands between the elementary schools working under the Board of Education and the universities or other places of advanced education, and that a commodious ladder or other climbing apparatus may be conveniently set up enabling boys educated in the public elementary schools to pass into the public schools. Men and women who cherish this Jacobean vision overlook the existence of the private preparatory school. The boy of thirteen, who has been taught either at home or in very small classes up to that age, has necessarily attained a standard of proficiency which is quite beyond the reach of a boy of the same age and equal natural ability who has been instructed in classes varying from forty to seventy. In things which can be taught purely mechanically, in very elementary arithmetic, in writing, in some forms of drawing, the boy taught in large classes may be the equal of the boy taught in small classes; but the range of subjects which can be so taught is strictly limited; in all that really constitutes intellectual development the boy taught in a private preparatory school has from the outset an immeasurable advantage over a board school boy. Apart from formal teaching the preparatory school boy has the further advantage of close personal inter-

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course with his teachers out of school, his tastes are trained and developed, and he has the opportunity of picking up general information; he does not invariably take advantage of this opportunity, but it is always there.

Justice is seldom done to the preparatory schools, parents meet in them with their first severe disappointment; they learn that their children are no cleverer than other people's children, and they are impatient of the slow processes by which the solid foundations are laid on which alone a satisfactory education can be built; they are in consequence often more than half willing to believe those who tell them that the supposed advantages of these schools exist merely in the imagination of their friends, and to be enraptured by an exhibition of mental drill in a board school. But the fact remains that a very insignificant number of board school boys could pass an ordinary entrance examination into one of the public schools, and that those who could, have been taught out of school hours. It is highly to the credit of the English nation that, whether from reason or prejudice, funds can be found to support the preparatory schools to the amount of more than a million a year.

THEIR NATURE AND HISTORY

II. The Public Schools—Their Nature and History

UP to the time at which a boy enters a public school the character of his education has been fairly uniform, for the requirements of the public schools in their entrance examinations do not differ very widely, though a few schools still attach so much importance to Latin verses and Greek that boys who wish to take good places on admission must have previously paid some attention to these subjects. It is, however, at the present moment impossible to define a curriculum which represents even approximately a general curriculum of the public schools, or indeed of any one school. The public schools are still in a state of transition, and the changes which began in the middle of the nineteenth century are not yet complete.

There are, however, certain characteristics common to all the public schools, and these may be profitably pointed out before entering on the question of curriculum and some other matters connected with the past history and future development of these schools.

In the first place every public school is provided with a chapel. It may be an open question whether morality is better learned in the class-room and the playground than in a place of public worship, but there can be no doubt that the existence of the chapel proclaims the fact that the school is not a mere place

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of utilitarian instruction. In this respect the English public school differs alike from the German gymnasium and the French *lycée* : it declares itself an institution for the formation of character, and not merely a knowledge shop.

In the second place the masters who teach at a public school are men who have shown, generally by their university career, sometimes in other ways, that they are first-rate proficient in at least one branch of learning, and that their intellectual power is equal to that of their contemporaries engaged in other learned professions. They are not men who have merely learned so much of a number of different subjects as is indispensably necessary to be able to teach them ; they are students, or at the worst have shown that they are capable of being students. Thus, though there may be individual exceptions, the general tone of the staff of a public school is that of a body of men who value learning for its own sake, and whose conceptions of life and duty are generous ; the artistic temperament, which will not be content with anything short of perfect work, is common among them.

In the third place our public school is provided with all the appliances held necessary in our country for healthy physical development—spacious playgrounds, gymnasiums, fives and racquet courts, swimming baths, sometimes even a river—and the out-of-school life receives at least as much attention as the life of the class-room.

The intercourse between the boys and the masters is free and natural ; the relations are fraternal in the

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case of the younger masters, parental in the case of the older. We are now so used to this feature of public school life that it hardly strikes us as remarkable, but it has very deeply impressed both French and German critics of our public school system. The professor who comes to a school for so many hours a day, gives so many lessons, and then departs satisfied that he has done his duty, is the rule in France or Germany : he is the exception in an English public school.

That boys by no means invariably speak with respect or affection of all or any of their masters is no evidence against the masters. The natural tendency of the person in a state of dependence or subjection is to decry the merits of the persons to whom he is subject ; he in this way asserts himself and proclaims his independence ; but the boy who, after leaving a public school, could honestly say that he had never found a friend, never recognized a person whom he could respect, among the masters of his school, would thereby condemn not the school but himself.

The classes in an English public school are relatively small ; where they are large, and in many cases where they are not large, the formal work of the class is supplemented by some kind of private tuition ; naturally there is less individual attention than in a preparatory school, for the boys have reached an age when it is less necessary, but there is still far more of such attention than is customary or even possible in any other kind of school. In a well-organized school

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the classes are largest at the top, the lessons gradually taking the form of lectures as the boys have become sufficiently advanced to profit by this form of teaching.

Every large public school now has its rifle corps, a voluntary institution, which should certainly be made compulsory for all boys over fifteen in the future.

The cost of keeping a boy at a public school varies from £80 to £150 per annum; in these figures are not included clothes and pocket money and the various superfluous accessories by which ill-advised parents have contributed to swell the expenses of a public school education; only the necessary fees are indicated—that is to say, the boarding and tuition fees with those extras which are practically compulsory. The cheaper schools are those in which the boarding arrangements are not in the hands of individual masters, but are managed by the trustees or governors through agencies more or less appropriate for the purpose. In Whitaker's list of some five hundred and fifty secondary schools existing in the United Kingdom there are included at least fifty whose head masters would be seriously annoyed were their claim to consider themselves public school masters disputed, and there are several more on their way to attaining this position. There are certainly twenty-one schools in the list which are universally recognized as public schools, attended by 8,300 boarders paying average fees for board, tuition, and compulsory extras of £120 per annum. The total sum thus spent by English

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parents in any one year amounts to £996,000 ; if we call it a million we shall not be far out, as the estimated number of the boys attending these schools is probably below the real figure ; Eton leads the list with 1,000, and there are several of 500 ; adding to this the sum similarly spent on the preparatory schools, we shall again be within the mark if we say that two millions of money is spent annually on the public school system ; the sum is very much more if we include in our calculations all the quasi-public schools and schools rising to that position.

We have been told on no less an authority than that of the Duke of Devonshire that these schools are not a national concern, and that the State would not be justified in spending money to regulate and improve them, rich people's schools being no concern of the State. Surely a most astounding doctrine !

As a matter of fact, whether rightly or wrongly—though there is absolutely no compulsion in the matter—the large majority of our higher public servants, of our professional men, of our members of Parliament, of our commercial leaders, are educated in these schools. Is it not a matter which concerns the State whether the members of its Legislature and Executive are well or badly educated ? Whether they are brought up to respect industry and honour ? Whether their bodies are vigorous and their minds well trained ? Surely these are matters of the first importance to the State.

Space does not permit more than a general refer-

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ence to the history of public school education ; those interested in the subject will find a flood of light thrown by Mr. Leach's admirable book on English schools at the Reformation. Briefly speaking, the curriculum of the public schools till fifty years ago followed an unbroken tradition from the days of Cicero ; this tradition was improved on at the time of the Renaissance, at a time when Latin was still a spoken language, still the common currency of proficients in every branch of learning, and not yet entirely superseded in the Church, in the Law Courts, and even in business. There was no occasion for a State regulation of education, for there was only one education all over Christendom. The nucleus of these schools was an endowment, and it was generally prescribed that the school was to be a grammar school, that is to say, a school of which the main business was the teaching of Latin ; most frequently the endowment provided only a teacher, not buildings ; when an endowment provided a head master, an usher and school premises it was magnificent. Such schools speedily attracted boarders, who in the first instance lived with persons provided by their friends. So important was the boarding element apt to become that the townsfolk of Southwell on one occasion protested against the incompetence of the schoolmaster on the ground of the pecuniary loss to themselves. The constituency of such a school was chiefly local, and until railways rendered it possible to send boys for long distances, the sons of country families were commonly educated at the local schools.

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The foundation of Winchester, and shortly afterwards of Eton, proved to be an important departure in English education. In both these schools the nucleus was a boarding school, not a day school, and the advantages of the arrangement were seen to be such that it was copied in other parts of the country. Both foundations were so magnificent that they were able to hold their own, while other schools—at one time no less popular—disappeared, as at Banbury and Rotherham, while at Macclesfield and Ipswich the schools soon fell below the anticipations of their founders. In the course of the eighteenth century these local schools fell into decay in various ways and for various reasons, not an uncommon one being the dishonesty or indifference of local trustees ; and in every case, including the cases of Winchester and Eton and the large boarding schools which had grown up round some of the endowed schools in London, the inelastic nature of the charters, and various other causes, had rendered the life of a boy attending them unduly rough, even according to the ideas of those times. Then there grew up a large body of schools owned by private proprietors, and the old endowed schools began to be known as public schools ; they were apt to be unfavourably contrasted with private schools. Winchester and Eton, however, had still held their own, in spite of mediaeval housekeeping ; in both schools provision had been made in the original charters for the admission of local residents to the classes, and at Winchester there was a boarding establishment for boys not on the foundation ; in

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both places residents soon began to take in boarders. Eton, owing to her proximity to Windsor and the patronage of George III, outstripped her elder sister.

If the pedigrees of the present public schools are traced, it will be found that the majority of them owe their expansion to a head master from Winchester or Eton; an Eton man first moved Harrow; an Eton man, Dr. James, began the expansion of Rugby—unhappily copying the Eton buildings in white brick—before Arnold, a Wykehamist, improved on his work; the descent from Eton and Winchester through Rugby is the largest branch in the family of public schools; Thring, an Eton man, made modern Uppingham. It is probably to the Winchester and Eton influence that are due the three characteristic features of the English public school—the chapel, the playing fields, and the predominance of the boarding element.

By the middle of the nineteenth century the fashion had turned the tide away from local schools, the prestige of Winchester, Eton, and Harrow carried everything before it; but they had already begun to be found too expensive for the professional classes. An attempt was made, not at first entirely successful, to create less expensive schools; the method adopted was to withdraw the lucrative business of housing boarders from the assistant masters or other persons, and place it in the hands of the governors. On these lines Haileybury College was created in the abandoned buildings of the old East Indian College;

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Marlborough and Rossall were founded for the benefit of the sons of the clergy ; at a later time Wellington for the Army. Then was discovered the possibility of finding the necessary capital through the form of a company with limited liability. Cheltenham and Clifton are evidences of how successful such an enterprise may be. In both these cases the day school was as important an element as the boarding school in the conception of the founders.

There are several other modern public schools devoid of endowment ; others which have been built up on the foundations of an old endowment owe little to the endowment but the name ; even in the cases of Winchester and Eton, the expansion of recent years has been chiefly provided for out of earnings or by the private investments of the masters in boarding houses. A large number of our public schools are thus *de facto* private schools, while even in the case of those which enjoy a considerable endowment the greater part of the present establishment has been provided by private investment. In no case is a public school public in the sense that it is subsidised by the State from current taxation. The greater part of the endowments goes to providing scholarships, not to building houses for masters or paying the salaries of assistant masters ; as a rule only the head master and one other receive any part of their stipend from the endowment.

It is of practical importance that these facts should be known in view of possible future legislation. There was, for instance, at one time a talk of putting such

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schools as Repton and Uppingham, because they have a small local endowment, under the local educational authority, the County Council for instance ; it would be no less absurd to put Eton under the County Council of Bucks, and Harrow under the County Council of Middlesex. These schools, as they at present exist, have no more to do with the locality than the many private preparatory schools situated in the same counties. The only equitable way of dealing with the public schools in the future is to consider them private schools subject to the regulations of a central authority, and in the hands of trustees so far as their endowments are concerned. Unfortunately the hideous abuses of endowment at one time attracted notice before the position of these schools was really understood ; the State prevents abuse of the benefactor's gifts, it does not own the schools.

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III. The Future.

DURING the period between 1850 and 1870 public attention was at last given to the condition of the endowed schools, and the term public school first received official recognition by the appointment of a commission to deal specially with a small number of schools so designated. The state of affairs was sufficiently serious ; local neglect and local dishonesty had crippled or destroyed the majority of the grammar schools, the now rich Whitgift foundation at Croydon, for instance, was not represented by a school for fifty years ; the condition of the rich London schools, even of those which attracted boarders from the country, such as St. Paul's, Westminster, and the Charterhouse, was very bad ; at Eton the number of boys taught in school by one master was generally over a hundred ; the curriculum remained much as it was at the period of the Reformation ; as the foundations had, as a rule, provided for no more than two masters, the head master appointed as many assistants to himself as suited his own convenience or pocket, or did not appoint any. Modern languages had had no place in the curriculum of the Renaissance, their place being taken by Latin, still at that period a living language ; in few schools had the

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founder made any provision for teaching mathematics or even arithmetic. There are men still living who were at Eton when the French School and Mathematical School were independent establishments under heads licensed by the head master ; these gentlemen appointed their own assistants, being allowed to charge fixed fees ; both subjects were at that time voluntary extras.

Not only was the curriculum restricted, but there was no adequate means for teaching what was supposed to be taught ; Greek and Latin cannot be taught in classes of a hundred and upwards ; the situation was to some extent saved at Eton by a system of organized private tuition, which made good the deficiencies of the public classes, but the tutors often had more pupils than they could really teach. This state of affairs was peculiarly unfortunate, because it discredited the subjects that were taught, and a classical education was in consequence held by many great thinkers, such as the late Professor Huxley, to represent all that was ineffective and obsolete ; such men found a receptive audience at a time when the application of discoveries in chemistry and electricity and other branches of physical science to industrial operations seemed to indicate that the road to wealth lay through the knowledge of science ; at the same time a brilliant man of letters, Mr. Matthew Arnold, devoted his attention to the study of Continental systems of education, and found England hopelessly wanting. At a later date the abolition of purchase in the Army and the admission of officers by competi-

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tive examination, followed or accompanied by the extension of the same system to the Indian Civil Service and the Home Civil Service, brought the schools under the influence of a number of examinations for which they were bound to prepare. There also came into being the University of London with its examinations, the College of Preceptors with theirs, then the local examinations of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and the Joint Board of Schools examinations of the same bodies. At the same time each organized learned profession was establishing independently its own examinations—the College of Physicians, the College of Surgeons, the Incorporated Law Society, the Society of Accountants, and so forth. The result, so far as the public schools are concerned, has been chaos, for the public schools absolutely depend on the goodwill of parents. They must prepare for the different professions or lose their customers ; a few of them enjoying a not altogether honoured prestige as places at which desirable acquaintances can be made are able to impose their own conditions, but they are by no means so omnipotent as is commonly supposed.

The reforms of the curriculum which have been imposed during the past half century have not been dictated by a well-reasoned consideration of the place which individual subjects properly take in intellectual development, or of their applicability to the purposes of class teaching ; the movement has been chiefly based on short-sighted utilitarian arguments ; the conception of learning as a thing glorious and

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ennobling in itself is unpopular. The gravest danger which threatens public school education at the present time is the unrestricted liberty given to the War Office, or any similar body, of drawing up a system of education assumed to be suitable to its own purposes in complete ignorance of what the necessary conditions of education are, and of imposing this ill-considered, ignorant programme on the public schools.

Again, every profession expects boys to specialize for its own examinations from the moment that they enter a public school; and the non-professional parents are also always there demanding instruction in various departments of applied science, combined with just a sufficient oral knowledge of modern languages to enable a man to prove himself a fool in whatever country he may choose to conduct his business; on the other side we have a large body of public school masters who are convinced that the only serious business of a school is to produce prize winners at the Universities of Oxford or Cambridge.

The public schools do not ask the State for subsidies, but they do ask, or if they have not yet asked, they should ask for organization. The first necessity is a Central Board of Instruction with power to regulate and correlate all the different examining bodies which at present independently control the courses of instruction; no scheme of examination or education drawn up by the War Office, or the universities, or any organized profession should be valid till it has been considered and revised by the

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Board of Instruction. Such a board will at once reduce the number of examinations, for it will immediately become apparent that the differences between the demands of the respective bodies concerned are of less importance than the resemblances ; it will also be in official contact with the schools and will be able to confer with them as to the effect of proposed alterations. It is not desirable that the Board of Instruction should impose a uniform curriculum on all schools, but it is desirable that it should have the power to say whether the schools are really working their own curriculum. Thus it should have the power of inspection. Inspection has long been the bugbear of the public schools ; they share Dr. Thring's horror of the intervention of the "dead hand," and with justice ; but it is not beyond the power of man to devise a system of inspection which would prove a satisfactory guarantee of efficiency without replacing the head master by the inspector.

One effect of the creation of such an authority would be the elimination of premature specialization. Nature has indicated the age at which specialization should begin ; at the age of sixteen the average boy begins to be a man, the great constitutional change is over, he feels his power, he becomes restless, he longs for man's work, and at that age man's work should be given him, he should then be allowed to feel that every hour spent in school has a practical bearing on his future career. Much of the idleness among the older boys at public schools, much of the excessive attention to athletics, is due to the fact that they cease

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to believe in the work which they are doing ; they fail to see its utility, and as their energies are not attracted in the direction of study, they find their outlet in physical activity.

Up to the age of sixteen the possible variations in a sound system of education are few. Languages and mathematics must be the prominent features of the course ; each language should be continued till a fixed standard of proficiency has been attained, and each language should be studied at this period as an educational instrument, not as a utilitarian acquisition. The oral use of modern languages, for example, as a *sine quâ non* should be postponed till the period of specialization, but the standard attained before that period should be high and involve accurate and scholarly translation from the languages learned to English, and from English to these languages. A suggested order would be French, French and Latin, French then to be dropped, generally at the stage of passing from the preparatory to the public school, Latin and Greek or German ; but the tendency to be in the direction of regarding Greek as a subject belonging to the period of specialization. Enough science should be taught—two lessons a week is sufficient—to habituate the boys to the processes of scientific observation and reasoning. There can be no sound scientific work without a good foundation of mathematics and a power of literary expression. The power of writing English is most easily acquired by practice in translation from other languages ; *vivâ voce* construing does little in this

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direction. The writing of English essays is advanced work.

When it has been ascertained that a school works its curriculum well up to the age of sixteen, that regular promotion means industry, that having reached a certain form in the school by a certain age means a satisfactory standard of proficiency, and that the boys who have reached this standard are really prepared to specialize, there is no longer any reason for external examinations of a qualifying character, such as matriculation examinations, and one of the evils of examinations, their tendency to encourage cramming, is in this particular instance done away with. The only value of a qualifying examination is to provide a certificate of proficiency; a far more valuable certificate is afforded by a statement that a boy over a period of three years has studied certain subjects, been consistently industrious, and received such a training as prepares him for further work; in this latter case it is not necessary that a boy should be taught all his subjects at once, as evidence can be given that he has been through the training imposed by certain subjects, and is ready to take them up again for other purposes if required. The most undesirable feature of many examinations hitherto has been the wide range of subjects, every one of which has to be crammed owing to their number.

It is not desirable that a uniform course should at once be imposed on all public schools, still less that the Board of Instruction should concern itself with methods; its business would be to certify results.

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On the other hand, it would form a medium of communication between schools which at present maintain a splendid isolation ; it would be able to indicate the organization which enabled subjects badly taught in one school to be well taught in another ; but perhaps its most valuable work would be in protecting the schools from irresponsible and mutually independent bodies exercising pressure at the top, and from parents at the bottom. Multiplication of subjects, multiplication of departments, means loss of grip ; boys tossed about from one teacher to another lose the sense of responsibility, and rapidly acquire dexterity in evading the demands of each of their many teachers.

We have been told that the State cannot possibly afford to provide a Board of Instruction with suitable inspectors ; it is true that the men composing the board and its inspectorate would require to be very highly paid if they were to be men such as would command the confidence of the public schools ; they would not be young men fresh from the universities ; but the State, if this is true, is a bad economist ; it could afford to expend £74,307 in 1898 on the administrative work involved in distributing grants from the Science and Art Department among parents who cannot or will not pay their school fees. Surely it would not make a bad bargain in spending at least the same amount in seeing that the nation received full benefit from the two millions of money annually spent voluntarily by other parents.

We have now been tinkering our education long

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enough ; we have learned in the course of the last fifty years that educational salvation does not lie in science alone, or in mathematics alone, or even in classics alone, or modern languages alone ; we have arrived at a fairly just appreciation of the value of various subjects ; in fact, we can safely proceed to use the results of our experience and to profit by our blunders.

There is one aspect of public school education which must never be forgotten ; it is continually overlooked ; its very existence depends on the attractions which it presents to the teachers. These are of two kinds, pecuniary and intellectual ; if the emoluments of public schoolmasters are known to fall very far behind the emoluments of other professional men of equal ability, only the second and third rate men will become teachers ; there is already considerable danger of this. Many of the new public schools drew up their financial scheme on the assumption that because £200 a year will attract first-rate young men at five-and-twenty, no much larger salary need be contemplated. The consequence is the multiplication of private preparatory schools. Men, despairing of being able to marry before forty, or even later, at a public school, venture out into the wilderness and start a private speculation.

Secondly, a man must teach subjects which command his respect, and which give him full intellectual activity. Teaching can never be dissociated from learning, except at the cost of destroying the influence of the teacher. There are extremes of in-

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capacity to maintain discipline and to impart information, which should not be tolerated in any school, but the influence of a real student is deeper and more lasting than that of a mechanical proficient in pedagogic drill. Many men in middle life looking back to their school days discover that the man who first stimulated their ambition was a man whom it was the fashion to consider eccentric, and whose discipline was by no means ideal. With all their shortcomings the public schools have done noble work in the last fifty years; they have established a fine conception of what education should be, and can be; it would be a serious national calamity if they were forced to stand apart from a system of national education.

THE TEACHING OF MODERN
LANGUAGES

IX

THE TEACHING OF MODERN LANGUAGES

By KARL BREUL

M.A., LITT. D. (CAMBRIDGE), PH. D. (BERLIN)
CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY READER IN GERMANIC

I

IN the school and university curricula of the middle of last century modern languages had not yet found a proper place. Their literary and practical value had not yet been discovered. Where French and German were taught at all in our secondary schools too little time was given to them, too little importance was attached to them, bad methods of teaching prevailed, and the teachers themselves were but too frequently men of inferior stamp, without any professional training and without any personal or scientific qualifications. From the poor results naturally obtained by such teachers under these most unfavourable conditions it was rather hastily inferred that modern languages were of little educational value and could not be made valuable instruments of a liberal education. It was generally maintained

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that German and French and the teachers of these languages could not by any means be placed on a level with the ancient classical tongues and the highly-trained men who taught them in our schools and universities. These views, which prevailed not many years ago, are still held by some at least of those to whom the management of our secondary schools—especially our large public schools for boys—is entrusted. Still they are gradually being abandoned by the more enlightened educationalists—among whom are several eminent classical scholars, such as Sir Richard Jebb—and it is safe to prophesy a rapid and healthy development of the study and teaching of modern languages in this country. The great importance of a familiar acquaintance with at least two modern languages is now disputed by very few people: in another twenty years it will be universally admitted. French and German are simply indispensable to any one who pretends to be called a man of culture or a lover of literature, to any one who wishes to gain distinction as a student of any art or science, or who means to become a successful military officer or a leading man of business. Besides these two foreign languages which all boys and girls in our first grade secondary schools should be taught, and probably will soon be taught, there is Spanish combining its fine literature with its great practical importance for business purposes, Italian with its charm for the student of art and letters, and other languages which will be learned for certain special purposes, but which will probably never be studied so generally as those

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of Germany and France. We can no longer afford to remain ignorant of what is being done and thought by those two nations who, together with ourselves, are the chief workers in the field of European civilization. For us the proper study of modern languages does not merely mean acquiring a knack of fabricating, with the aid of grammar and dictionary, more or less faultless and colourless translations, or even metrically correct verse compositions. We do not consider it the duty of our modern language teachers to initiate the ordinary school boy prematurely into the technicalities of commercial correspondence before he can write ordinary German or French with a reasonable amount of fluency and correctness. To our mind the teacher of modern foreign languages should be much more than the *maître de langue* of former days.

The high aim which the best modern language teachers at the present time have set before themselves is not only to teach the spoken and written language as such, but also by means of it to initiate their pupils into a just and sympathetic understanding of the great nations in question. Thus to these teachers the study of the German language means also the study of the German people in its main characteristics as expressed in its language and literature. When foreign languages are more generally taught in a thorough and attractive way, and in a spirit of broad-minded sympathy by competent and enthusiastic teachers, there can be no doubt that they will become for the twentieth century the instruments of

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a new humanism. This new humanism, modern as it is and in many respects different from the old, need not on that account be inferior to the old humanism imparted by the study of the ancient classics. We are far from undervaluing the great importance of a scholarly study of the ancient classical writers for the present and future generations. We are not unmindful of the refining and elevating influence which in past centuries they have exercised on many of our noblest men and women. It would be a matter of deep regret if modern language teachers were ever to be ignorant of classics. But we are forced to admit that the times have gone, and gone for ever, when the large majority of pupils in our secondary schools can be brought up chiefly on the classics of Greece and Rome. In view of pressing national needs and in the best interests of the generations to come a thorough revision of the curricula offered by our schools and universities can no longer be safely postponed. There is no doubt that in the revised time-tables of our schools a large place will have to be found for modern languages.

It would be unjust not to admit that some steps in the right direction have of late been taken by some, at least, of our universities, by many of our best high schools for girls, and even by a few of our public schools. By the establishment at Cambridge of the Medieval and Modern Languages Tripos (in 1884) a first-rate honours school of modern languages was at last founded in this country, and a band of carefully trained and thoroughly competent English-born

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teachers of modern languages, men and women, have during the last sixteen years gone out from Cambridge to our university colleges and secondary schools. Other universities have of late followed the example set by Cambridge—Oxford is unfortunately still lagging behind. Thus there is even now much that is hopeful in the present state of modern language teaching, and much that wants but time and a fair amount of active encouragement in order to develop satisfactorily and to bear good fruit. We are obviously just now in a time of transition. Many enthusiastic and highly-qualified teachers are at work and by the excellent results they obtain are doing much to convince sceptics that modern languages, if properly taught, may lay fair claim to an honourable place by the side of the older school subjects.

In a time such as this it is only natural that many experiments should be tried and many new methods started and recommended. It is easy to foresee that some extremist views as to aims and methods of teaching will sooner or later be modified or abandoned. Still, we may welcome the present activity as a promising sign of healthy life and real interest, while in former years there was mainly ignorance and indifference. Though we are bound to admit that with regard to the present state of modern language teaching the results obtained in this country, generally speaking, fall short of those obtained in Germany and Scandinavia, yet we may say that of late much has been done to make up for lost time. In spite of diversity of opinion on many points there are a great

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number of cardinal questions on which our most prominent modern language teachers are now in hearty agreement.

The following conditions are the most essential for obtaining success in the teaching of modern languages. First and foremost, more time should be allotted to them in the curriculum of our secondary schools. Our leading public schools should set the example ; only a few of them have so far taken any real interest in modern languages. And secondly, the time, thus increased, should be used much more energetically and systematically. It is also much to be desired that in future a modern language should be made the first foreign language to be taught in all our secondary schools, and that only after a really good foundation has been laid by thorough and spirited teaching of the mother tongue. This method will be found easier and better adapted to the mental condition of most children ; the study of modern languages would thereby receive a very considerable impetus, and, as foreign experience has clearly shown, the study of Latin, if begun two years after that of French by more mature boys, would eventually not lose anything by this readjustment of the old curriculum. English, French (or German), Latin, German (or French), and finally Greek for exceptionally good pupils seems to be for most schools the best order in which languages should be taken up. A special committee of the Modern Language Association is at present engaged in considering possible and desirable modifications in the existing time-tables

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of secondary schools for boys, with special reference to the proportion of time to be devoted to classics and modern languages and the order in which these languages should be presented to the boys.

Much can be learned from foreign experience as contained in the excellent American *Report of the Committee of Twelve* (Boston : 1900), in Miss Brebner's valuable little book on *The Method of Teaching Modern Languages in Germany* (Cambridge : 1898), and in more than one of the admirable educational reports published by Mr. Michael Sadler (since 1897). Thus we are carefully following what is being done abroad, and are considering how far it is possible and advisable to imitate or to adapt to our needs those new methods that have been found to work so well abroad. At the same time we shall do well to free ourselves at last from one or two old prejudices with which sceptics who often do not wish to know better frequently confront the advocates of a thorough teaching of modern languages in schools.

One of these is that it is no good teaching an English child a foreign language at school, because English children, especially English boys, have no aptitude whatever for learning languages. Without denying that so far the majority of English men and women cannot boast of being good linguists, we are yet neither astonished nor discouraged by the fact. It cannot be otherwise, for with us modern languages have until now never had a fair chance. It is not the shyness of the boys, as has so often been alleged, that is the main obstacle to their acquiring a foreign

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language—we should rather be inclined to ascribe their undoubted backwardness and often shocking ignorance of French and German to their natural laziness and still more to the deplorable lack of interest with which most of their teachers and head masters have allowed them to take in their French and German work. The modern language teaching at many of our schools has, generally speaking, nearly always consisted of grammar and dictionary work, mere gerund grinding, the mechanical getting up of an annotated school classic for some impending examination. Only in very exceptional cases have some more fortunate children obtained a glimpse of the real life and thought of the people whose language they had been studying for years. Rarely did they hear German or French read aloud to them by their teachers with fluency and taste. Hardly ever were they expected or encouraged to speak themselves, to tell a story or to keep up a short conversation on some easy and interesting subject in the foreign language. Is it then to be wondered at that German and French are to most of our school children, nay, even to many of our university students and some of our head masters nothing but dead tongues, considered vastly inferior to every other school subject and less deserving of attention? Are there as yet many English boys who are really desirous of learning to speak the language of Goethe and Molière, of Bismarck and Pasteur? Has not a prominent head master recently maintained that German literature was vastly inferior to Greek and not deserving of much serious

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attention? The bad results hitherto obtained do not prove that with a different method and spirit of teaching better results cannot be hoped for.

Another widespread prejudice, the fallacy of which is obvious to all who have had any experience of such cases, is that a few months spent on the Continent will be better than many years spent at school, in fact that a couple of months abroad will be amply sufficient for clever boys to "pick up" the language. Never was there a more misleading phrase! A language with so subtle a syntax as French, or one so deeply saturated with poetry and beautiful idioms as German, cannot possibly be "picked up" by an untrained youngster—even the very cleverest—sent abroad, without any previous school training, during a long vacation or even for a whole summer. In most cases the children learn next to nothing, at least nothing really well, nothing worth having, and they return home the proud possessors of a few very colloquial, and for the most part badly pronounced, words and phrases. In some cases, perhaps, they have acquired a certain amount of ungrammatical patter without any real insight into the foreign language or any sympathy with it and the nation that speaks it. Good results may be expected only when a young man or woman has for several years had a thorough grounding in the foreign language at home, and when he or she is then sent abroad for at least six months, if possible for a year, to live with a refined family. Methodical and prolonged school training should in all cases be insisted on by parents

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and educators whose aim is to give the children a ready command of the foreign idiom, a sympathetic feeling for the beauties of foreign literature, and a deep and lasting interest in the life and thought, the aims and difficulties, of their German and French neighbours—truly a most valuable possession for their later life.

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II

THERE are many possible methods of modern language teaching, and no royal road has as yet been devised. Many highly-praised short cuts are of very doubtful value, and a very great deal depends on the teacher who uses a method. But, roughly speaking, we may distinguish between the old method of teaching modern languages and a new method, which is just beginning to gain ground in this country.

The followers of the old method taught modern languages in exactly the same way in which classics were taught—that is to say, with the help of a grammar and a dictionary ; they made the children learn a great number of grammatical rules and exacted the application of these rules in many translation exercises which were made up for the purpose. The rendering into English of one or two prescribed classical works was all that was thought necessary. Hardly ever were any but written tests required in schools and universities by teachers and examiners. No information was given in school as to the exact nature of certain characteristic foreign sounds, and no practical suggestion as to the best way of producing them. Even in the early examinations for the highest modern language examination, the Medieval and

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Modern Languages Tripos, no *vivâ voce* test whatsoever was required. Consequently a deaf and dumb student could theoretically have obtained a first class with distinction in the Modern Languages Tripos as it was then arranged. Many things have been improved since the early days of the Tripos, but unfortunately a good *vivâ voce* test is even now not an obligatory in the Cambridge Tripos. Some years ago the university instituted a really good optional examination in spoken French and spoken German, but probably it will be some time before it is made compulsory.

The chief points insisted on by the new method, which, in its main features and in its less extreme forms will probably be more generally adopted as time goes on, can only be very briefly touched on here. More detailed information can be obtained, among others, from the books of F. Spencer, K. Breul, W. Rippmann, M. Brebner, and from several of the reports published by M. Sadler. By the adherents of the new method much importance is attached to the oral part of modern language instruction and generally to the treatment of the language as a living and spoken idiom. A reasonable amount of fluency and correctness in the use of it will henceforth be required from every pupil. Teachers will insist on careful and idiomatic translations from the foreign language into the mother tongue. They will early encourage free composition in German and French on easy subjects, but most of them will discourage ordinary composition except in the highest stages.

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Ordinary composition is at present required at much too early a stage by the various examining bodies, when the children have not yet acquired either a useful working vocabulary or any true feeling for the foreign language, and constantly make the most ordinary mistakes in attempting to translate from the English. Most of our examinations are—and perhaps had to be—far too indulgent, and often pass children whose ordinary composition is nearly worthless. It would have been far better never to have required composition at so early a stage, when the pupils have not yet developed any feeling for the idiomatic use of the foreign language. Generally speaking the new method encourages reading and speaking, dictation and recitation of foreign prose and poetry in the place of mere translating. It endeavours to keep the mother tongue as much as possible out of a modern language lesson, and from the very beginning makes some use of the foreign idiom upon a carefully devised plan. Though it considers grammar as by no means a negligible quantity, yet it does not teach it in the schools for its own sake, but merely as a help to the ready and correct use of the language. It teaches grammar inductively, with the co-operation of the pupils, from the texts read in class, and no longer by means of numerous dull lessons, consisting of countless rules and exceptions, each illustrated by some uninteresting disconnected sentence made *ad hoc*. It omits all premature reference to exceptional forms and constructions, but teaches, beside ordinary accident and elementary

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syntax, the principles of word-formation. It also from the very first lesson takes much trouble to put the children in possession of a useful working vocabulary and to lay the foundation of a good pronunciation. Modern teachers would feel ashamed of sending a girl out into society of whose pronunciation it could be said, as of Madame Eglentyne, Chaucer's worthy prioress, "and Frensh she spak ful faire and fetisly after the scole of Stratford atte Bowe, for Frensh of Paris was to hir unknowe."

In the lower and middle classes the reading-book is made the centre of instruction, and a fair proportion of the texts read in the upper forms must, according to the reformers, be interesting modern books of high literary excellence and at the same time apt to illustrate the present history, customs, life, and thought of the foreign nation. The stress laid by most adherents of the new method on the character of the text-books as modern and essentially national does not prevent the more moderate ones from insisting that the pupils should be made acquainted at school with some at least of the masterpieces of the great foreign classics. It should not be objected that there will not be time for reading so much. There will be plenty of time, probably five or six times as many books can be read—and enjoyed—if the number of modern language lessons is properly increased, the grammar lessons and translation exercises cut down, and the books themselves read more quickly, without any endeavour on the part of the teacher to cram every line for some examination or other. In the

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higher forms the easier passages should not be translated at all, but only read aloud and afterwards summed up and discussed, while a careful rendering into good and idiomatic English should be insisted on in the case of the more difficult passages. The valuable literary training, obtainable only from a careful and spirited study of first-rate classical writings, should on no account be sacrificed to the more practical and utilitarian aims.

Finally, the adherents of the reformed methods of modern language teaching require that teachers should take a greater interest in those facts and institutions which are characteristic of foreign life and thought, in foreign history and geography, manners and customs, and should thus be able and willing to give our school children the first basis of a true appreciation of foreign peculiarities and of foreign excellence. How delighted would our classical scholars be if they could have the ancient Athens and the ancient Rome but one single day before their eyes! With what intense interest would they watch its throbbing life! How little do many of our modern language teachers sometimes realize the inestimable advantage they have by being able at any moment to study closely and in every desirable detail foreign life in all its fulness and diversity in Paris, Lyons, and Geneva, in Berlin, Munich, and Vienna. "Wer den Dichter will verstehen, muss in Dichters Lande gehen," says Goethe. How many rash and superficial judgments of our neighbours, their manners and customs, how many deplorable misunderstand-

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ings of their actions and aims, would then become impossible! The advantages for the nation at large arising from an enlightened and sympathetic teaching of this kind cannot be overestimated.

These are certainly high ideals set up for the teaching of modern languages. They are not unattainable, but they can only be fully realized if that teaching is everywhere entrusted to duly qualified men and women, who in attainments, skill, and zeal are not behind their classical and mathematical colleagues in our best secondary schools. For the teaching of modern languages, perhaps more than for that of any other subject, it is imperatively necessary that the teachers should be specialists. This is now the case in many of our best schools, but it is still far from being generally insisted on. It ought never to occur that a good mathematical or science teacher should occasionally be told off by the head master to take a junior class in French.

In order to qualify himself properly for his work a future teacher of modern languages should first go through an honours course in modern languages at Cambridge or any one of the younger universities at which the highest teaching is properly organized according to modern requirements, and where a thorough scientific and practical training extending over three or four years can be obtained. This methodical study at an English university should be supplemented by prolonged residence abroad, and such residence should be repeated as often as circumstances will allow. Teachers should make a point

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of attending one of the many foreign holiday courses from time to time, and should live for some time in different parts of the particular country the language of which they teach at home. They should live, not in boarding-houses or lodgings, but in the houses of highly-educated natives, from which other foreigners are for the time being excluded—by preference with teachers or men of a university education, who would sympathize with their aims and help them to attain them.

In order to enable teachers to do this more easily and frequently travelling scholarships and bursaries for teachers should be given much more freely than at present. Not only should County Councils and Chambers of Commerce give this most desirable assistance (it is being given now by some public bodies, but hardly anywhere in an entirely satisfactory way), but large schools with sufficient endowments might well start a travelling scholarship fund for their own modern language staff, and together with the money grant sometimes an extension of leave of absence. Teachers should also avail themselves more than they have hitherto done of the advantages offered by the system of regular correspondence between teachers of different countries which has recently been introduced.

In order to secure the necessary supply of really able men and women willing to devote their lives and energies to the teaching of modern languages in our secondary schools it is above all urgently necessary to raise the stipends and the general status of modern

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language teachers in most of our schools, to open to the best of them the prospect of obtaining head masterships at large schools with fully developed modern departments, and to place them in all respects on a footing of absolute equality with their classical, mathematical, or science colleagues. So far this has not been done by head masters and governing bodies of large schools. And yet it is but fair, seeing that their training as we conceive it is just as long, their work at least as hard, as sound, as important, and as dignified as that of their colleagues. They have to master one, or even two, exceedingly difficult languages, and to acquaint themselves with the masterpieces of rich literatures extending over many centuries. They have not only to write but to speak these languages easily and with genuine foreign intonation. This requires them to go through a special scientific and practical training of the ear and of the speech organs, and necessitates expensive studies and repeated stays in foreign countries. In order to discuss more easily the various problems connected with modern language teaching, and to raise the status of the teachers, the Modern Language Association was founded nearly ten years ago. Its proceedings are recorded in the *Modern Language Quarterly*. It now counts among its members nearly all our more prominent university and school teachers of modern languages, and every year its influence makes itself more widely felt.

As the new method of teaching that will in all probability be adopted by the majority of our younger

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teachers makes much higher demands on their physical and mental powers it will be necessary to make provision that their actual teaching hours should not be too many. Only thus will they be able to bring to their work all the freshness and energy that will make it impressive and successful. It is also held by many authorities that it is better if the two foreign languages, German and French, are not taught by the same teacher. In theory this is, of course, quite true, but the practical difficulties will probably in many cases prove too great to be overcome. A better combination than German and French is, no doubt, either German and English or French and Latin. Teachers should also make it a point to be well informed as to the history and geography of the people whose language they will have to teach, and they could, perhaps, if necessary, undertake some teaching of these subjects.

To the question so often asked—Who is to teach modern languages in our schools, Englishmen or natives of Germany and France? we answer—Any one who is duly qualified for the work. The superiority of the native's accent is, of course, indisputable, but the English-born teacher who has been abroad and has acquired a good pronunciation is able to counterbalance and even to outweigh this advantage by several qualifications that are lacking in most of the foreigners. As a matter of fact, the problem will in all probability solve itself thus: English-born teachers trained at Cambridge or elsewhere will in most cases obtain the new appointments in our

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secondary schools, while we shall gladly keep those tried foreign teachers who in past years have done such good service, and readily secure the services of such as come to us with exceptional qualifications. It is only natural and desirable that in future the bulk of our modern language school teachers should be English-born men and women who have gone through a proper university training, and that the native teachers should gradually become a small minority. This has, in fact, always been the normal state of things in all countries but this. The most advanced philological and literary teaching in modern languages at our largest universities will probably for a considerable time to come remain with advantage in the hands of highly-trained foreigners who possess a ready command of English, and are able and willing to fall in with the conditions obtaining at our universities. For by keeping in constant touch with their native country they are especially qualified to be the proud interpreters of its best life and thought. It is, however, much to be hoped that in the near future, and together with the further development of the study of modern languages, assistantships, as well as professorships, will be established at all our universities, and the assistants to the professors should be highly-trained Englishmen, who, after their university course, have spent some considerable time abroad.

The aim of the modern language teacher, as we conceive it and have briefly sketched it, is one of the highest. His duty is not merely to prepare his pupils by a dry process of purely grammatical drill

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for a host of Local and Army examinations—he is to prepare them for *life*, that is, for a just and sympathetic appreciation of the main currents of foreign life and thought, and to instil into them a lively interest in what is being done or aimed at by our great fellow-workers in the cause of civilization. If the journalist is apt to point out and to lay stress on the differences between this nation and others, to call attention to what separates us, to expose the weaknesses of our neighbours and show where we may find fault with them, on the other hand the great task of the modern language teacher in schools and universities is to reveal “*das Dauernde im Wechsel*,” that which is abiding among all the changes, the great tasks that are before all the great modern nations and that cannot be solved but by the hearty co-operation of all. Such a teacher will show his pupils and will spread the conviction that in spite of passing, and sometimes unavoidable, misunderstandings, the best spirits of all nations are essentially at one—that Shakespeare, Molière, and Goethe, not to mention more modern names, do not belong to one nation alone, but that every boy and girl, every man and woman, has a right to be elevated by their grandeur, taught by their wisdom, and refreshed by their eternal charm. In this way modern language teachers can fill the minds and souls of the young with a deep respect for foreign modes of thought, with a just appreciation of foreign endeavours, and even with a true sympathy for foreign life and peoples. If it be true that the majority of our rising generation cannot and

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ought not, as formerly, to be brought up mainly on the lines of ancient humanism, then it is the bounden duty of every one interested in education to see that for the future they are brought up in an equally liberal way by means of a new humanism. The teachers of modern languages have to-day a high trust committed to them, and they will do well to be fully alive to the great responsibility which their increased opportunities have now laid on their shoulders. They must take good care not to lower the humanitarian ideal. We want to promote the study of modern languages because we are convinced that apart from their undisputed practical importance they can be taught and studied in a truly scientific spirit, and can, in the hands of skilful and enthusiastic teachers, be made the instruments of the highest liberal education.

[Dr. Breul has compiled a short list of books bearing on the subject of these chapters, which will be found in the Appendix, p. 286.]

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X

HIGHER EDUCATION

By H. J. MACKINDER

READER IN GEOGRAPHY IN THE UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD
PRINCIPAL OF UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, READING

I. The University Tradition

THE higher education of England, like most other things English, is the complex result of an unbroken history. Even the Reformation, with the attendant dissolution of the monasteries, which in disintegrating effect was the nearest English equivalent to the French Revolution, had comparatively small influence on Oxford and Cambridge, for the universities were the least ecclesiastical of the institutions of the mediaeval Church. To understand the spirit and not merely the mechanism of our educational systems it is, therefore, necessary to regard them as embodying the facts of their history, and that history itself as being an aspect of the national growth. If we would understand the diverse ideals that prevail among us we must be familiar with the series of causes which have given them birth. Especially is the reformer of education bound to win

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what light he can from the past, for the conditions of his task compel him to embark on enterprises whose effects only become surely evident after the lapse of many years. The injury consequent on a misuse of educational opportunity may be beyond recovery. Whether we admit the premises or not, few more serious conclusions are possible than that of the President of the British Association lately at Belfast. In the belief that in 1860 Germany took the right path and England the wrong, he held that the German population had reached a point of general training and specialist equipment which it would take us two generations of hard and intelligently directed educational work to attain. Thus, he continued, Germany possessed a national weapon of precision which must give her an enormous initial advantage in any and every contest depending on disciplined and methodized intellect.

Almost unnoticed by the combatants, two parties of experts, whom for want of better titles we may name the humanists and the scientists, are grouped round the present "struggle for the schools." When the din of the Parliamentary battle has subsided we shall hear their honest conflict of opinion, for it will last for many a year yet. The one party holds that if the other prevail all that is most admirable in our English education and that has gone to the making of English character will be lost. The other believes that unless the first yield England will be hopelessly distanced in the contests of the world. This conflict has been in progress for the better part of a century,

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and the rival ideals and methods have now influenced English education like positive and negative magnetisms, drawing teachers and taught into competing institutions and families of institutions. Though practical compromise is ever at work, yet there is very obvious a duality of system, a grafting of the apple on the oak, a mingling, indeed, of foliage, but distinctness of branching above a certain point on the old trunk. It is proposed in this paper to consider the essential characteristics of the elder system, reserving the new tendencies for a second paper, and for a third, the possibilities, if not of fusion, at least of mutually helpful growth.

The older universities of Great Britain are five. In the order of their foundation they are Oxford, Cambridge, St. Andrews, Glasgow, and Aberdeen. They belong to two distinct groups of the mediaeval universities of Europe. Oxford sprang into existence about 1170, without any deed of foundation, probably as the result of a settlement of scholars from Paris, where a notable movement in furtherance of learning was in progress. In any case the customs of Oxford were modelled after those of Paris, whose university was essentially a guild of teachers. Cambridge, according to Dr. Rashdall, appears to have originated in similar manner from one of the sporadic colonies of Oxford scholars who fled from that city after the great "Town and Gown" disorders in the year 1209. The three Scottish universities, on the other hand, were founded by papal bulls in the course of the fifteenth century, and their more democratic insti-

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tutions were based ultimately on those of Bologna University, which was fundamentally a guild of students rather than of teachers. Scottish poverty and English wealth soon emphasized the contrast, so that richly-endowed colleges obtained control of the southern universities, while the northern passed into the hands of professors supported mainly by the fees of their classes. At a later period the religious development of Scotland still further tended to make her universities national, whereas in England higher education was monopolized by the Church of the governing class. In Tudor and Stuart times the University of Edinburgh was added to the Scottish foundations on the initiative of the municipality, and the University of Dublin was instituted by Queen Elizabeth to be the Oxford and Cambridge of the English colony in Ireland.

The difference of spirit thus originated at the top penetrated through all the grades of education, and constitutes to-day perhaps the most persistent cause of national contrast on the two sides of the border. In Scotland the schools were never markedly differentiated until modern times, except in so far as purely local circumstances demanded. The same school commonly provided for all needs and all classes. In England, however, the "grammar" schools, sprung originally from monastic, cathedral, and guild foundations, became subordinate to greater "public" schools, which arose in the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries. These were often connected with particular colleges at Oxford or

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Cambridge, as Winchester with New College, Eton with King's College, and Westminster with Christ Church. A practice resulted of deferring matriculation, so that the age of the English undergraduate increased, whereas in Scotland, as in the mediaeval universities, the great majority of the arts students were boys. Thus the ruling classes of England obtained a system well adapted to their requirements, and in some respects far superior to the Scottish, but they closed the doors of the university to the mass of the nation. The relation of the two systems (at least until recently) is indicated by the practice of sending some of the most distinguished of the Scottish graduates in arts to complete their course at Oxford or Cambridge. It must be noted, however, that even in England five hundred grammar schools occasionally contributed boys to the university, thus supplying a safety valve for humble talent.

The modern attack on our public schools and universities, and especially on Oxford, may be summed up in the charge that they are still in their essence mediaeval institutions. They would be described by a thorough-going opponent — more frequent, perhaps, a generation ago than now—as devoted to the elaboration in dead languages of formal arts and a futile philosophy. Even Dr. Rashdall, the historian of the mediaeval universities, admits that “it is surprising how little the intellectual superiority of the eighteenth century over the fourteenth impressed itself upon the course of ordinary school and university education, especially in this

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country." Therefore it is necessary to our present purpose—which is to inquire into the strength as well as the weakness of our traditional system—that we should ascertain something of the realities of the mediaeval university. Realities there must have been, notwithstanding the barren subtleties of disputation which find an echo in the popular conception of the schoolmen, for no movement of such vitality could have risen and lasted unless in response to a need of humanity.

At the outset it must be remarked that the very Latinity of the "clerks" of the Middle Ages supplies an argument for modern reform. Like the ancient Greeks, the mediaeval "Latins" approached learning through the medium of a living language. Latin was the common tongue of all the western universities, whose students were in very truth citizens of the learned world. No dead languages were then needed for the reading of history, nor even "courier" knowledge (or less) of other living tongues for the study of recent works on alchemy or medicine. Grammar, rhetoric, and dialectic taught in living Latin were simple educational gymnastic, not compound as we may, perhaps, describe the eighteenth century study of Greek through dead Latin. Even the verbal subtleties of the scholastic philosophy were less unreal in that foster-mother tongue. By the critical spirit they induced "they dispelled for ever the obscurantism of the Dark Ages."

But the main cause and function of the old universities was practical. As Dr. Rashdall has put it,

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“their greatest service to mankind was simply this, that they placed the administration of human affairs—in short, the government of the world—in the hands of educated men. The actual rulers—the Kings or the aristocrats—might often be as uneducated or more uneducated than modern democracies, but they had to rule through the instrumentality of a highly educated class. The rapid multiplication of universities during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries was largely due to a direct demand for highly educated lawyers and administrators.” In short, the object of university education was that of Plato—to educate the rulers of men.

If we interpret the word ruler in its largest sense, and exclude the indirect, if ultimate, rule of the people, this is still the first object of our old universities. Legislators, lawyers, diplomatists, preachers, writers, teachers, and physicians and merchants of the higher order must all be men of general cultivation. For them, indeed, the so-called “liberal” arts become in a sense technical. The wielding of ideas through the medium of language is the appropriate art by which they lead and organize men. In no modern country has this art had more significance than in England, whose chief contribution to human civilization has been the method of free, yet orderly, government. The ideas on which such government is founded may have been revealed by unaccountable genius, individual or national, but the complex machinery could never in the first instance have been worked and the bearings have been worn to smooth-

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ness except by an aristocracy and upper middle class subjected in youth to a common discipline. That the universities and the public schools remained on the whole true to their mediaeval purpose even in the eighteenth century let a prejudiced witness show. In his noble lament over the want of university education among the Catholic Irish, Newman utters these words with regard to the public schools and colleges of England sixty years before his day: "These institutions, with miserable deformities on the side of morals, with a hollow profession of Christianity, and a heathen code of ethics—I say at least they can boast of a succession of heroes and statesmen, of literary men and philosophers, of men conspicuous for great national virtues, for habits of business, for knowledge of life, for practical judgment, for cultivated tastes, for accomplishments, who have made England what it is—able to subdue the earth."

Here it may be observed in passing that the subtle differences of organization and studies, which in every detail distinguish Oxford from Cambridge are evidence of the overpowering force of tradition in determining an intellectual atmosphere. The histories of Oxford and Cambridge are woven into the history of the nation as warp and woof; both are essential to the fabric, but they cross one another at right angles. The popular diagnosis of the difference between the sister universities is that in the one classical studies predominate, and in the other mathematical, but, as every university man knows, the difference is at once deeper and more delicate.

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It is precisely where ideas affect action, leadership, government, that the contrast is most conspicuous. A recognition of this contrast, whether just or not, underlies the common saying that Cambridge has produced the greater men, but Oxford the greater movements.

The twentieth century cannot afford to lose the qualities which, even if innate in our fathers, were refined and equipped by our traditional education. In the modern state the dutiful citizen must have a wider outlook on public affairs, and yet it is a special characteristic of the age that the number of governing experts tends to multiply. New classes—civil servants, lay teachers, journalists—have arisen to require for their professional efficiency the discipline of humane letters and of pure mathematics. And two great movements have been founded in the spirit of the old universities to meet the demand of an age which is democratic in a new sense ; for those who were the slaves of antiquity and the villeins of the Dark Ages are now become rulers holding lot in the Empire. The higher education of women and the system of teaching in the great towns which passes by the name of university extension are the latest expression of the impulse which first gave elasticity and precision to English rule eight centuries ago. Both are designed for a wider spread of general cultivation rather than technical proficiency.

The aims which have thus consistently governed the development of English higher education have been expressed once and for all in Newman's *Idea*

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of a University. The preface to that book opens with these words: "The view taken of a university in these discourses is the following. That it is a place of teaching universal knowledge. This implies that its object is, on the one hand, intellectual, not moral, and, on the other, that it is the diffusion and extension of knowledge rather than the advancement. If its object were scientific and philosophical discovery I do not see why a university should have students; if religious training, I do not see how it can be the seat of literature and science. Such is a university in its essence, and independently of its relation to the Church. But practically speaking it cannot fulfil its object duly, such as I have described it, without the Church's assistance; or, to use the theological term, the Church is necessary to its integrity." This in somewhat varying sense is the view of a great number of educated Anglicans, and it is probably the view of most educated Englishmen if for "the Church" we substitute "the influence of religion" or "of morals." But the exclusion or—to be truer to historical and existing facts—the subordination of the advancement of knowledge brings the whole conception into fundamental conflict with a great and powerful school of thought of which lately much has been heard.

II. The New Tendencies

IN no country of Western Europe has there been so great a severance as in England between the traditions of the older universities and the modern movement for scientific and technical education. Scotland has in this respect resembled the Continental countries rather than her immediate neighbour, in part because her universities are seated in the great centres of government and population, in part because of the smaller significance of Scottish religious and class distinctions. At first sight it might appear that in medicine and law, at any rate, the universities even of England retained some share of their historic control. Two generations ago, however, both at Oxford and Cambridge the faculties of medicine and law, before their late reorganization, had degenerated to almost functionless rudiments. The study of medicine had long been concentrated in the schools attached to the great Metropolitan hospitals, and the control of medical education belonged to the Royal College of Physicians and Surgeons and to the Society of Apothecaries. Oxford and Cambridge merely decorated with the degree of doctor those of their graduates in arts who had obtained a professional training elsewhere. In the case of law, a reason additional to that of distance

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from the Metropolitan courts helped to reduce the legal faculties of Oxford and Cambridge to insignificance. The Civil Law of the universities was distinct from the Common Law, so that except in two or three of the less frequented courts an Oxford or Cambridge degree in law came to be considered almost a disqualification for practice at the English Bar. Yet the four Metropolitan Inns of Court failed to use the opportunity thus offered to erect a legal university in London, an early and significant instance of the "practical" Englishman's distrust of academic training. The result has been to make the study of law rather empirical than liberal.

The almost invariable fate of privilege is to unite in opposition to itself movements of very different and not seldom of unsympathetic aims. Thus it has happened that in competition with Oxford and Cambridge educational institutions have arisen whose energy has been derived as well from Nonconformist disabilities as from the needs of scientific research. University College, London, founded on unsectarian lines in 1826, became one of the two constituent colleges of the original University of London, an institution modelled on the old collegiate type. King's College, London, and Durham University belong to the same epoch, and were intended as defensive outposts of the educational system of the Established Church, thus accentuating the Nonconformist complexion of their unsectarian competitors. A different balance of studies came very naturally to be associated with this religious distinction, for while

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one group of subjects had been welded, as we have seen in the last article, into an educational discipline for the ruling classes, another sprang from the daily work of the commercial and industrial classes. Notwithstanding the great contributions of mathematicians and philosophers such as Newton and Darwin, physical science has its tap-root in the practical arts. Chemistry came from the apothecary, and anatomy from the barber-surgeon, while of electricity it may be said that only a generation ago the knowledge of the workshop was more scientific than that of the professor's laboratory. Thus in a sense and in large measure it is true that the influence of the linguistic arts has permeated from the top downward, while that of the physical sciences has penetrated slowly upward. Not a little of the asperity of the conflict has been due to the social distinctions thus connotated by the rival educations.

The issue was definitely joined in the decade between 1850 and 1860. A series of noteworthy dates serves to mark the deployment of the order of battle. In 1851 the School of Mines was founded, which has ultimately become the Royal College of Science, the source of the rank and file of the science teachers of the land. In 1852 a school of design initiated some years earlier developed into the National School of Art. In 1853 the Science and Art Department was called into existence, and quickly devised the system of payment by results. In 1854 Huxley was appointed professor at the School of Mines. In 1858 the University of London

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was remodelled, and its function at once reduced and extended to the hall-marking of students trained in any school or none. Finally, in 1860, the degrees of B.Sc. and D.Sc. were established by the same university. Beside all this unrest must be set events of two very different orders, yet both potent for the same changes—the great Exhibitions of 1851 and 1862, and the publication of *The Origin of Species* in 1859.

As a natural result of this invasion of the territory of higher education, claimed but not effectively occupied in all parts by the older universities, Oxford and Cambridge were compelled to an effort of defensive energy. In certain respects they had already made some progress towards efficiency. The Honour Schools had been founded at Oxford in the beginning of the century, and the Cambridge Tripos a little earlier, but the alterations made as the result of inquiry by the Parliamentary Commissions appointed in 1850, in that they did not abolish religious tests and were in other respects to a large extent permissive, failed to save England from a dislocation of educational machinery which is only now being remedied. Neither the older universities nor institutions sprung directly from them wrested from the Science and Art Department the training of the science teachers, who through the medium of evening classes, and presently of higher grade elementary schools, became the leaders of the entire profession of teachers in elementary, continuation, and second grade secondary schools. Thus was

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initiated a wholly avoidable struggle for the control and inspiration of our intermediate education. On the one hand were the ancient universities, depositories of the great humane tradition which needed to be spread through the classes who had recently won for themselves a share in government, and, on the other hand, a numerous and highly organized profession, whose typical institutions were the London University and the Royal College of Science. Both sides suffered—Oxford and Cambridge by a partial exclusion from the national growth, and the science teachers by the loss of influences which should have secured for them adequate “secondary” preparation and helpful, because friendly criticism. The old universities were saved by the wealth which presently enabled them to bleed the new institutions of their best intellect by the offer of scholarships. Some effect may also be allowed to the magnetic power exerted through the medium of university extension and kindred movements.

In the last generation more institutions for higher and technical education have been founded than in any previous period of corresponding length in the history of England. We may, perhaps, distinguish three several movements in connexion with (1) the university colleges, (2) the technical colleges, and (3) the new universities. The first of the provincial university colleges was founded at Manchester by Owens in 1846, but for a quarter of a century it stood alone. In 1870, however, the Elementary Education Act was passed, and as a result of the stir thus produced,

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accentuated by the revelation of German efficiency in the great war, seven university colleges were established between 1871 and 1882 at Newcastle, Leeds, Bristol, Sheffield, Birmingham, Nottingham, and Liverpool. Two others have since been added at Reading and Southampton. Their origin varied in the different localities. At Liverpool it came doubtless from the desire to emulate the Owens College, Manchester; at Nottingham it was as the outcome of university extension lectures delivered in that town in connexion with the University of Cambridge. But however different their beginnings all the university colleges came to present certain features in common. With the partial exception of Newcastle they all of them prepared their students in the first instance chiefly for the University of London, but they all drew many of their professors from the old universities of Oxford and Cambridge. Exposed to the utilitarian atmosphere of the great towns around, freed from the bias of earmarked ancient endowments, and yet subject, especially in literary studies, to the competition of the Oxford and Cambridge endowments, they all of them developed mainly in the direction of the physical sciences. By reason of its relative wealth Owens College, Manchester, first approximated to a true university. In chemistry, to instance only one of its many studies, it became the leading school in the country. But, except in that instance, and perhaps in the case of one or two others, the university colleges remained weak until within the past decade. Though they repre-

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sented the vital idea of a society of teachers and learners, they failed in the country at large to supplant the sterile efficiency of the University of London and the Science and Art Department ; indeed, as we have seen, they were unable to decline the proffer of degrees from London and money from the Department.

We may perhaps associate with the movement of this time the growth of new honour examinations at Oxford and Cambridge. In natural science and law, it is true, they had been founded in the early fifties, but their influence on the general mass of students remained relatively small until between 1870 and 1880, when at both universities the school of modern history was separated from that of law. To-day there have been added to the older classical and mathematical studies as forces affecting great numbers of the undergraduates—at Oxford especially the school of modern history, and at Cambridge that of natural science. The demand for professors at the university colleges has probably stimulated the development of these schools, at any rate as regards the first class men. In the case of natural science the fresh impulse in the medical schools has affected still greater numbers.

The movement for technical education belongs in the main to the decade which followed the establishment of most of the university colleges. In 1884 came the report of Sir Bernhard Samuelson's Commission, and in the same year the opening of the Central Technical College at South Kensington. In 1888 was authorized the first Parliamentary grant for

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agricultural education. In the following year the Technical Instruction Act was passed, and finally, in 1891, the "whiskey" money was assigned to the County Councils for the promotion of so-called "technical" instruction. Many educational experiments have since been tried locally, and there has been much apparent waste of money; but it may be doubted whether the loss has been as great as that incident to the experiments of the centralized Science and Art Department, which affected the whole country. The most serious defect has been uncertainty of aim, owing to the prevalent ignorance of the principles of educational organization. Under the name of technical, and therefore, as was thought, immediately "useful," education a reluctant public has been induced to do much that was only too urgently needed for lower secondary education. But as a result of the constant misuse of the term for the purpose of construing an Act of Parliament it is only now beginning to be generally seen that the chief work in respect of real technical education is still before us, and that there is no short cut which shall omit general secondary education as a preliminary. None the less we have in such institutions as the Central Technical College in London, the Technological College recently opened at Manchester, the Engineering and Agricultural Departments of the University Colleges, and the Textile Department of the Leeds College the nuclei of a system which will grow with the increase of suitable pupils sent forward from the secondary schools. In the London School of Economics and the Com-

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mercial Department of the Birmingham University we have analogous institutions in the kindred but more nearly "liberal" sphere of commercial education.

We come lastly to the foundation of the modern universities. Of these, the first (if we omit Durham, already mentioned) was the Victoria University, founded in 1880 at Owens College, Manchester. In connexion with this university a significant step was taken in 1884, and again in 1887, by the inclusion in the former year of University College, Liverpool, and in the latter of the Yorkshire College, Leeds. A federal university was thus constituted, which in its nature transgressed the fundamental conception of a university as a local seat of learning and teaching. At the root of the policy was a certain timidity, a fear lest an increase in the number of degree-giving bodies should reduce the value of degrees. However natural the reluctance to risk a depreciation of the sacred letters, whose value is greatest among the imperfectly educated, we may yet easily pay too high a price for what after all is only a means to an end. Experience has already declared against such "abstract" universities, whether of the London or the Victorian type, unless as an intermediate necessity. The University of Birmingham has, therefore, been founded as a strictly local institution, the university organ as it were of the Birmingham community. The Victoria University appears to be separating into its component parts, each of which seeks to grow independently and spontaneously. The conditions of

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the Federal University of Wales, founded in 1893, are peculiar. An energetic nationalism has hitherto overcome the great difficulties of communication between the seats of the three constituent colleges.

Finally, within the examining University of London has arisen a new teaching university. The first of the London universities was collegiate, the second, which continues, was an examining university, the third is a teaching university, in the main of the collegiate type. The University and King's Colleges, the Bedford and Holloway Colleges, the Royal College of Science, the Central Technical College, the twelve Medical Schools, the School of Economics and the Wye College will secure for themselves under the new statutes examinations which shall follow on the teaching instead of leading and conditioning it. Yet until something in the nature of a "Quartier Latin" has been established in London, until the greater number of these colleges have been drawn together, so that the teachers and the students of the whole university and not merely of separate institutions, meet in frequent general intercourse, rather than in merely formal committees, a return will not have been made to the organic idea of a university. But, however illogical our compromises, there can be no doubt that the old and the new universities are gradually approximating to one another. The old universities have broadened their curricula and established "research degrees." It is to be hoped that they will shortly multiply the avenues of entry without rendering access to them unduly easy. The new universities

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are slowly acquiring the two functions, which Dr. Rashdall says have characterized every true university in history, of "making possible a life of study whether for a few years or during a whole career, and of bringing together during that period face to face in living intercourse teacher and teacher, teacher and student, student and student."

Notwithstanding all the shortcomings of a university without teachers and the corrupting influence of stipends assessed by examination marks, the movement of the fifties represented a new birth in educational method. As Oxford may be held typical of the old order, and Newman of its root idea, so the School of Mines was the cradle of the new order, and Huxley its great protagonist. To Huxley, therefore, we may turn for an authoritative expression of the new ideal, unmarred by the now admitted crudities of the London University and the Science and Art Department. Writing in 1892, when far removed from the mere accidents of the earlier controversies, he says: "Unless people clearly understand that the university of the future is to be a very different thing from the university of the past, they had better put off meddling for another generation. The mediaeval university looked backwards. . . . The modern university looks forward, and is a factory of new knowledge; its professors have to be at the top of the wave of progress. Research and criticism must be the breath of their nostrils." In another place he writes: "The chief business of the teacher is not so much to make scholars as to train pioneers. From this point of

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view the university occupies a position altogether independent of that of the coping-stone of schools for general education, combined with technical schools of theology, law and medicine." The views of men of the calibre of Huxley and Newman are, no doubt, ill-represented by the hard black and white contrast of short quotations, but there can be no question that, even when mellowed by ripe experience and removed from the bias of imminent conflict, these typical men saw the functions of the true university in very different perspective. To the one, research is of the essence of a university ; to the other it belongs to a university only in so far as the functions of an academy are likely to attach incidentally to an institution comprising many learned teachers. To Newman the formation of character in the ruling citizen is the sacred end, while to Huxley it is the power of winning new knowledge. But if with Huxley and his greater followers we emphasize the power of winning as opposed to merely learning the new knowledge, then the two ideals approximate, for both alike are concerned with the moulding of character and the acquisition of arts. In the one case, however, the ruler is the standard, in the other the pioneer. Neither can be spared by a nation that is at once imperial and industrial. The problem of this generation of Englishmen, to be solved behind the defence of an irresistible Navy, is to blend the two educations for the benefit of a posterity which shall maintain under new conditions the worth of the English leaven in humanity.

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III. The Present Problem

THE adaptation of the national system of education to the circumstances of a new age involves considerations of two orders—the one connected with the past, the other with the future. On the one hand, we have to remember that an educated man or woman is the product of assiduous effort on the part of parents and teachers extending over more than twenty years, and often of surroundings chosen by those who hold the purse for nearly ten years more. No single artist can hope to fashion the human material during the whole of this time. Therefore, whether we will it or not, the influences brought to bear on each fresh generation are compounded from many sources, some of them old and some new, which together constitute an educational system, tradition, atmosphere. “In the course of my long life,” said the Khalif Ali, “I have often observed that men are more like the times they live in than they are like their fathers.” Especially in matters of education is the individual initiative limited, whether of the parent, the teacher, or the statesman.

On the other hand, no fruitful change can be effected in such an essentially social matter, unless the repeated efforts needed to modify custom are guided by

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a consistent aim because inspired by clear ideals. The virtues of compromise are great in action, but in thought there must be harmonious symmetry or else confusion. The half-soluble question to be ever borne in mind, as we seek by the most various practical measures gradually to divert the momentum of the educational machine into fresh channels is this—What manner of men and women will England require twenty and thirty years hence?

Let the secrets of the future be what they may, there can be no doubt but that the nearest duty of a nation burdened with new Empire and strained by industrial competition is to impart a liberal education to a greater proportion of its number, and to make their technical equipment at once more exact and more resourceful. If Britain fails in the contests of the half-visible future, it will not be because the best products of her best education are inferior to those of Germany or America—for that they certainly are not—but because the great majority of her soldiers, civil servants, merchants, clerks, and artisans, whatever their advantages of character, are less professionally expert and less generally informed than are the ordinary people of certain other countries. As Professor Dewar—than whom there could be no more authoritative witness—has said: “It is in the abundance of men of ordinary plodding ability, thoroughly trained and methodically directed, that Germany has at present so commanding an advantage. It is the failure of our schools to turn out, and of our manufacturers to demand, men of this kind, which explains

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our loss of some valuable industries, and our precarious hold on others. Let no one imagine for a moment that these deficiencies can be remedied by any amount of that technical training which is now the fashionable nostrum. It is an excellent thing no doubt, but it must rest upon a foundation of general training. There are plenty of chemists turned out even by our universities who are full of formulae, can recite theories, and know text-books by heart, but put them to solve a new problem freshly arisen in the laboratory, and you will find that their learning is all dead, it has not become a vital part of their mental equipment." In the same strain another competent expert, Professor Perry, has written : " I feel sure that if the true meaning of technical education were understood it would commend itself to Englishmen. Technical education is an education in the scientific and artistic principles which govern the ordinary operations in any industry. It is neither a science nor an art nor a teaching of a handicraft. It is that without which a master is an unskilled master, a foreman an unskilled foreman, a workman an unskilled workman, and a clerk or farmer an unskilled clerk or farmer." To take only one field of action, we have lately seen what a small people with defensive opportunities can do in warfare when every member has an intelligent eye for the country, and is an expert shot and a horseman. Britain, with a relatively small population, but great geographical and historical advantages, may long preserve a lead in the world, but it can only be on one condition. Her people, man for man

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and woman for woman, whether leaders or rank and file, must be more than the equal of like numbers in other lands. To this end a prescient statesmanship must be directed which, while economical of all British advantages handed down with our established education—and they are great—shall spare neither vested interests nor sentimental bias in the single-minded effort to pass on to posterity a still richer heritage of human fitness.

The first result of such considerations is to emphasize the necessity of treating the education of the whole nation as a single problem. We are not concerned so much with the happiness or welfare of individuals—though we believe that on the whole it will certainly follow on the national welfare—and still less with that of particular social classes, but with the betterment of the race and the greater efficiency of the State. From this point of view our history has placed us in a peculiar position, for the ruling aristocratic and upper middle classes possess to hand a fairly consistent group of institutions and a curriculum harmonious within its limits. The private preparatory schools, the great public schools, and the colleges of Oxford and Cambridge, receive their boys from nursery to manhood, and shape them according to classical and athletic ideals. The English gentleman is the result. He has the defects of his great qualities, and we may perhaps trace them to the system under which he was formed. Neither conspicuous originality nor professional thoroughness are engendered either by the traditions of his caste or

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the atmosphere of his school. But for the purpose of maintaining the honesty, the energy, the discipline, and the honourable fellowship of a great ruling class it would be difficult to imagine any machinery more delicately adjusted to its purpose under the conditions which have prevailed during the last few generations.

The confusion which has now arisen is due, on the one hand, to the extension of the Empire, and therefore of the number of its administrators, and, on the other hand, to the progressive elimination of the unskilled from the commercial and industrial callings. The whole nation must now discharge functions for which a privileged class once sufficed. India, with its great Staff Corps and Civil Service, is already governed in the main by men drawn from the middle rather than the upper classes. The rising profession of engineers—civil, mechanical, and electrical—sprung in the mass from the lower and middle ranks, bid fair, by the virtue of the wealth they are creating, to become in no small degree the real rulers of the nation. Everywhere the retail middlemen are being left out, a class who—otherwise far removed—resembled the old country gentlemen in the unspecialized character of their education, such as it was. As a result of these changes a demand has arisen for secondary and higher education which the old schools, even with the addition of many new foundations of like type, cannot meet, partly because they are too costly for the great mass of the nation and partly because their curriculum, despite recent amendments,

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does not, taking the country as a whole, offer thorough teaching off the traditional lines. No one can pretend that the average "modern side" of a public school has an equal chance with the "classical side," or that a payment of from £100 to £250 a year is possible for all the classes on which the nation must now draw for men capable of skilled service.

As was shown in the last article, the earlier attempts to supply the deficiency failed to attain what was hoped of them, because they were unsystematic and often biased by jealousy, and because they lacked adequate financial support. The upholders of the classical system were therefore not convinced, and have frequently been thrown into reaction, while the advocates of newer systems have often lost the edge of their enthusiasm owing to disillusionment as to their efficacy. But in the circumstances these were the first conditions of reconciliation and of the ultimate fusion of warring ideals into a national policy.

Some progress, however, has undoubtedly been made in the direction of co-ordinating the institutions of the outer, newer zone, and of assimilating the newer and the older to one another. In the first place there is visibly forming a group of national universities, all tending in certain essentials to one type. They will all be located in single seats ; their examinations will follow the teaching, not control it ; research will be considered essential to the efficiency of the teacher and to the atmosphere of the place ; and, apart from local preferences, every serious study and every student adequately prepared, in no matter what

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subject, will receive their hospitality. Oxford and Cambridge have travelled in this direction by abolishing religious tests, by instituting schools of modern history and natural science, and by so far grafting the ideals of Huxley on to those of Newman that a beginning has been made with what are known as research degrees. Perhaps they may open their doors wider by abolishing the requirement of a smattering of Greek in their first examinations, and in so doing it may well prove that they have given new life to the classical studies by exposing them to a healthy competition. For those of the ruling classes to whom the liberal arts have a technical value Oxford and Cambridge are not likely to be deposed, at any rate in our generation. The new universities, on the other hand, are one after another retreating from impossible attempts to violate the essential conditions of a university. Birmingham, the youngest of them, has been founded under the influence of Mr. Chamberlain as a self-contained body, alike for the purposes of teaching and examination. As shown in the last article, the Victoria University appears to be breaking up, and is to be replaced in part by Universities of Liverpool and Manchester. The federal tie must necessarily continue in Wales and elsewhere for a time.

London has now a university within a university, a teaching university forming the nucleus of an examining university. With the growth of the internal section and the competition of the provincial universities, it appears not impossible that in the

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course of a few years the external section may atrophy, notwithstanding the number of examination candidates still attracted. Sooner or later, however, some attempt should be made to draw the chief colleges into a single quarter of the Metropolis. The teaching of some of the undergraduates may, perhaps, be conducted in outlying institutions, but London will not feel the full influence of a great university, a civic organ formulating the trend of academic opinion and bringing it to bear effectively on the general life, until the post graduate schools, the larger undergraduate schools, and possibly the library of the British Museum have been placed in juxtaposition. Only then will an academic society arise and an organized body of student life, only then shall we see the rich effect of a university on a truly Imperial scale stimulated by a vast practical world around, and reacting on it.

What is true of London is true also of the greater provincial centres. In each the technical college should be brought into the close neighbourhood of the university, if not amalgamated with it. Neither liberal nor technical education, if divorced from the other, can achieve full results. The same is the case in even greater degree of the technical training of teachers, and not least of the training of teachers for elementary schools. The universities of England must not be content until those who control the only education of the vast majority of the next generation are inspired by broad university ideals. No more dismal or narrowing system than that of the resi-

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dential training colleges could possibly have been devised. Students brought up in the same elementary schools and condemned to the same imperfect secondary education are isolated from their contemporaries, and left to companions with the same antecedents, limitations, ambitions, and destiny. If we must have denominational education, at least let it be given in sectarian hostels associated with the more invigorating atmosphere of the universities and university colleges. But in this matter there must be no falsity. It is a grievance of the National Union of Teachers that there are two columns in the register, one for primary and the other for secondary teachers. This is undoubtedly a wrong, for the national education is one, and a great career should be open to every teacher, even though he start in a humble post. The remedy, however, does not lie in the attempt to mask a real though deplorable difference. The King's scholars who pass from pupil-teachership to the training colleges are miserably prepared for a university education, and rarely obtain its full results. Not until pupil teachers are passed through good secondary schools, and so fitted to obtain benefit from a university, ought the removal of the line between the columns to be granted. Similar criticism would apply to a great majority of the students who pass into our technical high schools. Even the effort of the County Councils to give second grade technical education has been less effective than it should have been, owing to the inadequacy of the second grade liberal teaching.

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Our universities, university colleges, and technical high schools, if they are to be freed for their legitimate functions, must receive a supply ten times greater than at present of adequately prepared material. To this end much of our secondary education must be cheaper, and the curriculum simpler. Infinitely better than a smattering of five languages, such as is needful for a student of natural science at Oxford—Greek and Latin enough to pass “Smalls,” French and German enough to read the technical language of his subject, and English enough to convey formulæ to the examiners—would be a thorough study of one tongue, either dead or living, in addition to the mother tongue, so that a man may be really bi-lingual, have two modes of approaching ideas, and a certain suppleness of mind to be obtained, perhaps, in no other way. Such a one would usually win for himself whatever working knowledge of other languages might from time to time be necessary; he would have learned the universal laws of accurate speech. Add to this a fairly wide knowledge of English literature, not obtained incidentally to grammatical gymnastic, but from reading aloud when young with just emphasis and enthusiasm, and the new generation would possess a common ground of intercourse such as the fathers of the aristocracy found in the ancient classics. Some mathematics and a natural science learned practically, a broad outlook on things historical and geographical, and some rudiments of philosophical or theological teaching would be amply possible in such a curriculum. Other studies

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would of course be added for those who had the necessary time and brain, but they would be studies bearing on one another, so that the present system of pigeon-holing subjects would be abandoned, and much of the teaching might become incidental. The unswerving aim would be for coherency of mind and mental grasp.

It is essential, however, that the new education should not be in the nature of a "soft option" to the old. When well taught, Greek, Latin, and mathematics have been reduced by the experience of centuries to an almost perfect educational implement, at any rate on one side of education. The limitations of teachers of ordinary power are least important when working as mere wheels in the machine of a great tradition. Therefore the teachers on the modern side should, if anything, be more able men than on the classical, for they are called on to make a tradition, not to obey one. It is hence necessary that an undue proportion of the best material in the schools should not be diverted by social pressure and the attraction of scholarships to the classical side. To this end the State should insist that a larger proportion of the endowments must be used for the purpose of attracting to the newer subjects, with the direct object of tempering them as educational weapons, a larger proportion of the best brain of the universities. The great majority of the classical graduates of Oxford and Cambridge are ignorant of the physical science which is essential as the basis of any elastic skill in the technical arts. On the other hand, it is a con-

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dition of our national prosperity that the great body of our people should acquire that elasticity. The limitations of time demand that they should obtain the preliminary and indispensable liberal education in subjects which shall be basal for their later studies. As things stand at present we have a university aristocracy despising, and justly despising, the shallowness and crudity of much that has passed for scientific education; on the other hand, we have merchants and employers who more than in any other land suspect and depreciate education because their lives have no contact with the liberal antiquities, and they too often find the professors of the new knowledge academic and unresourceful. Let us cease to treat the student as existing for the sake of the university; let us shape our educational institutions and curricula according to a national policy of which education is but a part. In a word, let us ask what manner of man it is that as a nation we shall require a generation hence, and let us bend all advantages from the past and all present energy to the shaping of that man.

Two things are essential. In the first place the nation must learn to believe in education and to be proud of its educational institutions. Every local university must have its sphere of influence around. The university professor, the secondary head master, and the teacher in the elementary school must recognize that they belong to a single educational province of which the university buildings in the local metropolis and the associated technical schools

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are the nucleus. These must become the focus of local patriotism. But Oxford, Cambridge, and London will in different ways have an additional, an imperial value, and each other university will no doubt take the lead in some one or more specialized studies.

Secondly, it must be realized that nothing adequate can be done without the expenditure of much money. The end in view is the salvation of the State. Men equal to those who make fortunes in business or win historic renown in warfare or Parliament must be attracted to the teacher's chair. Something in this direction may, no doubt, be achieved by a greater economy. The system of our public boarding-schools is a wasteful one; in the main it is newer than is commonly recognized. The great bulk of the public schools have sprung into existence within the last fifty years, and in the process the old grammar schools have been ruined. The sons of the middle classes, formerly the leaven of the grammar schools, have now been boarded away, partly because the luxurious home has become unfitted for growing boys. But in the long run the classes whose homes are simple, who cannot afford £200 a year or more for each son, must in day schools of the first rank—of which a few already exist—obtain for a quarter of the boarding-school payments an education that shall prepare them for the highest university or technical training. Here lies not a little of the secret of German educational success. The effective and general education is in large measure incident to the simpler social life. It

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lies, as Mr. Sadler has written, "in the cultivated interests which distinguish so large a proportion of German homes, in the strong personal interest which parents take in the intellectual progress of their sons, in the plain living and high thinking which have fostered through so large a part of the German nation a reverence for learning and a readiness to make personal sacrifice for ideal aims."

The worst of the present Education Bill is that by throwing the cost of secondary education on the local rates at a time when these will be burdened to a considerable extent for the levelling up of the voluntary schools, it renders likely a long postponement of the measures for secondary and higher education which are essential to the right inspiration of elementary education, not less than to the efficiency of technical training. After all, secondary and higher teaching are national rather than local matters. The trained student passes in these days far from the locality of his training, and on this ground money from the central Government is even more justly spent on secondary and higher education than on elementary. Sooner or later it will have to be spent to a large additional amount, and every year now lost may have its disastrous effect on some vital struggle a generation hence. ●

THE NATION'S SERVANTS

THE NATION'S SERVANTS

By SPENSER WILKINSON

I. School Education of Army Officers

THERE is all the difference in the world between popular education and the national education, which at the present time is England's greatest need. The object which a generation ago the advocates of popular education had in view was to give every boy and girl a chance. That is a condition which ought to be fulfilled by any and every State or municipal organization of schools, and if there were a danger of its being neglected it could only be because the working men of England were unaware of the value of well directed schooling. The benefit to be expected from a system of schools is not and cannot consist in making life easier for any class of the community by lifting it into a higher class, for the majority of men must be workmen, and the number of those who can be directors of other men's labours, or can enjoy leisure from the possession of inherited wealth, will always be comparatively small. The stress of life at the present day is largely due to the competition

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between the inhabitants of one country and those of other countries, and it is of this competition and of the whole country as one of the competitors in it that we think when we use the word nation. For the purpose of competition there must be an organization, a division of labour, in which every one has his place. Thus the moment we adopt the nation's point of view we see that the all-important matter is the selection and training of the leaders. The vital matter for England at present is the choice and training of the men whose profession it is to carry on the nation's work in the various public or national services. In one sense, no doubt, we are all engaged in the nation's work, for the community requires the energies of its captains of industry and of its member of Parliament as well as of its professional paid servants. But certain distinctions may and, indeed, must be drawn. Our politicians, being unpaid, come almost entirely from the wealthy leisured class, and are, perhaps, for that reason sometimes forgetful that they are servants of the nation. The traders and manufacturers are thinking first of making their fortunes, and by too many of them the State and the school are valued mainly according as they help or hinder the process of getting rich. Traders, indeed, have begun to expect the State schools to supply them with skilled workmen, and a few of them, perhaps, are beginning to think that some improvement in schools might enable their sons to become better masters than they are themselves. The politicians seem to be too well pleased with themselves to imagine that a special

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education is needed for their own calling. The public would do well to consider whether it is still safe in the twentieth century to leave the supreme direction of the nation's affairs in the hands of a body of amateurs. However that may be, the public is undoubtedly concerned in the selection and the qualifications of the men whom it pays to serve it in its schools, in the great departments of State, and as officers of the navy and the army.

I have little sympathy with the indiscriminate attacks which have lately become fashionable on our military system and on the methods and results of the education of our officers. All-round abuse is a very different thing from criticism, of which the true function is to distinguish between what is good and what is bad, and where there are defects to ascertain their causes and the means by which they can be removed. The first distinction to be made is between the general education received by young men up to the time when the army takes charge of them ; that is, under the present system, when they pass into Sandhurst or Woolwich or join the militia, and the professional instruction which they receive from the time when their connexion with the army begins.

The officers of an army will always be drawn in the main from the wealthy and leisured class, for the service of the State is honourable and its attractions are therefore, to some extent, independent of pecuniary rewards. The general education of officers will, therefore, tend to be that of the class from which they spring. As a rule, however, clever and ambi-

tious boys are not tempted into the army. The reason is not far to seek. The boy of more than the average capacity expects and is expected to make a career, but until the other day promotion in the army was regulated on the principle of seniority tempered by influence, a method that makes the distribution of those great rewards which render a profession attractive a matter of mere good luck. Of late years seniority has been tempered by test examinations, by compulsory retirement of those who had survived without promotion, and by selection. Examinations are not satisfactory tests of an officer's powers, and selection, at any rate in times of peace, is a very dangerous method unless it is a part of a thoroughly-organized plan of training. Without that basis an officer's selection or rejection is apt to be the result of the perhaps accidental concurrence of two or three individual favourable or unfavourable opinions. At the present time the father of a boy of exceptional ability feels that if his son goes to the bar or takes up medicine, engineering, or trade his future success is reasonably assured. He cannot have that feeling if a son proposes to become an officer in the army. Accordingly for a long time to come the army will take from the public schools not the best boys, but the second best. Let it not be imagined that the second best boys in the school work are in some mysterious way the superiors of those who are above them in the classes. Undoubtedly character is in the long run more valuable than mere intelligence, and some dull boys have finer characters than some clever

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boys, but on the average and in the long run the boys at the head of a school who take the prizes and come out best in the examinations are the all-round superiors of the others, and beat them in character as much as in intelligence. All the expedients that have been proposed for allowing the results of examinations to be modified by other considerations, such as by marks for athletics or for character, or, as was recently tried by the War Office, for length of service in the militia, are illusory. They are so many devices to handicap the better boys, and are the expedients of wealth and birth to bar the way for brains and character.

The previous general education of officers of the army will be for a long time to come that of the ordinary public school boy, and not as a rule that of the special boy who is likely to get a university scholarship. If therefore it is desired to improve the general preliminary education of army officers, the proper method consists in taking the right means of improving the education given to the ordinary boy at an English public school. Those who have read the previous chapters of this volume can have little doubt as to how that must be done. What is required is to retain the valuable features of the public school system while strengthening those points where it is admittedly weak. The strong point of the public schools is the public life in them, the discipline, the games, the tradition of "good form." Its weak point is that they do not implant in the ordinary boy the love of knowledge, the love of learning, the will and the habit of self-education. The results are seen in

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the qualities of the British officer, who, generally speaking, has a personal hold over his men, a tact and judgment in dealing with them, which is perhaps possessed by the ordinary officer of no other army, but who is handicapped to a degree unknown in any other great army by the narrowness of his intellectual outlook. The ordinary British officer knows of his profession just so much as the regulations and examinations require him to know, and nothing more. The modern literature of his profession is utterly unknown to him. He is unaware that there is such a thing, and cannot imagine what concern it is of his. Even when he has a taste for books or for study it usually takes the form of a hobby unconnected with his professional duties.

The life of the public schools is more vigorous in the playing fields than in the class-rooms. At least there is a vigorous life, and there is a sufficient explanation for the diversion of the current from what should be its normal course. The boy is growing; all his powers are developing, and he takes delight in doing those things of which he is aware that they strengthen and expand him. His growing skill with the bat, the ball, or the oar gives him the delight of conscious power. He sees its relation to life; he thinks himself a better boy when he has learned to bowl straight. But the dead languages, to which most of his time in the class-room is devoted, have no visible relation to his own life or to himself. His struggles with Latin prose composition give the ordinary boy no sense of power, though the clever

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boy of exceptional literary talent does derive some satisfaction of that kind from his work, and sees it in one form of practical utility ; it may gain him a scholarship at Oxford or Cambridge, and so appeals to his ambition and to his desire to please his parents.

The first and fundamental reform needed in the public schools is to bring the instruction into direct relation with the boy's personality and with his life. He ought to feel that his lessons, as much as his games, are giving him powers and making a man of him. The beginning of his instruction in languages should be learning to speak, to think, and to express his thoughts, and until a boy feels that he can do this he ought not to be taken far from his mother tongue. The next step is to speak, to think, and to express thoughts in another living language, French or German. The teaching of arithmetic and other mathematical subjects, if it is so carried on that boys understand what they are doing, always carries conviction with it, because every boy sees that the power of calculation and deduction improves his equipment. What all boys revolt from is the mathematical lesson which they cannot follow, because the teacher does not know how to bring it home to their minds. Apart from languages and mathematics, which are instruments of knowledge, and of which a boy's want of appreciation is proof positive of his teacher's incompetence, the main business of education is to make the boy acquainted with the world in which he lives, to reveal to him the scope, the meaning, and the

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methods of those branches of knowledge which, when his education is completed, will be represented in his mind by the natural and the historical sciences. Of these sciences the school ought to lay the foundations, so that the boy when he leaves has a general, though not a minute, acquaintance with the workings of nature, with the process of history, and with England's place in the world. The English public school, which should be the gem in the national school system, ought to turn out all its boys not merely with the conscious pride of developed powers but with the sense that those powers are talents to be used for England's benefit, and that England has need of them.

The "national system" of the Education Act leaves the public schools altogether alone, which is, perhaps, a fortunate accident. If by some other fortunate accident a true educator should ever be placed in the post of Minister of Education he would ordain a leaving examination for every public school, to be conducted by the masters in association with independent examiners or inspectors, of which the purpose would be to ascertain to what extent the aims above set forth had been accomplished with regard to every boy. The condition of entry into the public service would be that a candidate should possess the leaving certificate of his school, in other words, that in his case the masters and the outside inspectors or examiners were agreed that the purposes of school education had been fulfilled.

II. Professional Education of Army Officers

IF an army is to be a healthy member of the body politic, an efficient national organ for national purposes, its officers must have a dual qualification. On the one hand they must be masters of their profession, and on the other hand they must be what are called "educated men." The best officers must be on the same intellectual level as the best men in the other professions and in public life. The men at the head of an army, the typical products of its corporate existence, ought to be intellectually and spiritually the peers of the leaders in other branches of life, living on what Matthew Arnold called "the first plane," and in touch with the movement of national policy, and of literature, science, and art. Only on the first plane can any man be a statesman, and unless the chief men of an army are statesmen a nation will fight its battles in vain. The battles may be won, but the fruits of victory will be lost.

This may appear at first sight an unattainable standard. It might seem to imply that every officer should be an Oxford first-class man before his professional training begins. But there is no necessary connexion between the university and the first plane. Only a few of the men who are on that level have

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followed the university path. The first plane is not reached except by the man who has thoroughly mastered his subject; who has concentrated himself during the best years of his life, from twenty to forty, on the effort to know and to do something as well as it can be known and done. In that process a man educates himself, for the labour involved in acquiring command of any branch of knowledge and action, two things which are closely intertwined, brings with it certain collateral results. The worker gets to know, as no one else ever knows, the difference between knowledge and ignorance, and in the process of learning in his own department he inevitably acquires a general insight into the nature of all other departments of life and of knowledge. These three qualities—the command of his own subject, the acquaintance with its connexions with other subjects, and the consciousness of the limits of his powers and attainments—are the marks of an educated man.

The business of educational institutions is to communicate the interest or impulse, to open the door and to show the way. All the rest is the man's own work. The school has done its duty when it has given its boys the will, the power, and the habit of learning. Whether for this purpose Latin and Greek or either of those languages should be employed, and what should be their position in the course, is a question for the schoolmasters, who, provided the end is clearly set before them, will be the best judges as to the means.

If the view here expressed is sound, the army

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authorities ought not to be allowed in any way to meddle with the schools. Their business is the professional training of the officers, who in what follows will be assumed to have received before they enter the army the benefits of a sound secondary instruction.

A true view of the professional training of the officer must start from its purpose, which is to qualify him to do his work in war and in peace. Here we must be careful not to be led astray by vague generalities. "An officer's business is war, and therefore he must qualify himself for his profession by the study of war." That sounds plausible, and has a superficial appearance of good sense, but is likely to mislead. There is no such thing as war in the abstract; there are only wars, and no two of them are alike. A particular war is managed by a particular general instructed to carry out the special views of the government which employs him. The ordinary officer has nothing to do with the management of a war, about which he is not consulted. His position usually is that he has to direct a number of men in carrying out certain routine duties in fulfilment of an order which he receives, and which, though he may have to interpret it, he must accept as an absolute imperative. Occasionally in war he is called upon to direct his men according to his own judgment of the situation in some small operation, sometimes alone, oftener as part of a larger body which he does not command and with the other parts of which he must co-operate. In peace he is largely occupied in

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teaching and supervising a number of men and in the routine work of administration. Occasionally he has the opportunity of rehearsing the part which he would have to play in a campaign or in a battle. Three-quarters of all that he has to do either in peace or war can be learned only by practice. Even in those departments of his work for the correct performance of which theoretical knowledge is required the knowledge must be of a special quality. It helps an officer comparatively little to be acquainted with the general theory of an operation. For the practical soldier's difficulty is not to know the theory, but to do the right thing at the right moment, which involves the correct application of the theory. The power of correct application is acquired only by long-continued practice.

For these reasons it seems to me a mistake to begin the officer's professional training by a college course of theories about his duties, for a theory that is of value for practical work must have its roots in thinking over the practical difficulties with which a man is acquainted. The beginning is practice, without which the theory is unintelligible. Accordingly, I should begin the training of a young man destined to become an officer by putting him as a private soldier in the ranks, and after a few months, when he had passed through the private's course, I should make him a non-commissioned officer. The practical experience which he would thus have gained would be the best preparation for a college course. In the military college only a small portion of his time and

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energies need be absorbed by the lessons which would lay the basis of his military education. The theory of military law and of military organization and administration presents no difficulties whatever, and can be mastered in a few weeks. Map reading is also easily acquired, and even so much topography as will give the young officer the necessary facility in dealing with maps represents a very modest effort. The principal subject of military instruction at this stage should be the nature and mechanism of the detailed operations of war, the march and the camp or bivouac, with the precautions they involve, and the fight. Round this tactical instruction all the other military lessons should centre. But these courses at this stage cannot be profound without giving the young officer a burden of theory heavier than he can digest, and going beyond what for some years to come can be brought into direct relation with the everyday work of his rank. The object should be not to load him up with erudition or theoretical ballast, but simply to make quite clear to him the principles underlying the organization and the tactical and administrative methods of the army to which he belongs. There is not in all this enough work to occupy a healthy and intelligent young man's energy for a single year. If, therefore, the young officer, after his year as a private and a sergeant, is to spend a year at a special college, the time should be utilized for such other lessons as will be useful to him in the future as aids to the more serious professional studies which should occupy the best years of his life. At least half the time at the

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college should be devoted to these lessons. I should put first practice in clear expression in English, without facility in which no officer whatever his station can be considered competent. Next, the further cultivation beyond what has been done at school of French and German, the languages of modern military literature. Side by side with these linguistic exercises should come the study of history, which at this stage should be general, not military. Military history cannot be profitably studied except by a tactician, and the officer who has not yet commanded his company cannot be a tactician, for he has had no practice. A knowledge of the history of England and of Europe, carried a stage further than is possible at school, is the best means not only of preparing the officer for his future studies of military history, but of opening his eyes to the national significance of the duties of his profession and of enabling him to grapple in after years with those relations between policy and strategy which are the essence of the statesmanship of war.

On leaving the military college the officer would be posted to his regiment, and to the regiment for the next few years his education should be entirely entrusted. The first duty of the officer commanding any unit, a battalion, a cavalry regiment, or a brigade-division of artillery, should be the instruction and general education of the officers of the unit. It should be his business not only to see that they do their work, but that they are students of their profession. He ought to cultivate in his regiment the

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practice and the study of tactics, and to establish the tradition that indifference in this matter is inconsistent with promotion. Here, however, the test of an occasional written examination is unsatisfactory. A regiment is a family where every officer's capacity and zeal are perfectly known. A competent commanding officer knows, or ought to know, exactly the qualifications of every one of his officers, and his annual reports, in the preparation of which he should be associated with two other officers, his next senior and his next junior, would give a perfectly trustworthy account of those under his charge. The annual report ought to be an official paper communicated to the officers of the regiment as well as to the higher authorities, but not published. It ought to be a service secret, but not confidential.

When the officer has passed through the regimental school, after a period of perhaps not less than five nor more than seven years, comes the next stage of his professional training. By this time, as a rule, it is possible for those entrusted with military education to select the men whose character and professional interest and ability fit them for a special course preparatory to the higher functions of command and direction. Here it is probably right that the regimental reports should be supplemented by a general competitive test, the examination for admission into the Staff College. This examination, in which the main stress should be on military subjects, of which the kernel will still be tactical, should test the power of expression both in English and other languages

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and the interest in natural or historical studies. It should be so conducted as to gauge capacity, intelligence, and judgment rather than memory. The work at the Staff College should consist mainly in exercises in applied tactics, including all that concerns the leading of troops in war, in the study of military history carried to the critical stage, in which the student must express his judgment of every situation by putting into writing the plan which he would himself have adopted in the circumstances, and in the study of general history or of those natural sciences of which the applications are useful to the army. A part of the historical studies should be carried on through the medium of a foreign modern language. A Staff College, the avenue to staff employment, should be under the supervision of the general staff, of which one of the duties is the advancement of military learning.

There is, however, no immediate prospect in England of the formation of an office corresponding to the general staff of a foreign army. The general staff in the principal armies of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries has had the twofold duty of collecting military intelligence and of issuing the operation orders of the general in supreme command.

is the combination in one office of these two functions that is the vital matter. In England every successive Secretary of State has absolutely refused to admit this combination. Yet until this step has been taken there is no possibility of a sound development of the higher military education.

III. Naval Officers

THE education of officers for the navy is perhaps at this moment the gravest unsolved problem which the nation has to face. The gravity and urgency of the matter arise from the fact that the efficiency of the navy, on which our national and imperial existence depends, is a question involving two factors: the professional quality of its officers and the excellence of its directing organization—the Admiralty. That the problem is unsolved is proved by the fact that all trustworthy unofficial accounts describe the system as hopelessly chaotic and ineffective. If any one doubts this proposition let him read the papers entitled “Education in the Navy,” contributed by Mr. Julian Corbett to the March, April, and September numbers of the *Monthly Review*.

The true solution will not be obtained except by observing all the conditions of the problem. We must consider the purpose in view, which is given by the qualities required in a first-rate naval officer; but we must also consider the true principles of education, which if we neglect all our schemes will be futile. Those principles I have tried to set forth in discussing the training of officers for the army. The first is that the lessons given shall both in the manner and the matter of the instruction so appeal to the pupil

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that he derives satisfaction from the exercise of his powers. The second is that the pupil shall be conscious of the relation between his lessons and his life. When the training reaches the professional stage the relation between knowledge and life, between the lessons given and the career, must be so intimate that knowledge becomes power, that theory and practice become as inseparable as soul and body.

What, then, are the kinds of knowledge and skill which the naval officer requires? He must be familiar with the sea and its ways, and with his ship and its powers. He must be a leader of men practised in the art of command. He must be a fighting man, a master of the tactics of fleets, and, when he reaches the highest ranks, with the strategy of the sea.

At first sight it seems as though there were so much for the naval officer to learn that he could never master it all, and this apparent difficulty is complicated by the demand on which all naval officers are agreed, that if boys are to be made into seamen they must be caught early. I think, however, that these difficulties are by no means insuperable, and without further theoretical prelude will explain the outlines of the system which seems to me to meet the requirements of the case. I begin by eliminating the public schools for three reasons. In the first place the public schools, probably rightly, base their training on, and give the greater part of their time to, instruction conveyed through the medium of the classical languages. I have no doubt whatever that

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there is no room for Greek and Latin in the education of the ordinary naval officer. Secondly, the strong point of the public school, in virtue of which it conveys so great a benefit on the ordinary boy, is its corporate life, its tradition of conduct and discipline. But this benefit the naval officer receives in a still higher degree from the service to which he belongs, and it is absurd to send him to the public school in order that it may do for him something which the navy will do far better. Last, but not least, the public schools do not at present establish that unity between the boy's lessons and his life, which is, after all, the great aim of school instruction. I believe that they are moving in that direction, and will soon move faster, but the needs of the navy are pressing; it cannot afford to wait for the regeneration of English secondary instruction. The navy, therefore, must take its boys at the age when they leave the preparatory school; that is, at twelve or thirteen, at which age the boys should enter the *Britannia*, or the school which represents the *Britannia*, where they should remain for not less than four years. Whatever the navy requires for entrance to the *Britannia* the preparatory schools will do. There are no schools in the world where boys are better looked after or more carefully taught. In the preparatory schools for the navy there should be no Greek or Latin. The boys should be taught the humanities and the arts of expression through the medium of English, French, and German. If Greek and Latin have been eliminated the boys at twelve or thirteen should be able to

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express themselves in English as well as in French and German, and should have a fair knowledge of the outlines of history and geography. They may also be well grounded in mathematics and the studies of nature, and have acquired the beginnings of manual skill with the pencil and in the carpenter's shop. No one who is acquainted with Mr. Sadler's special reports on the preparatory schools will be disposed to think that these are excessive demands. The programme just sketched is lighter than that now not uncommonly carried out with success.

The school corresponding to the *Britannia* should continue the general training of the preparatory school side by side with studies that should lay the foundation of subsequent professional work. English studies and French and German should be continued. Mathematics should be carried to the point when it becomes a useful instrument for the physical and mechanical sciences into which the nature studies of the preparatory school will now develop. The main business of the naval school should, however, be to transmute knowledge into power, to identify theory and practice, so that there may be established in the boys that unity between knowing and doing which distinguishes the artist from the professor, the master craftsman from the rule-of-thumb workman. It is this close association between knowing and doing, between theory and practical skill, which is the quality we admire in our best naval officers, and of which we regret the rarity in the army, where it too often happens that one set of men have professional learn-

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ing without practical ability, and that others learn their duties as mere routine, uninspired by methodical knowledge or thought. The naval officer must be a seaman and an engineer. The boys must, therefore, spend part of every day either in the engine-room or on the water. The school must have its sailing boats, its steam launches, and its engines, and all these the boys must learn to work. They must also learn navigation, nautical astronomy, the nature and use of charts and the physical geography of the sea. With tactics, strategy, and naval history they need have nothing to do. Of these things they cannot before they have lived on ships of war acquire real knowledge, and it is a violation of sound educational principle to allow a boy to pick up a smattering of any subject. Boys between twelve and seventeen delight in boats and engines, and the *Britannia* ought to have no difficulty in turning out its pupils first-rate boat sailors and familiar with the nature and working of the best modern engines and machinery.

At sixteen or seventeen the boys will leave the *Britannia* and become midshipmen. They should then be sent to sea, not in classes under naval instructors, but as assistant officers. They must learn their duties by practice, passing in turn through every department of the ship. They should remain at sea, of course with occasional furloughs, for five or six years, during which they should be posted in turn to the engineering, the navigating, the gunnery, and the torpedo branches. There should be on the ships no

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pretension of lectures or classes, each midshipman being under the supervision of the lieutenant above him in the department in which he is acting, so that he will acquire a practical knowledge of his duties by doing them.

At the end of six or seven years the young officer will have thoroughly learned the practice of his profession, and will be ready to benefit by a course of theoretical study. This is the time for him to spend a year or more at an officers' college, where he should learn the theory of naval war. Here the instruction should be chiefly tactical, the students being already familiar with the sea, with their ships, and their weapons. The business of the college will be to set them thinking, in accordance with the best inspirations of the tactical thought of the time, about the use of ships and weapons in all combinations for the attainment of victory. In connexion with these tactical studies they would be encouraged to examine some of the great naval campaigns of the past and to read the not very extensive literature of naval strategy. The college should also devote something like an hour every day to one or more modern foreign languages, as a guarantee that the facility of reading and of speaking acquired during the earlier course should not be lost.

I am strongly inclined to believe that up to this stage the course of training should be alike for all naval officers whatever, and that there should be in the junior ranks no separate engineer branch, but

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that every officer should pass through the engine room as a matter of course. Differentiation might begin after the officers' college had been passed, when, if it is really necessary, there might be a choice, which, however, I should not make irrevocable, between the different branches: engineering, gunnery, torpedo, navigation, and staff. This choice might, however, be made on entrance to the officers' college, for tactical and kindred studies would not for a year fill up the time of the students; so that the college might very well take up side by side with its instruction in the theory of war the practical and technical instruction for all the different branches. In that case, those who most distinguished themselves would be noted for staff employment. I am not sure whether it would be thought desirable to prolong the college course or courses for more than a year, in view of the exigencies of service at sea, and I therefore make no specific suggestions for the higher training of staff officers. The navy would make a great mistake if it imitated the army by first creating a Staff College and afterwards creating, or neglecting to create, a general staff, or, as some people call it, an admiral staff. The natural order is first to organize the general staff, and for that staff when in working order to select and train its own officers in its own way.



The Teaching of Modern Languages

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