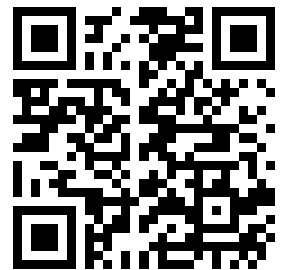

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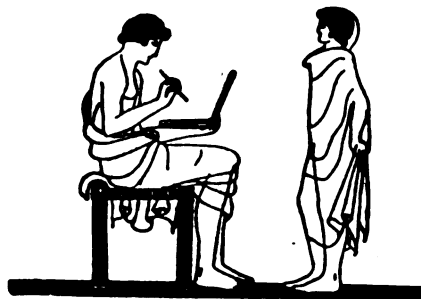


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THE EDUCATION OUTLOOK

JANUARY, 1931.

EXAMINATIONS.

For upwards of two years a Joint Advisory Committee of the National Union of Teachers and the Association of Education Committees were engaged on an inquiry into the use of examinations for pupils attending public elementary schools. The Committee was fortunate in securing the help of Sir Amherst Selby-Bigge as Chairman, and under his guidance it proceeded to consider examinations in the threefold aspect—namely, as a means, supplementary to inspection, of ascertaining the quality of instruction; as a means of ascertaining the capacity of individuals for different forms of advanced education and of selecting those to receive it; and, finally, as a means of ascertaining and recording the progress of individual pupils throughout the school course, and their attainments at the end of it. The Committee was also asked to consider how the two constituent bodies might co-operate to regulate the use and prevent the abuse of such examinations.

Early in December the Report was issued. The National Union of Teachers gives it a benediction, but the Association of Education Committees merely commends it to the careful consideration of its members. Such consideration it deserves from everybody who is interested in education. Although the inquiry concerned examinations in public elementary schools, the conclusions apply to examinations in other fields. Especially useful is the Chairman's note in the preface, where he reminds us that teachers have had a large share in shaping and working the examination system as it is, and that its defects and vices cannot all be fairly ascribed to alien powers of darkness. He says rightly that the reform of the system, the diminution of its burden, the elimination of the defects and mischief of "externality," and the progressive improvement of technique, are not simple matters. Reform calls for an unprejudiced and constructive joint effort by all concerned.

It is useful to be reminded that examinations in their present form originated with teachers. The first external tests were those imposed by the College of Preceptors as a means of providing for private schools some guarantee that they were successful in imparting knowledge. Soon afterwards came the Oxford and Cambridge Locals, while in the public elementary schools there was developed the system of individual examinations with payment by results. The Locals brought money to the Uni-

versities, and payment by results brought it to the elementary schools. Teachers were absolved from the professional duty of considering what they should teach, and even their method of teaching was largely determined by the syllabus and by the views of remote examiners. So the system of external examinations fastened itself on the schools like an octopus, and despite many improvements the effects are still to be seen.

The Report of the Joint Advisory Committee costs 2s. 6d. in paper, or 3s. 6d. in cloth covers. It may be obtained through The Schoolmaster Publishing Co., 3 Racquet Court, Fleet Street, E.C.4, and it merits the careful attention of all teachers. The main recommendations have a general application apart from the scope of the inquiry. Thus, the Committee deprecates any attempt to combine an efficiency examination with a selective test. This view applies to the prevalent practice of using the School Certificate Examination in secondary schools as a Matriculation test for the universities.

Again it is urged that reports on schools by Government inspectors should be regarded as confidential to the school authority, but if any such report is published it should be given in full. Teachers should be permitted to see the report and to obtain a copy of any passage which contains adverse comments on their own work. We should have extended this suggestion to favourable comments also. The Committee favours internal examinations; and the keeping of a school record for every pupil, and recommends that reports should be sent to parents at least once a year. Any general scheme of leaving examinations at this stage is condemned as being likely to hinder rather than help the development of selective senior or central schools. It is stated that a modified external examination conducted in co-operation by the official staff and the teachers will furnish the best means by which a Local Authority can select pupils for advanced instruction. Such an examination will include papers in English and arithmetic, and guarded use will be made of group intelligence tests. Oral tests will be used only for border-line cases.

All these recommendations are excellent so far as they go, but the first of the Committee's conclusions is the most important, for it urges the need for research into the technique of examining. The problem is to discover a method of examination which will help and not cramp the work of our schools.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS.

FROM A CORRESPONDENT.

Progress of Registration.

The campaign in support of Registration, recently undertaken by the Executive of the National Union of Teachers, is having excellent results on recruiting, and apparently the instalment scheme authorised by the Council is proving helpful to young teachers. This scheme is extremely simple in operation and provides for payments being made, either direct to the office by individuals or through secretaries of local branches of any association of teachers. It should be noted that the scheme applies to all types of teaching work and has not been devised solely in connection with the N.U.T. campaign. It may be surmised that in every branch there are some teachers who would find the instalment scheme convenient.

It is, perhaps, important to remind ourselves that the main purpose of Registration, as seen by those who took part in the establishment of the present Register, was to secure the "unification of the teaching profession." These words are not a mere flourish, but represent a definite purpose. It is a purpose which cannot be achieved rightly by any administrative device working from outside. It must be the result of a genuine desire among teachers themselves to break down artificial barriers in their own calling.

Artificial Barriers.

These barriers are, to some extent, disappearing with the development of our educational system. Bridges are being thrown across the gulfs which formerly separated the elementary school from the secondary school, the secondary school from the technical school, and the technological institute from the university. We are coming to recognise that the educational method is to consider stages apart from the social standing of parents. Thus we have the nursery stage, up to five or six, followed by the primary stage from six to eleven or twelve, and the secondary stage from eleven or twelve to eighteen. The primary stage falls into two divisions, junior and senior, and so also does the secondary stage, while the latter is followed, in turn, by the third stage of technological or university training. From the educational point of view efficient teachers at each stage are doing work of equal value to the community, and although it will be a long time before this truth finds itself reflected in rates of pay and conditions of work, no one can doubt that the time will come when we shall cease to regard a university professor as being more important educationally than a competent kindergarten teacher.

Examining Boards.

One of the most urgent and difficult problems before the Council is that of determining the standard of attainment to be demanded in certain subjects which have hitherto been on the fringe rather than on the inside of the recognised curriculum. Teachers of music, art, handwork, physical training, and commercial subjects have been greatly handicapped in their preparation by the uncertainty as to which of the many diplomas available will prove to be useful in obtaining a post. The Council has recommended the establishment of Joint Examining Boards as a means of doing away with the existing competition between reputable examining bodies, and, what is perhaps more important, as a means of curbing the activities of certain bodies which conduct examinations for private gain and reap a rich harvest in fees paid by ambitious but unwary aspirants for diplomas. It unfortunately happens that, even where established degrees and reputable diplomas are available, some teachers are tempted to expend money on worthless substitutes. Thus there is an institution in America which calls itself a "university" and sells degrees in this country. The degrees are not recognised in the United States, but a number of teachers here have fallen into the trap, and it often happens that the Council has to remind these victims that their money has been wasted.

"Codes of Conduct."

It frequently happens that teachers write to the Council describing practices which they hold to be undesirable and asking that the Council should make regulations to prevent Registered teachers from adopting them. Among these practices is one which concerns the undue use of advertisement and what may be called "touting" for pupils. It is obvious that such conduct is greatly to be deprecated, but to forbid it expressly and in a code of professional conduct might suggest to the public outside that teachers as a body are imperfectly informed as to the standards of decent behaviour in general. There are things which must be taken for granted as part of the code of all right thinking men and women, whatever their calling, and devices to attract pupils from other teachers or attempts to delude the public by flaunting advertisement are outside the category of good conduct in general.

The Council has a strong Committee of Inquiry, and this body is prepared to inquire into any well-grounded charge against a Member of the Royal Society of Teachers, without, at this stage, attempting to formulate a detailed code of professional conduct.

THE MONTH'S CAUSERIE.

By THE DOMINIE.

September, 1932.

The President of the Board has been driven to announce that the school age will not be raised in April, 1931, as he had hoped. His proposals are still before the House of Commons, but the Bill, when passed, will not come into operation before September, 1932. This postponement brings disappointment to many supporters of the measure, but it has the advantage of giving to the local authorities more time to make the necessary arrangements. These include the provision of suitable buildings, as well as the engagement of suitable teachers. On the latter point the postponement may involve some trouble as a number of teachers will be leaving college this year in the hope of gaining immediate employment, such as they would have obtained had the school population been increased as was contemplated. It is to be hoped that adequate efforts will be made to place these young people in posts without delay, for if they are allowed to remain unemployed for any considerable period, the effect on future recruiting may be disastrous. That their services can be utilised will hardly be doubted when it is recalled that we have still over 10,000 classes in our elementary schools with over fifty pupils on the register. The prospects of the Bill becoming law are not good, since the Roman Catholic representatives in Parliament are threatening opposition if building grants are not given to their schools.

Teacher Supply.

The problem of securing an adequate supply of teachers remains to be solved. The gravest handicap of our elementary school system and the main cause of its defects are to be found in the fact that nearly 50,000 of the classes contain between forty and fifty pupils. Of these by far the great majority are, of course, to be found in urban areas. Thus, in rural districts we find only some 5,000 classes which number over forty, whereas in urban areas the total is nearly nine times as great. It is manifestly expensive to staff rural schools, and our practice has been to utilise mass methods in town schools by way of compensation for having small classes in village schools. The result is that town teachers are often unable to give proper individual attention to their pupils, while village teachers are oppressed at the number and variety of subjects that they must take. To solve the problem on right lines would call for an increase in the number of teachers, apart altogether from that which will be required when the leaving age is raised.

Private Schools.

The President of the Board has formed the promised Departmental Committee to inquire into the private schools question. Apart from a few of the members, the Committee may be described as being completely disinterested, but I hope that this does not mean that it is ill-informed. The Director of Education for Southend has recently said that in that comparatively small town there are over fifty private schools which are attended by some 5,000 children. To estimate the number of private schools in England and Wales is difficult, but we know from the census returns that in 1921 there were nearly six and three-quarter million children between the ages of five and fourteen, and that only five and three-quarter million were on the roll of public elementary schools and state-aided secondary schools, leaving nearly a million to be accounted for. It may be presumed that of this number the great majority are attending private schools of one kind or another, and it is evident that the number of schools required must be very large. Many of these schools are extremely small, taking only a score or so of pupils, and I should not be surprised to find that we have 20,000 schools working outside the orbit of the State, as against 21,430 elementary schools under State control and 1,341 secondary schools on the Board's grant list. Few are aware of the magnitude of the Committee's problem.

Essential Factors.

It may be supposed that the inquiry will be directed towards discovering how far the private schools fulfil certain essentials, namely, that the buildings are healthy, that the curriculum is sound, and that the teachers are well-equipped for their work. Properly speaking, the first requirement should be the concern of the local health authority, which should be able to take proper precautions against placing children in rooms which are overcrowded, ill-ventilated, or otherwise insanitary. In practice, the curriculum will be found to follow very closely various examination requirements, but it may be found, in some places, that the amount of knowledge imparted is somewhat meagre. This is especially true of some small schools to which children are sent by parents who would rather have them cherished than taught. The essential requirement is that the teachers should be well-equipped for educational work, and it is in this regard that many private schools lag behind. They suffer increasingly from the competition of State-aided schools with their improved salaries and pensions, and find it difficult to secure well-qualified teachers.

Examinations.

On another page will be found an account of the conclusions reached by a Joint Committee of the National Union of Teachers and the Association of Education Committees in connection with examinations in elementary schools. There seems to be some evil germ connected with examinations which leads people to impose them from outside on the slightest pretext. Already we find that examinations are bulking largely in the work of the new central schools. In one city, at least, it has been a matter of boasting that the pupils in these schools have achieved remarkable results in matriculation tests, although it is well known that very few of them will undertake a university course. If this kind of thing should spread, the central schools will be diverted from their proper work and may become more or less feeble imitations of secondary schools, instead of being, as we had hoped, places in which the pupils receive an intellectual and social discipline different in kind but not inferior in essentials to that provided in schools which retain their pupils to the age of eighteen. The freedom and variety which are so often demanded by teachers and others interested in education cannot possibly be secured if our schools are to fall into the habit of regarding Matriculation as the proper end of their work.

A Question of Technique.

By far the most important of the recommendations of the Joint Committee to which I have referred is the suggestion that there should be an inquiry into the technique of examining pupils. This is a matter on which we know far too little for our present needs. The use of Intelligence Tests has revealed new possibilities, and although I would not make a final assessment of any child's capacity on the result of an Intelligence Test, I believe that the technique of testing offers many valuable hints to those who prepare question papers for written examinations. As things are, we tend to attach undue importance to the power of setting down answers in the form of essays. This means dreary toil for the examiner and involves much uncertainty so far as the candidates are concerned. It is possible to devise questions which bring out knowledge in a short form such as may be examined and assessed far more rapidly than the conventional written answer. Such shorter answers would allow more ground to be covered by the questions. The burden of the examiner's work would be shifted from the marking of answers to the preparation of questions. It is the latter task which is the more important, and it should always be undertaken in co-operation with teachers. It is possible to guard against special coaching on the questions beforehand.

Education in Russia.

The scientific correspondent of the *Manchester Guardian* has lately been making a survey of technical education in Russia. His report is extremely interesting, as showing the progress made during recent years. It is clear that the Soviet Union is bent on developing industry on a basis of science. Already, we are told, there are 188 technical high schools, with courses of university rank, and 663 day technical schools for students between fifteen and eighteen, together with 321 *rabfacs* or institutions for adult workers between eighteen and thirty. Altogether the report says that the present provision of technical education in Russia is more than twice as great as that of the whole British Empire, including India. The technical training is carried on in close association with factories, and the students receive regular wages. In practice this means that the institutions are monotronics and not polytechnics, as with us. Engineers from the factories teach in the schools, and students go to the town and factory where their particular needs can best be met. This attempt to bring together industry, science, education, and social life is a great experiment, only possible by reason of the widespread belief that the citizen exists only for the State. Whether it will succeed remains to be seen. Meanwhile it is being carried out with great vigour and with a lavish expenditure of money.

The Open Collar Question.

In one of the outer suburbs of London there is a pretty quarrel going on between a parent and a schoolmaster. The parent believes that his son's health depends on maintaining freedom of the throat, and therefore he sends him to school with an open-necked shirt, revealing a portion of the uppermost chest. The schoolmaster—good, earnest man—is offended by this display of moderate *décolletage*, and sends the boy home to have his shirt buttoned. The parent invokes the goddess Hygeia and declines to throttle his offspring, even though his open shirt is unconventional. What is to be done? The law requires that all children between five and fourteen plus shall receive efficient elementary instruction. It says nothing about the raiment in which they are to receive it. Nor do the regulations of the Board or the by-laws of the Local Authorities contain sumptuary rules. These are found only in some of our more high-toned preparatory schools, and in such institutions as Eton, Christ's Hospital, and Dartmoor, where there are good reasons for demanding uniformity of costume. It might be suggested that in day schools the parents may be left free to decide, within the limits of decency and good taste, what their children shall wear.

THE PROBLEM CHILD AND THE SCHOOL.

Modern educational theories revolve about two basic conceptions—that of “individuality” and that of “sociality.” It is true that some writers attach greater importance to the cultivation of the child’s natural gifts and proclivities—the fostering of its individuality—while others exalt the socialising function of education, the training for social competence which it provides, as its primary ideal; so that the two conceptions often seem to be diametrically antithetic. Closer examination, however, both of the writings of leading theoreticians like Dewey and Nunn, and especially of the concrete applications of theory, show that the two conceptions are mutually complementary, being really the opposite ends of a “scale” of “individuality-sociality.” Thus the theoretician who talks of character training as the aim of education means by this the achievement of a just balance between “individuality” and “sociality,” the best intermediate point for a particular child upon the “scale,” as it were. The teacher, too (unless he is a crank), is in practice willing enough to respect the individual interests and capacities of his charges, but at the same time insists upon due acceptance of social values, and adequate self-restraint in the interests of others, on the part of his pupils.

With this dual interest in the fostering of individuality and the training for social efficiency, the educationist has, first, come to realise the necessity of building programmes and methods upon scientific knowledge about the growing child; and, secondly, has found himself compelled to be concerned with the life of the child outside of school, which contributes so much to the formation of his character. As a result, our educational system, originally devoted merely to the inculcation of certain skills and information, has become one of the fundamental social institutions of our era, occupying a rôle in the entire life of an individual such as never before in history. It not only controls his formative years from the time when he first becomes articulate, in respect of the skills and information modern civilised life demands, it now supervises his health during that period, and to an increasing extent his recreation; it often provides him with the urgent necessities of life; it creates a suitable environment for him if he is physically or mentally subnormal; it is rapidly beginning to regulate his whole career by finding a vocation for him. (Cf. the leading article in *The Times Educational Supplement* for August 30 last.)

In consequence of these trends, it happens that educational circles are now more than ever alert to problems of individual idiosyncrasies and their connection with the growth and *milieu* of the child, and to advances in the technique of dealing with

them. Of such advances, one of the most recent and interesting (and one to my mind fraught with immense possibilities for education) is the Child Guidance Clinic. Though comparatively rare in this country, Child Guidance Clinics have already attained the status of public institutions in the United States. An excellent account of such a clinic will be found in an article by Drs. E. Miller and N. Burke in the “British Journal of Medical Psychology,” vol. 9, part 3, pp. 218ff. The advance that this movement represents upon previous endeavour in this direction is that it goes further than concern for *physical unfitness* to cope with modern life, or for mental *subnormality* like mental deficiency. It draws attention to the need for considering also mental idiosyncrasies and *abnormality* if education is to succeed. Its medico-social bias sometimes obscures the real importance of this work for the schoolman. This importance becomes evident, however, as soon as it is considered that the essential problem of the Child Guidance Clinic is the achievement of the best equilibrium between “individuality” and “sociality.” The Clinic’s patients are all school children who show symptoms of maladjustment—the so-called “problem” or “difficult” children. A problem child is distinguished by the fact that he in some way falls short of the demands of his environment, or, better still, of part of his environment. Sometimes this inadequacy manifests itself at home, sometimes at school, and sometimes simply in the child’s social relationships with other children. It may be that the child fails to live up to certain moral conventions, such as the sanctity of private property, or he may offend certain social susceptibilities (e.g. he may suffer from enuresis), or he may prove incapable of acquiring certain techniques necessary for adequately responding to his environment (e.g. he may be scholastically retarded). Clearly, such deficiencies can be generalised as absence of a just balance between individuality and sociality. Sometimes they are due to inherent defects of the organism, such as lack of intelligence, or emotional instability. While provision is made in our educational system for the discovery and correction of analogous *physical* defects, so far none has been made for these defects on the mental side. The Child Guidance Clinic endeavours to fill this gap to some extent. On the other hand, the trouble may originate in the environment. Poverty or disharmony in the home may lead to mental conflict in the child, and so to a social conduct; there may not be sufficient facilities for play and recreation; or the child may be unhappy in school owing to his incompetence, or to lack of sympathy and encouragement from teachers and playmates. Such

difficulties, too, we have no means of coping with in our educational system, and rely, therefore, upon the empirical efforts and goodwill of teachers, care committees, and so on. Here, again, the Child Guidance Clinic supplies expert knowledge that fills a gap.

Here the practical teacher may interpose, "But what has all this got to do with my specific task in the classroom?" And yet it undoubtedly has direct bearing upon the teacher's practical work. First of all, the detailed psychiatric, psychological, and social study of each case made in the Clinic gives the teacher a mass of information about a particular child which is of immediate use in dealing with that child. Such information not only assists the teacher in his task of inculcating the knowledge and skills prescribed by the curriculum, it also enables him to make a greater contribution to that "training for life," that "moulding of character," which is the goal of modern education. Moreover, the understanding of the personality of one child often leads the teacher, who is concerned not with a single pupil but with a whole class, to observe and try to check incipient maladjustment in other pupils. The teacher is bound, as a result, to become more critical of his own methods of teaching, and to realise more than ever his rôle in the character-training of his charges.

Nevertheless, it may be urged that most of the difficulties of problem children do not arise in the classroom, or even in the school, and therefore do not concern the teacher. Child Guidance work has emphasised the error of this view. For, however unconnected with school the causes and manifestations of the difficulties of a problem child may be, they have a profound influence upon his entire conduct, and therefore upon his school life, which, after all, occupies the major part of the day. This comes out vividly in the clinical study of scholastically backward children.

The backward child, whether he be generally retarded or retarded in one or two subjects only, is one of the sorest problems of every teacher. How often is the teacher almost driven to despair when he sees all his skill and effort apparently making no impression? Retardation is frequently due to sheer innate deficiency, which the teacher may suspect, but cannot always demonstrate. In the Clinic the child of low-grade intelligence is picked out by means of mental tests, and special provision may be made for his instruction. But in a large number of cases backwardness does not seem to be due to intellectual incapacity, especially backwardness in one or two subjects. It has been found, for instance, that a child referred to the Clinic for backwardness may with equal likelihood have an I.Q. of 110 or one of eighty, and of the backward children examined in the Clinic, as many have I.Q.'s above

100 as below 100. A patient backward in one subject only may be found to lack a special ability for dealing with that subject (e.g. arithmetical or mechanical ability). But this is not of frequent occurrence. A large percentage of cases still remain who are normal or super-normal in intelligence, but backward in school.

Much light is thrown upon the problem by the detailed study of the child in the Clinic. Backwardness is then seen to be not an isolated difficulty or defect, but only one phase of a whole complex of interlinked difficulties, the nucleus of which often lies *outside the school*, in the home or elsewhere. Teachers will sometimes report of a certain case that his backwardness seems to be connected with his inability to "concentrate." Investigation then shows that this in turn is due to disharmony in the home, or to the frustration of idiosyncrasies which have nothing to do with school. In fact, it often seems as if backwardness should be looked upon as a significant symptom of maladjustment, unless intellectual deficiency is suspected—it occurs in more than twenty-five per cent. of Clinic cases. When the mental conflict, or the embarrassing environmental pressure, which forms the real core of the child's difficulties, is cleared up, it often happens that he begins to make great progress in school as well, though previously the best efforts have failed. In this connection, it deserves to be emphasised that cases in which backwardness can be ascribed to bad teaching are extremely rare.

Such facts link up fundamentally with the dominant trend of modern education. They make it clear that a child's progress in school depends intimately upon his personality as a whole (understanding "personality" as the resultant of all the child's experience of life); and this is to a large extent fashioned outside the school. They underline the extent to which every phase of a child's life is bound up with every other phase, for weal or for woe. They indicate that if education is to fulfil its obligations efficiently, it must extend its purview to the home and out-of-school life of the child, must aim at organising and co-ordinating *all* the child's activities and experiences, and not only those immediately centring round the school. They lend justification to the concern of educationists about the health, social conditions, recreation, and leisure activities of school children. Nor does this apply only to problem children in whom the tension of maladjustment has come to a head; for these do not form a class *sui generis*. They represent the extreme cases of disequilibrium between "sociality" and "individuality" from which every child at some time or another, to a greater or less degree, suffers, as Burt has pointed out ("The Young Delinquent"); and in every case this diminishes the child's capacity to acquire both the knowledge taught in school and:

the adaptive conduct essential for social life in general, which he learns out of school. To prevent this sort of wastage is the primary aim of the Child Guidance Movement; but it will never achieve this aim until it becomes incorporated in the educational system, as an integral part of it.

For the teacher, Child Guidance work has further important implications. If it is true that the child's progress in school depends considerably upon what happens to him outside of school, the converse is equally true. The teacher has, therefore, a significant rôle in the formation of the child's whole personality and the direction of his career. This is no mean responsibility, and it is well for teachers to be aware of it. Furthermore, Child Guidance promises to yield valuable knowledge of a more restricted sort as well for the teacher. As more and more clinical data is accumulated, and our knowledge of the personality of the child grows, it may be possible to build up a symptomatology of maladjustment which will enable the teacher to detect it in its early stages, just as many physical diseases can be detected and eradicated before their ravages have gone too far.

The above points could be developed at length, and with concrete illustration for which a large amount of material is at hand. However, I desired only to indicate the significance of the Child Guidance Movement for education. The tendency of contemporary educational legislation (*e.g.* the raising of the school-leaving age) is to place a greater burden of responsibility than ever before upon the teaching profession, and it behoves us, therefore, to be wide-awake to every scientific advance which can be of assistance in our work.

A Wren Building saved.

The Principal's House, St. John's College, Battersea, was designed by Wren. The Borough Council, who have acquired the college site for housing purposes, wanted to develop the whole estate, but the Minister of Health has made an Order for the preservation of the Principal's house.

Nelson's "House of History."

Messrs. Nelson have in preparation a set of four history manuals for senior schools and departments which will be known as "The House of History" and be arranged in four ascending "Storeys." The first two books will be ready shortly. "The House of History" is intended to follow Messrs. Nelson's Junior Series known as "The Foundations of History," and both series are under the general editorship of Mr. F. J. Weaver, of the Historical Association, and Dr. Richard Wilson.

LEGAL NOTES.

The Bill in Committee.

The Committee stage of the School Attendance Bill has increased the original two clauses to three, and Sir Charles Trevelyan proposes to add another. There is likely to be an addition to the schedule concerning maintenance allowances—the regulations instead of being merely laid before Parliament will require the specific approval embodied in a resolution of the House of Commons. One amendment has been firmly declined—the addition to the Bill of a clause enabling a Local Authority to grant exemption in certain circumstances.

One would have thought that a "consequential amendment" would have been one giving authorities the power to regulate the employment of children up to fifteen years of age. But this matter seems to have been overlooked when the first Bill was drafted, and though the Minister readily agreed to accept a Labour member's amendment having that object, the Chairman agreed with Sir D. Herbert that it was outside the title and scope of the Bill and therefore out of order.

L.C.C. v. Maher.

In face of the refusal of the Minister to give any general powers of exemption, and the repeal of Section 46 (3) of the Act of 1921, there does not seem much foundation for the hope expressed by one writer, an ex-inspector of schools, that a way of evasion may be found under Section 49. He argues that the three "reasonable excuses" therein mentioned are not exhaustive. No one supposes they are; the Courts long ago decided that. But he attempts to draw some support for his view from a consideration of the judgment of the Lord Chief Justice in the case *L.C.C. v. Maher*; a note on which appeared in this column in the issue for June, 1929.

As the age of fourteen approaches, the possibilities and advantages of employment increase, and it is easily conceivable that a boy or girl may be incapable of receiving benefit from a further year's stay at school. But few magisterial benches will take upon themselves to find a "reasonable excuse" in the child's occupation for non-attendance at school. In *Maher's* case the child was deaf and there was no school for deaf children within the statutory distance of the child's home. In cases of the kind contemplated the law requires efficient elementary instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic. No by-law can repeal that obligation on the parent. Even under the existing law exemption from the obligation under by-law is only given in the case of specified occupations, and no parent, unable to bring himself within the dispensation given by Section 46 (3), could attain his end by calling in aid Section 49.

UNIVERSITY ENTRANCE TESTS.

There was published in the *Universities Review* for October a Report on "Entrance Tests and Initial Degrees." It has been prepared by a Committee of the Association of University Teachers and adopted by the Council. With every wish to treat the document with the respect due to its sponsors, the temptation to rail at it grows with each perusal.

There is no summary of the Committee's recommendations, proposals, or opinions, but they seem to amount to this: The present system of Matriculation is unsatisfactory, for the earlier qualifying examination is too easy: the later one too hard. They therefore recommend something different. The words "easy," "hard," and "different" do not appear in the report, but they serve as an aid in following the argument, which is not easy to track. It is well to bear in mind the caution emphasised by the writers, that "Matriculation is essentially entrance to a university, and that the name is wrongly applied to a certificate examination taken by many who never enter a university." The Committee seem not always to have borne the caution in mind themselves, perhaps because it crept in as an after-thought.

To pass the examination qualifying for Matriculation was once deemed a considerable achievement. "Since that time secondary education has been spread far more widely, and the qualification for Matriculation has been modified so that now the adequate knowledge for this purpose no longer offers valid evidence of preparedness for university work." Now what precisely does this mean? If "the qualification for Matriculation has been modified" in consequence of the spread of secondary education, how does it follow that the qualification itself offers no "valid evidence of preparedness for university work"? If we are meant to understand that the examination, success in which did once show preparedness, is no longer suitable for the purpose, the writers of the report have chosen a needlessly roundabout way of saying so. The obvious need is for a change in the method of testing the preparedness. Parents, students, and teachers have long recognised the need, we are told, and 50 per cent., and even 90 per cent., of the entrants at some universities "now spend two years at school after acquiring the legal qualification for Matriculation, and pass the Higher School Certificate examination three months before coming to the university." To put it another way: the minimum qualification demanded from Matriculation candidates—to wit, the School Certificate—is obtained at an age (sixteen) when no university will take them. Hence, says the report, "University requirements dominate the schemes" (for the School Certificate award) for a large number of persons

who will never enter a university at all. Even if this were true, it is hardly relevant to the main problem, but is it a fair conclusion? To some at least it would seem fairer to put the boot on the other foot, and say the School Certificate dominates the requirements of the university. It is easy to speak of "domination" when these matters are under discussion, but domination ceases to be an appropriate term when the primary function of the School Certificate examination is kept clear from the secondary purpose which it has hitherto served, namely a test of qualification for Matriculation as entrance to a university.

What, then, should be a reasonable test of fitness for university work? The present "legal" (why not call it statutory?) minimum is too low; the Higher School Certificate is becoming too specialised, and needs modification. The plan then suggested, and now approved by the Council of the Association, is this: to use the School Certificate examination not as a test of fitness, but as an aid—it will provide evidence of a satisfactory education up to the age of sixteen. Next must come a test at seventeen or eighteen, based on a modification of the present Higher School Certificate examination and including, as its one obligatory element, a test in the use of English; to these two shall be added "a certificate from the school attended by the pupil, giving guidance as to his powers and interests." If the Faculties make any special demands, *i.e.* introduce compulsory or quasi-compulsory subjects, the compulsion involved is not to apply to any stage beyond that of the test of a satisfactory education. Which means, it may be supposed, that if the Faculty of Law say the university demands a knowledge of Latin, then Latin shall be compulsory at the age of sixteen but not at seventeen or eighteen.

The second part of the Report is concerned with Initial Degrees. Briefly, the view of the Committee is this, and it is one which commends itself to common sense and is confirmed by common experience. The tendency has become strong to give honours degrees to the specialist; "but it is by no means to be taken for granted that the man with the capacity for broader work is inferior to the man with the capacity for specialisation." An Honours Graduate, therefore, ought not to be the exclusive description of the specialist, and the Committee recommends a wider institution of "general honours" as a denomination of certain degree schemes. There should be two types of courses leading to initial degrees; a more general course leading to a general degree; and a more specialised course leading to a special degree.

SHOULD EXAMINATIONS BE ABOLISHED?

By J. P. DU PARCQ.

How far is the underlying psychology of our educational system in need of emendation? This question is prompted by the sad fact that from time to time one hears of apparently promising school-boys committing suicide because of their inability to pass an examination.

An inquiry into the matter becomes all the more urgent when one remembers that almost all qualified persons who have given the subject of examinations serious consideration agree that our present manner of educating the young is very much in need of being remodelled. It is, however, possible to go very much farther, and to contend that it very often does more harm than good. What, then, should be its true aim, and why do we fail to realise it?

The fundamental error of modern education appears to result from the shallow belief that its function is to cram a child's mind with an indiscriminate mass of facts, and that this method best equips him to earn a livelihood, or, at least, must be persisted in mainly because it is one of the moral duties that the old owe to the young. Those who preach this view are strong in their support of the fallacy that the beginning and the end of all scholastic training is to turn children from creatures of infinite possibilities into mere money-making machines. The only culture such people seem to consider valid must have its highest reward in terms of coldly calculated gain. They appear quite incapable of understanding that education is merely a means of developing a child's personality, and of enabling him to adapt himself philosophically to life as a whole. It is, however, in this way alone that it should be understood. The final question concerning all human activity should always be: What relation has it to life, and what meaning has it for what is permanent in experience?

These questions cannot be given a satisfactory answer before we come to recognise that human personality is individualistic in character, and cannot, therefore, be explained in terms of a generalisation. Any attempt to do so cannot but end in disaster, for it will be certain to lose sight of the differences that, because they are of vital importance, ought to be given the separate and serious treatment that they deserve.

Examinations, without a known exception, fall into the profound errors we are now considering. They are neither sufficiently human in their aim nor sufficiently wide in their scope. Our educationists seem determined to fashion them in an academic spirit. The passing on of knowledge is usually the sole task that they set themselves. When they have performed it to their shallow satisfaction, they

usually leave the student to discover for himself how knowledge should be used in order to give it meaning.

Formal education has, probably, killed more persons of potential genius than we shall ever be aware of. The reason is that genius cannot be educated. All we can do is to give it an opportunity to educate itself. These remarks often apply equally to adults, for those beyond the adolescent stage are often too set in character to receive anything but injury from an educational system of coercive indiscrimination. The late Sir Sidney Lee was well aware of this truth, and recommended that certain senior students should not be forced to undergo an examination. It was his view that, instead of this usual procedure, it would be more trustworthy to judge them on the whole of the work they had done during the period of their studentship. Academic authority would not, however, concede the wisdom of this.

There can be little doubt that the unsympathetic methods of educational routine are repulsive to a student of sensitive and clear-cut individuality. Even though he may bear his burden with courage, he is almost certain to suffer intensely. In some cases the very source of his natural ability will be permanently repressed.

Our educationists must, therefore, alter their methods. When, for instance, an employer asks for an assistant, and when he has found one inquires as to the standard of his education, he does not really seek to discover what facts such a man has crammed into his head, but rather what value he is able to give them in terms of practical experience. All teachers should learn to understand this. Only when they have done so will they seek to develop the intrinsic value in each student's character, and will cease from destroying it with useless facts and useless examinations, which may lastingly impede his progress or may even destroy him.

The true aim of education is to bring out whatever is of innate value. Knowledge is but the means by which this end is achieved.

English.

POETRY SPEAKING FOR CHILDREN: Part I, The Beginnings: by Marjorie Gullan and Percival Gurrey. (2s. Methuen.)

This interesting little book is written by someone who evidently understands little children, and their love of rhythm, movement, and acting. Poetry learnt on the lines here indicated should be a joy to small folk.

A.

A FASCIST SCHOOL BOOK.

By F. J. GOULD.

One night, in 1926, I sat in a train near Assisi among a vivacious group of Fascists who had just been inspired by an open-air speech at Perugia by Mussolini. One of them carried an Italian flag—red, white, and green; and, wishing to improve the occasion more or less, I, in very fractured Italian, said (pointing to the white) "*Fedèle*," and the company smiled and said "*Sì*." And I touched the green and murmured "*Speranza*," and they answered "*Sì*." And I motioned to the red and whispered "*Amóre*," and they assented "*Sì*." I had, of course, easily caught my companions in the mood of Mussolini's *Totalitario*, or Wholeness; that is to say, a conception of the national life—from flag to family, and from army and navy to trade unions and universities—which allows no civic eccentricity, no Soviet blasphemy, no gypsy camp outside the walls. I am far from a Fascist, and it is now fifty years since, in a spiritual trek, I migrated a thousand and one miles from Canterbury and Rome. But, to my mind, crowds of smart politicians and journalists say entirely stupid things in criticism of Mussolini's Fascism. For myself, I am willing, as an ancient politician, to learn odds and ends from the Castor Oil Revolution of 1922, and from "*Il Libro della Terza Chasse Elementaire*," one of five short books just published by the Italian Government (Roma: La Libreria dello Stato. 455 pages. 11 lire. With several maps of Italy). The children who read this book are aged nine or ten. To them the bright illustrations, both coloured and black-and-white, and the style, chatty yet romantic, catholic yet jocular, will very directly appeal.

The sections are five: General Readings, Religion, History, Geography, and Arithmetic. It is understood that teachers impart all sorts of lessons associated with these themes; but the book acts as a sort of synthesis, or all-round glance at the school training for one particular year. I may say, in passing, that for English learners of Italian this manual (and no doubt the two preceding ones, which I have not seen) would form a very interesting basis. It is a boy's book, and I suppose the girls have a corresponding reader.

The very first page presents a coloured picture of a haymaker bearing his scythe at sunrise along a village street and past a church door; so the Italians catch the hint for both school and vocation. Portraits of four boys appear—Sergio, the normal and good-looking; Cherubino, the rather egoist but amusing; Anselmuccio, lame and witty; and a timid proletarian, Michele, who awkwardly wears his father's cast-off boots. In their company we travel

through a varied scenery—adventures in Rome, a circus, a spy episode in 1915, the farm, the sea, &c. And an admirably told wolf story winds up the first section with what is perhaps a political allegory; but the secret is not fully revealed, and the narrator smilingly remarks, "Perhaps 'tis a dream, even as all our life is a dream"—thus echoing the title of a famous play by Calderon.

Some fifty pages give conversations on religion, and repeat Biblical thoughts and stories of God, Trinity, angels, Adam, Lord's Prayer, Annunciation, Christ's mission, Passion, Devil, Resurrection, Ascension. In the midst of this history, and linked with Simon Peter, the foundation of the Church is announced, and a photograph of Pius XI graces a large page. "The Popes," observes the school book, "have been the pilots of the ship of the Church."

Passionate opponents of Fascism regard the ideas of Mazzini as very antipathetic to the manners and customs of Mussolini. But, in the section devoted to the "History" of the last hundred years, we meet the familiar figures of the uprising (*Risorgimento*)—Silvio Pellico, Ciro Menotti, Mazzini, A. and E. Bandiera, Mameli, Carlo Alberto, Garibaldi, and so on; and all the tumults and transformations are made parts of a moving pattern into which Benito Mussolini quite naturally fits. And certain problems, familiar to the League of Nations and to students of European affairs, are seen in an instructive light when Italian children chant in unison: "Italy won the Great War by her victory at Vittorio Veneto!" (October, 1918.) The creation of the Vatican City is recorded with pride, and Sergio and his companions are told: "We ought to be grateful to God for letting us live in an age when an event of such high importance to our country is fulfilled."

The Geography section sketches a simple astronomy, and dances through notes on the compass, terms of the map, and "beautiful Italy." And the final section races from the "Table of Pythagoras" (up to $10 \times 10 = 100$), the four rules, metric sums, and so to points, lines, and polygons.

I envy Italy, not its Fascism (which I neither condemn nor commend), but its effort after "*Totalitario*"; that is, its effort (successful or not successful) to construct a national and educational unity. I know that England, whose blood is full of sectarian bacteria—some healthy, some evil—needs a long process before arrival at economic unity, civic unity, and spiritual unity. This generation will pass away before all these things are fulfilled. But it will do us good to want the unity, to long for it, to scheme and invent for it, to find poetry in the vision of it.

MODERN SCHOOLING

MARKS.

By R. S. M.

The question as to whether marks shall or shall not be given in school is always of great interest to schoolmasters, and is continually giving rise to absorbing discussions. But everyone will agree that, if marks are to be given at all, they must be awarded on a scientific basis if they are to be of any value whatsoever. Unfortunately many people are not at all clear as to what constitutes this scientific basis, with the result that they tend to become distrustful of marks altogether. A new book* has recently been published which deals with the whole subject of marking from a scientific standpoint, and this book will prove extremely valuable to all those who are concerned with educational developments.

When we come to consider the question as to why marks are given in any particular subject or examination, we see that there are two main reasons, namely: (1) *To show whether the candidates have or have not attained a prearranged standard, e.g. a Credit or a Pass in a School Certificate Examination.* For this purpose it might be quite correct to give all the candidates no marks or all full marks. (2) *To place the candidates in an order of merit;* and further, if the candidates are numerous, to choose a scale which distributes the marks according to some known law, e.g. the Gaussian normal frequency distribution.

For examinations these two purposes do as a matter of fact tend to coalesce when we deal with a large number of candidates over a period of several years. For it is probable that the standard of work does not vary very greatly from year to year in all the schools, and at the same time the examination authorities do choose standards which sort the candidates into a sequence of merit, e.g. distinction, credit, pass, and fail. Some examining bodies do, however, "standardise" the marks, by "giving approximately the same percentage of credits and the same percentage of passes year by year." There are difficulties about this method, for if a lot of badly prepared candidates are entered in any one year, it is comparatively easy to obtain a credit or a pass in that year. Similarly, as the efficiency of schools increases, it becomes harder year by year to reach the required standard.

The next important question that comes up for discussion is that of Form Marks. Everyone knows that it would be useless to add together the "raw"

marks for the various subjects sent in by the different masters at the end of any given week or term, and hope to get a form order which would at all represent the true state of knowledge in the form. As an example, let us suppose that the history master has set two test papers, in both of which a large number of questions are set, each needing short answers. The maximum for each paper may be 50 marks, and so the total maximum for the week of two periods only will be 100 marks. On the other hand, the Latin master is doing sentences with the form, and after five periods the total possible marks may only be 50. If these "raw" marks were simply added together, giving a possible maximum of 150 marks, it is obvious that it would pay a boy "to concentrate upon his history rather than on Latin, because it is easier to get marks in history. The boy who is good at history has a pull." To obviate this difficulty, it is necessary to reduce the maximum for each subject to a prearranged value, this value being decided by the number of lessons given in each subject in the course of a week. If a maximum of 10 marks per lesson is decided upon, then in the example given the maxima for history and Latin would be respectively 20 and 50 marks. The other subjects would be treated in a similar manner, and the form order at the end of the week or term would be correspondingly more valuable.

There is another problem connected with form marks which is not so generally realised as the one with which we have just been dealing. Let us consider two masters, who teach English and Latin respectively, and whose maxima at the end of a week's work both come to 50 marks. The English master is enthusiastic about his pupils' work, and is generous in his marking, with a result that at the end of a week the top boy has obtained 45 marks while the boy at the bottom has managed to get 35. On the other hand, the poor Latin master has not got such good results, or rather let us say that he knows more of the boys, and expects the usual dreadful mistakes which so continually occur. At any rate, when the week's work is over, out of a possible 50 marks, the best boy has got 20, and the worst only 5. The result is that the Latin marks are all lower than the English marks, and consequently are not carrying their true weight in the resulting form order. The remedy to this state of affairs is found in what is known as *scaling*. What is done is that the marks are so arranged that the top boy is given the maximum marks, and the marks of the rest of the class are graded in propor-

* "The Science of Marking," by Terry Thomas, M.A., Ph.D., B.Sc., LL.B. (1930). John Murray. 4s. 6d. net.

tion. This scaling is usually performed by means of a slide rule, and presents no difficulty. Occasionally what may be termed "double-scaling" is employed. In this case, the top boy gets the maximum and the bottom boy zero, thus the marks are distributed over the whole range, and "bunching" is avoided.

If we take care to ensure that the marks are properly apportioned in this manner the resulting order of merit will be of greater value than that obtained by the haphazard methods so often in vogue.

Another interesting topic which may be discussed is that of *correlation*. When we have placed the candidates in an order of merit for various subjects, we can work out the correlation between those subjects. For example: "If a boy is good at arithmetic, is he likely to be good at algebra? If he is good at mathematics, is he less likely to be good at Latin?" The answers to such questions can now be found with a certain amount of accuracy by a statistical calculation which gives us the "correlation coefficient" (r). If in a given class the order of merit for arithmetic is exactly the same as that for algebra, then there is perfect correlation and $r = 1$. On the other hand, if the orders are exactly reversed, there is perfect inverse correlation and $r = -1$. If there is no sort of relationship between the two orders, and the whole thing is apparently governed by pure chance, then there is no correlation and $r = 0$.

Methods for calculating the value of r can be found in any standard text-book on psychology, and Dr. Thomas in his book gives a certain number of them. The two most commonly used are the "Method of Ranks," in which the actual marks are not needed, but only the order of merit, and the "Product-Moment Method," in which the difference of a candidate's mark from the mean value of the class mark is the important factor. The Product-Moment Method gives more accurate results, but the calculations are more troublesome to perform. Dr. Thomas considers that the Method of Ranks is sufficiently accurate for general use when the number of candidates is less than thirty. This opinion is most seriously open to question, and the divergence between the values of r obtained by the two methods in such cases makes it perfectly certain that the second decimal figure cannot be relied upon to give anything more than an indication of the true value.

There is a very interesting section in the book which deals with the correlation between masters' estimates of their pupils' work and examination results. The correlation coefficient is surprisingly high, especially in certain subjects (*e.g.* both for history and mathematics r is greater than 0.7), and this shows that an estimate made by an experienced master is "remarkably trustworthy."

Another method of comparison between various groups which is often used, and sometimes can be obtained more easily than the correlation coefficient, is by means of a graph. In his book, the author describes the use of histograms and percentile curves, and gives as a practical example the results obtained on marking a general paper (which, by the way, is very interesting and is printed in full) which was set to the whole of a school of 550 boys. He also deals quite fully with the methods for measuring the probable error (P.E.) of the frequency distribution curve, and explains the practical meaning of this important function.

Dr. Thomas also treats of other branches of his subject in sections on Management of School Marks, Allowance for Age, and The Ideal Mark Scale. These sections are admittedly largely experimental in character, and are stimulating to those who wish to do further research on this subject. There is, however, a danger that the methods employed may become too elaborate for the ordinary master to carry out in his routine work, and that in consequence they may defeat their own ends. As a whole, however, the book is one of enormous value and of great interest, largely because the author is a pioneer in this field of work. It should most certainly be purchased—and the price is extremely moderate—by the head master or head mistress of every reputable school, and should be in the hands of every training college lecturer who lectures on the subject of education.

There is, however, another side to the picture, and in conclusion it is necessary that a danger should be pointed out. In dealing with boys and girls, who are real persons, having their own individualities, we must beware of being guided by marks alone, even if these marks are worked out in a perfectly scientific manner. Factors often enter into the work of these children, such as nervousness or illness, which cannot possibly be deduced from the marks, or properly allowed for in their allocation. We must realise that marks will carry us so far, and no further, and also that the results they give us are statistical rather than individual. But if these restrictions are properly realised and understood, then marks may be of enormous value to the schoolmaster, the parent, and the child.

IN LIGHTER VEIN.

"Cook, all-round, full exp., used to control. State wages."—*Adv't.*

Est coquus in promptu, totus teres atque rotundus,
quique coquos alios dirigere ipse solet.
perfectum arte sua longa experientia fecit.
responde: merces quanta parata manet?

W. H. D. ROUSE.

THE VILLAGE SCHOOL. I.

BY WILLIAM CLAYTON.

[We print below the first of a series of articles by Mr. William Clayton, who has had long and successful experience as head master of a village school.—EDITOR.]

Though it plays a very important part in the educational life of our nation the village school is not often talked about, and possibly not too frequently thought about by writers on education. Nevertheless, the proper conduct of these establishments demands from teachers more thought, preparation, care, and pedagogic skill than many of the other types of elementary schools.

Our schools are freely scattered over the whole of our countryside. They are to be found in the sheltered vale, by the placid fen, or among the grey-stoned houses of our moorlands. They are in the midst of natural surroundings where the cycle of life is as slow and uneventful as it is certain.

Everything around seems to have plenty of time. Horses with heavily laden carts go slowly by. The cattle browse quietly as they wander leisurely among the lush or sparse herbage, and our human beings take their cues from their natural companions. John and Mary from the distant farm, who have two miles to traverse to the little school, allow themselves an hour and a half to do the journey in. They must not be hurried or flustered on the way, for there is much in field and hedgerow, by the stone walls and rippling streams, which invites their attention and arouses their curiosity. Innumerable nests of rare or common birds have to be located and examined. The mysterious cry of the curlew must be investigated, the brook must be dammed to form pools where the speckled trout may be tickled and captured, and the cunning antics of the fox watched whilst it stalks its breakfast by the warren. Maybe some cattle have strayed, and these must be put right before proceeding to the school, where they will be waiting when teacher comes to bid the quiet but sincere "Good morning."

Such children are never late. Indeed, they are generally inordinately early. The school-yard is always tenanted by many of the pupils half an hour before the time for morning session to begin. It is not because the home clocks are fast—though they generally are—which causes these early arrivals, but that wonderful determination of the real country dweller *never to be late*, be it to work, or to play; to eat, or to worship.

The teacher who has devoted a life to work under such conditions will have gathered a store of teaching experience which is denied to those whose years are spent in those barracks where the children of our crowded textile and industrial areas are massed for instruction.

We with our few have nurtured and cherished, and though our school-leaver does not compare

favourably with the quick-witted, facile product of the barrack school, we shall find in later years that our village youth is holding a responsible post in town, or country, as a foreman or master, whilst his brother of the town is a much less important cog in the wheel of progress.

The future of the village school is a problem that is not receiving anything like the thought and consideration which its importance to the whole country demands. Our education officials, whose lives have been spent, and experience gained, almost entirely in the more densely populated areas, do not appear to have the slightest knowledge of the needs and desires of the rural dweller for educational facilities. They seem to be obsessed with the idea that nothing good has ever been accomplished by our village schools, and that nothing can be done to reform educational life in the remoter districts until the children of these greatly varying peoples are collected and transported to barracks in some busy town for their senior work. Such folly!

Who was that person who first gave utterance to that terribly erroneous doctrine that you must have at least three hundred and twenty units of children in one flock before you could successfully carry out the suggestions of the Hadow Report for the further education of the English child? Is there an atom of educational truth in such a cry? Many really expert thinkers on the matter entirely disagree with such an assumption. The officials have accepted the cry because they are wise enough to know that such a system would be easy to organise and cheap to establish. The Executive of the N.U.T., who hardly ever express a constructive opinion on true educational policy, have accepted this parrot-cry as though it were the voice of one of the Greater Prophets. "Tell us what the Rural Problem is," they say; "for us, all education is alike."

Surely it is not beyond the wit of man to devise some scheme for the further education—not instruction—of our villagers which, in its working, will permit some of the culture which our senior schools are to bring in their wake to permeate the adolescent and adults of our villages. Before this can be done, the parrot-cry of the three hundred and twenty school minimum will have to be replaced by some saner and more practical proposals.

Forty years of work in these out of the world schools has resulted in the amassing in mind and books a wealth of interesting examples of the teacher's orthodox and unorthodox lessons. Selections from these happenings will be woven together in subsequent issues of this journal.

THE CLASS TEACHER.

BY RICHARD BANKS.

Most teachers, it was recently remarked, and especially men teachers, are realising "that they are doomed to class teaching for the rest of their days." The word "doomed" is ludicrously unfortunate, for its hollow sound conveys the notion of an undeserved and unhappy destiny. Yet, if the class teacher resolves to be the master of his fate, he can find in his work a joy and a reward that are given to no other man. And he may console himself with the reflection that, of all the workers in education, he, at any rate, is indispensable.

The epithet "class" is also an unfortunate one, and in these days of increasing specialisation is becoming increasingly a misnomer. Class teachers and their organisation should publicly refer to themselves as teachers, without prefix, suffix, or qualification. In professional privacy they may discriminate, just as some doctors are surgeons or gynaecologists or what not; but to the public they should simply be teachers, just as all medical practitioners are doctors, even when they are simply M.B.'s.

To dispel any notions of inferiority, in their own minds or in those of others, the first thing all class teachers must do is to register themselves as qualified teachers, and always to use their title of Members of the Royal Society of Teachers. When on an official document, or to a census taker, or in a court of law, they are required to state their occupation, each one should reply, "Member of the Royal Society of Teachers." They will probably be informed that there is no such occupation in the official list, but if sufficient teachers give this answer, there will soon be one. Schoolmaster, schoolmistress, school teacher, are all outmoded; and assistant master is a contradiction in terms. More important still to those who have any professional instincts is the fortifying realisation that all qualified workers in education can meet on a high and level platform where there are diversities of gifts, but one spirit.

Besides being and claiming to be a teacher, the class teacher must aspire to be an educationist, that is, he must be interested in education beyond the specific instruction of the classroom. He should know something of modern experiments and developments in education; he should be at least able to listen intelligently when others talk of the Dalton Plan or the Hadow Report or Formal Training; he should not be too hasty to display his own imperfect information on such subjects; and psychology should not be simply Greek to him. He should also endeavour to make himself master of at least one school subject. As the years pass he may find that the work of teaching does not become less difficult and onerous; and then, if he has acquired

stores of knowledge in his professional youth, he will discover the great benefit of what Sir John Adams calls his paid-up capital. Further, if the class teacher is to be regarded as a skilled craftsman, a professional man, he must be prepared to surrender some of his leisure time to his vocation. Many teachers do so; they spend many hours in organising games, dances, concerts, educational journeys, and so on. But their actual school work, their teaching, has demands on their spare time. Some teachers regularly carry home stacks of exercise books to be marked, and thereby possibly confess their inefficiency. For if they would devote more time and thought to the preparation of their lessons, they would find that the burden of marking would be considerably relieved. An unprepared lesson, like an unprepared speech or an unrehearsed play, is usually a bad one, and is in any case an insult to one's audience.

Ultimately public opinion, or, to speak more exactly, the opinion of an energetic and influential minority, fixes the class teacher's salary and status, and he should not go out of his way to affront such opinion. Many teachers fail to realise what small things carry great weight, perhaps excessive weight. Outsiders have been known to animadvert on a teacher's unshaven chin or an unpleasing accent or a haughtiness of manner. "That's my business" is an insufficient answer to these criticisms. Children note and comment on such eccentricities, and, moreover, teachers themselves would resent them in other professional men and women—their doctors, for example.

To keep his mind alert the class teacher should practise the art of mobility. Movement is one of the indications of life, and if a class or a teacher shows no signs of movement, we can only say, "Take it away; it's dead." If a teacher is unable to move from town to town, he should endeavour to move from school to school in the same town; if that is impossible, he should essay to move from class to class in the same school, or, if he is a specialist, from subject to subject. It would do the specialist in mathematics a world of good to specialise for a time in the teaching of English, and the teacher of English would gain commensurately by teaching mathematics for a year. What glorious arguments they could have together!

It is fatally easy for a teacher to get into a groove, but if he wishes himself and his profession to be regarded with esteem, he must unceasingly resist this disastrous fatalism. The only difference in essence between a groove and a grave is the vowel sound.

A SENSE OF HUMOUR.

The popular conception of teaching as a "dry-as-dust" occupation dies hard; yet there are few professions that afford more scope for a sense of humour.

Everyone has suffered from the "new broom" with an uncomfortable desire to "sweep clean." Our maths. staff had agreed on a uniform short method of teaching decimals and fractions throughout the school. A new mistress arrived, who took one of my old forms for arithmetic and algebra. During my first geometry lesson with them I introduced some arithmetical working, to be greeted with gleeful shouts of "Oh, no, sir! Miss M. says that's not right! She's looked through our last year's books, and we've been taught by the wrong method, so we're beginning all over again!"

Then there was the equally earnest student who was to give a nature lesson. With commendable thoroughness, but abysmal ignorance of child psychology, she presented everyone in the class with a cabbage leaf and a snail. Pandemonium ensued. Snail-racing was the order of the day, interspersed with such exclamations as "Miss, mine's a bad 'un; he won't come out," or, "Oh, miss, mine's gone down the ink-well!"

Then there is a supporter of the Board School, who laments that grammar is taught no longer, and maintains that parsing got him where he is. The Board of Education will be interested to know that the failure of so many ex-elementary pupils to solve easy arithmetical problems is due to the fact that so much trigonometry is crammed into them before the age of fourteen. He once attended a nature study lesson, and has never done fulminating about it. "What," he reiterates, "is the use of teaching a boy the Latin for the whiskers on a bee's knee when he can't spell his own name?" It certainly sounds as if we are labouring under too classical a syllabus in the elementary schools!

The children themselves provide endless amusement. One ten-year-old announced with pride that her great ambition was to be a "typewriter!" Another, somewhat older, with a passion for using long words out of the dictionary, wrote: "A terrific blast of flatulence blew down the street." Lastly, at the end of a Scripture lesson where he had heard that Christ was just the same as other little boys, played games as they did, one puzzled youth remarked: "Well, I don't see how He could with a plate on His head!"

THE MIND IS THE EYE'S INTERPRETER.**A Chance Lesson in Visual Education from the Local Cinema Hoardings.**

[By kind permission of "The Link," the organ of the Herts County Teachers' Association, we print the list which follows.—EDITOR.]

MIDNIGHT DADDIES.
WOMAN TRAP.
HIS GLORIOUS NIGHT.
THIS THING CALLED LOVE.
HALFWAY TO HEAVEN.
LADY OF THE NIGHT.
THE LOCKED DOOR.
THEIR OWN DESIRE.
SWEETIE.
WONDER OF WOMEN.
THE WHIRLWIND LOVER.
THE AWAKENING.
MASKS OF THE DEVIL.
THE UNTAMED.
ARIZONA KID.
RECKLESS YOUTH.
IN THE NEXT ROOM.
THE THREE PASSIONS.
HIGH AND DIZZY.
SUSPENSE.
LOOSE ANKLES.
COCOANUTS.
MOVIE NIGHT.
TWO IN A TAXI.
SALLY.
THE KISS.
INNOCENTS OF PARIS.
BRIDE No. 68.
WHY LEAVE HOME?
THERE'S NO ARGUMENT.
THEY LEARNED ABOUT WOMEN.
THE UNHOLY NIGHT.
THE LOVE PARADE.
LOONEY TUNE.
SUNNY SIDE UP.

We can guess how you react. *But what a pity our youngsters can read!*

NEWS OF THE MONTH.

Another Centenary Fund.

University College School is a hundred years old, and it has a debt of about £45,000. An appeal for a centenary endowment fund of £50,000 has been made, to provide an income available in times of stress for the establishment of scholarships, and for the permanent improvement of the school. Mr. Guy Kendall, the Head Master, says the school has always aspired to be free of tyrannies and conventions, and if it is to remain independent, one thing is essential—the school must be put in a position of security by endowing it; they wanted to be free from the receipt of public money altogether. Over £7,000 towards the fund has already been received.

Much Science, Little English.

Sir William Pope, F.R.S., is not impressed by the educational attainments of some of the young recruits to the scientific career. He recently told the British Science Guild in the sixth annual Norman Lockyer Lecture, on "Science and Industry," that "the present-day English school system called for revision; modern science and modern industry demanded recruits who had received a literary education. Much had to be undone and redone when the schools sent to the universities or to the industries young men who could not express their thoughts grammatically in writing, but who were stuffed with facts relating to highly specialised branches of science."

The London Day Training College.

The London Day Training College is to be transferred to the University of London, and the London County Council having agreed to its removal to the Bloomsbury site, they have been informed by the Board of Education that the Treasury are willing to meet the increased cost of the transference. The necessary readjustment in grants will be made on September 1, 1932, if reasonable progress has been made in the provision of the new buildings.

No Exemption.

The Executive Council of the County Councils Association are of opinion that (a) September 1, 1933, is the earliest date by which any county authority can make adequate arrangements to meet the needs of the new school-leaving age; (b) that no good reason exists for departing from the agreed recommendations of the Maintenance Allowances Committee. They also want the Bill amended to empower local education authorities to grant exemption to individual scholars on the lines of Section 46 (3) of the Act of 1921. But the Minister has said in effect: "Nothing doing."

Some Statistics.

The cost of elementary education per child in England and Wales is 255s. 6d. This figure is calculated upon the actual net expenditure of local authorities in the year 1929-30. For London it is 361s. 10d.; other counties, 231s.; county boroughs, 250s. 10d.; boroughs, 240s. 11d.; and urban districts, 278s. 7d. The number of P.E. schools in this country on March 31 last was:—Council, 9,548; non-provided, 11,255. The Council schools showed a population of 3,270,000; the non-provided, 1,671,000.

A "Scandal" in Renfrew.

The Education Committee of Renfrew have discovered that it is an expensive policy to promote their older teachers to headships. The Treasurer has pointed out that the committee have incurred considerable expense to the rate-payers by appointing men who were within six or seven years of retirement and came on the superannuation list. In the case of one school they had two head masters drawing superannuation, and in six years' time they would have a third. Instead of paying £500 for the post they would be paying £1,400. That, the Treasurer thought, was a scandal, and he intends asking the committee to change their policy.

Glamorgan and Graduates.

After a discussion lasting four hours the Glamorganshire Education Committee have decided by nineteen votes to fifteen that only graduates shall be appointed to headships of new Senior schools—graduates, that is, who are "certificated." The original proposal was that only a limited number of schools were to have graduate heads. This was opposed by the Federation of Teachers. But their protests have only resulted in the more drastic resolution. If other authorities follow Glamorgan's lead there will be much heart-burning among teachers.

Hull and the Private School.

The only Authority which has secured some statutory control over the hygienic conditions of private schools seems to be Hull. The Kingston-upon-Hull Corporation Act, 1930, contains this section:—"49. The Corporation may make by-laws: (a) for securing the adequate heating, lighting, and ventilation of premises used as schools not maintained by the Corporation; (b) for securing the provision of adequate washing accommodation for children attending such premises for the purposes of education, and adequate facilities for drying the clothes of such children."

LITERARY SECTION.

BOOKS AND THE MAN.

The Unwilling Schoolmarm.

A novel lately published by Benn, under the title "Unwillingly to School," gives a vivid picture of the experiences of an assistant mistress in a modern elementary school. The writer calls herself Anne Allardice, and her work reveals considerable skill in writing, a great capacity for self-pity, and a lamentable deficiency in a sense of humour. The result is a book which holds one's attention and, at the same time, arouses a feeling of impatience.

We meet Jane Morris as a young teacher not long out of the training college and now on the staff of a "non-provided" Church of England elementary school. The premises are of a kind which is all too familiar. "The girls' and infants' departments were on the ground floor, and the boys were above. There was only one small yard to serve for all three departments." "The girls' school consisted of one big room, called by courtesy the 'hall,' and the rooms leading out of it. The 'hall' was divided by a green curtain to form two classrooms, standards two and three. There were sixteen panes of glass in the two sets of windows, but two alone were made to open. Miss Mills, the head mistress, taught standard three. There was very little space between the front desks and the wall. In standard three the head mistress's desk stood on a small platform, and an ancient piano was placed sideways to it. A space was left down one side of the room. Cupboards occupied most of this, and a narrow gangway was left as a passage for the girls to pass up and down. The space at Jane's end was crammed with her desk, the blackboard and easel, and a cupboard for books. Behind her was a glass partition, and if she turned she could see Mrs. Burdon trying to educate the fifty or so girls who composed standards six, seven, and ex-seven. This room was also divided by a curtain. On one side Mrs. Burdon wrestled with the other girls, while on the other, poor, worried Miss Hyder struggled with standard four."

This account rings true, and the description applies to many schools which are not yet on the Board's "black list." In such surroundings Jane Morris and her fellow teachers worked daily, and the strain told on them, as it does on hundreds outside the realm of fiction. Later, Jane is transferred to a modern building, only to find herself harried by a head mistress of the type which used to be common enough, a female tyrant, determined to make her school obtain "results." Incidentally, we have a description of an inspector's visit and a word picture of a local inspector (wrongly described as "H.M.I."), "an efficient machine—sympathy and imagination had apparently been left out of his composition."

Jane Morris must be counted unfortunate in the people she met, but each of these unpleasant persons has a real existence, and many of us have met them. But luckily they are not to be found, as here, concentrated in two schools and one town.

The note of the book is one of helpless despair. The women are looking for some means of escape from the drudgery of teaching. Jane herself has an affair with a married clergyman, stopping just short of becoming his mistress. One of her fellow teachers visits a man regularly at his flat. Another marries an elderly widower. All are looking for some form of release from the daily round with "the difficult task of pleasing two sets of inspectors, those representing the Local Education Authority, and those from headquarters. Mr. Lewis and his colleagues demanded the three R's and no frills; while the Government inspectors were full of the latest fads and ideas."

Although the picture of elementary school teaching given by this book is perhaps unduly grim it should be studied by all who are concerned with education. We see the inevitable results of bad buildings, large classes, fussy head teachers, and autocratic administrators. These hindrances to education can be removed. They continue to exist only because people will not bestir themselves and think out the true purpose of a school. To those who insist on keeping children in badly-built and ill-equipped denominational schools on the pretext that religious instruction comes first in importance I commend this extract: "Many teachers give perfunctory instruction in religious teaching because it is part of their syllabus. They would be surprised if they realised how the childish mind unconsciously senses the lack of conviction, the boredom, sometimes the actual scepticism behind the words."

SELIM MILES.

REVIEWS.

Art.

"The Art for All Pastel Series."—LANDSCAPE-BUILDINGS: by J. Littlejohns, R.B.A., R.B.C., A.R.W.A. (2s. 6d. net. Pitman.)

We have already expressed our favourable opinion of this really excellent series, prepared by a master of a very fascinating craft. In this particular issue Mr. Littlejohns deals with landscape-buildings in characteristically skilful and carefully graded manner. To his detailed specific instructions he adds a few useful hints on sketching from nature, and some equally valuable hints on the drawing of buildings, these having especial reference to the laws of perspective, far too often neglected, ignored, or imperfectly understood.

Arithmetic.

ARITHMETICAL DICTATION: A systematic series of Exercises in Mental Arithmetic: by Alfred Wisdom, B.A., B.Sc. Books 5 to 7, with answers. Senior Series. (3s. 6d. Univ. of London Press.)

These exercises are based on Dr. Ballard's series of books on fundamental arithmetic. We are in complete agreement with Dr. Ballard's foreword and Mr. Wisdom's preface, and we can confidently recommend this compilation. If there is a better selection of exercises on the market we have not seen it, and, we imagine, that probability is a remote one.

J. W. B. A.

Biology.

ELEMENTARY BIOLOGY NOTES FOR REVISION: by T. H. Savory, M.A. (2s. 6d. Harrap.)

This very useful little volume bespeaks the experienced and competent teacher, fully aware of the evils of cramming, but equally aware of the necessity for a firm grasp of essentials, and the value of being able to acquire them as rapidly as possible.

The work is about equally divided between animal and plant forms, the course is a sound and very inclusive one, and the notes and numerous diagrams admirably clear. Although confessedly intended as a skeleton outline, to be clothed with flesh by students reading for examinations, these notes by no means resemble dry bones, as those who wisely take advantage of them will speedily discover.

Chemistry.

ELEMENTARY QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS: by W. Briggs, LL.D., and H. W. Bausor, M.A.; revised by D. R. Snellgrove, Ph.D. (3s. Univ. Tutorial Press.)

The second edition of this well known text-book has been revised by Dr. Snellgrove, and he has added a new chapter dealing with the preparation of pure substances. He describes the usual laboratory methods of crystallisation, sublimation, and distillation, and thus increases the usefulness of the book. The original division of the book into two parts which treat of volumetric and gravimetric analysis has been maintained, and the standard of the work is that of the Intermediate Examination of the Universities.

R. S. M.

Divinity.

JESUS—LORD OR LEADER? by Frank Lenwood. (7s. 6d. Constable).

Mr. Lenwood has written a book which must have involved immense study and a great deal of time. His quotations and references come from numerous authors. He feels that "much official teaching is like a column of accounts in which, though most of the items have been corrected in pencil, the figure at the bottom remains unchanged." This is

obvious, but in adding the column he has again made a mistake—the total is the same even for the new figures.

Mr. Lenwood contends that Christians have obscured the figure of the real Jesus, by surrounding it with a haze of divinity. He, therefore, sets out to build up a picture of a purely human Jesus who was "limited and fallible." In criticising the Gospels in order to show how this screen was invented, he has of necessity to deny the historical truth of many incidents in our Lord's life, more especially the miracles He worked (Appendixes A and B, Chapter IV). To such an extent is he forced to do this that not only the Divine Jesus, but the historic Jesus disappears. In fact, after reading Mr. Lenwood's book, one is forced to the almost inevitable conclusion that Christ as an historic person never existed (*cf.* Chap. IV), and Christianity as a revealed religion is absurd; it can only be the product of the highly sensitive imaginations of certain mystics, such as St. John. In Chapter VII this argument appears: "Jesus brought God near, Jesus died. God had failed them. What then happened we may conjecture, for we shall never know. The disciples were convinced that He was alive still." This seems the end of all logical reasoning. Because you do not like the look of the Divine Jesus you disprove the theory of His Resurrection, then are amazed at the change in the outlook of the Apostles. Surely the thing that convinced them was the Resurrection. Mr. Lenwood in destroying the Divine Jesus has destroyed Christ, Christianity, and the possibility of any certainty of belief at all.

J. B. C. H.

General.

"The World of Youth Series."—GREAT SONS OF GREECE: by F. J. Gould. TEMPLE BELLS: by E. R. Pike. THE ORIGIN OF THE WORLD: by R. McMillan. (1s. 6d. each. Watts.)

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(Continued on page 24.)

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The elementary account of the origin and evolution of the world, given by Mr. McMillan, "was written by an old man for a young Australian girl who had become curious about the 'how' and 'why' of the world." This is indicative of the style adopted throughout the twenty-two chapters, which, after dealing with the broad facts of gravitation, force and energy, motion and speed, proceed to give a very simple account of the primitive forms of life and the struggle for existence; a somewhat more detailed account of the evolution of the horse; and then, after touching upon "early man," draws some general conclusions. It is all written by one not only well acquainted with a vast subject, but in such style and with little intimate touches such as would appeal to young and intelligent children. In brief, we know of no simple account of evolution better calculated to arouse and hold the attention of young readers, or, for the matter of that, of readers no longer young in years.

History.

A JUNIOR SOCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL HISTORY OF ENGLAND: by F. W. Tickner, D.Litt. (3s. Arnold.)

This book is extremely well written and, though packed full of facts, is by no means dull reading. It purports to set forth the story of the life and work of ordinary people in Britain from the time of the Saxon settlements. For the use of senior scholars who possess some acquaintance with the main facts of English history, we can confidently recommend this book. It contains over forty interesting illustrations in the text.

"Nelson's Teaching of History Series."—CAVALIER AND PURITAN: by J. D. Mackie. (2s. 6d.)

We have previously had occasion to commend volumes in this excellent series. The one before us dealing with the period 1603 to 1649 is a worthy addition.

Scholarly, well written, well arranged, and nowhere dull, this study of the reigns of the first two Stuarts is well suited for pupils in the upper forms of secondary schools. It is certainly one of

the best written school history books we have met with for some time past. No paste and scissors work here!

J. B.

Nature Study.

WOODCRAFT AND WORLD SERVICE: by I. O. Evans. (6s. net. Douglas.)

To those who are familiar with the Scout Movement the author of these "studies in unorthodox education" is known as "Blue Swift." An experience of twenty years of woodcraft under a wide variety of conditions, and in various positions of authority in the scout movement, added to a wide and thoughtful study of these and other kindred movements, have qualified Mr. Evans to write interestingly and informatively on woodcraft and its various correlated activities. Particularly interesting is the second portion of the volume, which deals with woodcraft culture under such headings as Woodcraft as Sport, Science, Art, Literature, Ceremony, Religion, Sex, and World Service. The perusal of these various chapters will put the reader in touch with a very extensive literature, and make him acquainted with the varied controversial aspects of woodcraft and its allied movements. "Blue Swift" is by no means always in agreement with the Chief Scout and with the scout law and practice, and he states his case for disagreement clearly and effectively. These controversial subjects have a width or range unsuspected by those unfamiliar with the movements; and this volume may be read not only with interest but with profit by all who take a sympathetic interest in their fellow men.

Science.

EARTH AND SKY: by C. H. Dobinson, M.A., B.Sc. (3s. 6d. Black.)

The sub-title states that this book gives "a brief account of the earth's situation in space, with some account of its internal structure." After a short historical introduction, in which the lives and works of Copernicus, Tycho Brahe, Kepler, and Newton are described, the author goes on to deal with the solar system and some suggestions as to its origin. The remaining chapters deal with the interior and composition of the earth, together with a few elementary geological considerations. The most noteworthy feature of the book is the large number of illustrations, to provide which "no cost or trouble has been spared." Some of these astronomical and geological photographs are really beautiful as works of art, quite apart from their bearing on the subject matter of the text, those of solar eclipses and nebulae being especially fine. The book is printed on excellent paper, and both author and publishers are to be congratulated upon the production as a whole. It would be a suitable present for any boy or girl over thirteen years of age.

R. S. M.

(Continued on page 26.)

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French.

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The nine poets represented are Lamartine, Vigny, Hugo, Musset, Sainte-Beuve (*sic!*), Gautier, Baudelaire, Leconte de Lisle, and Verlaine. The poems chosen are typical of their best work, and include most of the favourite anthology pieces. But the value of the book lies far more in the Introduction and Notes than in the rather meagre selections (Leconte de Lisle and Verlaine have only six short pieces each). The book has evidently been composed for the intelligent student who reads French easily, but is unacquainted with post-classical literature. The inclusion of Sainte-Beuve is defended, with rather doubtful success, on the grounds of his influence on the Romantic school.

The Introduction gives an excellent and detailed account of the structure of French verse before 1880, with a liberal allowance of examples. In the Introduction, as also in the Notes, a remark is often illustrated by the quotation of a whole poem longer than many of those in the main body of the work. The notes are also very full, more literary than linguistic, and include useful biographies of the nine poets, and up-to-date bibliographical lists. On the whole the author is perhaps a little severe in his references to the classical writers, who are already difficult enough of access to the student brought up in English traditions; it is a pity to discourage him from partaking of "that intellectual food on which all educated Frenchmen have been nurtured." One other small complaint. It seems likely that any student who is able to make good use of the sound and scholarly critical matter in this book will already know the poems quoted; if not, he will certainly wish to supplement them with fuller anthologies, or better, with editions of complete works.

In any case, this is a very important publication, giving an excellent view of the period as a whole, together with a host of detailed criticisms such as are not found in general critical works. A. B. G.

LES MALHEURS DE SOPHIE: by the Comtesse de Ségur; edited by R. A. Mansfield. (1s. 6d. Longmans.)

This little story, "written when Granny was a little girl," is very suitable in its present abridged form as a reader for girls in their second year. The illustrations are good, and all necessary help is given in the notes, which are followed by a few verb-lists and retranslation exercises. A. B. G.

"Modern Studies Series."—ELEMENTARY FRENCH COMPOSITION: by R. L. G. Ritchie and J. M. Moore. (1s. 6d. Nelson.)

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first nine sections contains an explanation of some verb-form, progressing from the Present Indicative to the Subjective Mood, followed by short passages of increasing difficulty for translation into French. The tenth set consists of pieces only slightly less difficult than those in the Junior Manual. Thus the pupil is led by easy stages from the sentence-translation of the elementary books to French composition of School Certificate standard. Each piece is provided with a special word-list and plenty of helpful notes. The full-page illustrations are good.

A. B. G.

Philosophy.

THE CONQUEST OF HAPPINESS: by Bertrand Russell. (7s. 6d. Allen and Unwin.)

Mr. Bertrand Russell tells us that in early life he was so unhappy as to desire suicide. Later, when threatened by the near approach of a public speech (himself the projected speaker), he desired to break his leg and escape making the speech. Such experiences, no doubt, have had some influence in causing Mr. Russell to give us this volume on "How to be Happy though Living," or "From Suicide to Smiles."

It is an admirable little book. In the first place, it is in all good senses "readable." Though written by a philosopher and a mathematician, it betrays no philosophic gloom, nor any equations or formulae. Certainly it is a philosophy of life, but not of such a kind as can be upset by "cheerfulness breaking in." It is fundamentally cheerful, and gloom is not permitted to break in. Secondly, it is a practical book. Mr. Russell tells us *how* he broke his desire to break his leg. He follows his analysis in Part I on "Causes of Unhappiness" by eight chapters on "Causes of Happiness," ending with a picture of "The Happy Man."

Of course, being Mr. Bertrand Russell, he is frank and he is provocative whenever the occasion seems to demand such qualities. "Unnecessary modesty has a great deal to do with envy." "Instinctive happiness is rare in the English-speaking world, especially among women." "In a woman's college the women teachers, if no man is present, talk shop in the evening, while in a man's college the men do not." He anticipates a retort about higher conscientiousness, and meets it with: "I do not think that in the long run it improves the quality of their work." And from that he promptly introduces the word "narrowness" in his next sentence, which actually ends with "fanaticism." No doubt it was this same cool indifference to widely-held beliefs and prejudices that caused the British Government to prevent him from lecturing on mathematics in America during the War.

Among happy men, he puts first such men as an enormous well-digger that he knew in boyhood. He

could neither read nor write, and he was unaware of the existence of such an institution as Parliament until, in 1885, he got a vote for this curious body. Sufficiency of work, physical vigour, and "the overcoming of not insuperable obstacles in the shape of rock" formed the basis of his happiness. Among the more educated classes "the happiest in the present day are the men of science." Surely from all the garrets of Bohemia a protest will arise. Has Mr. Russell forgotten the artists? By no means. "Artists and literary men consider it *de rigueur* to be unhappy in their marriages." And there we may suitably leave Mr. Bertrand for the present.

R. J.

English.

POETRY AND THE ORDINARY READER: by M. R. Ridley. (3s. 6d. net. Bell.)

So many books about poetry have recently appeared, and so many of these have left us much as we were, that it was not without some misgivings we plunged into the opening chapters of this present volume. But we very soon realised that Mr. Ridley had something to say and knew very definitely how to say it. The book interests from the start, and it will surely give to thousands of ordinary readers a deeper insight into the beauties of poetry.

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There are doubtless many people who feel poetry as sensitively as Mr. Ridley; there are few who can so easily infect others with this feeling. We are grateful to him for a very interesting book.

P. M. G.

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Several school editions of some of Tennyson's "Idylls" have already been published, but this is the first complete annotated edition of the "Idylls" for school use that we have seen, and we cordially welcome it. Mr. Fowler's introduction and notes are excellent and very much to the point, and the only criticism we can venture to make is in the nature of a compliment—viz., they err possibly on the side of brevity. We recommend this book to secondary schools and the general reader without mitigation or remorse.

THE CHILDREN'S HIAWATHA: by F. H. Lee. (9d. Harrap.)

This version of Hiawatha is a reader for children from seven to nine years of age, and we shall be surprised if they do not thoroughly enjoy it. The thread of the story, main incidents, and the chief characters have been preserved throughout, and the interest of the subject matter is heightened by the numerous and excellent illustrations, including a coloured frontispiece. We can confidently recommend this reader to teachers.

STEPPING STONES TO ENGLISH: by Arthur Stamp. Junior Course. Book 1 (for children from eight to nine), Book 2 (nine to ten), Book 3 (ten to eleven). (10d. each. Chambers.)

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How can a humble reviewer dare to question the judgment of such an array of sponsors! However, there is, to my relief, no need, as the selection is, in my opinion, very good indeed. I especially like the section on nature and seasonal poems.

THE WRENS: by Kate Sexty. Chambers' "Additional Readers" (for Standards 1 and 2). (6d.)

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CHILDREN IN DICKENS: edited by Ben. R. Gibbs, B.A. (2s. Harrap.)

A very good idea well carried out. Our advice to all teachers is—if you cannot get this book on "requisition" at least do not fail to get copies for your class libraries. Surely all young readers will want to know more about these children. (We must confess that, familiar as the subject matter is to us, we had to read the book through from beginning to end.)

A.

OTHER CHILDREN: LISA: by Vera Patmore, M.A.; illustrated by Anne Patmore. (Reading Practice No. 92.) (8d. Nelson.)

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A.

A BOOK OF CLASSICAL STORIES: edited by A. J. Merson, M.A. (2s. Harrap.)

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A.

THE GIRL VOTER: Talks on her Inheritance, her Responsibilities, and her Opportunities: by E. M. White, F.R.Hist.S.; with a Foreword by Miss Leah Manning, J.P., President of the N.U.T. (2s. Russell.)

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(d) For others, opportunities arise later to qualify in flying and become airman pilots. From amongst airman pilots a certain number with very exceptional qualifications are periodically selected for commissioned rank.

(e) The remainder have opportunities of advancement to the highest non-commissioned rank.

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OPEN COMPETITION, on successfully passing an examination in English and General Knowledge, and in Mathematics, conducted by the Civil Service Commission at fixed centres.

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(c) After passing out, upon the completion of training, apprentice clerks have opportunities of advancement to the highest non-commissioned ranks, and paragraph 1 (d) above, relating to aircraft apprentices' prospects of selection for airman pilot (and in exceptional cases for commissioned rank), applies equally to apprentice clerks.

Full particulars are given in A.M. Pamphlet 15 (Aircraft Apprentices) and A.M. Pamphlet 9 (Apprentice Clerks), which may be had on application to the Secretary, Air Ministry (A.E.), Gwydyr House, Whitehall, S.W.1.

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1929.

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THE EDUCATION OUTLOOK

FEBRUARY, 1931.

RELIGION IN STATE SCHOOLS.

Once again we have seen an Education Bill sacrificed to the conflicting demands of theologians. The experience is familiar enough to everybody who has read the story of our English elementary schools. It began so long ago as 1833, when the project for a National Board of Education, with power to bring the means of instruction within the reach of every child, was destroyed by controversies on religious teaching, and the first State grants were divided between the National Society and the British and Foreign School Society, the one representing the Anglican Church, the other those who believed religious teaching to be indispensable in education, but wished to have it free from any sectarian element.

The real difference remains as acute as ever, but since 1839 there has been a great development of non-sectarian teaching, and apart from some foolish chatter about "godless Council schools," nobody will suggest that the country as a whole is less moral than it was in the days when every school was teaching the dogmas of some sect. During the past century we have learned a little about the working of a child's mind, and we are now aware that the amount of dogma which can be imparted is very small indeed. It is always possible to place a child in blinkers, to compel him to see things as we desire, and to refrain from exercising his intelligence to the full. There are those who regard honest inquiry as a sin, and arrogate to themselves the sole right to interpret the mysteries of the Eternal. Such people have no claim to be called educationists, since they mistrust all freedom of mind and believe that soporifics ensure salvation, especially when administered by their own consecrated selves.

The demand that State funds shall be expended on sectarian teaching is urged on the ground that those who make the demand are required to pay rates and taxes in support of education. Hence, we are told, they are entitled to have their money spent on the sort of school they want. This argument would carry us a long way. The convinced pacifist would be able to demand that no part of his income tax was spent on armaments. Any individual or group of individuals might ask to have schools to their own taste. The demand is unreasonable, but some justification for it may be found in the fact

that unsectarian religious teaching is permitted in State schools. It would be wrong to suppose that this teaching furnishes all that is needed by members of the Free Churches. They accept it as a basis for the more detailed exposition of their several beliefs as given in their own chapels and Sunday schools, but they do not regard it as a complete substitute for their own efforts.

After a hundred years of strife the two parties are as far from agreement as ever. Education has progressed in spite of them, but it has been sadly hampered by their futile bickerings. Meanwhile there are States, such as New Zealand, which have held aloof from religious controversy and have excluded the teaching of religion from the State schools. Yet New Zealand is not to be quoted as an example of an immoral community. As measured by statistics of crime, by standards of domestic life and commercial integrity, and by patriotic effort in war-time, New Zealand compares favourably with any country in the world and stands far ahead of some which have a complete system of sectarian teaching.

To say that religion is a necessary part of education is not the same as saying that it must be a part of State schooling. Religious bodies have their opportunity on Sundays and during leisure hours of the week. Let them use this opportunity to win young adherents instead of trying to make an illicit use of the school attendance laws and asking that teachers who are paid from State funds shall serve as school curates in buildings provided from rates and taxes.

Teachers in State schools are not properly employed in such work. As things are, a heavy premium is placed on hypocrisy, for it is well understood that willingness to give sectarian instruction and to play the lackey to the clergy will be a help in seeking headships in some thousands of schools. Teachers who sincerely desire to give instruction and to take part in church work should do so as churchmen and not as teachers. Those who have no such desire should be free to refrain. Even in the provided schools the honest agnostic may find himself expected to teach much that he cannot believe, although, unlike his colleague in the non-provided school, he is not expected to declare his religious views. It is difficult to understand how true religion can gain anything from the present system.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS.

FROM A CORRESPONDENT.

Progress of Registration.

The number of applications for admission to the Register continues to grow. At the January Council it was announced that during November and December 665 applications had been received, bringing the total number of applications up to 82,146. Of this number 2,928 have been refused admission, leaving 79,218 teachers admitted since the Register was opened. It is possible that the Register, when complete, might contain the names of 130,000 teachers. Doubtless there will be others qualified for Registration, but we have to recognise that among the recruits there are always some who do not intend to remain in the profession very long. There is also the unfortunate fact that teachers in universities have so far shown little inclination to become registered. Perhaps they regard themselves as outside and above the ranks of ordinary teachers, just as certain medical specialists refrain from enrolling themselves on the Medical Register, in order to distinguish themselves from the general practitioner. The latter must be registered, as otherwise he cannot sign the death certificate when the specialist's attentions have been unsuccessful. So far 370 university teachers have become registered.

Private Schools.

The Council has been asked to prepare a memorandum for the Departmental Committee which is inquiring into the question of private or independent schools. It happens that the Council is in a position to supply the Committee with some useful information which it has obtained in the course of forming the Register. One of the conditions of registration prescribes that an applicant must submit evidence of successful teaching experience under satisfactory conditions. Where the experience has been gained in a private school, the Council sends a form of inquiry to the school and obtains particulars as to the number and age of the pupils, the number and qualifications of the staff, and such other facts as will enable it to say whether the school is one in which a young teacher is likely to gain valuable experience. The Council has no desire to see efficient private schools abolished or hampered in their work. From the beginning it has regarded them as an integral part of our national education system, and the result of its inquiries has been to show that, although there are many schools of poor quality, there are also a large number which are doing thoroughly good work and are conducted by teachers who, in many instances, are content to accept a very small financial return.

The Training of the Teacher.

It is well known that for over forty years the University of Cambridge has made itself responsible for a training college for schoolmasters. In October, 1928, the Teachers' Training Syndicate appointed a Committee to make a complete inquiry into the systems and methods of the University Training College, and the Report of the Committee was printed in the *Cambridge University Reporter* on October 28 of last year. At the outset the Committee state that they found it necessary to report generally on the training of teachers, although they gave special attention to the University Training College. They add that, in thus enlarging the scope of their inquiry, they received encouragement from the Board of Education.

The main body of the Cambridge Report is in harmony with the policy of the Teachers Registration Council, which has laid it down that the condition as to training in teaching may be satisfied by applicants who submit evidence of having spent one academic year in the study of the methods and principles of teaching, accompanied by practice under supervision. The Committee urge that practice under supervision should be regarded as more important than attendance at lectures on the theory of teaching. They suggest that the most valuable subjects for an intending teacher are reading, elocution, discipline, and the teaching of special subjects. They say that they are definitely of opinion that instruction in the principles of education is an indispensable part of the training of teachers, but they hold that it should be based mainly upon the normal problems of school life, rather than a detailed course in theoretical psychology.

Perhaps the most interesting section of the Report is contained in one of the concluding paragraphs, where the Committee record their opinion that it would be most regrettable if a course at a training college was made indispensable for Registration as a teacher, and they state, further, that they are not prepared to subscribe to the dogma that no one can teach efficiently without being trained. On the former statement it is sufficient to say that the Teachers Registration Council has never suggested that a course at a training college is indispensable for Registration, and on the second statement it is, perhaps, enough to say that although there are a few teachers who have a natural aptitude for the work, and after a short time are able to teach efficiently without being trained, such teachers are far too few for our needs. In other words, there are "born" teachers, but the birth-rate is not high enough, and even the "born" teacher has something to learn concerning the technique of his work.

THE MONTH'S CAUSERIE.

BY THE DOMINIE.

The Bill.

The Bill for raising the school age is effectually knocked out, if not dead. The amendment proposed by Mr. Scurr, with the approval of his spiritual overlords, and supported by 282 votes as against 249, provides that the school age shall not be raised until an Act is passed to authorise expenditure from public funds on the building and altering of non-provided schools. It is not to be supposed that all who voted for this amendment were animated by the same motive. Party considerations counted for much, and there are many members who have no desire to see the school age raised just now. These would welcome the chance of defeating the Bill indirectly and without incurring the charge of being reactionary. The President of the Board is neatly impaled on the horns of a dilemma. If he satisfies Mr. Scurr he will arouse the strong opposition of the Free Churches. If he does not satisfy Mr. Scurr he cannot raise the school age. The Free Churches will fight strongly against the attempt to endow still further from public funds the teaching of sectarian dogma. In the fight the combatants on both sides will forget that schools exist for the sake of children.

Conferences on Education.

The first weeks of the year saw the customary gatherings of educationists at University College, Gower Street, the London Day Training College, the Imperial Institute, and the City of London Guildhall. Outside London the Science Masters met in Birmingham, and the North of England Education Conference met in Carlisle. Countless speeches were made, covering a wide range of topics. On another page will be found an article by Mr. F. J. Gould suggesting that there is need for an attempt to focus the discussions. With this I agree, while not forgetting the difficulties which arise from the fact that each association wishes to consider its own needs. The Conference of Educational Associations was established for the express purpose of bringing together as many bodies as possible. In practice the unification is sadly restricted. The different associations hold their own meetings and seem to compete for "star" speakers, with the object of ensuring a good attendance. It is true that there are joint meetings, but these are few and somewhat haphazard in the choice of topics. The committee ought to consider the possibility of having one general theme for discussion at all public meetings, holding these in the late afternoons, and assigning the morning hours to the private meetings of the associations taking part in the Conference.

Sir Richard Gregory on Science.

The Conference at Gower Street was opened by Sir Richard Gregory, a worthy recipient of a baronetcy in the Honours List, who dwelt eloquently on the part played by science in human life. He reminded us that in the study and laboratory might be discovered truths which in their application would affect our physical existence and our mental outlook. I was glad that he quoted the discoveries of Michael Faraday in illustration of this, reminding us that Faraday's work was the foundation of the industry of electrical engineering, which now represents a capital of thousands of millions of pounds and gives employment to countless men and women. Yet Faraday was the son of poor parents, and it was due to the self-denial of his mother that his schooling was extended beyond what was usual in his boyhood. But for this we might have had to wait for years before the electro-magnetic principle was discovered and applied. This story supplies an answer to those who grumble about the cost of schooling. The release of Faraday's genius came from his schooling, and its financial results would pay many times over for all that we have spent on our national system of education during the past century. We may have sent more than one potential Faraday into the mill or mine at fourteen.

Viscount Ullswater.

In sharp contrast with Sir Richard Gregory's address was the one delivered by Viscount Ullswater as President of the North of England Education Conference in Carlisle. His speech was such as have been made scores of times by those who regard public education with mistrust. He is wholly opposed to the raising of the school age and thinks that we are guilty of "squandermania" in spending £13 a year on the schooling of an English citizen. He makes the usual profession of a desire for education, but declares that we are trying to teach too much. He expresses admiration for the skill and devotion of teachers without suggesting any way by which these admirable qualities can be exercised in freedom from the worry of large classes and harassing conditions of work. In brief, his address showed that he knows very little about the schools and their work, and that he has not taken the trouble to think about education and what it means in a modern community. He talks as if schools were luxuries, to be grudgingly provided for the poor. This "coal and blankets" notion of education is entirely wrong. The means of enlightenment cannot be withheld from our young citizens without grave risk to the nation. The people govern, and they must be educated.

Subjects and Knowledge.

I was glad to see that Professor T. H. Pear, the Professor of Psychology in the University of Manchester, told an audience at Gower Street that one of the obstacles to sound learning and good teaching is the belief in entities called "subjects," which are insulated from each other by walls, corridors, lines on time-tables, groupings for examination purposes, and sometimes by obstinate vested interests. He might have added that we create a further difficulty by taking each subject in turn and making a grammar of it. This we do by a process of analysis appropriate and possible to adult minds, but wholly foreign to the minds of beginners. It is, of course, much more easy to teach a grammar than it is to teach a subject, and withal more easy to set examination papers thereon. Also it is more easy to teach a subject in and by itself than it is to show the relation between one branch of knowledge and another. So children learn "history" without being made aware of the effects of geographical conditions on historical events. They separate mathematics from physics, botany from zoology, and learn something called French which would be strange in Paris. Little that they learn is designed to satisfy their natural curiosity or desire for knowledge, and subjects are treated in school as things in themselves, having no link with the world outside.

The Young Worker.

Some little time ago the owners of a pottery in Staffordshire were fined £5 by the Stipendiary Magistrate on each of two charges of allowing boys to carry clay in excess of the weight allowed by the regulations. The evidence showed that the boys were carrying between forty-five and fifty pounds of clay, whereas the amount should not have been more than twenty pounds for one and twenty-five for the other. The younger boy was only fifteen years of age, and it requires no great power of imagination to picture the results on a boy of that age if he is carrying heavy weights during even a part of his working day. The case illustrates one of the worst perils of child labour. The youngster who is sent to the factory or into business starts by being eager to work. His elders often take advantage of this and give him tasks beyond his strength, justifying themselves by saying that they had to go through such experiences in their own youth. Regulations are made, but it is impossible to enforce them everywhere and at all times. Hence we may see in our industrial districts many lads and girls whose bodies are already suffering from excessive and injurious toil. It is folly to place upon ourselves the resulting economic burden. Every farmer knows that it is sheer waste to employ a young horse prematurely on heavy work.

Visits without Notice.

Teachers in public elementary schools must be ready to receive inspectors from the Board of Education at any time and without previous notice. Teachers in grant-aided secondary schools must also be ready to receive inspectors from the Board, but in their case the visitation is made after due notice. The difference here indicated seems to suggest that the Board have reason to think that teachers in elementary schools are in special need of supervision, that their standard of honesty in work is below that of the secondary school teachers, and that they cannot safely be left to carry on their duties. In practice the inspectors are often welcome visitants, but the system of visits without notice has nothing to recommend it. I would retain the right to pay such visits, and would exercise it whenever I had grounds for thinking that a school was ill-conducted. This right I would claim for every type of grant-aided school, but there is no reason for having all visits to elementary schools made without notice. The practice is humiliating to the teachers concerned, and to some it is a cause of needless worry. The inspector who knows his job will be able to discover whether a school is being well run even if his coming is made known beforehand. There is no need to turn him into a kind of detective.

The Salaries Question.

It becomes evident that the Burnham Scales will be reconsidered in the near future. There is a proposal by Dr. James Graham, the Director of Education for Leeds, that there should be a Departmental Committee to examine the question and report by August next. I gather that Dr. Graham is inclined to advocate a national or basic scale, such as I have suggested in these columns. The existing scales have many grave defects. They operate unfairly as between different areas, places having the lower scales being handicapped in their efforts to obtain teachers. It is educationally unsound to make a child's opportunities at school depend on the district in which he happens to be born or to spend his schooldays. The variations in cost of living should be examined afresh, and perhaps they should be met out of local resources, leaving the standard scale to be a charge on national funds. Pensions need not vary according to the district in which the pensioner has worked, and there need not be scales of salary for head teachers as such. The "responsibility pay," as it may be called, should be governed by the size of the school as measured by the number of teachers to be supervised. Above all, it is necessary to make teachers more mobile. As things are, it is almost impossible for any teacher with ten years' experience to obtain a post outside his own area.

ZETETIKOI.

BY SIR JOHN ADAMS.

As he proceeded in working out his great ideal state, Plato no doubt realised that, since he was going to demand half a century's education for those who were to govern it, he must needs make sure of the qualities of those who were to have this monstrous stretch of schooling. He hit upon seven qualities that he thought to be essential, and in the seventh book of "The Republic" he sets them forth. It would not be a bad exercise for thoughtful teachers, who have forgotten what the seven are, to spend half an hour in guessing what they are, and in comparing the seven that they select with the seven as set forth in the original text.

For the moment we may do worse than give our attention to one of the seven and deal with it as a sort of sample, since it is a quality that is being greatly praised just now and treated as one of the essentials to be encouraged by the new education. Let us maintain its dignity by retaining its Greek name, though we will not bother the compositor to hunt out his Greek characters. Further, we shall take Mark Twain's hint. On one occasion he said that the man who hurled a Greek quotation at him paid him a compliment by assuming that he understood it, but if the quoter would be good enough to translate it Mark would manage to worry along without the compliment. But lest you should think I am presuming to write down to you, I shall hand over the business of translating to our good friend Roger Ascham, who, in his "Scholemaster" of 1570, translates this along with the others of the seven Greek names of qualities essential to the successful student.

The quality we are concerned with is implied in the term *zetetikos*, which is thus translated in "The Scholemaster":—"He that is naturally bold to ask any question, desirous to search out any doubt, not ashamed to learn of the meanest, not afraid to go to the greatest, until he be perfectly taught, and fully satisfied."

Now that the dread secret is out few teachers will be found to sound the praises of the *zetetikoi*, which you will remember is the plural of the term. They will be inclined to remark with a certain crispness: "If it were only questions that are lacking!" Youth has always been fond of asking questions, and modern children show no trace of falling off in this matter. When we face the position squarely, we find that our case as professional teachers is not nearly so bad as that of the great band of parents, uncles, and aunts who come into close and unconventional touch with the young questioners. It has become a commonplace to metaphorise the

youngsters into animated interrogation points. We regularised teachers have a sort of palisade of professional convention under which we may take refuge while the interrogative darts of juvenile curiosity play havoc with the serried ranks of parents and other relatives without. Among these unfortunates questioning is regarded as something not far removed from vice. Indeed, the command, "Don't ask questions," is frequently issued and apparently without reproach from the general public, though, of course, *educationists* have a good many nasty things to say on the subject. Frail human beings sympathise with one another under the hail of questions, and do not stop to classify them into those that are justifiable and those that are not. A child that asks what day this is may justly claim an answer; but when he is told that it is Thursday and proceeds to ask "Why?" there is just cause for the butt of the interrogative archer to draw the line, and withhold a reply. While outside our professional palisade what may be called *zetetikosity* may approach the status of a vice, within our defences it tends to claim rank as a positive virtue, with Plato and Ascham as its supporters. The experienced teacher knows all too well that the question mark is apt occasionally to take the bit between its teeth among his pupils, and lead to an intolerable stream of questions, which nothing seems able to stop.

The conscientious teacher is sometimes hard put to it to reconcile the virtue of the *zetetikos* with the need to keep the straight path of the subject he is teaching. First of all he has to contend with the ingenious questioner who deliberately uses the interrogation point for the purpose of derailing the teacher from his proper subject on to a favourite one which will keep him away from the subject of the hour, about the contents of which the wily questioner is not sufficiently prepared. In these circumstances the able and conscientious teacher is happy. He can, with confidence and satisfaction, decline the insidious invitation to wander, and can keep doggedly on his predetermined way. But when a question is fairly in line with the general trend of the lesson, and appears to be the outcome of genuine interest, the teacher is often in doubt whether to answer it or pass it by. He needs certain general principles to guide him.

He must first satisfy himself that the pupil is in earnest about his question. Outside the palisade we are familiar with the question asked with so little interest, that before the answer can be given the child's mind is occupied with another. But this sort of question is not confined to the young. The classical example is supplied by Pilate, who has

become the standard illustration by Bacon's using him in his famous essay. Pilate was interested enough in his question, but had no hope of a satisfactory answer, and so passed on.

A second consideration for the doubting teacher is: Can the answer be worked into the warp and woof of the lesson as it stands; can it be introduced without breaking connections and derailing interest? The question asked may be important, and may indicate a line that the teacher has omitted in his preparation. In this case it should be dealt with on the spot, even if it involves the distractions we wish to avoid.

A third consideration is the possibility of delay without injury to the total structure of the lesson. The matter involved in the interpolated question may be of high importance to the lesson, and the teacher may feel that it must be dealt with some time or other; but, if it is not essential to the points being dealt with at the time the question is asked, it may well be left over for that attractive "more convenient season" that is at least occasionally free from reproach.

Coming back now to the big general treatment of the *zetetikoi*, a formidable problem presents itself in the case where a laudable question, without malice, exposes a spot of ignorance in the teacher's mental content. In the give and take of classroom work there exists the general impression that the teacher does the questioning and the pupils the answering. It is because of this generally accepted view that this pressing of the *zetetikos* aspect of the pupil makes such an impression on those to whom it is presented for the first time. For long the popular opinion was that the pupils should be seen rather than heard, except in the way of clear answering to questions deliberately put to them. Accordingly, with the growing popularity of the *zetetikos* idea there has arisen a certain nervousness among teachers about the possibility of being caught short in the matter of knowledge.

Fortunately, the new view regarding the source of questions has brought its own adjustment, for the old idea of the teacher's omniscience has given place to his recognition as a well-informed, but not necessarily an all-informed person. The teacher is still placed upon a pedestal, but it is a little lower than it used to be; and, following the law of compensation, it proves to be a much more comfortable one. The co-operative attitude of teacher and pupil makes it possible for each partner in the education process to recognise the limitations of the other, and to appeal from their joint ignorance to their common fount of knowledge. The natural resort of teacher and pupil alike in times of informational distress is the reference room of the school library, which may in all fairness be described as the *temple of the zetetikoi*.

THE LANGUAGE OF COMMERCE.

BY ONLOOKER.

"The words we use are a part of our character. Education should train us to say precisely what we mean and so display in our speech and writing a transparent honesty of meaning and motive."

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On educational grounds we feel bound to support the movement for Training in Salesmanship after reading this list.

CHILDREN'S PERPLEXITIES: SPACE AND DIRECTION.

By G. LESTER SMITH, B.Sc.

In the teaching of science and geography, a problem is often presented by the inability of children to form adequate mental pictures of comparatively large distances. There are two chief ways in which we can attack the problem, though fundamentally they are identical. We may divide the great distance into fractional parts which are within the imaginative capacity of the pupil. Take, for instance, the distance from the school to some familiar landmark. These sections may then be mentally assembled, or one part produced, in the geometrical sense of the term, the required number of times. Much depends on the topography of the district. If there is, at a few miles distance, a high hill which the children have climbed and explored, its apparent magnitude as viewed from the school premises will greatly assist the perceptions. It is manifest, however, that this method is not sufficient, as it breaks down when we come to deal with the sizes of countries.

An auxiliary method is to use time for space: the reverse of the process which is now commonly used by progressive teachers in constructing historical charts. How long would it take to walk to Wickhamthorptonwaite at three and a-half miles an hour for eight hours a day? If memories of weary, hungry, footsore hikes are evoked, the time will not be wasted, provided the reminiscences can be kept in kindly check. We may make use of the bike, railway engine, or the "Southern Cross," if the latter sets off on its transatlantic trip. Much insistence is often laid on this idea; but it should not be allowed to exclude other ideas.

While at school I saw a French cinema film taken by an ascending balloonist. One saw first the faces of his friends and those who released the balloon. The whole field was soon in view, and presently the village swung to and fro beneath the camera. The prospect broadened, until in the end a length of faked film culminated in a map of France. We were tremendously impressed. Though this cannot be done in the classroom, a similar plan can be adopted. Start with a plan of the school at one end of the classroom wall. Next to it pin a plan of the locality, and mark in the school in red. The plan may be as rough as we please if only the markings are bold enough to arrest the eye. We may proceed to maps of the parish, town, county, country, continent, and as far as we please. On each map the area occupied by the preceding one should be marked in.

Is the class fortunate enough to have access to field-glasses or a telescope? Any instrument which

extends the range of the senses widens the gateways to the brain.

It is hard to believe that stellar and interstellar magnitudes and distances should be inflicted in any but the vaguest manner on children below the age of thirteen. Above that age the idea of a light-year is fascinating, though it may not always convey very much. Probably, all things considered, it is best to be content with giving children of school age some of the most important figures and equations, and, at the same time, to attempt to evoke the "wonder-motive," so that in later years they may be prompted to mould round these dry bones the warm flesh and blood of perceptual imagery.

A word concerning the other end of the scale. How far across is a threepenny bit? Surely we are doing something really worth while when we remove some of the vagueness revealed by the answers to this question. Provided that we do not devote to it a disproportionate amount of time, a guessing game is useful. Let the children draw lines of given length in pencil, using another book as a straight-edge. They may then check their results with pen and ruler. Can they see an insect a hundredth of an inch long? They don't think so; but they can, and often do unless their sight is imperfect. Do they ever use a lens; and can they find its magnifying power by means of the sun's rays? $M.P. = 1 + 10 \text{ in.} \div \text{distance from lens to burning spot}$ will do as a rough method.

All teachers of geometry and geography know that judiciously chosen technical terms are as useful and even necessary to the student as tools are to the craftsman. Unfortunately, however, they sometimes fail to estimate the confusion existing in children's minds over such elementary terms as "horizontal," "vertical," and "perpendicular." A foreman in a Lancashire chemical works was once heard to declare, apropos of a hut built on a slope, "Look, sir, them walls isn't poppenduckler." The trouble was that they *were* perpendicular, and not vertical. Our attempts to face this difficulty will meet with more success if we clear up the confusion existing over such terms as "flat," "even," "level," and "straight." This seems to be rather a task for the English master. Occasional lessons on classification and definition can be vastly entertaining. The science master, especially the biologist, is often too preoccupied with classification, while the English master underestimates its utility. Specialist teachers could, with profit to all concerned, submit lists of such absurd terms. Failing this, fifteen minutes of the geography lesson devoted to them would not be wasted.

It should be made very clear that "perpendicularity" is the relation between the horizontal and the vertical, but that this relation can be orientated into any position. To how many adults will this come as an old idea? A word of warning is necessary. The word "relation" is almost unbelievably confusing to anyone of mental age less than fifteen years. It goes without saying that a full explication is only possible if practical methods are used. If practicable, let the class make a simple clinometer, and with it level a book, drawing-board, or desk. Thus they will learn that it should be levelled in two directions at right angles to each other. Better still, let them level a circular card, and show its relation to the shape of the horizon. Few children actually regard the horizon as circular, for the simple reason that their thoughts are limited to one direction at a time. While this practical work is in progress it will be a good opportunity to demonstrate the use of a spirit level, and for the children to observe that the clino would have to be considerably modified before it could be used on the ground.

It is a great help if wall maps can occasionally be hung with the south uppermost, thus bringing the east to the left. A journey could profitably be followed on the map so reversed. Some teachers try to arrange a small class in a circle or horseshoe round the wall map extended on the floor. This, of course, is best. These expedients emphasise the necessity of making it clear that the east is to the right only when we are facing north. It may be suggested that a globe-map will soon set matters right; but the premature insistence on difficulties connected with the earth's shape and motion is dangerous. It is important, if surprising, to face candidly the fact that many concepts which to us seem absurdly obvious cannot be grasped by younger children. There are more reasons than one for this, and more harm than good may be done by trying to hammer home the logic of our problem too early. Nevertheless, the occasional and incidental use of the globe can do no harm, and can only lead to children slowly working out for themselves the concept of a universe in which our human earthly directions have no place. The great thing is to upset harmful preconceived notions, and to be content merely to encourage truer syntheses.

It is disturbing to observe the facile contempt with which children dismiss the "flat-earthites," for it indicates that their minds have become prematurely closed to the subject. Arguments proving the roundness of the earth appear to be wasted labour, and yet one is uncomfortably aware that the summary dismissal of the topic is based on insecure foundations. Perhaps the best way to reopen the question is to begin to argue that the earth really

is flat. It is remarkably easy to make out a case. The children think you are easy game, rush in to squash you, and are neatly trapped into presenting the full case. Of course you show no triumph; but summarise the evidence at the end of the discussion. The various points which must be worked into the discussion may be conveniently grouped under two heads:—

Evidence: Ships disappearing at sea, allowances for curvature in canal cutting, shadow of earth on moon, new stars coming into sight over horizon, altitude of Pole Star at different places, sun rising earlier as one moves eastward, circumnavigation.

Explanation: Story of spider on St. Paul's dome thinking its domain is flat till carried round by friendly pigeon, drawing of small parts of a curve, disappearance of poles on Mercator's Projection, analogy with sun and moon, earth's day and night as seen from moon.

What bearing on the geography lesson has the so-called sense of direction? It is a very complicated faculty, rich in percepts of great value to the educator. Even its direct practical value, though of less importance in a civilised community than in the wilder conditions of life, is by no means negligible. Therefore instead of trusting to instincts which may be poorly developed and, in any case, will probably betray us when unprecedented situations arise, we can with advantage substitute a reliable and easily repeated reasoning process. This in time may reach such a level of skill as to resemble an instinct very closely.

Let us briefly summarise the important factors. Those who have wandered in solitary regions may find with surprise on analysing their mental reactions that they can turn immediately to the south even when the sun is obscured. From experience it may be stated that this can be acquired. Children, however, will benefit from exercises with watch and compass. Point the hour hand of the watch to the sun, and half-way between the hour hand and the twelve mark indicates south. Why?

The fixing of landmarks, especially long ones such as a railway line or range of hills, is manifestly of very great value. This should suggest many exercises of interest in local geography. Probably the most important exercises of all are those leading to the realisation that, in addition to knowing one's changes of direction, it is necessary to know the distances between these changes. Much interest can be aroused by planning two routes with the same changes of direction, but different distances between them. Everyone, of course, should be able to gauge distances with fair accuracy. All this is an excellent preliminary to map-making, and should prevent a great deal of fogginess at a later stage.

DISADVANTAGES OF THE CO-EDUCATION SCHOOL.

By E. A. ASHTON.

After several years' experience, I am convinced that the disadvantages of the present system of co-education far outnumber its advantages.

The chief claims made for co-education are that the continual intercourse afforded to boys and girls prevents "unhealthy curiosity and premature sexual excitement"; secondly, that each sex is influenced by the other's good qualities; and thirdly, that it strengthens the basis of family life, being a natural corollary thereof.

Theoretically, these arguments are very convincing, but, as is so often the case with educational ideas, the conflicting forces of personality have not been taken into account. The staff of a school is at least as important as the pupils, and they are, in my opinion, the chief stumbling-block.

Constant intercourse between the sexes is unavoidable in a mixed school; so what more natural than that "boy and girl" friendships should arise? At the adolescent stage, some outlet for the emotions is necessary; indeed, it is dangerous if there is none, but what is the attitude of the staff? At best, a kind of supercilious tolerance; most often, a definite antagonism, an attempt to stamp them out by those verbal weapons of the profession, sarcasm, satire, and irony. If these fail, a severe address by the head will reduce the girl to tears and the boy to crimson humiliation. The admirable result is either that the idea of friendship with the opposite sex becomes something of which to be ashamed, giving rise to all sorts of repressions and inhibitions, or else that the two take themselves far more seriously than they otherwise would have done, maybe with disastrous results.

An entirely different problem arises out of the relations between the young members of the staff and the older pupils in a mixed school. I know of two cases at least where a young master straight from college fell in love with a girl in the school, eventually marrying her; and of a third affair which had an unpleasant termination. It may be argued that such occurrences are rare; nevertheless, the situation may arise again. The position was anomalous, and created a great deal of unrest and discussion among pupils, staff, and parents.

The method followed in selecting heads of mixed schools has always been a mystery to me. A person with the utmost tact should be chosen for this difficult position, and one who can be relied on to pick his staff with the utmost care to ensure co-operation and good feeling. Most important, surely, a head who is convinced that co-education is really worth while. And yet so many act in a manner that shows they are utterly at variance with the principles of co-

education. How, then, can the system hope for success? I know of one head in a large country school, which was instituted as an experiment in mixed education, whose chief desire is to split the school into two entirely separate departments for boys and girls. Another forbids his staff to entertain members of any other mixed school within the sacred precincts, but outside in the field! If they are playing a return match, they are reduced to the shift of taking the tea to their opponents' school.

But even with a conscientious head the post is by no means enviable. He will constantly come up against sex jealousy on the staff. Any courtesy to the women is called "pandering" by the men; while the women look on him as a mysoginist at the slightest provocation. The friction between the senior master and mistress at my present school is unbearable at times, while, whenever a question of discipline arises, the men assert "The girls are to blame"; the mistresses, "The boys are so disobedient," until the matter assumes the aspect of an acrimonious quarrel between the sexes.

The fault here lies, I think, with the women. Disagreeable as it may sound, there are very few single women in the thirties and onward, teachers included, who have not adopted one of two attitudes towards men; either one of contempt, implying that they have no use for the opposite sex, generally a pose, assumed lest they be suspected of undue anxiety to attract; the other, a gushing friendliness, which may be purely nervous, or the effect of a repressed desire for marriage. In either case, the attitude is not conducive to happy relations with men.

As Bertrand Russell has said, married women are the best teachers, for their emotional lives are full and satisfied; they will not demand those attentions from the children that an unsatisfied single woman does unconsciously. This is very true with regard to the teaching of adolescent boys by single women. They continually introduce the personal element into their dealings with a boy at the very age when he is sexually shy. They construe into personal insults trifles that a master would ignore.

With these drawbacks in mind, I doubt the advisability of co-education after the age of eleven years. To provide the adolescent with the intercourse which is assuredly necessary, I suggest the grouping of several schools in the same district with a view to forming various clubs and societies out of school hours, which boys and girls might join. Supervised by members of the staffs in turn, this would furthermore ensure that friendly co-operation between the men and women from different schools which seems to me so lamentably lacking in the present co-educational school.

THE CONFERENCE OF EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS.

What it Lacks.

By F. J. GOULD.

Having attended most of the nineteen Conferences of Educational Associations at University College, London, I have only one fault to find. They lack a central aim, conscious and acknowledged. The arrangements are always good; the programmes lively; the speakers eager; the discussions, on the whole, sensible; the bookstalls inviting; the expeditions by motor or train agreeable; the committee capable and devoted. It is the same story every year. I praise sincerely and fully, except the most significant omission. And surely nobody in the Conference circle will object to such ample tribute. I fear no libel action. But I speak very seriously, and as a man who began school teaching—somewhat clumsily, no doubt—in 1871, and has since mingled with teachers and youth in hundreds of cities, east and west. I repeat: the Conference lacks a central aim, conscious and acknowledged.

Look at the recent (1931) programme. It covers a vast medley of topics, such as Froebel's Ideals; How to Study; Racial Prejudice in Children; Examinations; Beauty of the World; Animal Welfare; Montessori Method; Physical Education; Art; Vocational Guidance; Mathematics; Sleep; Fagging; Theatre; Child Religion; Discoveries at Ostia; Languages and Commerce; Handicraft; Musical Stimulus; the Deaf; School Journeys; Geography; Persian Painting; Broadcasting; Thinking for Oneself; Puritans; Gymnastics; Marriage—and these wedding bells closed the last session. What the famous visitor from Mars would say to this miscellany I cannot guess. But I fancy a visitor from any nebula would have felt very much at home. I will, however, hasten to observe that I never heard a finer Presidential Address than that given to the Nineteenth Conference by Sir Richard Gregory, the author of that most beautiful book "Discovery." But it was restricted to "The Worth of Science" (that is, the worth in the service of man). I glance at the huge programme, and I want to know the worth of Fagging, of Ostia, of Persian Painting, of Puritans, and the rest. The committee dismiss us with the blessing of the wedding bells, but they do not tell us the secret meaning—or the frank objective—of the Conference. No; for there is neither secret meaning nor frank objective in any central sense. I recognise enthusiasm and goodwill; but I discover nothing that intimates the purpose of education as a whole.

Many years ago I framed the following statement of the aim:—

The aim of education should be service of family and commonwealth, expressed in

material, intellectual, and artistic industry, inspired by history, and perpetually responsive to the claims of the whole circle of humanity; and this duty of service applies to all members of the community without exception.

To this statement I adhere to-day. But if, armed with power of arrest by some supreme spiritual authority, I could have stood at the Gower Street gate and questioned every member of the recent Conference, would this statement have won universal assent? What would the guide to Ostia have said? (I have visited the ruins, so I would much like to know.) Would the lecturer on Mathematics have started arguing? Would the speaker on Examinations have fled? And if a hundred "working women" and "working men" had registered their names at the University College, what would have been their replies? In truth, I should have valued the opinions of that hundred. That many of the Conference people would actually condemn my statement I do not suppose. But some would say it was Utopian; some would say they preferred to follow special practical aims (Ostia, Marriage, Sleep, &c.); and some would attach vital reservations. When I say "vital reservations," I am recalling impressions I have gained in my visits to many types of schools—Hindu, Parsee, Moslem, Jewish, Roman Catholic, Protestant, Unitarian, Simple Bible (Council), &c. So that, as a sufficing and all-embracing utterance, I do not think the Gower Street visitors would accept the statement. Certainly, the Committee have never attempted to close any of the nineteen Conferences with a summary that implied the central aim I have marked, or any other central aim.

Whither, then, do we move? If, instead of the visitor from the nebula, we had a visitor from Saturn, where the atmosphere is very gloomy, the Saturnine conclusion would run, that Conferences of Educational Associations will indefinitely continue aimless. I do not take the Saturnine view. It seems to me likely enough that, even now, some Conference members must feel the lack; that feeling is, in itself, a first valuable step. Both Aristotle and St. Thomas Aquinas would have a right to smile at the spectacle of so many earnest and scholarly "educationists" meeting year after year without explicit and joyous consensus of purpose, without being able to tell any young man or woman, in plain and happy English, what it is all for. When, in the year * * * *, the aim is announced by general consent, it must be such as can be accepted by all schools of thought, all nations, all races.

THE HEALTH OF THE SCHOOL CHILD.

The Chief Medical Officer of the Board of Education and his colleagues are to be congratulated on their aptitude for producing interesting and informing reports. Their latest effort, which is the Twenty-second Annual Report on the School Medical Service, and covers the year 1929, may be obtained through His Majesty's Stationery Office for the sum of 2s. net. It deserves to be widely read, not only by teachers and administrators, but also by parents, for it contains a wealth of valuable counsel, and indicates very clearly, not only the beneficial results which have followed from the School Medical Service, but the many gaps which remain to be filled, especially in the home treatment of children during the first years of life. We learn that during the year under review the number of children inspected was 1,831,637, or 37·3 per cent. of those in average attendance. In addition 905,690 children, who were referred for some special reason by parents, school teachers, or nurses, were examined by School Medical Officers. The total thus brought under the eye of the doctor was well over 50 per cent. of the average attendance; but we are again told that the years before school life are extremely critical, and it is clear that much mischief is done which serves to hamper the later efforts of teachers and school medical officers. In some areas parents are advised to bring their young children to the school clinic, and in others there is a systematic visitation of children of pre-school age by local health visitors. Nursery schools and nursery classes also give opportunity for early medical supervision, but the present statutory powers are inadequate to bring all children who may need it within the orbit of the School Medical Service. Sir George Newman makes the excellent and sensible suggestion that, when parents are invited to the schools to attend the routine inspection of their children, they should bring the younger children with them and submit them for examination to the School Medical Officer. By these various means it may be possible, as time goes on, to avoid the dangers of early ailments such as are found in many cases to have produced mental and physical results which grievously hamper a child's schooling. The years immediately following the compulsory age of school attendance are also important. Children who pass on to secondary schools remain under supervision, and in some areas this is true also of those who attend continuation and technical institutions. Otherwise, the young adolescent appears to be left to his own devices.

It can hardly be claimed that the existing staff of the School Medical Service is extravagantly high. Counting the 276 whole-time school officers, who are helped by 640 whole-time officers for public health

and school work jointly, and adding the 403 part-time officers, we get the equivalent to a whole-time service numbering 651, or approximately one to 7,500 children—a somewhat meagre allowance, it would seem, considering the important nature of the work to be done.

How important this is may be realised from the fact that, in 1929, the percentage of children found to be suffering from definite defects other than dental disease and uncleanliness was 20·8, or over one in five of those examined. Some of these defects are clearly due to early neglect. Thus there were over 177,000 cases of enlarged tonsils and adenoids, and over 200,000 cases of skin disease. It is gratifying to learn that in the districts where unemployment is most rife there is very little increase in the number of definitely ill-nourished children, although there is an increase in the number of those of sub-normal physique. In London the infants are found to be well nourished, but they suffer in greater measure than the older pupils from lung troubles, external eye disease, and rickety deformities. It is found that, although a large amount of preventable disease and suffering exists among our school children, their general condition improves greatly during school life, and on leaving they are much healthier than when they entered school.

Once more Sir George Newman stresses the importance of hygiene as a subject to be taught in all grades of schools. This should certainly be an adjunct to the physical training which is now regarded as an essential part of the curriculum; but it is idle to suppose that lessons on hygiene in themselves will do much to help in improving the physical condition of children so long as we have schools with no proper facilities for personal cleanliness, and carried on in buildings which are often merely examples of what should be avoided. Lessons on breathing are out of place in classrooms which are ill-ventilated, and it is a poor joke to give earnest instruction on the importance of regular ablutions when scores of children are expected to share one wash-basin and one towel.

Lectures on Scouting.

Mr. Ernest Young, formerly Assistant Secretary for Higher Education under the Middlesex Education Committee, and well known as one of the authors of "The Human Geographies," has been appointed Education Commissioner to the Boy Scout Association. In this capacity he is prepared to give a limited number of lectures, without fee, on certain educational aspects of the Boy Scout and Girl Guide Movements, with special reference to the training of character in schools for senior pupils.

THE OFFER TO NON-PROVIDED SCHOOLS.

We have received from the Board of Education the following account of the offer made by the President towards meeting the demands of representatives of non-provided schools.

The following are the proposals as amended by the Conference on Voluntary Schools held at the Board of Education, under the Presidency of Sir Charles Trevelyan, on January 13 and 14. The representatives of the Local Authorities, of the teachers, of the Church of England, and of the Catholics, thought that these proposals could be presented to their various interests with a likelihood of acceptance. The Free Church representatives thought them still unacceptable. It should be noted that the proposals in regard to teachers only affect schools which come under the agreements.

(1) Local Education Authorities may make arrangements with managers of non-provided schools which are required for purposes of re-organisation, or for raising the school-leaving age.

(2) Associations of schools may be constituted in the area of any Local Education Authority representative of the managers of the schools of any particular denomination and of its Church authorities. Such associations may be authorised to make agreements under this section on behalf of their constituent managers and to act for the managers in every other respect under this Act if so desired by the managers.

(3) Such agreements are to be made between Local Education Authorities on the one hand, and, on the other, associations of schools or bodies of managers of individual schools. Throughout the proposals the word "Managers" means either Associations of Schools or individual Bodies of Managers.

(4) Such agreements may be altered if both parties so agree.

(5) Schools which come within an agreement shall be aided towards the necessary improvements or reconditioning to the extent in the original agreement of not less than 50 per cent. and not more than 75 per cent. of the cost by the Local Education Authority.

(6) The Local Authority shall have power to make future improvements, and shall be able to pay the whole or such proportion of the cost as may be agreed in each case. But the duty of the managers to keep the school house in repair remains unaffected.

(7) The school cannot be closed without the consent of the Local Education Authority.

(8) The teachers are to be in the employment of the Local Education Authority and are to be appointed and dismissed by them.

(9) The agreement shall lay down how many teachers shall be reserved, as having religious qualifications. The unreserved teachers shall be appointed as in Provided Schools. But the agreements shall

permit a variety of arrangements as to the methods of appointing the reserved teachers.

(10) The agreement may specify alternatively—either (a) that the Local Education Authority shall appoint the reserved teacher, provided that he possesses some certificate of competence or other qualification in relation to religious teaching as agreed on between the Local Education Authority and the managers; or (b) that the Local Education Authority shall appoint the reserved teacher, provided that the managers are satisfied as to his fitness and competence to give the required religious instruction; or (c) that the managers may have the right of recommending a teacher for appointment from a short list of not less than five applications selected by the Authority after consultation with the managers, on the understanding that the Local Education Authority do not refuse to appoint the recommended teacher on grounds solely connected with his religious suitability and competence.

(11) Reserved teachers are to be dismissable by the Local Education Authority. But the managers may request the transfer or removal on religious grounds.

(12) In case of a serious deadlock between the managers and the Local Education Authority as to either appointment or dismissal, the matter shall be decided by an arbitrator appointed by the Board of Education assisted by two assessors—one appointed by the Local Education Authority, the other by the Bishop of the denomination to which the school belongs.

(13) In any area where there is no effective choice of schools or where children over or under the age of eleven years are transferred from a school provided by the Local Education Authority to a school not so provided, or from a non-provided school of one denomination to a non-provided school of another denomination: (a) provision shall be made for religious teaching to be given in the school to which such children are transferred upon the syllabus (if any) prescribed or authorised by the Local Education Authority for use in schools provided by them. Nothing in this Act shall prevent the giving of special religious instruction under the provisions of Section 29 (5) (c) of the Education Act, 1921. (b) Any child attending the school may be withdrawn from it during the time of religious instruction if (i) his parent so desires; (ii) the Local Authority are satisfied that arrangements have been made for him to attend religious instruction elsewhere.

(14) The agreement may stipulate that religious teaching according to an agreed syllabus shall be obligatory in the school.

MODERN SCHOOLING

SCHOOL COMPETITIONS.

BY H. E. BRYANT, B.A., formerly Head Master of Brigg Grammar School.

In every school there are some pupils who have little opportunity of distinguishing themselves in the ordinary school curriculum. They have neither the fine ear nor the retentive verbal memory which might enable them to become good linguists. They lack the facility in abstract reasoning which is essential for the making of the mathematician or the scientist. They are not bookish, and will never reach a high standard in history or English literature. Geography may make a greater appeal to them and they may excel in art, music, or craftsmanship; but the last-named subjects are still the Cinderellas of the curriculum. Unless, therefore, they have a fine physique and can distinguish themselves on the playing field, they are apt to lose self-respect, and may develop an inferiority complex which will be a handicap to them all through life.

Annual school competitions provide such pupils with an opportunity of winning distinction in some pursuit which is better adapted to their temperament than the ordinary subjects of the school curriculum. They also reveal to the members of the staff the possibilities of their pupils who give evidence of skill and ability which were before unsuspected. They therefore serve a threefold purpose. They help the pupil who is feeling his inferiority to recover his self-respect; they help the teacher to respect boys whom he was inclined to despise; and they tend to develop certain activities for which the ordinary curriculum gives little opportunity. In the country grammar school with which the writer is best acquainted the competitions are held towards the end of the spring term. The subjects are as follows:—1. Instrumental music: solos on (a) piano, (b) violin, (c) any other instrument. 2. Vocal music: (a) solos, (b) form quartets. 3. Art: (a) original designs in pencil, pen, or colour, e.g., for a poster advertising a specified article, or for the slip cover of a book; (b) plasticine model of a specified animal for Forms I and II; (c) print from a wood- or linoleum-cut, or a stencil for decorating the edge of a dish or some other object; (d) blackboard drawing. 4. Carpentry model. 5. Metalwork model. 6. Working model. 7. Meccano: any original model. 8. Photography: (a) landscape, (b) portrait. 9. Geography: (a) specified map, (b) specified model in relief. 10. Natural history collection. 11. Extempore speaking. 12. Literature: (a) original poem on one of a given list of subjects, (b) translation of a set portion of a Latin or French poem into English verse, (c) recitation, (d) a short one-act play. In

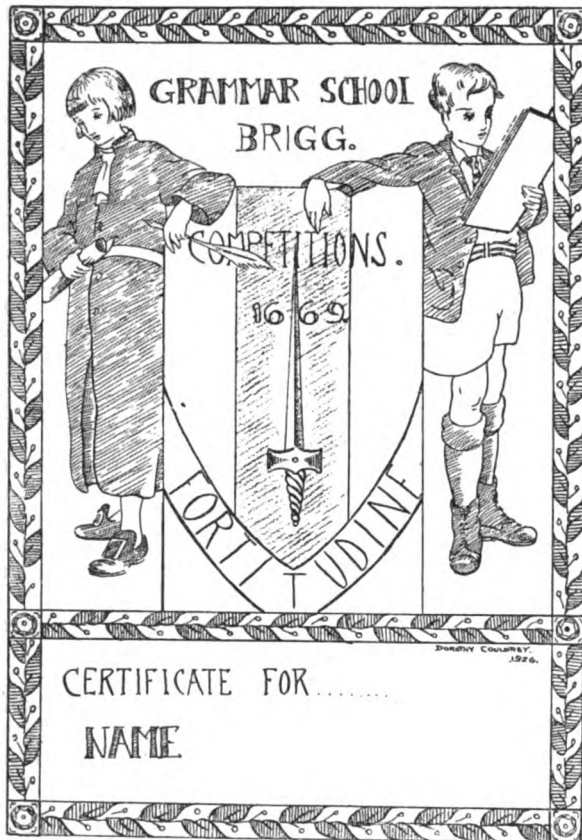
most of the subjects there are separate classes for competitors of different ages.

This list was made for boys, but it could easily be amended for girls. Except where it is specifically stated to the contrary in the above list, boys are allowed to choose for themselves what they shall present for competition. This not only makes the work more interesting to the competitors, but also tends to develop initiative and originality. In the case of older pupils original composition in music might be added.

In the first instance the success of the venture depends greatly on the form masters. A good deal of encouragement may be needed in order to persuade boys to enter. But when once the tradition has been established in a school, there will be little difficulty.

There are two or three ways of stimulating interest. The older way was to exact a small entrance fee and use the money so collected for money or book prizes, the fund being subsidised to some small extent from other sources. The more modern way is to present certificates to the winners, though it is doubtful if this gives the same stimulus to younger boys. A difficulty will be found in obtaining suitable certificates; but this can be overcome by persuading the art master or some other member of the staff to design a certificate for the purpose. This may then be printed in line at little expense. Boys appreciate such a certificate far more than an ordinary illuminated card. Whichever of these methods is adopted, there should be a competition concert. This is one of the most popular events of the year in the school of which I am speaking. A display of the various exhibits is arranged. A selection of the winners sing solos, or perform on an instrument, or recite their own poems. When the instrument chosen happens to be the euphonium, or the cornet, or the piccolo, great interest is displayed by the audience; and it goes without saying that a skilful performer on the mouth-organ brings down the house. Sometimes a whistling contest is arranged, the competitors whistling their chosen air behind a screen. The blackboard drawing competition is always settled at the concert itself. Four or five blackboards are used at the same time in full view of the audience, and five minutes is allowed for the completion of the drawing. In the extempore speaking the competitors are asked to retire to a classroom, whence they are summoned in turn. A list of three subjects is given to the speaker, and

he is allowed two minutes for consideration and five minutes for his speech. This is always a popular event. The Governors are present together with as many friends as the assembly room will hold. Two or three act as judges for the last-mentioned events, and they seem to enjoy it as much as the boys themselves.



The Anna Westmacott Fund.

On the liquidation of the Education Guild a Trust was formed to administer its various Benevolent Funds, namely the Anna Westmacott Fund (which was for some twenty years administered by the Teachers' Guild) and the Teachers' Guild's own Benevolent Fund which was established in 1898. The former was established for the benefit of women teachers in high schools and other schools for the higher education of girls in cases of illness or overwork, or for needful relaxation; and the latter Fund for the relief of deserving men or women teachers in distress through temporary and unforeseen causes.

The address is now 29 Gordon Square, W.C.1, with Miss Ruth Young as clerk to the Trustees.

THE TEACHING OF CRAFTWORK IN SCHOOLS.

By C. R. LEVISON.

The enthusiasm with which craftwork is being introduced into schools is admirable, but something more than mere activity is desirable. What are we after, and where does all this craftwork lead? The obvious cultivation of manual dexterity is not enough; there must be added a definitely cultural effect resulting in the cultivation of taste, the appreciation of sound workmanship, and a feeling for beauty of form, colour, and texture.

Where craftwork falls short of this ideal it probably does so either because its correlation with art is neglected, or because unreal crafts are selected.

The correlation of art and craftwork must be very close. Handwork should be regarded as applied art rather than as a light form of manual labour. This correlation of art and craftwork appears often to be neglected, for it is no uncommon thing to find children allowed to use commercially printed designs on their work. There are, unfortunately, many of these available (particularly for leatherwork), and their use cannot be too strongly deprecated. Indeed, their use cannot be justified at all in schools where art is a subject of instruction. Even when such designs are good (and many are very poor), their use defeats an important aim of craftwork, namely the planning of design for a definite purpose with due consideration of the tools to be used and the material they are to be used on. Another result, the very antithesis of sound craftsmanship, is to find the size and construction of an article modified to fit the design; or perhaps a design planned for stencilling or embroidery arbitrarily applied to leather or pottery. The defence sometimes advanced that these printed designs are for those who cannot draw is inadmissible. If people cannot draw well enough to produce a pleasing decoration, they should either make plain unornamented articles or should evolve decoration which does not involve drawing, such as ruled lines and punch impressions on leather, or brush "blobs" on pottery.

There is no special merit in teaching a multitude of crafts. Some variety is, of course, desirable, and there are a sufficient number of real crafts to provide this. The tendency to search out and invent novel crafts is dangerous, and has presented us with such methods of wasting time and material as "sealing wax craft," painted glass, and pen painting. Unless the articles made are thoroughly capable of performing the functions for which they exist, the work loses much of its reality, and therefore loses value. Plates or fabrics which cannot be washed lest the pattern comes off, and vases which will not hold water are bad art and bad craftsmanship. Not ingenious makeshifts, but sound craftsmanship on traditional lines should be our aim.

THE VILLAGE SCHOOL.

II. Some of its activities.

BY WILLIAM CLAYTON.

In the course of his duties the village teacher will quite frequently have to deviate from strict adherence to the school time-table. It will be well, however, for his peace of mind always to remember to put an entry in his log-book explaining the reason for his action.

A while ago the secretary of the local branch of the Farmers' Union visited our school to ask if I would "set out" the ploughing areas for the various classes in a ploughing match which he was organising. He stated that in the previous year's contest several of the competitors had to be put to inconvenience because of faulty measurements. I asked him to wait while I consulted my senior class, and they, being glad of the opportunity, agreed to accompany me. So I returned to him and said: "If you can arrange to be in the field to-morrow afternoon at two o'clock, we will be there and give you any help we can."

Next morning during the arithmetic lesson we got out our village plans, and, having located the field, soon found the reason for our farmer friend's visit. The field was one of the most irregular in shape that it would be possible to find, and the difficulty of setting out the match plots without a knowledge of surveying and the aid of instruments was at once apparent.

Our crop records showed that it was a clover field, which had been mown twice that season, and was therefore a very suitable field for a demonstration of ploughing.

With our set-squares and dividers we did our best to plot out the work for twenty-two competitors on paper. When the lesson was over each of us had a fair knowledge of what we intended to do with the actual field when we arrived there in the afternoon.

At one-thirty, after seeing all registers duly closed and the log-book entry made, the assistant master marched off with a dozen big boys carrying a rough sketch plan of the field, pencils, note-books, a surveyor's chain, a Gunter's chain, ten iron pins, a quadrant, and a surveyor's sighting compass.

Some time later I followed on my bicycle and found that they had arrived at the field, discovered from the secretary the area each man was required to plough, set out their base line, and reckoned up the length and width of each plot without waiting for me. The assistant said the boys were so eager that they could not wait. He was apologising when I commended them for their pluck, and told them I had purposely delayed my arrival to see how far they had profited by the morning's talk.

With very little help from me they set off a line at right angles from the end of their base line, using both the quadrant and the compass for this purpose. One set of boys measured the required length down this line with the surveyor's chain, another set checked the measurement with the Gunter's chain, and, having found it correct, another boy drove in a strong white lath similar to the one at the end of the base line from which the measuring started.

All we had to do now was to set out another line as long as, and parallel with, our base line, get the farmer's man, who was waiting with a plough team yoked ready, to cut out a shallow furrow down our base line and back along our parallel line, and the boundaries of the plots were completed.

We had still to measure the width of the individual plots, and to mark them on both boundaries with the strong white laths; but this was soon completed to the satisfaction of pupils and teachers. The farmer was not quite so happy. We had only measured the width from base line to the opposite boundary once when we had set off the northern right-angled line, and he was doubtful about the lines at the southern extremity being the same distance apart. To please him we measured and found it exactly right. The farmer was both surprised and curious, and eventually asked if he might have a look down the "spying glass," as he called our quadrant. I agreed gladly, and, calling two of the biggest lads, I said, "Now you know these boys well, don't you?" "Yes," he replied, "I know them well." I sent one of them across the measured portion to the lath at right angles to where we were standing, and the other boy was sent down the base line for a similar distance. I directed the farmer to look at the lad across the field, and asked him if he could see the other. "No, I cannot," he said, "unless I turn round." I set the quadrant in position, and invited him to look down the "spying glass." He did so, and when his eyes became accustomed to their new job, his face lit up with wonder, then doubt, then amazement, and, standing upright again, he said, "Why, both lads are at the other side of the field, and one of them is standing on his head atop o'tother." My boys laughed heartily and, gathering up our goods, we said good-day without making him any wiser, because he was *not* a member of our senior class, which is really a rather selective and privileged company.

This job took us all the afternoon, but who dare say it was wasted?

"NEWS OF THE WEEK."

By R.D.

It is the experience of every teacher that the attention of growing boys can only be held by an endless variety of methods and schemes. The end of a term, especially, is testing time for a teacher's inventiveness; for every boy feels at this time that school is a distraction from the more exciting pastime of games and parties. One of the most successful methods I have tried for making boys of twelve years of age feel that school, even in December, can be quite an interesting place, is to substitute for one of their usual English lessons a period for discussing events of the week. It can be most effectively worked by appointing one boy as Sports Correspondent, another as Scientific Correspondent, another as Disaster Correspondent, Foreign Correspondent, and so on. The business of the correspondents is to amass from newspapers, magazines, &c., all available information on the subjects for which they are responsible. They must, too, be prepared to give an account in class of all they have discovered about it. After the correspondent has given his complete report the class discusses the events—their causes, consequences, &c.; and by judicious guidance the teacher can invariably lead the discussion into profitable channels. Competition is always keen for the various correspondent posts, and the boys realise that good speech and a clear exposition of the subject is necessary. Each correspondent wishes to do well and to have found out everything about his subject. It is regarded as humiliating for the special "shipping correspondent" to have overlooked a record crossing of the Atlantic!

The experiment is even more successful when limited to monthly periods, when the "news of the month" is discussed. Besides making a greater mass of information available, the sense of anticipation for the news period is sharpened. The beginning of the news period always sees the boys in a state of suppressed excitement, in anticipation of hearing about Jack Hobbs or Carnera, autogyros or railplanes, volcanic eruptions or tidal waves. And it is not merely a momentary interest, for I have found that as a result of the experiment a keener interest in everyday events has been aroused and a deeper desire on the part of the boys thoroughly to understand what is happening every day. Their English composition has become much more "modern" and intelligent.

At the end of the news period I am left in no doubt as to the success of the venture. It is always a cheery thing to overhear, at the end of a December day, "That was good"; for is it not the pupil who is to a large extent the judge of our success?

TRAVELLING SCHOLARSHIPS FOR TEACHERS.

The Walter Hines Page Travelling Scholarships, and two scholarships at the Chautauqua Summer School in the State of New York, will again be offered by the Education Committee of the English-Speaking Union in 1931, to enable women teachers to visit the United States of America.

The Page Scholarship was founded in 1924 by the English-Speaking Union in memory of the former American Ambassador to Great Britain. The holder is invited to spend her summer vacation in America as the guest of the English-Speaking Union of the United States, and her hostesses are prepared to arrange for her to study any aspect of American life in which she is interested. The scholarship is of the value of £100, and complete hospitality is offered in America. To meet the remaining travelling and incidental expenses the teacher need only provide a further £50.

In 1931, also, two additional Page Scholarships have kindly been offered respectively by the National Union of Teachers and the Association of Assistant Mistresses, and will be awarded by the English-Speaking Union. These scholarships, which are open to members of these two associations only, provide the same American hospitality and opportunities as the Page Scholarship on the English-Speaking Union foundation, and are to the value of £50 each. It should be noted that the National Union of Teachers scholarship is open to men as well as women teachers.

The Chautauqua Institution of the United States has again generously reserved, for the use of British women teachers, two scholarships at the Chautauqua Summer School, to be held in July and August in the State of New York. Chautauqua is one of the most interesting developments in America in the field of popular education, and the school consists of courses delivered by leading American professors and competent authorities on almost every subject. The scholarships cover the cost of lectures and classes, and complete hospitality for six weeks. Travelling and incidental expenses must be provided by the holders, and are estimated at not more than £80. After the Summer School the English-Speaking Union of the United States offers two weeks' further hospitality to the holders of these scholarships.

The Page Scholarships are open both to secondary and elementary women teachers between the ages of twenty-five and forty-five, and the Chautauqua to the same category of teacher without limitation of age. Applications should reach the committee not later than Saturday, February 14. All inquiries should be addressed to the Secretary, Education Committee, English-Speaking Union, Dartmouth House, 37 Charles Street, London, W.1.

NEWS OF THE MONTH.

No Compromise.

After the division on the Education Bill, Mr. Walter Runciman is reported to have said that the amendment in favour of State grants for building sectarian schools was so much disliked by the Free Churches, raised principles of such great importance, and was so retrograde in character, that it would be impossible on that basis to build anything in the nature of a compromise.

The President of the Board.

Sir Charles Trevelyan is in a different position. He has tried to placate the sectarians by the offer of a grant towards the interest on capital charges incurred in building and reconditioning non-provided schools. In return he desired to obtain greater control over the appointment of teachers. The arrangement was favoured by the sectarians, but strongly opposed by some at least of the other side. Apparently the President regards the matter as still open to discussion and possible settlement, but he says frankly that no final arrangement can be made against the united views of any one religious body.

Film Censorship.

The Chief Censor of Films, Mr. Edward Shortt, has sent a circular letter to all film companies. It contains the following warning:—"Of late it has been noticed with regret that films are being produced in which the development of the theme necessitates a continuous succession of grossly brutal and sordid scenes, accompanied in the case of auditory films with sounds that accentuate the situation and nauseate the listener. No modification, however drastic, can render such films suitable for public exhibition. In consequence, the Board takes this opportunity of notifying the trade that in future no film will receive the Board's certificate in which the theme, without any redeeming characteristic, depends upon the intense brutality or unrelieved sordidness of the scenes depicted."

Sir Charles Grant Robertson on Culture.

Addressing the Science Masters' Association in Birmingham, Sir Charles Grant Robertson, Vice-Chancellor and Principal of the University of Birmingham, deplored the absence of any real cultural background to the specialised proficiency in such subjects as physics and chemistry as now taken in secondary schools. He was impressed by the danger of our breeding a race of illiterate and premature specialists. Of true scientific culture, as Huxley understood the term, he saw depressingly little.

International Co-operation between Schools.

The Honorary Secretary, Mr. C. W. Bailey, reports that fifty-two English schools have been

individually coupled with corresponding schools in the United States of America. Dr. Grizzell, of Philadelphia, the Secretary of the Joint Committee, announces that the movement has created great interest in America, and that the American Committee have no difficulty in securing the enthusiastic support of the universities and schools.

Holidays and the Census.

Local Authorities which have public and other boarding schools in their areas have been anxious lest the absence of the pupils on Census Day (April 26) should reduce their population, and thus involve them in financial loss under the de-rating scheme. It is now arranged that adjustments will be made, so rendering it unnecessary to curtail the Easter holidays as was proposed in some districts.

Imperial Education Conference.

The Board of Education announce that the Imperial Education Conference will not be held this year. Representatives of the Overseas Governments have been consulted, and on their advice it has been decided to postpone the next meeting of the Conference to a date not yet fixed.

Precocity.

The following is from the *Manchester Guardian* of January 7:—

Wood.—On New Year's Day, at Burnedge, 92 Park Road, Teddington, to Mr. and Mrs. W. A. Wood, M.Sc. (née Mary Wilson, B.A.), a son.

We tender our respectful congratulations to Mr. and Mrs. W. A. Wood, M.Sc., on the joint possession, not only of a son, but of a degree in science. We note with regret that the son has not followed his mother's example by coming into the world with the outfit of a baptismal name and a degree in arts. A natal equipment of this kind would have given him an excellent start in life.

Mr. William Clayton, M.B.E.

Among the recipients of New Year Honours was Mr. William Clayton, who is contributing to our columns a series of articles on "The Village School." Mr. Clayton is Head Master of Appleton Roebuck School, near York. He is now an M.B.E., and we congratulate him on this recognition of his work.

The Three Fates.

"So far as my experience of University men goes, clever and ambitious ones go to the Bar and into politics. The clever and cautious ones go into the Civil Service or into University teaching. Clever and queer ones go into museums, or else write poetry."—Prof. H. J. Paton.

LITERARY SECTION.

BOOKS AND THE MAN.

World Citizens at School.

In the series of stimulating works published by Kegan Paul, at 2s. 6d. each, under the general title of "To-day and To-morrow," the latest volume bears the title, "Chiron, or The Education of a Citizen of the World." It is written by Mr. M. Channing Pearce, Head Master of Alpine College, Arveves s/Bex, Switzerland. He tells us that he had been a schoolmaster for some fifteen years, and for the past five years has directed his own experimental school. In addition to schoolmastering he has had experience as a soldier, a political officer, a magistrate, and a secretary to a High Commissioner in the East. His present aim is to establish a school which shall be free from what he considers to be wrong in the public school system, while retaining what he considers good. He tells us that, in the course of his later work, he has had through his hands over two hundred boys, the great majority of whom came to him from the more important public schools of England. From the standpoint of this wide experience of men and affairs his book is written, and I surmise that it will prove to be of great interest to all teachers, and especially to those working in public schools.

Our author is generous in his recognition of the merits of these institutions. He suggests that they produce men who are distinguished by a dogged ability to see a difficult job through, by a kind of adaptability and courtesy of manner which can be both "graceful and insolent"—something of a paradox, perhaps—and by a capacity for leadership which rarely fails. We are told that he has at his frequent best a strong sense of honour, narrow and rigid as the code of form which breeds and supports it. It is added that he is most valuable when he does not think fundamentally for himself and does not go outside his clearly defined beat of merits and honour. In fact, we are assured that to ask him to think for himself is generally a very cruel thing to do. It is obvious that these qualities must be balanced by defects. "An open-minded, unconventional, cosmopolitan public school man is a contradiction in terms. The public school system is a machine, nicely adjusted for the mass production of a standardised article—a member of the governing classes."

Leaving this diagnosis, Mr. Channing Pearce invites us to consider the purpose of education, and he has some sensible things to say on the excessive application of the view that self-development and individuality are sacred. He points out that, as in the history of the race, so in the history of the individual, there must be a gradual progress through

the various forms of imposed authority, and, in his view, the end of all education is the training of good citizens. He holds, however, that the term "good citizen" must not be interpreted in the old narrow sense. We are moving away from the conception of the isolated city state, nation state, and even imperial state, towards an ideal commonwealth of nations, based on the principle of co-operation between states rather than the domination of one state by another. To prepare for this we must have co-operation between employer and employed, between governors and governed, and between teachers and taught. Old frontiers and class distinctions are disappearing, and it is important that we should now be educated to play our part in the new world. Hence the public school must train leaders who no longer seek control by domination, but are ready to place themselves in the position of helpers as well as of leaders. This leads to the suggestion of a Federal School, attended by pupils of many nations, and situated, preferably, in Switzerland, where it would be neighbour to the Central Office of the League of Nations. It is proposed that in this school there should be national groups, each under its own head and with its own curriculum designed to meet the requirements of its national education system. Over and above the separate activities of the groups there will be activities of the whole school in which the groups co-operate. Thus we should have, according to our author, a working model of a commonwealth of nations.

Whether this scheme can be carried out remains to be seen. Previous efforts to promote international education have been made, but they have failed. Many will recall the scheme of international colleges which was tried nearly fifty years ago. Mr. Channing Pearce offers a different suggestion, but it may be doubted whether even the more advanced nations of the world are yet ready to support his project. He has written an interesting and provocative book which deserves the attention of the Head Masters' Conference.

SELIM MILES.

REVIEWS.

Education.

GUIDING THE CHILD ON THE PRINCIPLES OF INDIVIDUAL PSYCHOLOGY: by Dr. Alfred Adler; translated by B. Ginzburg, Ph.D. (10s. 6d. Allen and Unwin.)

This volume is by "Alfred Adler and Associates." It is in the form of a score of papers by "a group of physicians and educators," the organisers of twenty-eight child guidance clinics in Vienna, Berlin, and Munich. Some of the articles deal with definite cases, others with such subjects as "The

Only Child," "The Hated Child," "Deaf Mutism," and so forth.

The fundamental principle of Individual Psychology has already been set out in these columns. Those who find it attractive, whether as an alternative to French or for its own sake, may yet feel a natural prejudice against any project of guiding a child according to any set of principles whatever. And yet that is what we do, while saying that we will not. The intermittent fights over Education Bills (the next fight being now in its first round) all presuppose that the combatants agree in guiding the children of the nation according to a set of principles. They only differ, in principle, on the set.

In any interval between the forthcoming rounds, all combatants and spectators concerned might read this volume with definite advantage, if not to any of their sets of principles, perhaps to the children, who are, after all, interested parties. R. J.

A Manual of Cookery.

MANUAL OF MODERN COOKERY: Professor Mottram and Miss J. Lindsay. New edition. (4s. 6d. net. University of London Press.)

In its Introduction this book deals with the requirements of the body and the constituents of the food which will produce them. The general methods and principles of cookery are then discussed and applied to different materials. The chapter on the menu does not merely give a list of suitable dishes, but shows what is the scientific basis of a well composed meal. The remainder of the book contains hundreds of recipes for soups, fish, cakes, roast meats, bottled fruit, invalid food, with clear directions in every case. M. E. R.

Art.

THE GATES OF LIGHT: by Beatrice Irwin. (7s. 6d. net. Rider.)

According to the sub-title this very attractive volume constitutes "a record of progress in the engineering of colour and light." The authoress is, so to speak, a missionary preaching the gospel of rational and beautiful light and colour to those in hygienic and æsthetic darkness, and it must be agreed that the name of these is legion. The importance of good lighting from the point of view not only of health, but of industrial efficiency and economy, of comfort and enjoyment, is acknowledged by all who have given intelligent thought to this subject. Miss Irwin very rightly emphasises the absurdity of allowing light to be subservient to fixtures, as is so often the case; of using a direct, concentrated glare instead of a soft diffused light; and of much else that is the result of defective knowledge, lack of thought, and of bad taste. Nevertheless, we venture to suggest that as an enthusiastic propagandist Miss Irwin gains nothing by

adopting a style that does not appeal to the scientist as such, and to what may be vaguely described as the Western temperament. Born in the Himalayas, Miss Irwin exudes a distinctly Eastern atmosphere, and carries her love of colour to what must inevitably be regarded as fantastic extremes, as when she advocates red and purple lighting for villages, and distinctive colour lighting for different streets. Such propaganda may make interesting reading, but it scarcely makes for that wide appeal and practical success which so much of Miss Irwin's work merits.

English.

JUNIOR ENGLISH FOR SCHOOLS: by E. F. Potter, M.A., B.Sc. (2s. 6d. net. Pitman.)

This book is intended for the use of teachers of English in junior schools. It contains much interesting matter, and will doubtless prove helpful, especially to the weaker brethren. Frequent reference is made to the Board of Education Suggestions (1927 Edition) throughout. A number of useful exercises for free place candidates is appended.

The making of this book was apparently due to the new "schemes of reorganisation" of which we now hear so much. However, as this so-called educational "revolution" consists mainly in segregating (either in one building or two) standards one to five from the higher standards, we do not think it implies of necessity that a radical change in the methods of teaching is required. Mr. Potter says: "If teachers appreciate the work of magicians like Walter de la Mare and other moderns . . . if they can see clearly through these magic casements and hear—however faintly—the mysterious wind in the willows . . . they are children in heart, and the merry throng will gladly follow their piping. . . ." J. W. B. A.

History.

BRITISH POLICY AND CANADA, 1774 TO 1791: by G. S. Graham, M.A., Ph.D. (10s. 6d. Longmans.)

This is No. 4 of the Royal Empire Society's Imperial Studies, under the general editorship of Professor Newton, and published for the Royal Empire Society. The first half of the volume, as the Preface points out, forms an historical introduction to "Canada within the Navigation System." This is an account of the British Colonial trade policy as applied to Canada. But before 1783 Canada—or, as we might now say, Quebec—was but a conquered French province supplying furs and fish. After the Treaty of Versailles Canada came definitely into the British system; she became more definitely related to the West India trade. Naval stores were distinct and important articles of supply; hemp and rum had a significance that it now costs us some effort to realise. Canada sent to Great Britain furs, oil, timber, and timber products; to the Continent fish and wheat; to the States flour and cattle. It was

round economic facts of this order that the policies of the period were built. Our experience of to-day hinders us from appreciating the realities of such a time; and here lies one of the chief values of such studies and recitals as Dr. Graham gives us. His appendices give us tables of figures—concerning rum and molasses! Now why should a book on Canada give statistics mainly relating to rum? When we are forced to trace out the connection, we come upon an explanation of the curious behaviour (by to-day's reckonings) of trade policy. R. J.

THE FOUNDATIONS OF HISTORY: by H. R. Hall. (1s. 8d. Nelson.)

This is an "alternative" introductory book to the "Foundations of History" series. It is a story-book and picture-book for very young children. There are sixteen full-page illustrations in colour, and about fifty pages of "story" in large print. Children will laugh over the drawing of the man eating from the bone in a style that is forbidden to themselves; they will say "Village Blacksmith" when they come to page 39; and perhaps they will get into trouble by trying to make a pot according to the instructions on page 71. And they might never know that this is history but for the title-page. R. J.

Mathematics.

NUMBER: THE LANGUAGE OF SCIENCE: by Tobias Dantzig, Ph.D. (10s. Allen and Unwin.)

"This book," says the preface, "deals with ideas, not with methods." Dr. Dantzig has incorporated an idea—a definition—even in his title that reaffirms: "Science is measurement." The volume does not presuppose, says the author, a mathematical education, but it does presuppose "a capacity for absorbing and appraising ideas." And that rules out many, let us say a few hundreds, of the readers of any of our "million-sale" daily papers.

Dr. Dantzig is quite right. Those people who by instinct avoid general ideas, who always express themselves in particular terms, whose world consists of persons or/and of things with their appropriate emotional reactions, will be fascinated only by the portraits and diagrams.

But whoever has any tendency towards abstract ideas, even if he be non-mathematical, will find many fascinating pages here. The book is not a history of mathematics, nor a history of "number." And that is a pity, because a fairly full "history of number" could very well have been interwoven in this book without very greatly increasing its bulk; for a good deal of history is, in fact, already embodied but left incomplete.

The Table of Milestones at the end is an interesting tabulation, from the Discovery of Irrationals by Pythagoras to the Discovery of Antinomies by Burali-Forti in 1897. Dr. Dantzig gives (or selects) twenty-six such milestones. England appears twice,

Scotland once in the story, Germany eight times, Italy six times, France three times. But the milestones are by no means of equal value. India's two gifts, the zero and negative numbers, were and remain of supreme value.

As Charles Lamb said of an earlier book: "For those who like this kind of thing, it is just the kind of thing they would like." And readers of detective stories—a class that includes large numbers of high-brows—will find "Number," after a surfeit of crime, both soothing and satisfying. R. J.

Psychology.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF INTELLIGENCE AND WILL: by H. G. Wyatt. (10s. 6d. Kegan Paul.)

The International Library of Psychology, Philosophy, and Scientific Method will probably extend to a hundred volumes by the end of this year; a series from the pens of many of the foremost men of science (of the less material kind) in Europe and America.

This volume opens with the quest for intelligence; and the quest, as embodied in the question "What is Intelligence?" runs through the book, almost, indeed, as an obsession. But this, in its way, is as it should be. The old counsel: "First define your terms," has perhaps lost some of its earlier autocracy, but it is an advice we cannot ignore; and although we may study intelligence without being agreed as to what exactly it is, yet our study must, if it is to be fruitful, define more and more closely the nature of the thing studied and sought.

Mr. Wyatt sets out in one place five "renderings" of intelligence:—(1) The power of good responses from the point of view of truth or practice; (2) the power of adjusting or adapting to novel circumstances; (3) the acquiring faculty; (4) the power to profit by experience; (5) the power of abstract or conceptual thinking.

Now it is quite apparent that the statement which has been made by several psychologists, that intelligence does not increase in the growing human after the age of about seventeen, is in possible conformity with some of these definitions, and not in conformity with others. The relative truth or value of the statement rests in the definition. The power to adapt oneself to new circumstances is a power of flexibility; but "the acquiring faculty" is not necessarily flexible.

In the author's notes upon another chapter, no less than thirteen definitions are given, each of them with a distinguished name attached as a guarantee of some considerable quality. They range from "mental balance" (Freeman) to "the ability for independent and creative thinking" (Meumann). Loss of mental balance is, in the last analysis, insanity. Mental balance is, by contraries, sanity. Then our

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intelligence becomes almost a synonym for sanity. If, on the other hand, creative work be the test of intelligence, our artists of all kinds are our true intelligentsia; a position in conformity with much general human evaluation. Again, if we revert to the conception of flexibility, the power to deal with the unfamiliar as the true test of intelligence, we do indeed get something that differentiates age from youth, having from gainings, the static from the dynamic, arrest from growth.

The method of giving references and notes to each chapter leaves the field clear for the development of the discussion, while providing for adequate documentation in an unaggressive form. R. J.

Science.

SCIENCE AND HEALTH: by W. B. Little. (2s. 6d. Pitman.)

It is not asking too much of an author that he shall possess a sound knowledge of his subject, that he shall make a wise selection of material, and that he shall express himself clearly and in good English. And yet, as far as this book on "Science and Health" is concerned, Mr. Little falls woefully short in these and other respects. That may appear a somewhat harsh judgment; but that it is fully justified (and, in the interests of our readers, necessary) let the following bear witness. Of the numerous inaccuracies, some are simply astounding; e.g., the statement (page 23) that "plants have the power of using the nitrogen of the air," the exact contrary being the fact, as every tyro in botany is supposed to know. Equally astonishing is the statement that "bones deposit mineral matters in the cells" (page 28), whereas, of course, it is the cells that deposit the mineral matter in the bones. The need of a rest after a meal is to allow "the blood stream to concentrate largely on the stomach muscles" (page 98), although it is the gastric glands that need the blood; and on the same page we have the statement that "in the blood stream itself the food is constantly being purified, and as it passes through the lungs it absorbs oxygen." In dealing with the eyes Mr. Little assures us that by the "yellow spot light is most accurately seen," whereas light is that which, rendering things visible, is itself invisible. On page 119 the action of the ciliary muscles is completely misrepresented, being, indeed, reversed. To the pelvis is ascribed a buffer action that really belongs to the vertebral column; and to the bones of the nose is apparently ascribed the action of the mucous membrane covering them. It may be readily agreed that this ascription is only apparent; but in a book dealing with "science" such vague statements should find no place; whereas equally faulty expressions simply abound, one astonishing statement being to the effect that of the five ribs fastened to the sternum by cartilage, two of them are not so joined. Concerning the

ears we are told that the cochlea vibrates, and on three occasions the semi-circular canals are described as semi-circular cells. But what can one expect of an author who constantly confuses the apertures of the heart with the valves that protect them; and speaks of the *transference* of food when he means *transformation*? Nor would Mr. Little find it easy to explain how a *fissure* of the brain could possibly control the action of the limbs.

Not to labour our justification, let it be said that several columns of our space could be filled with similar examples of misstatements and of clumsily constructed sentences. Nor is that all, for so injudicious has the author been in the selection of his matter that he devotes whole pages to ancient history, but finds no space to discuss, e.g., the nature and value of the arch of the foot; and that, while finding room for illustrations of girls packing cakes for sale, or curing fish—neither of which really illustrates the text—no room is found for absolutely necessary diagrams in the section dealing with First Aid.

To summarise, we may put the matter thus: Mr. Little has taken a very important subject, and on the whole a really good scheme of work, and has so dealt with them as to produce a book that should be put into the hands only of those who are capable of correcting the numerous inaccuracies, clarifying the many obscurities, and making good the omissions rendered necessary (?) by the inclusion of valueless or irrelevant matter. F. H. S.

EVERYDAY MARVELS OF SCIENCE: by V. H. L. Searle, M.Sc. (10s. 6d. Benn.)

The author has set himself a difficult task. It is by no means easy to explain to the intelligent layman the principles underlying the applications of modern science. Mr. Searle is to be congratulated on the success he has achieved. In this excellent volume we find remarkably clear explanations of such fascinating scientific triumphs as talking pictures, television, submarine signalling, and colour photography. It would be idle to pretend that the book is easy reading. Modern achievements in science result not from mere chance, but rather from persistent logical thought; and the delight of this book is, to a large extent, due to the way in which the reader is invited to retread the path of the inventor. This is particularly true of the chapter on Television. Here is the problem: there are the difficulties: this is how they have been attacked: here are the results, by no means perfect because there still remain other problems to be solved. Could anything be more sound from the point of view of encouraging a genuine interest in the marvellous field which science offers to the boy of to-day? We wish this admirable and well illustrated book the success it deserves.

(Continued on page 60.)

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Zoology.

PRACTICAL ZOOLOGY: by Marshall and Hurst. Revised by H. G. Newth, M.Sc. (12s. net. Murray.)

We welcome the eleventh edition of this well known work. Past students who have read Zoology for the London Matriculation Examination or for the First M.B. Examination, or for various other examinations, have reason to feel indebted to the authors of this book. Future students will feel equally indebted not only to the late authors, but also to Mr. Newth. Detailed information is given regarding the main types of animals to be studied by medical students, and concise instructions are given to enable the student to examine, prepare, and dissect, where necessary, these main types. The book is essentially practical: it is a laboratory handbook. Too often the enthusiastic beginner spends many profitless hours reading the results of the researches of others. His knowledge of animal morphology is unrelated to the creatures themselves and is all too soon forgotten. The student who wants to learn something of the mystery of animal life will be well advised to follow the directions in this book: he will take each animal in turn and examine it for himself. In this way he will obtain a knowledge of anatomy never to be forgotten. The book is satisfactory in every way. Its accuracy is admirable.



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(Continued on page 62.)

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THE EDUCATION OUTLOOK

MARCH, 1931.

MAKING THE BEST OF IT.

The loss of the Education Bill need not discourage those who are bent on securing improvements in our national system of education. The results of the Hadow Report will be forthcoming in due time, even though they are not set out in legislative form. Our English system has never depended overmuch upon Parliament for its development. It is true that such landmarks as the Acts of 1870 and of 1902 gave sanction to proposals which were already accepted in the minds of the people, and it is safe to affirm that there is a growing recognition of the need for special methods of training for children who are on the threshold of adolescence. This training should properly begin during the twelfth year, and it would be well if it could be continued even beyond the fifteenth year contemplated in the recent Bill. It may be so continued if steps are taken to provide the continuation school system already authorised by the Fisher Act. Meanwhile, it is possible in every elementary school to have such a measure of re-organisation as will give to the senior pupils the kind of training suited to their special needs. Such training will demand a fresh consideration, not only of subjects but of methods. The former should be increasingly linked up with outside school interests, and the latter should include a wide range of practical work. If these steps are taken, we shall find no difficulty in absorbing with advantage the hundreds of young teachers who will be leaving college this year. Their number is greater than usual because many of them were admitted as an extra force in contemplation of the passing of the Bill. It is of the utmost importance that they should not be left stranded in the autumn if we are to avoid the deterrent effect on recruiting which is produced by the spectacle of newly qualified teachers being unable to obtain posts. The work is waiting to be done and the posts should be created.

It is probable that attempts to legislate on education will not be renewed for some little time to come, but the interval may well be used by teachers and administrators for the purpose of straightening out our thoughts on education and bringing them into line with modern conditions. It should be recognised that the old gap between public

elementary schools and other forms of education is rapidly disappearing. More and more we are beginning to think of schools in their educational rather than the social aspect. Instead of using the word "elementary" to indicate a school for the "children of the labouring poor," as the old phrase had it, we must think rather of stages in education and revise our vocabulary accordingly. Thus, broadly speaking, we may think of three stages, with schools to correspond. They are primary, secondary, and tertiary, and at each stage there are two sub-stages. Thus, there is a junior primary stage, lasting to the age of seven or thereabouts, and followed by a senior primary stage, lasting to the middle of the twelfth year. Similarly, we have a junior secondary stage, lasting from eleven plus to fifteen plus, and followed by a senior secondary stage, lasting from fifteen plus to about eighteen. It would not be difficult to have schools arranged accordingly, although some would cover two or even more stages, nor would it be difficult to have part-time schools in the senior secondary stage, employers of young people being required to give them the opportunity of continuing their education. One of our great needs as a nation is to exercise a measure of formal supervision over our young people during the difficult years of early adolescence. Nothing could be worse than our present method of throwing them into the labour market at the age of fourteen or thereabouts, and leaving them without direction or control. Many of them discover, when it is too late, that they have lost much of what they learnt in the elementary school, and when they try, as some do, to improve their technical knowledge at the age of eighteen or later, they are greatly discouraged by finding that they have so much leeway to make up.

The present deplorable condition of employment in industry makes it especially unfortunate that we should have no adequate provision for these young people. While their labour is cheap they can find jobs, but when, in course of time, they begin to ask for better wages, they are dismissed and replaced by newcomers from the schools. Thus we have a period of ill-regulated and ill-paid employment followed by a demoralising idleness. The position is serious enough to demand the immediate and earnest attention of local authorities and teachers. The means for providing a remedy exist, and they should be brought into operation without delay.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS.

FROM A CORRESPONDENT.

During the debate on the Education Bill in the House of Lords the following speech was made by Lord Gorell, President of the Royal Society of Teachers and Chairman of the Teachers Registration Council. He said: "The concluding words which fell from the noble Lord who spoke last but one confirmed something which had been in my mind for nearly two days. I think we are taking part in a ceremony which is much more common in the strange far off land of Tibet than in our own. In Tibet, as some of your Lordships may know, it is the custom to take a body out upon the hill with stately procession, and there the undertaker dismembers it and throws it to the assembled and expectant birds. It is good practice for the undertaker, and it is not unpleasant to the birds. When I heard the applause which greeted the vigorous denunciation of the Bill by the noble and learned Viscount who moved its rejection, I felt that we were taking part in an execution. But perhaps as the Bill—though from what has been said in its last moments of life—still does possess a remnant of life one should rather put the simile as if it were staying in the condemned cell, a few of us feebly endeavouring to give encouragement to the felon, and others pointing out the vices for which he is so soon to be executed.

I feel a certain special responsibility in that, for better or worse, I happen to be the only member of your Lordships' House who was a member of the Consultative Committee which produced what is generally called the Hadow Report. That Committee sat for two years, from 1924 to 1926, and it consisted of twenty members. Amongst those members, no doubt, were members of the different political Parties, but they were not chosen as members of the Committee for that reason, and the politics of many were unknown. The political flavour of their deliberations was never mentioned from first to last. It is, perhaps, a rather remarkable thing that at the end of their two years' deliberations they produced a unanimous Report. It is true that one or two notes were attached to the signatures on minor points, but, with regard to the particular principle that we have been debating here, seventeen of them signed the Report without any note of disagreement with the recommendation to raise the school age, and the other three expressed themselves as in entire agreement with the desirability of the principle, only expressing doubt as to the date on which it should be brought in.

At this stage I do not wish to deal with what may be described as Committee points. I want to deal solely with the main principle of the Bill. I think the question of the date might still be open

to argument. I have only one feeling of apprehension in regard to that. For a great many years I have been concerned with trying to build up the status of the teaching profession, and I should look with great apprehension and doubt at anything which resulted in any degree in lowering that status. But the question of the date at which the Bill is to come into operation is not, it seems to me, a matter for debate on the Second Reading. The noble and learned Viscount who moved the Amendment, and to whose remarks I should like to address myself particularly, because he is, if one may say so, the spear-point of the Opposition in this matter, stated at the conclusion of his speech that he felt that he had presented an unanswerable case to your Lordships.

The word "unanswerable" is one that is frequently used. It has been used by educational authorities in support of this very principle. At any rate, I feel that before a verdict is pronounced which will result in a sentence of death, the noble and learned Viscount would normally, in his judicial capacity, direct the jury that they should not bring it in so long as there is any possibility of doubt. I cannot help feeling from the speeches that have been delivered in support of the Bill that there is a very large element of doubt as to whether the case is unanswerable. Many cogent answers have already been given, but I do not wish at this stage to traverse anything that has already been said.

The case against the Bill was urged on three main grounds. The first was that of cost, as to which there have been many answers from this side of the House; both in respect of the general advantage, on the ground that some expenditure is productive and that we cannot afford not to undertake expenditure which benefits the rising intelligence of the nation; and, more explicitly, on the ground that, unless this Bill passes, much heavier expenditure will fall upon the Exchequer at no uncertain date. This point was developed by the most Rev. Prelate and, so far, I have not heard any answer to his argument. On the second ground, the opposition of the voluntary schools, I do not desire to say anything. Much has been said by those far better qualified to speak on that point than I am. I should like to come straight to the third point. It seems to me that the noble and learned Viscount in moving this Amendment, found himself in something of a dilemma. He wished to oppose this Bill and to call upon all those who vote with him to vote for its rejection. At the same time he wished to maintain the thesis that the Party behind him is not opposed to educational progress. Accordingly he

was compelled by logic to bend the whole of his powerful dialectical forces to show that in his view this Bill was educationally unsound. I do not think it can be denied or doubted that the weight of evidence is against him on that point.

I should like to read a short passage from the speech in which the noble and learned Viscount developed that view. He said:—

“It is not true to say that every child of fourteen is of the same, or even approximately the same, aptitude, capacity, or development.”

That strikes me as one of the oldest rhetorical devices in the world. You put up something which nobody has said, and which nobody in his senses would say, and then, with well directed aim, you knock it down. The noble and learned Viscount went on to say:—

“There are some for whom intellectual progress is the right avenue. There are others who may be very dull intellectually, but who may show great aptitude in physical or manual skill. Not to attempt to differentiate between the two, to keep everybody in school until the age of fifteen, whether they are learning anything or not, or capable of learning or not, is a mistaken view of education.”

I can only find two explanations of that passage. I discard the first, because I do not think it is in keeping with the character of the noble and learned Viscount. I am quite sure that he has studied carefully all that bears upon the case of those who support the Bill, and that passage would seem to be from somebody who had not read the Hadow Report. I therefore discard the first explanation, and it seems to me that the only alternative is that the noble and learned Viscount felt well-assured, in advancing that argument, that he was addressing himself to a large number of listeners who had not studied the Report or who, at any rate, had not in any way mastered what lies behind it.

The noble Marquess, in his speech this afternoon, said that the Hadow Report was in all our minds. We have had a great deal of mention of it, but we have had no real explanation of the fundamental policy of that Committee. The noble and learned Viscount praised the reorganisation which was taking place as the result of that Report, and, as he said, would continue to take place, but he did not tell your Lordships what it was. I have heard nothing except that which fell from the most Rev. Prelate, who stated emphatically that the raising of the age is an integral part of that Report. The noble Marquess, in his speech this afternoon, rather challenged that. He asked whether the raising of the school age could possibly be said to be the main object of the Report. It is very difficult to say what a main object is. Is the head the main object of the body? Is the staircase the main or primary

object of the house? Here you are laying on one side what is a fundamental part of the reorganisation that is going on.

I should like for a moment or two to venture to explain what was in the minds of the Committee who drew up that Report as to reorganisation. Speaker after speaker has spoken as if the only purpose of this Bill, the main principle on which it rests, was simply to add one more year to the school age. We have heard the word “rigid.” The Right Rev. Prelate who spoke last spoke of “cast-iron systems.” The whole object of the Hadow Report, and of reorganisation, is to get rid of the rigidity from which we have suffered in the past. We have undoubtedly wasted money in the past. It is the whole purpose of the reorganisation to institute what was called a revolution in our schools, and it is based upon the psychological fact that the change should come at eleven plus. The Right Rev. Prelate who spoke last spoke of having super-annuated boys in order to benefit them by sending them elsewhere. That is exactly what is being done under the reorganisation. May I say that the Right Rev. Prelate is the only educationist I have ever met who has doubted that it is an educational advantage to children to keep them at school after fourteen.

If you take the Report as a whole—and I stress the Report because it is the basis of the Bill—you cannot suddenly cut off the top of the reorganisation and leave things as they were. If you throw out this Bill, you are upsetting the reorganisation which has begun to take place. The plans of the local education authorities are based upon the hope and expectation that the age will be raised, and the balance will be totally destroyed. The Archbishop of York explained the desirability of the extra year. It is not merely the extra year, however beneficial that may be, but it is part of a scheme which is in line with the whole of educational thought at the present time. We are trying to get away from the hard and fast tradition between primary and secondary, which has been an obstacle to educational progress. We are trying to build one continuous process from first to last. Reorganisation is part of it. I do not want to quote unduly from the Hadow Report, but they say:—

“For if our proposals are realised, primary and secondary education will be linked to each other as the successive phases in a continuous process. . . .”

That is why the raising of the age is a necessary and integral part of that process.

When you have the noble and learned Viscount who moved the rejection of the Bill standing up and saying that in his view this Bill is educationally unsound, he is setting himself against the whole of the educational opinion of the country. The noble and learned Viscount is a great student of law, but

I think he has not given to educational affairs, in spite of his hereditary and individual interest in a great institution, that attention which he has given to law. There can be no doubt whatever that, from an educational point of view, the Bill is fundamentally sound. I am not speaking of its economics, or of its date, but of its main principle, and it is not possible to get away from the dilemma that if you oppose this Bill you are opposing educational progress. Lord Londonderry went so far as to say that this is putting back the clock. He stands alone in that opinion educationally. I know of no educationist, except the Right Rev. Prelate who spoke last, who would dispute my statement. I have received a paper from representatives of a large number of schools, who speak of this Bill as "a small reform long overdue" and as "part of the national development of our educational system." There are many who doubt the date at which it should be brought in, but I say without fear of contradiction that nobody who has studied the educational system is against the principle of the raising of the age. That is the principle which your Lordships are asked to vote for or against to-day.

It has been represented in the speeches as if this was a Bill emanating from one Party. It is true that the Labour Party has taken it up, consonant with a long expressed desire to develop education as the greatest means for the social betterment of this country, but before that it has been as a principle backed and welcomed by everybody who has really studied our educational organisation. I should like no illusions on this matter. It may be that your Lordships have already decided to destroy the Bill. We, with our forces, cannot possibly prevent you, but let there be no question about what you are going to do. Throw it out if you must, mutilate it if you will, but if you vote against this Bill you are voting for educational stagnation at the present time. More than one speaker has pleaded for postponement. The noble Viscount asked why the Bill is brought in now. The answer is that you must legislate in advance if you are going to have reorganisation of this kind. That was implicit in the Hadow Report. The Report recommended that it should come in in the spring of 1932, and for several years past the local authorities have been preparing their programmes on that basis. It must be done in advance, and it seems to me impossible to postpone a Division on this principle. If you do that, you merely throw all the educational authorities in the country back into uncertainty whether the age is going to be raised or not.

Nothing I can say may have the slightest effect upon a decision already made, but I urge your Lordships not to kill this Bill on the principle. No doubt there will, if it gets a Second Reading, be drastic Amendments moved and voted on, but to

throw the Bill out on Second Reading will be to demonstrate to everybody that your Lordships are opposed to educational progress, because remember this, that the two spokesmen from the Front Opposition Bench have both asserted that in their view the Bill is educationally unsound. I have shown that that is the dialectical dilemma which is forced upon them by the position. Nobody who has taken part in our educational advance will support them in that view, and if you throw out the Bill what you do and why you do it will be abundantly clear."

Progress of Registration.

At the meeting of the Council on Friday, February 20, it was announced that during January 228 applications had been received, bringing the total number of applications up to 82,374. Of these, 2,938 have been refused, leaving 79,436 teachers admitted since the Register was opened.

A growing number of intending applicants are arranging to pay the Registration fee by instalments, and it is provided that those who have paid not less than five shillings before the end of June will rank as Associate Members, provided that they are qualified, and will be admitted on completing the present fee of two pounds, even though the balance is paid after the new fee comes into force on July 1 next. Some teachers have expressed the view that there is a certain loss of dignity in the instalment scheme, but it must be remembered that many young teachers leaving college are under an obligation to repay money which has been advanced to them to cover the expenses of a college career. For these the instalment scheme is convenient. It happens also that certain Associations have instalment schemes in connection with their annual subscriptions, and the procedure thus made familiar is easily applied in connection with Registration.

Disciplinary Action.

Among the less agreeable tasks which the Council has to perform is that of dealing with examples of conduct on the part of Registered Teachers who have forgotten the duty they owe to their colleagues and to their calling. Such instances are happily rare, and grave offences are referred to the Special Committee of Inquiry under the guidance of Lord Darling. Occasionally a Registered Teacher is found to have gone beyond the limits of seemly advertisement or even to have practised a kind of misrepresentation in describing degrees and diplomas. It is clear that such misdemeanours cannot be allowed to pass without notice, and it is the practice of the Council to call the offender to book and to demand that the offending advertisement or misleading description shall be withdrawn.

THE MONTH'S CAUSERIE.

BY THE DOMINIE.

The Bill Dies.

The House of Lords rejected the Education Bill by 168 votes to 22, thus putting an end to a project which began well and has progressed from strength to weakness, from weakness to decrepitude. When it was introduced there seemed to be strong likelihood that the Bill might become law. The Hadow proposals which it embodied had been well considered and on the whole well received. The first mistake was made when it was decided to bring forward the appointed day and thereby go one year better than the Hadow scheme. Such haste was uncalled for, and it was bad policy in view of the lack of qualified teachers and the inadequate provision of suitable buildings. So the first withdrawal became imperative, and meanwhile the religious question had come into prominence. The amendment passed by the Commons deferred the operation of the measure until the religious question is settled in favour of the sectarians. This event is not to be looked for in the near future, and therefore the decision of the Lords means only the formal granting of a death certificate. The corpse may now be buried, with such outward shows of grief as are given when infants die through being overlain by their mothers.

The Legacy.

This particular infant of an Education Bill has left an awkward legacy for the Board. With rosy optimism the President ordered that the training colleges should prepare for the passing of the Bill by admitting an extra number of students. The first contingent will be leaving the colleges this summer, and at present there is very little likelihood of their finding employment. It is true that their services are badly needed, since in our public elementary schools there are 10,883 classes with over fifty pupils on the roll, or over 7 per cent. of the total number of classes. But the obvious remedy of engaging more teachers will cost money, and it is hardly likely to be adopted in these days of stress. So the young recruits will join the ranks of the unemployed, and their fate will act as a powerful deterrent to others.

The Local Authorities have been urged, and almost commanded, to provide schools and equipment in anticipation of the passing of the Bill. Some have done so, and it remains to be seen whether they have acted within the law, since the Act which was to have authorised their proceedings has not been passed. In the history of educational legislation there has never been a muddle to compare with the present one.

Testimonials.

A man was recently fined for endeavouring to obtain an administrative post under the Newcastle Education Committee on the strength of false certificates and testimonials. The kindly testimonial—as distinct from the forged one—is all too common in educational life. I recall the story of an assistant master who was appointed to a post in a well-known school on the excellent testimonial of his head master. He proved to be unsatisfactory, and when the new head met the former one he said: "That man I took from your place is useless." "I dare say," said the former head, "but you will remember that I told you that he is an oily, obstinate fellow." "I cannot remember your saying any such thing," replied the other. "Well," came the answer, "I didn't put it in so many words, of course, but I distinctly recollect giving him a testimonial in which I said that he is bland but firm. You ought to have known what that meant."

Perhaps the safest method of reading testimonials is to note the omissions. Attributes which are ignored are probably absent. Thus if nothing is said about discipline we may ignore the smooth phrases about "an excellent colleague." Always we must remember the painful truth that a good testimonial is sometimes given to help the recipient out—in more than one sense.

Universities and County Families.

I see that the Master of University College, Oxford, better known to us as Sir Michael Sadler, has been suggesting that increasing stress of financial circumstances may prevent our county families from sending their sons to the old universities. I hope that, bad as times are, they are not so bad as to preclude the expenditure of a few hundred pounds on the higher education of the sons of our ruling class. Perhaps if these young gentlemen were expected to live on allowances more nearly resembling those granted to boys and girls who go on to the older universities from the elementary schools, Oxford and Cambridge would gain on the whole. A measure of austerity seems appropriate in a place of learning, and a study of the Report of the last Universities' Commission gives the impression that in both Oxford and Cambridge there is a certain amount of avoidable waste of money and opportunity. It is along these lines that the county families may find it possible to continue to provide a university career for their sons, and although there will be some loss of elegant leisure, it may be offset by a more strenuous devotion to the true functions of a university.

Brains or Personality.

Sir Samuel Wilson, Permanent Under-Secretary for the Colonies, recently said that sometimes he "gets a fellow who is bursting with brains," when he would rather have one who had passed a little lower in the written examinations and had a higher figure for the personality test. This kind of remark is common enough, and is everywhere justified by the spectacle of men who attained high distinction in their examinations in their younger days but are now of little use in the world. It would seem that certain qualities—physical and personal—will carry a comparatively unlearned man very far, but brains alone command little respect. Yet we continue to attach great weight to examination results as being evidence in themselves of fitness for many important positions. Sir Samuel Wilson wants more weight to be given to a personality test. His desire can be met by devising a new examination technique which will assess the qualities which are needed to make knowledge and brain power effective in affairs. It is not impossible for us to have a system of education which pays due homage to knowledge and at the same time fosters personality. Such a system will make heavy demands on the teachers, for it will be marked by flexibility, freedom from rigid convention, and a careful regard for the aptitudes of individual pupils. It will be schooling and not modelling.

Salaries.

The speech of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, declaring that everybody must be ready to make sacrifices, is being interpreted as meaning, among other things, that the Burnham Scales will be revised in a downward direction. I have heard it suggested that the scales must come down because the cost of living has been reduced since they were instituted. This argument rests on a false assumption. The Burnham Scales had no direct relation to the cost of living. They were framed with the intention of providing improved salaries for teachers, and thereby making it easier to obtain recruits in sufficient numbers and of the right kind. There was nothing resembling the fluctuating bonus provided for the Civil Service. It will be manifestly unfair if teachers are required to accept salary reductions on the assumption that the pre-war rates of pay form the base line. These rates were far too low and were generally agreed to be inadequate. There is the further point that the Burnham Scales represent an approach to a national agreement. Any reconsideration of salaries must preserve this feature, for we cannot go back to the plan of separate scales for individual authorities. Experience has shown that this leads to endless friction and difficulty.

Talking Films in Schools.

After broadcast lessons we now have an attempt to introduce "talkies" into the schools. A committee of representatives of the National Union of Teachers and of various educational authorities in Middlesex has embarked on a "Middlesex Experiment." In fifteen selected schools there will be shown a number of talking films, concerning such topics as "Cyprus," "The Frog," "A Visit to the Coal Face," and Masefield's poem "West Wind." Teachers and pupils will be asked to answer question papers and to write essays as aids to determining whether the talking film has educational value. Special attention is to be given to the response of children who are ordinarily classed as dull or backward.

I learn that the experiment has been made possible by the help of the Western Electric Company, which has given the free use of its latest type of portable talking picture apparatus. This can be carried from place to place in a van, and the various parts are assembled quickly and easily. The power generating plant is also carried. It consists of a petrol motor designed to give a steady speed.

The Middlesex experiment will be useful in furnishing information as to the value of "talkies," but I hope that we shall be told something as to the cost of the necessary apparatus.

A Note on Rural Schools.

I am indebted to the National Union of Women Teachers for a useful memorandum on Rural Education, issued by the Central Council of the Union. It is urged that the standard of schooling accepted in rural areas is unworthy of us as a people and unjust to the children. The reorganisation which has resulted in the establishment of central schools is welcomed, but the effect has been to leave small groups of pupils in the village schools and these are too often placed in charge of uncertificated teachers with one or more supplementary teachers as assistants. This practice the Council holds to be deplorable, since the early training of these children calls for the efforts of highly skilled teachers. This is the more necessary, since many village schools have children of all ages. It is suggested that travelling caravans, fitted as kitchens or as workshops, might be used to provide courses in practical work. The Council is opposed to any separate preparation of rural school teachers as such, and would prefer to recruit them from the general field, holding that a national scale of salaries would make this possible.

There is a valuable section on the need for better buildings and for playgrounds. The village school might become a centre of rural life and do much to mitigate the dull monotony which now prevails. Perhaps the village college at Lawston, Cambridgeshire, will show the way.

AMERICAN TEACHER TRAINING.

BY J. L. BRADBURY.

A period of six weeks spent in lecturing at the Summer Session in an American Teachers' College cannot pretend to make one an authority on American education. Those who go to America and travel from place to place, seeing school, college, and university at work, can visualise the whole system better. Moreover, one is too occupied in the day to day work of lectures to see the complete educational process. Yet this actual participation in the educational system, particularly when one is the only Englishman on the staff, means a really close contact with education at what is perhaps its most interesting stage, the preparation of the teacher.

The American Teachers' College is, of course, huge, numbering its students in four figures, and equipped with a magnificence that makes an English teacher weep with envy. The provision for the college dramatic work of a fully equipped theatre to seat 1,500 is an example of that magnificence. Students come for four years for degrees in arts, science, or education—that is, three years mainly of academic work, and one year's theory and practice of teaching—and then go on to teach in the high schools, which correspond to our secondary stage. Thus the faculty or staff is pretty sharply divided into scholars, that is men who have something to teach, on the one hand, and educationists, as they are called, on the other. The latter may be roughly defined as a man who does not profess to know any subject, but knows how to teach it or how to measure the results of someone else's teaching. The scholars are, however, in a majority and in control, and there is a marked absence of a point of view that is not unknown in teacher training in England—the idea that you need not know a subject in order to be able to teach it, or that you can cultivate a teaching ability which can be a successful substitute for knowledge of subject matter. There is indeed a real respect for learning, and the academic standing of the professors and lecturers is relatively high.

Many things help to foster this and to provide a stimulating atmosphere in which a professor or lecturer shall not merely do his allotted task. Chief among these are the sabbatical year and the American craze for writing. The provision of one year's leave in seven, which is customary in all American colleges, forms a powerful means of securing freshness in the staff. A professor is more or less bound to show by something tangible how he has used his

year of absence. It is, of course, in consequence not an entirely admirable system, but if it does tend to force a man to survey fresh fields in his subject with the feeling that he must return with some tangible gleanings, it also provides him with time and opportunity for doing it. Added to this is the craze for books, journals, bulletins, reports, congresses, and conferences of all kinds. There is, of course, too much writing of articles and too much reading of papers in America. Most of the writing is ephemeral, and much of it can never reach any wide public even for its brief moment. In such a huge country, however, it is perhaps inevitable, as the only practicable way of disseminating new ideas so that the whole educational machine shall move forward at a more or less uniform rate. It leads naturally to too much experimentation. Blessed is the man who is fruitful in new stunts. Yet with all its faults it makes for a stimulating atmosphere. There is a sort of moral compulsion that a professor must all the time have something more to show than his teaching. He must publish some research—value or quality not considered—he must write an article to some journal—he must read a paper at a conference. Yet this compulsion to keep his name before his public by surveying his subject or his methods helps to prevent his class work from becoming stereotyped or formal.

The student is a long way from the professor or lecturer. In fact, one of the most striking things is the absence of anything like the intercourse that is half social, half educational, which is so prominent in English colleges. American students, for instance, are slow to grasp the implications of anything like a tutorial system, by which their individual needs can be considered, and in which their interests can be widened. The method by which a degree is obtained has much to do with this. A student during his college career must amass a fixed number of hours, say 120. Each course he takes counts towards this. He may take nineteenth century poetry, for instance, in the first half of his second year, counting three hours. At the end of each course he is examined in it, gets his grade, A, B, C, or D, and then he has finished with nineteenth century poetry. He has no final and comprehensive examination of all his work at the end of his course. A suitable programme is, of course, planned out for him at the beginning, but the system of doing subjects in small doses and translating them into examination results which can be added together, much like the Sunday School reward tickets in "Tom Sawyer," till you have what is required for turning into cash value, as the phrase

goes, runs through all American education, not only in the colleges but in the high schools also. For there much the same system obtains in place of our School Certificate. In the schools, of course, it avoids the conscious aiming at a certain year during which boys are to be pushed through the bottleneck of the School Certificate.

By far the majority of the students in training are women, for women do the great mass of class teaching. The man who is a class teacher is of poor quality and rather looked down upon. The differences of our teachers' associations have solved themselves by making the man in education a head master, head of a department, an organiser, or a supervisor, and for such a position he is trained from the start.

Though so much of American education is free, actually the lack of scholarships in the lower branches and at the undergraduate level makes it more difficult to obtain in some ways than in England. As is well known, large numbers of students are found working their way through college by doing regular jobs that trade union regulations, to say nothing of social prestige, would make impossible in England. Board, lodging, and books need paying for, and though a student suffers through dissipation of effort, the struggle in many cases is one that arouses admiration, and has a value in forming character. The lack of scholarships is the more serious, as the post-graduate stages are so well provided for by the numerous educational foundations for advanced work. These huge educational trusts, which grow in numbers and wealth so rapidly, may in time become a difficulty to the State by amassing wealth that is immune from taxation to such a tremendous extent. It is a modern form of the problem in England when the monasteries had huge resources in the shape of lands that were similarly outside anything the State could do.

American zeal for education is well known, and, much as we may discount some American methods, we should probably be driven to adopt them ourselves if faced with her problems. The mass education of colossal numbers from varied racial stocks restricts teaching to the problems of practical life. Science becomes the working of the refrigerator and of the petrol engine; history becomes problems of the constitution, State government, party management, and the functions of local governing bodies; English becomes journalism and business correspondence. The school as a whole must present in miniature the problems and tasks that await the individual when he leaves it. Education is not an intellectual process, but a social experience. All that background of national temper which we half teach and half imply in our own schools, either does not exist in America, or, where it does exist, is to

be obliterated as a background of foreign culture before a good American outlook can be implanted. The study of government, as it is called, is rightly more important than the study of history to such a nation. Endless experiment, then, is one side of education, as we know well from the many methods that have come over the Atlantic to us, and the student in training is not taught a body of formal method so much as encouraged to experiment. All practice teaching is done in a school attached to the college, which is in every sense a laboratory for experiments. Students in training do not get practice in the school as it is, that is the schools of the neighbourhood engaged in the normal work of teaching, but are encouraged to try out their ideas in this one school. One shudders for the children in this school, who have a school life that is passed in moving from one student to another, each of whom has them for half a year at a time.

Rapid mass methods of testing are also predominant everywhere. Intelligence tests are devised to discriminate on every possible variety of ability. Questionnaires and objective tests are used for every subject. In a country with varying standards as between town and country, district and district, it was important to devise schemes for the uniform testing of attainment, and this is the method adopted. Add to this the problem of huge numbers, and it will be seen how intelligence and objective testing have become so prominent. As a consequence the American student in a college is unaccustomed to writing a consecutive argument or to following out a line of thought on paper, but all his training tends to make such writing as he does very direct and pointed. It is a welcome relief from the endless hesitations and qualifications and the mental agony in coming to the point of many English students when trying to express an opinion or argue a case. The American has been brought up to give a cut-and-dried "snappy" opinion about everything.

Standards for degrees as we know them are of course low. That is, the standard for B.A. in an American college would equate pretty well with the Intermediate standard in England. But, as has been written, with their problem to face, we should in all honesty be driven to much the same solution. There are many hopeful features, more perhaps than in this country. There is no sense of satisfaction with low standards. The academic quality of the teaching bodies is good, and their prestige—in fact, the prestige of intellectual attainment altogether—is higher than in England. This arises from some of the most hopeful features of American educational life, a real zeal for knowledge, a will to experiment, and a stimulating national atmosphere to remain dissatisfied with anything but the biggest, which now and then does manage to include the best.

EDUCATION INDUSTRIALISED—OR WHAT?

By F. C. GUBBIN.

Hardly a week passes but witnesses some new attack launched against the educational system of this country. Moreover, a close study of the Press, and of the correspondence columns in particular, reveals that the critics are representative of nearly every stratum of society. The criticisms are, in the main, timorous and narrow, so that the apologists for the *anciens régime* have had little occasion to treat seriously an almost universally expressed dissatisfaction. Under these chaotic conditions of conflicting criticism, aim, and policy it is evident that, were some influential and well-organised group to step forward with an attractive scheme that seemed to offer immediate and definite advantages, it would meet with a reception out of all proportion to its intrinsic merits, and in consequence we might be saddled with an educational revolution comparable with the industrial revolution in some of its ill-effects.

Practically the whole male output of the elementary schools and a very large proportion of the output of the secondary schools find their way either into the factory or into the office. This constant influx of labour raw material has to be trained at considerable expense and trouble before it can be assimilable by the great industrial machine, and the idea has been slowly germinating in certain influential quarters that this expense might be transferred to the State by the gradual and systematic industrialisation and commercialisation of the schools. The process once under way would culminate in the establishment of *ad hoc* institutions offering a specialised training depending on the group of industries the particular school is to feed. As a basic division, the elementary school would probably provide for the needs of industry generally, while the secondary school would concentrate on commerce.

In a word, education would be required to produce the machined unit in place of the present unnecessarily rough casting.

It would be idle to deny that this scheme, presenting as it does a coherent policy which readily appeals to the imagination of the "practical man," is devoid of attraction. Probably, if it were to be boldly enunciated at this time of industrial depression, it would meet with considerable support from many quarters — the teaching profession alone excepted.

Yet it is the teaching profession dominated by the static influence of the older universities that has opened the door to such a proposal. The raising of the school age is merely a prelude to the demand for secondary or equivalent education for all, and it

is to the secondary school, therefore, that we must look for enlightenment.

What have we to offer to the ever-increasing number of aspirants to greater knowledge? A pale and very anæmic version of the public school.

The secondary school, instead of striking out boldly with the courage and vision of the pioneer, has followed the line of least resistance, and has attempted to ape the public school, without inquiry into the merits of a system which may have outgrown its usefulness, and a system, moreover, which set out to produce a type which is, of necessity, in limited demand.

Thus the secondary schools produce large numbers of square pegs which require an unnecessary amount of shaving down before they will fit into the round holes available.

Now as any policy, especially when pushed by powerful interests, must inevitably prevail where the only alternative is to drift on apparently without purpose and without hope, and as the industrialisation of the educational movement would be a spiritual tragedy compared with which the French Revolution would sink into insignificance, the time has come for the statement of an alternative policy which shall be vigorous, dynamic, considerate of the rightful demands of industry, while sacrificing nothing of the true interests of youth itself. Moreover, while any adequate policy must consider the type it is sought to educate in relation to its environment, the instruction offered must not be such that the only escape from the cage is through the bars: the door must be left wide open.

If education, then, is to mean anything more than a convenient peg on which to hang the livery of the clerk or mechanic in place of the tattered remnants of a college gown, it will be essential to consider the problem from an angle too often overlooked—from the standpoint of the most pressing needs of the potential man or woman.

What are the urgent needs of youth thrust out into a highly complex industrialised society at the immature age of sixteen or seventeen, under conditions which render parental, or other external control, difficult or even impossible? What mental equipment is required in order to secure rapid adaptation to a new environment, to enable unexpected situations to be met adequately? How are the foundations of the power of wise judgment to be laid—a power of supreme importance in an age which is witnessing the gradual break up of family life? And, finally, what minimum of knowledge must be possessed by the potential citizen of an enlightened democracy?

These formidable questions make it clear then, that, whatever qualities may be reasonably expected of "educated" youth, there are some which, by reason of their urgency, may be regarded as of paramount importance. As a purely personal opinion I venture, to name them as follows: character, clear thinking, the power of self-expression in English and in one other modern language. These essential requirements should be supplemented by an outline knowledge of the arts; a knowledge of the sciences, and of biology in particular; a knowledge of world history and geography, and of the philosophy of other peoples. Finally, a knowledge of the social structure—economics, economic history, and civics.

So far as the development of character is concerned the instrument lies ready to hand in the much-neglected Boy Scout movement. Clear thinking and the power of self-expression may be developed conjointly by giving to the study of modern languages, and particularly to English, the pride of place now occupied by the classics.

Lastly, the folly of concentration on mathematics and one or two natural sciences, the relegation of music and art to odd corners of the time-table, and the total omission of such vital subjects as economics and civics in an industrialised democracy, calls for the severest censure.

The adolescent youth should leave school without specialised knowledge, but with the power and mental equipment speedily to acquire it. He cannot acquire, without neglecting other subjects, an advanced knowledge of mathematics, physics, or chemistry: all he needs is sufficient familiarity to enable him to pursue these studies should his bent or calling necessitate specialisation later on. It is immaterial for him to know the county towns of Kent or Sussex when the information is purchased at the price of ignorance of the natural resources of the United States or Canada, and it seems a criminal waste of time to frivel with the matrimonial difficulties of Henry VIII when the vast and far-reaching changes then taking place on the Continent are completely ignored.

The schools are doing little or nothing to break down the traditional insularity of the Englishman—a small matter, perhaps, in the nineteenth century—but now the vast increase in the facilities for rapid transport demand a complete revision of our traditional outlook. Our insularity has become merely a geographical expression.

In short, the education of the adolescent should have as its aim the development of an intelligent, alert, thinking individual with his eyes opened to the possibilities of life, and with his mind trained and developed to the point of enabling him to grasp them if he will.

DOMESTIC SCIENCE SCHOOLS IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA.

By E. C. TWIST.

Czechoslovakia is keenly interested in education, and has not neglected domestic science schools—or industrial and housekeeping schools, as they are called there.

These schools were private until the middle of last century, for they were founded and maintained by women's societies. They endeavoured to give the girls a general education, besides teaching them domestic subjects and rendering them capable of earning their own living. The government of Austria-Hungary at that time took no interest in the education of women. Later governments, however, were not so indifferent. They appointed women inspectors to superintend these "family schools," and allowed many of them the right to distribute certificates of efficiency in "sewing, underwear, and dressmaking." Finally, they granted the pupils the right to sit for an examination which enabled them to open dressmaking establishments.

The republic of Czechoslovakia has taken a lively interest in these schools, and has passed a law by which the whole body of teachers were appointed State officials until 1934. This has done much to develop the schools by removing one of their heaviest burdens from the private societies which supported them.

The government divided the schools according to the subjects taught, and reorganised them by laying down rules for instruction and discipline. To-day they comprise those for cooking and housekeeping, and others for sewing, dressmaking, and cooking. The course may last one or two years.

There are four training schools for the teachers—a Czech one for sewing, and another for sewing, making underwear, and housekeeping; a Slav one for housekeeping, and a German one also for housekeeping.

Short day or evening courses are held too for outside students, and these are attended by thousands of women and girls. The schools now number about 130, the pupils about 30,000; about a third of the former are German, the rest Czech and Slovakian. In one such school we saw girls making hats, learning dressmaking, doing wonderful embroidery, and needlework. Here too was a lady skilled in vocational training. Her duty was to advise parents for what calling their child was most fitted. She told us she very rarely had to record a failure.

THE LATEST HADOW REPORT.

The Consultative Committee of the Board of Education has now issued the long-expected "Report on the Primary School." Under this title the volume is published by H.M. Stationery Office at 2s. 6d. net.

Sir Henry Hadow and his colleagues are to be congratulated on an excellent piece of work. They were asked, in November, 1928, "to inquire and report as to the courses of study suitable for children (other than children in Infants' Departments) up to the age of eleven in Elementary Schools, with special reference to the needs of children in rural areas."

The reader of the Report may have grounds for thinking that there is little special reference to rural schools, but this was to be expected. It is time that we should give up this habit of almost automatic use of such phrases as rural education, technical training, and the like. Our problem is to discover ways by which the pupils' experiences outside school may be utilised most effectually as part of the material of formal instruction. Understanding and mastery of one's environment are important results of a sound education, but they must not be sought too directly or too early. We should do wrong to make our schools aim at turning out farm labourers or machine hands.

The Committee's task was the more difficult because the curriculum at this primary stage contains so many elements of tradition. Even to-day it reflects many of the features of the old rigid codes which accompanied payment by results. The Report has the great merit of considering the whole matter afresh, and we have two invaluable supplementary sections, one dealing with the anatomical and physiological characteristics of this stage, the other with the mental characteristics. These are written respectively by Dr. H. A. Harris, Assistant Professor of Anatomy in London University, and by Dr. Cyril Burt. Together they comprise a body of material such as we have never had before, and teachers need no longer work in the dark when dealing with pupils at the primary stage. There is also an excellent historical chapter, showing the development of our primary system. The Report proper emphasises the importance of the "break at eleven plus," and recommends separate schools for children under seven and for those over eleven plus, with full provision for close co-operation, as by conferences between teachers. It is pointed out that the primary stage gives opportunity for making good any physical and corresponding mental disabilities

incurred during infancy, thus preparing the children for the heavy demands of the adolescent stage. We are warned that even in this primary period the girls must not risk over-fatigue by sharing entirely the pursuits of boys. Also we are told that we must be on the alert to detect even slight defects in vision or hearing, or any nervous peculiarities. A noteworthy point is the reminder that memory is not in itself very strong at this stage. It is relatively strong as compared with other powers, and these children are marked by curiosity, matter-of-factness, and the desire to make things.

This leads to the conclusion that the primary curriculum should be based on activity and experience, the various subjects being so treated as to evoke the children's own efforts. The practice of sharply dividing the curriculum into "subjects" should give place to the treatment of central topics, linked with many subjects. It is urged that retarded children should have special attention. The worst cases should be in separate schools, but even the less retarded should be taught under the direction of teachers who are specially qualified.

For all teachers a probationary period is recommended, and it is suggested that this should be spent in selected schools where the college training may be supplemented by supervised practice. It is recommended that the training colleges should adjust their work to meet the needs of reorganisation. Uncertificated teachers should be encouraged to enter training colleges, and it is hinted that colleges which develop a rural side may well cater for such teachers.

The buildings and equipment used at this stage should be greatly improved. There should be ample space, a sunny aspect, room for practical work, adequate lavatory and cloak-room facilities. The Report is definite enough, but until the schools are brought up to date our primary education will not be worthy of a modern community. Libraries and playing fields are still rare, and even the elements of decent sanitation are often lacking.

There is a section on examinations, and we are told that some qualifying examination or test will be required at the end of the primary stage for the purpose of classifying pupils. English and arithmetic are suggested as the best subjects for the test. Group intelligence tests and oral examinations should supplement the written work, but we are rightly warned that examinations may be misused, and so distort the work.

The Report deserves the most careful study in detail, and when it is supplemented by the next inquiry—on infants' schools—we shall have an admirable conspectus of our educational system.

MR. CHURCHILL AT SCHOOL.

BY CHARLES H. BARKER, M.R.S.T.

Success and Education.

In his latest book, "My Early Life" (21s. Thornton Butterworth), Mr. Winston Churchill describes his career from childhood till the time he entered politics.

When a man of high distinction talks of the effect of his education it is bound to attract attention. Yet, interesting as these reminiscences of boyhood may be, it is easy to exaggerate their importance. Mr. Churchill seems to imply that his success is due to his persistent refusal to learn Latin and mathematics at school, and to his devotion to English. He tells us that he was mystified when his master told him that *Mensa* stood both for a table and *O table*. When it was explained that *O table* was used in speaking to a table, he retorted that he never spoke to tables. So he would have no more to do with a language which taught him to hold conversations with a piece of furniture. Amusing nonsense of course, but a great deal of nonsense is talked of the harm done by this or that form of education. There are many who agree with the saying that drink has ruined nearly as many careers as a classical education, while the advocates of Latin and Greek talk of a scientific education with lofty contempt as being unworthy of a gentleman. In a perfect State, I suppose there would be a special educational course for each individual, just as everybody would have his gloves made to measure.

Surely Mr. Churchill does not delude himself with the belief that his success is due to his refusal to learn Latin and mathematics? The truth is, of course, that he has succeeded because he is Mr. Churchill. His refusal simply shows that as a boy he possessed all the audacity and masterful disposition that mark his whole career. It is just possible that had he worked at Latin and mathematics he may have been a more successful or a wiser man. A little mathematics, at least, might have been useful to the future Chancellor of the Exchequer. Mr. Churchill tells us that he was a dunce at school. Well, he was not the only dunce and probably most of the others are dunces still. There are fond parents who when their children are at the bottom of the class find consolation in the thought that many distinguished men were failures at school, while brilliant children have sometimes proved failures in adult life. It is a dubious and dangerous conclusion. Genius apart (for genius is incalculable) it is pretty safe to say that the brilliant child is father of the brilliant man; in any case no parent need worry if his child wins prizes at school.

A Dunce at Harrow.

At Harrow Mr. Churchill was in the lowest form

three times as long as any other boy. "Being so long in the lower forms," he says, "I gained an immense advantage over the cleverer boys. They all went on to learn Latin and Greek and splendid things like that; but I was taught English." Mr. Churchill believes that English is the most vital subject in school, and here few teachers would disagree with him. "Naturally," he tells us, "I am biased in favour of boys learning English. I would make all learn English, and then I would let the clever ones learn Latin as an honour and Greek as a threat. But the only thing I would whip them for is not knowing English. I would whip them hard for that." At Harrow Mr. Churchill entered what he calls "the inhospitable regions of examinations through which for the next seven years I was destined to travel." But he did not possess the examination mind. "Where my reason, imagination, or interest was not engaged, I would not or could not learn."

A Churchill Curriculum.

With characteristic courage Mr. Churchill draws up a definite scheme of education which he would make compulsory for all the older boys of the well-to-do classes. When a boy is sixteen or seventeen he should "learn a craft and do healthy manual labour with plenty of poetry, songs, dancing, drill, and gymnastics in his spare time." It is significant that most of these pursuits are those for which Mr. Churchill confesses a partiality. We are all a little like that; we find it hard to realise that our bread is the other fellow's poison. Mr. Churchill speaks of the delight he experienced in reading "Treasure Island." Is he aware that there are intelligent youngsters who would find reading "Treasure Island" a dull and repugnant task—who would, indeed, be much happier working at those mathematics which he found so repulsive? Then, in Mr. Churchill's scheme, boys would go to a university. "only when they are thirsty for knowledge, longing to hear about things"; in fact a university education would be "a favour given only to those who had proved their worth in factory or field, or those whose qualities and zeal were pre-eminent." This, to me, sounds good common sense. Primary education is for all; secondary education is for nearly all; but university education is for the specially gifted. The difficulty, of course, would be how to select the "specially gifted." It may turn out that Mr. Churchill's scheme is only the old guy dressed up in new clothes, but critics of education are so often dreary, destructive, and platitudinous that we must be grateful for a fresh, lively, and constructive discussion of the subject.

MODERN SCHOOLING

MODERN LANGUAGES AND BUSINESS.

BY MAJOR H. O. EMERSON, B.A.

The Committee for Salesmanship has recently published its report on the teaching of foreign languages. It should have one good result—to kill the widespread, ridiculous notion that the British race is conspicuously deficient in linguistic sense. It is very improbable that a national aptitude for languages exists. Certain small countries are, by the nature of things, compelled to devote a good deal of time to foreign languages as their own have no currency outside their borders. We have, in the past, been slow to encourage the study of foreign languages, as for us they were unnecessary. We were the world's manufacturers—orders poured in, and we had no need to send out our salesmen to look for them.

But times have changed, and it is frequently and rightly pointed out that we do need an intelligent body of salesmen well equipped with a knowledge of, say, two foreign languages.

We are beginning to get them. The public is not aware of the change that has come over modern language teaching in England, and it would come as a great surprise to many to learn that there are in England many schools whose methods and results are as good as those of any other country. But we still waste a good deal of time on non-essentials—and the teacher is prevented from providing the business man with what he wants by the type of examinations for which he must prepare his pupils.

Though we have advanced beyond the old-fashioned grammar paper in examinations, we have not yet evolved the ideal type of examination. The difficulty lies in the differing requirements of the interested parties; the business man wants a recruit who can speak the language well and write it fairly correctly. The university examiners seem to be at least cool about the ability to speak the foreign language—oral examinations are notoriously a farce, and, except in border-line cases, seem to have no value. The teacher wants to get good examination results, and also, if it may be, to give his pupils some idea that a foreign language is a key to an alien mind—a new window on life, so to say.

It should be possible for the interested parties to reach a measure of agreement. To achieve it, it would be necessary to associate business people more closely with the examination. This is done in some countries, where business men are called in to act as assessors.

The examination is the crux of the whole matter—and the writer suggests that the following reforms

would satisfy business men and, when the need is made clear, prove at the same time not unacceptable to the universities.

First of all, oral work must really count in the examination. The Committee very pertinently quotes Professor Jespersen's remarks on spoken language: "All language is primarily spoken and only secondarily written down"; "the real life of language is in the mouth and the ear, and not in the pen and the eye." Up to one-third of the total marks should be allotted to oral work. An alteration of that sort would do more to improve the teaching of foreign languages in England than any other alteration possibly could.

The examination should test ability to read, write, speak, and understand the foreign language. The oral examination would to some extent test comprehension and ability to speak. The written examination need not be altered a great deal save in one important point—the complete abolition of translation into the foreign language. A pupil's ability to write in a foreign language is best tested by an essay question which requires him to express his thoughts in that language, and not by his power to express in accurate detail the thoughts of others. Translation into French—in which a young pupil cannot in the nature of things be absolutely at home—almost invariably results in bad French, bad grammar, or both. The time saved here would mean a great increase of the time available for reading books in the foreign language.

Translation into the foreign language should be reserved for the Higher Examination when further reading has given a candidate far more knowledge of the language and, therefore, a much clearer idea of when he is writing sense.

A candidate who had passed an examination of this type could go to a business man with some claim to be considered as suitable to be trained in the technical vocabulary of the trade. Nor would those who were embarking on other careers have a knowledge less useful than that they acquire at present. They would be more inclined to read for pleasure, and less diffident in engaging a foreigner in conversation in his own tongue.

It is the writer's experience that some 50 per cent. of the pupils that have come under his notice could in four or five years attain a satisfactory standard in an examination conducted on these lines. To ensure this success, the direct method is the only satisfactory one—saving time and giving a reality

and interest to the teaching and to the learning which no other method can possess.

What of the other 50 per cent.? Of these, 25 per cent. rarely make sufficient progress to justify the time usually spent on a foreign language. No method can be devised which will do much to help them. A good teacher can at the end of the first year indicate those who will never make any satisfactory progress. The remaining 25 per cent. will flounder badly if taught by the direct method. They will never be of any use to the business world as linguists, and although they can learn a great deal that is useful, the problem of their treatment hardly arises here.

It will often be found that of the 50 per cent. of "linguists" a large proportion could in the second year start a second modern language with every chance of reaching a fairly high standard by the end of their school career. They might take it as an alternative to Latin if they chose. Soon we shall find—for we shall not always bow to the fetish of grouped subjects—that they will be able to take it as an alternative to mathematics, for many of those pupils are as definitely non-mathematical as they are indisputably linguistic.

There is a class of educationist who becomes violently incensed when business and education are mentioned in the same breath. He will disapprove of much, if not all, that is written here, but the stern facts of economics are teaching us that we must have the needs of business more and more clearly in view. The writer feels that in these suggestions he has not laboured the business side of modern languages at the expense of the cultural, but in any case it is very difficult for culture to survive in a country where one of the principal trades is unemployment.

History.

A SURVEY OF ENGLISH HISTORY: by L. F. Salzman, M.A. (3s. Harrap.)

Mr. Salzman states that he makes no apology for producing yet another new text-book of English history—and we think, after perusing and testing the book, he is quite justified, and that no apology is necessary. Scholarly, very well written and arranged, without bias, and stressing causes and effects throughout, this book makes very interesting reading despite the unavoidable concentration of its subject matter. This is, we think, no small feat. With this book to serve as a firm and reliable "skeleton," and teachers to supply amplifications and illustrations of special points (where and if required), the School Certificate and similar tests should be robbed of their terrors.

We can confidently recommend this book for use in secondary schools.

J. W. B. A.

ADOLPHUS AGAIN!

BY A SUSSEX TEACHER.

Adolphus, a Sussex lad of fifteen and a half years, with a mental outlook of about six years, has started a new hobby.

During his years in the special school, which have numbered about seven, he has not been given to the collecting craze. But now it has him in its grip. All summer after school hours he worked on the sea-front, helping with pleasure ponies. And every penny he could save he has kept hidden to indulge his great hobby; and his fancy is *bicycles*.

He now has four of them, all bought with money which he has scraped together for the purpose. He rides them all in turn—except an antediluvian "racer" which he says is too good to come to school on. Each day he rides a bicycle to school, and each day he inevitably walks it home!

His approach to the school is frequently heralded by a bang, and a voice in the classroom will explain: "There's old Mick's tyre gone again!"

When the time for home comes, the surprised voice of Adolphus is heard in the lobby, "Coo, my tyre is flat." Rude boy suggests: "Why don't you get a bicycle; that's only a bit of old iron." A wordy battle ensues wherein Adolphus scores on account of his stature and the loudness of his voice. And then comes a visit to the classroom, when Adolphus, looking meek and sheepish, asks "Can I borrow your pump, Miss?" The teacher, looking most sympathetic as if she has not heard a word, asks "Where's your pump?" "It won't work," is the answer. Then she continues, "What's wrong with the bicycle?" "Tyre's flat, Miss," answers Adolphus, in a kind of tone which says "It's only the sort of thing that might happen to your bicycle." "Guess I'll have to have a new inner tube."

"But, Adolphus," says the teacher in an astonished tone, "you only bought that bicycle yesterday, didn't you?"

"Yes, miss, but it was only five bob."

"Well, I should think you'd better ride one of your others, hadn't you?"

"Can't, miss," he answers. "Got to mend all the tyres, except the racer's, and that's too good for school."

The teacher cannot keep a straight face any longer. She laughs and gasps, "Oh, Adolphus, why don't you give up collecting bicycles and try something else? They are nothing but a worry and expense to you. You may borrow the pump."

The look which Adolphus gives her as he goes out is one to be remembered. If his mentality were better it would mean "You have no understanding of the schoolboy mind"; but expressed by the flabby mind of Adolphus it can be summed up in just three words: "*You poor thing.*"

THE VILLAGE SCHOOL.

III. The Educational Value of the Garden.

BY WILLIAM CLAYTON.

For many years now the garden has been a recognised part of the educational facilities connected with the more progressive of our village schools.

It was not always so, for England lagged far behind the schools of France, Denmark, Germany, Italy, and other European countries in the appreciation of school gardens as an adjunct to village education. More than forty years ago it was State

character. The master and boys are keen, the garden is well tilled and tended, and the resultant crops, which are hawked by the boys on Fridays in the market town, yield an income every year which is astoundingly large for the area cultivated. The annual returns, which are regularly published by the master in the local press, give a distorted idea of the weight and value of the produce which can be grown per acre. Indeed, it says in terms,



law in Austria-Hungary that wherever there was a village school there must be a garden attached, or no State grants were paid.

We have not reached that stage yet in England; but I think we might assume that in one out of every ten of our village schools serious efforts are being made to teach the rudiments of the earliest science through the children's plots, and that in most of the other nine some kind of practical work in gardening is attempted.

It is so easy for us to have a wrong conception about the school garden that it would be well to consider its place and function in the village scheme of education.

Garden "A" is attached to a school in a small market town not far from a famous Spa. The soil is a rich, deep, dry, and friable loam overlying the limestone rocks. It is eminently suitable for the supply of flowers and vegetables of first-class

"Cultivate ten acres for one year like we do our small plot and you are 'made up' for life."

As a commercial undertaking this garden is an undoubted success; but as an aid to the educational work of the school it is an utter failure.

Garden "B" is not so favourably situated. It is in an agricultural village where everyone grows his own vegetables, and garden produce from the school is difficult to sell. Part of the soil consists of a holding loam overlying a gravel subsoil, and part is a much stronger soil overlying two feet six inches of yellow clay. Here again staff and pupils are keen. The master is a natural scientist, and both he and his pupils are persistent experimenters. They use their garden as a laboratory for the school, and their work together for years has brought them many disappointments, some joyous discoveries, and rich rewards in the shape of knowledge which books could never give.

They have procured some healthy specimens of a special strain of hardy flowering plants and given them a corner of their own, where they have grown and reproduced themselves at will for a number of years, until the resultant seedlings have gone back to the wildling state. The notes and sketches which the pupils have kept and made of these gradual changes are of lasting interest and charm.

They have, on the other hand, by careful selection, fertilisation, and feeding, improved out of all recognition some local wild plant introduced into the garden to see what good cultivation and care in breeding and selection will do for the outcasts.

They have purposefully grown plants to act as hosts for the various garden pests, so that the life history of these insects might be laid before the observant eyes of the pupils.

Useful insects, which prey on these pests, have been carefully nurtured and introduced into these colonies of evil-doers, so that the value of nature's own methods of control might be properly appraised and recorded.

With the aid of pick and spade and the expenditure of much manual labour, the two feet six inches of stiff clay has been broken up and laid bare for frost and sun and rain to act upon beneficially. The action of each of these agents has been carefully observed and recorded. Successive applications of lime, decayed plants, and long strawy manure has been incorporated with the pulverised clay until, in the course of time, the hard tough subsoil has been transformed into a friable soil, rich beyond dreams in plant foods, which have produced flowers and fruits of commendable beauty and succulency.

Both pupils and teacher have discovered that the land—the source of all the wealth in the world—is the only thing on earth that never lets the intelligent worker down.

They have watched the birds at all seasons of the year busy in one or other part of their garden. They have used field glasses to aid them in determining what the birds were "busy" at, and have accumulated a wealth of information of the particular value of each species of bird visitors because of the food they consume in the garden.

They have paid especial attention to the blue-tits which annually rear their offspring in a hole in the "Cockpit" apple-tree. Their notebooks show that on one particular day the parents paid eighty-two separate visits to the nest in the space of forty-five minutes, carrying two and sometimes three grubs at a time to their hungry and numerous family. In these and other similar ways the economic value of birds to the life of the community has been shown in a way which will live with the child through adult years, or until the mind ceases to function.

LETTER TO THE EDITOR.

Sir,—Mr. Ashton's article in the current issue of the *EDUCATION OUTLOOK* on the "Disadvantages of the Co-education School" demands a reply.

His thesis appears to be less an indictment of co-education than of human nature generally. "Conflicting forces of personality" operate in, and are detrimental to the success of, all types of schools. Jealousy is not unknown amongst members of the staffs of boys' and of girls' schools, but no one demands that they should therefore be abolished. As to sex-jealousy in particular, it is evident that confirmed women-haters and men-haters are out of place as teachers in mixed schools; but then they are out of place in any school.

Mr. Ashton considers that a problem arises out of the relations between the young members of the staff and the older pupils. He knows of two cases where a young master fell in love with a girl in the school and eventually married her. Why not? He knows of another affair which had an unpleasant termination. In regard to this, and to erotic emotionalism generally, is it not a fact that disgraceful incidents have been known to occur from time to time in connection with boys' schools, choirs, the Army, the Navy? Are such occasional scandals regarded as an argument for the abolition of these institutions?

Mr. Ashton's experience of the attitude taken up by some teachers towards boy and girl friendships has been unfortunate. I agree absolutely with him that teachers appointed to mixed schools should be people of tact and should be convinced that co-education is worth while.

It is worth while. The segregation of the sexes is unnatural. People of opposite sex live together in the home, worship together, work together in shop, office, and factory. Why should they be separated for these few formative years of childhood and youth? The advantages of the system, that it prevents "unhealthy curiosity and premature sexual excitement," that each sex is influenced by the other's good qualities, that awkward shyness tends to disappear, that a spirit of healthy *camaraderie* between boys and girls is fostered—these are recognised and far outweigh disadvantages which are not confined to this type of school.

In suggesting the grouping of schools with a view to forming clubs and societies meeting out of school hours, "to provide the adolescent with the intercourse which is assuredly necessary," Mr. Ashton ignores the fact that very large numbers of children would never join these clubs, and that it is just the ordinary, everyday, commonplace intercourse of the mixed school on which its advantages mainly depend.—I am, Sir, yours faithfully,

W. A. CONFORD.

February 3, 1931.

THE SCHOOL NATURE TABLE.

By H. E. F. SHEAVYN.

The teaching of Nature Study in a boarding school is complicated by the fact that the children have few opportunities of studying plants or animals at first hand. Though they may be in the country they have small scope for observation, since even their walks are taken in company with others, and lingering by the wayside to watch a bird or examine a flower is not encouraged. The consequence is that, though they may be familiar with botanical terms, and know much in theory about the appearance, habits, and life-histories of certain birds and mammals, yet they are often quite unfamiliar with the life of the countryside, and may not be able to recognise the commonest bird or tree. One solution of this difficulty has been found in the nature table.

This table should occupy a prominent position in the school where it can be seen by everyone, and should be a co-operative effort. The writer has had experience only with children of preparatory school age, and finds it best to take the responsibility of arranging and caring for the exhibits, but with older children it should be possible for a group to be in charge during each week. It is important that the children should be encouraged to bring specimens themselves, and to put them, suitably labelled, on the table, but it is for the curator to see that there is a constant succession of interesting material for the children to study. This needs a good deal of forethought, as such things as seedlings should not be displayed continuously, but must be grown elsewhere and only exhibited occasionally to show interesting stages of growth.

Competitions in connection with the nature table are popular and valuable. In the summer term it is a good plan to show about half a dozen wildflowers each week, but instead of naming them they are only numbered. Reference books should be available in which the competitors may discover the name of each flower, which is then entered in a note-book kept for the purpose. At the end of the term the note-books are checked, and a prize is awarded to the child who has found the names of the greatest number of flowers. Leaves of trees, winter twigs, fruits, and seeds may be substituted for flowers. A prize may also be given for the best diary kept in connection with the nature table, or for drawings of exhibits.

The beginning of the autumn term perhaps provides the most decorative material for the nature table. Leaves, fruits, and seeds will form the chief exhibits, and the latter should be grouped according to their method of dispersal, by wind, animals, birds, and so on. Caterpillars are very busy at this season, and several kinds should be kept in order

to compare methods of pupation. Later in the term hibernation may be taken as the central idea. Small creatures such as snails, wasps, and newts can be shown actually enjoying their winter sleep, but for the larger mammals pictures must suffice.

The earlier part of the spring term is perhaps the most difficult period for the nature table curator, for, to the casual observer, there seems to be very little worth exhibiting. But now is the time to make sure that the trees are known in their leafless state, and specimens of buds, and, if possible, of bark, should be collected. Seeds may be planted, and not only peas and beans, but also acorns, chestnuts, beechnuts, sycamores, and oranges and lemons, to make jolly little forests in big earthenware bowls. If there is snow on the ground, drawings of animal and bird tracks make an interesting study, and information should also be given about feeding birds in winter. At the end of the spring term there will be no lack of material. Early flowers, opening buds, frog spawn, records of bird-song and nests will be found in plenty.

One does not have to go far to look for material for the nature table in the summer. Let me just mention one or two items which are too often omitted. First, the aquarium. If a properly made tank is not available, it is generally possible to buy a glass jar such as is used for electric bell batteries, and this will do admirably. Failing this a large earthenware bowl may be used, but this lacks the advantage of transparent sides. Tadpoles, sticklebacks, newts, caddis-worms, water-snails, and water-shrimps are a few of the creatures that will live happily in such quarters, and afford a never-ending source of interest. A "wormery" or a "caterpillary" should also be arranged. The former can be made in a large glass jar or bowl. This is filled with layers of different coloured sand and soil, together with leaves and decaying vegetation, some of which is strewn on the top. A few large earthworms are introduced, and in a short time they will mix up the different layers and eat the leaves. If the outside of the jar is covered with a cloth they will often make their burrows against the glass. When keeping caterpillars it is a good plan to cover the bottom of the case with a layer of soil, embed some small pots of water in this, and put the food plants in them so that they will keep fresh. Fill up any spaces between the stems and the tops of the pots with cotton-wool, as caterpillars are given to suicide by drowning.

These are but a few ideas for making nature study a living thing. All the suggestions have been tried, and it is hoped that they will give as much pleasure to other schools as they have to the one in which the writer is particularly interested.

NEWS OF THE MONTH.

Shaw or Shawm ?

A correspondent asked Mr. Bernard Shaw whether he favoured the abolition of University representation in the House of Commons. Here is his reply :— "Not only do I approve of the disfranchisement of the universities, but of every person holding a university degree. Such persons should also, as in Russia, be disqualified for any kind of educational work and secluded from contact with the young, including their own children.—G. B. S."

Our dictionary defines "Shawm" as "an ancient wind instrument."

New Secondary Schools.

Thirty new L.E.A. secondary schools were sanctioned in 1930, giving 1,243 new places in boys' schools, 1,987 in girls' schools, and 2,204 in mixed schools, the estimated cost being £1,199,696. The buildings are more economical than they used to be.

State Scholarships.

One hundred and eighty-five State scholarships were awarded in 1930 to men and 115 to women. Of these 111 have been postponed. Of the 189 already taken up, 28 are held by men and 11 by women at Oxford; 38 by men and 7 by women at Cambridge.

Catholic Elementary Schools.

In the year ended August 31, 1902, there were 1,056 R.C. public elementary schools in England and Wales, with an average number on roll of 328,552. In the year ended March 31, 1930, the numbers were 1,177 schools and 370,962 children.

Interchange of Teachers with Canada.

A number of teachers in Canada have already sent in applications for exchange with teachers in this country in August, 1931. The Hon. Secretary, League of the Empire, 124 Belgrave Road, London, S.W.1, will be pleased to hear from any teacher, especially in the London district, who may be interested in the Scheme for the Interchange of Teachers. Last year fifty-six exchanges were effected between teachers in Great Britain and all the Provinces of Canada.

Interchanging Children.

Five per cent. of the money spent yearly on armaments would provide for the annual interchange of 215,000 children, enabling them to live in the homes of some other country for a whole year. This proposition, which is put forward by Mr. Cecil

Wilson, M.P., in the current issue of *The New World*, seems to have much to commend it.

For instance, it is very unlikely that even military-minded people—if there are any left to-day—would fail to support the allocation of such a small sum for a purpose so very desirable; and all the time, as Mr. Wilson points out, these visits to other lands would be fostering understanding and friendship, and building such a bulwark against war as would speedily render war inconceivable.

Retirement of Miss Ethel Home.

After thirty-one years as Head Mistress of Kensington High School for Girls, Miss Ethel Home is retiring, having reached the age limit.

L.C.C. Election.

A large number of ex-teachers are candidates for the London County Council which will be holding its election in a few days' time. Among the Municipal Reform candidates are Sir William Ray and Mr. E. J. Sainsbury. Mr. E. G. Hardy is standing as a Liberal, and Labour is represented by Miss A. Dawson, Mr. Fras. Bowie, and Mr. Marshall Jackman.

Appointments.

Mr. J. P. Sargent, Director of Education, has been appointed Director for Essex in succession to Mr. W. O. Lester Smith, who was recently appointed Director for Manchester.

Mr. C. Stanley Johnson, who has been an assistant in the Dorset Education Office, has been appointed County Secretary of the Rutland Education Authority in succession to Mr. G. F. Hall, who has been appointed to a similar position at Mansfield.

Superannuation.

The Board of Education announce that the draft of a scheme with respect to arrangements made with the Ministry of Finance for Northern Ireland relating to the superannuation of teachers has been confirmed without amendment.

"An educated person is going to be a happier person all through his life, and will not be a bore. An educated person is a person good to live with."
—*The Head Master of Eton.*

Mr. A. J. Tate, Head Master of the King's School, of Grantham, where Sir Isaac Newton and other notabilities were educated, died on February 6. He had been Head Master since 1917, and was an M.A. of Trinity College, Dublin, and a gold medalist in classics. He was fifty-seven.

LITERARY SECTION.

BOOKS AND THE MAN.

Our Elementary Education.

Professor Frank Smith, who is in charge of the Education Department of Armstrong College (University of Durham), has produced a most interesting and satisfying book entitled "A History of English Elementary Education, 1760-1902." It is published by the University of London Press at 10s. 6d. net, and will certainly find a welcome among teachers. It is written in an interesting style, with a solid background of authorities, and brings out with refreshing clearness the main features in the development of our system of public elementary education.

Of these features the most conspicuous is the influence of philanthropy. This outweighed by far any educational motive. In fact, those who desired to establish schools for the poor were generally mindful to point out that they had no intention of raising the poor above their station in life. Education was recognised as a dangerous thing to place in the hands—or minds—of the humbler sort. It might make them less humble. But if they were taught to read their Bibles and discouraged from seeking too much knowledge, the schools might be useful as places of discipline. Professor Smith recalls that in 1837 there were schools where nothing but reading and selected portions of the Prayer Book were taught; where writing was not allowed by the clergyman because "the boys merely learned to scribble on walls," or because "girls would be able to read letters left about by their mistresses."

This grudging regard for education is well described in the saying that whereas in the sixteenth century men founded grammar schools for the poor, in the eighteenth century they founded charity schools. We are still hampered by the notion that popular education is something to be given very sparingly—not a right but a privilege. Witness the recent debates on the Education Bill. Professor Smith's history shows how slowly we have progressed in the past, and how rare has been any liberal conception of education in the minds of statesmen. Compulsion was not to be thought of, even among those who were sincerely desirous of improvement, and the private schools were to be supported because of their "great popularity." This despite the oft-quoted report of Dr. Hodgson on London, which said: "None are too old, too poor, too ignorant, too feeble, too sickly, too unqualified in one or every way, to regard themselves, and to be regarded by others, as unfit for school-keeping." Even to-day these words are not without some truth, and the most urgent need in our educational system is that teaching should become a Registered profession.

SELIM MILES.

REVIEWS.

Arithmetic.

GROUNDWORK IN ARITHMETIC: by J. O. Westworth. Senior Books 1 and 2. (Paper, 10d.; cloth, 1s. 1d.; teacher's 3s. McDougall's Educ. Co.)

Useful and practical and well up to the average of the mass of books recently published on similar lines.

A.

French.

LA JOURNEE DES AVEUX: by Georges Duhamel; ed. by Aileen Wilson. (1s. Blackie.)

Georges Duhamel, joint founder of the Abbaye, is best known in England as the author of two war books, perhaps the best of the type that have been written, and as the creator of the immortal Salavin. But his dramatic work is by no means negligible.

"La Journée des Aveux" is a serious comedy, in which there is little action; the interest is sustained by the revelation of each character in turn, as the various members of the Foulon family make a confidante of Héglin, a chance visitor. This play will provide good reading material for upper forms. There is no vocabulary, but the brief notes explain all the more difficult forms; there is also a short introduction on the author and his work. We hope this will be the beginning of a long series of contemporary works for school reading; too many leave school with the impression that French literature ceased with the nineteenth century.

A. B. G.

LEGENDES NORMANDES: by Louis Bascan. **LA PETITE SEUR DE TROTT:** by André Lichtenberger. **PETITE MADAME:** by André Lichtenberger. Ed. by M. A. Lebonnois. (2s. each. Arnold.)

These tests are intended for fourth or fifth year pupils, and for the better scholars they will prove ideal; for the weaker ones the Norman legends will be most suitable, but Lichtenberger's racy modern French will probably present many rather discouraging problems. These linguistic problems are not really satisfactorily solved, since the page or two of notes in each volume give no help, while the vocabularies, though complete, are rather old-fashioned and stereotyped in their renderings (they make little or no distinction, for instance, between academic French words and slangy colloquialisms). We should also have welcomed a few words on the authors—contemporary French writers are too little known in England. And here is the justification for these volumes, that English children should be introduced to one of the most delightful and typically French of contemporary novelists. "Petite Madame," especially, is one of the pleasantest things of its kind we know. The story of a perfectly charming young married couple, it is always saved from

sentimentality by the good humour and effortless verbal felicity so characteristic of French light fiction. Definitely a good thing. A. B. G.

ACTIVE FRENCH READERS. Book III: by G. M. Bennett and E. Peyre. (1s. 9d. and 2s. Univ. of London Press.)

The third reader of the Active French Course amply fulfils the promise of the earlier volumes. It would be difficult to imagine a selection more likely to appeal to young readers. The pieces range from the light-hearted jesting of André Maurois to Maupassant's shocker "La Peur." Particularly good are the accounts of war-time aviation and of the "Firecrests's" crossing of the Atlantic. There is no verse, and the whole reading matter will scarcely be sufficient for a year's work (the fourth), but will serve as an excellent basis for detailed study. If used for rapid reading, a moderately good fourth year boy would read the whole book in three hours and ask for more. The vocabulary and notes in French make the texts perfectly comprehensible. We regret to notice in the phonetic transcript of difficult words three misprints (pp. 45, 88, 106) and two misprints (pp. 32, 65). A. B. G.

POTOTO ET LA T. S. F.: by Thérèse Lenôtre. HISTOIRE DE BLONDINE: by the Comtesse de Ségur. Ed. by A. M. Lebonnois. (1s. each. Arnold.)

These two little volumes are intended for second-year work, and are provided with exercises of the direct-method type. Of the two we prefer "Pototo," which is up to date, and contains a few amusing drawings, though both are quite suitable for very young beginners. A. B. G.

BELL'S NEW FRENCH PICTURE CARDS: by H. M. Brock and Marc Ceppi. Set II, Advanced. (2s. for sixteen cards. Bell.)

A set of these cards distributed to a class will form a good basis for conversation lessons. Each picture represents some scene familiar to those who know French life, and on the back is a suitable word-list, followed by a few exercises and a questionnaire. The pictures themselves are of Mr. Brock's usual standard of excellence. A. B. G.

Physics.

INTERMEDIATE PHYSICS: by R. A. Houstoun, M.A., D.Sc. (10s. 6d. Longmans.)

At last Dr. Houstoun's book on elementary physics has been completed with the writing of the section on Sound. This section takes up about fifty pages, and contains four chapters dealing respectively with Wave Motion, Production and Propagation of Sound, Measurement of Frequency and the Musical Scale, and Vibrations of Strings and Columns of Air. It is all quite interesting, but slightly old-fashioned, for the author has not

thought it worth while to include any of the very considerable post-war developments of the science of acoustics.

With regard to the work as a whole, it is very good as far as it goes, and for matriculation work it would be excellent. Probably anyone who knew all that it contained would have no difficulty in passing the Intermediate Examinations as well, but it must be confessed that the treatment of certain portions of the subject—namely Properties of Matter, Electricity and Magnetism—is very meagre. The section on Light is by far the best, because it is the most original, and it seems that the author has had more interest in that part of the work than in the rest, because he has added a new chapter on Interference and Diffraction in the completed volume. The new chapter is good, but in consequence the standard for Light is considerably above that reached in certain other sections of the book.

Reviews of the various parts of this work appeared in the EDUCATION OUTLOOK during the years 1925 to 1930, so it is not necessary to comment on the subject matter in detail now. It suffices to give the completed volume a hearty welcome, and to hope that it will run into many editions. R. S. M.

THE PROPERTIES OF MATTER: by W. H. Spikes, B.A. (4s. Sidgwick and Jackson.)

Mr. Spikes has written a book which covers the syllabus of Properties of Matter needed for the Intermediate or Higher Certificate Examinations. He has laid "emphasis upon the historical development of this branch of Physics," and the result is both interesting and stimulating. The mathematical treatment of the subject is not shirked—indeed, the formula for surface tension is proved by means of a perfectly general equation, and different applications of this equation are made for the particular problems actually met with in the laboratory—and the proofs of the different formulae used throughout the whole work are commendably clear. But it is the historical portions which mark the book out from among its fellows as one to be valued. R. S. M.

Physiology.

AN INTRODUCTION TO HUMAN EXPERIMENTAL PHYSIOLOGY: by F. W. Lamb, M.D. (12s. 6d. Longmans.)

This is a definitely technical work with an obviously limited appeal, but within those limits it should have a very powerful appeal, especially to students of medicine. It covers a course of practical work on the blood, respiration, and the circulation; and embodies the results of investigations skilfully and patiently pursued by Dr. Lamb—investigations which have the special merit of being largely concerned with what Professor A. V. Hill justly describes as "precise and beautiful experiments," that can be performed not simply by the students,

but upon the students and their friends. As indicated, the investigations have been limited in their reference, leaving untouched many other vitally important aspects of human physiology; and we venture to echo Professor Hill's hope that Dr. Lamb will find it possible to produce a companion volume of equal merit and value. Anything better than that could scarcely be asked or hoped for. It is scarcely within our province to attempt anything beyond introducing this volume to the notice of our readers, and we must therefore rest content with expressing our warm approval of the work and complimenting Dr. Lamb on its production.

F. H. S.

Geography.

"The Gateway Geographies."—EUROPE: by N. M. Johnson, B.Sc., F.R.G.S., and C. Matheson, M.A., F.R.G.S. (2s. 6d.). AFRICA: by S. C. Farrar, B.Sc., A.R.C.S., and C. Matheson, M.A., F.R.G.S. (2s.) (Methuen.)

Two practical and useful volumes written on modern lines and in simple language, and well adapted for school use. Pupils who master these books should acquire a sound elementary knowledge of the lands here dealt with—and, moreover, face any ordinary examination with equanimity. B.

(i) PEOPLES OF THE WORLD. (ii) MORE PEOPLES AND OTHER LANDS: by C. Midgeley. (1s. 6d. Johnston.)

These books form part of Messrs. Johnston's "New Picture Geographies" (Lower School Series), and are the first two of a series of four geography books planned to cover the primary school course for children from the ages of seven to eleven.

We have nothing but praise for these most interesting and informative little books. A special word of appreciation is due to the numerous and excellent illustrations and exercises. Children who do not find them interesting must be hard indeed to please.

J. W. B.

"New Prospect Readers."—LIFE OVERSEAS: SOUTH AFRICA: by Ernest Young and S. C. Gilmore. (8d. Philips.)

We have already commended other readers in this series. The book before us contains a vivid description of the work and daily lives of ordinary folk in South Africa, and should prove as fascinating to children as any novel. We can cordially recommend its adoption as a valuable auxiliary to the class text-book in use.

J. B.

THE JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY. This journal, published by A. J. Nystrom and Co., 3333 Elston Avenue, Chicago, is well worth the attention of English teachers; it costs, with postage, \$2.77 per annum. The articles in it contain many hints on teaching that are as useful here as in America, while its

purely descriptive features are more nearly what we need in schools than are those to be found in our own journals. Specially excellent have been recent articles on Brittany, the Great Karroo, and the Earth as a Globe, the last by the most distinguished of American geographers, W. M. Davis.

E. Y.

History.

SELECT DOCUMENTS OF EUROPEAN HISTORY: Vol. II, 1492 to 1715. Edited by W. F. Reddaway, M.A. (5s. Methuen.)

This is the second of three volumes. It contains, in 212 pages, 128 extracts; and the charge of "mere snippets" is one so open and obvious that it is, in effect, forestalled. If fuller references are desired they must be sought elsewhere. But if this volume were accessible to all boys and girls who are taking a history course of the same period, it would, or could, give very valuable help in making that background of knowledge—however indistinct—that is essential to any real history teaching or reading.

R. J.

HISTORY FOR SENIOR SCHOOLS: by J. D. Griffith Davies, M.A., and F. R. Worts, M.A. Vol. 1, British Political History to 1688 (2s.); Vol. 2, British Political History, 1689 to 1928 (2s.); Vol. 3, British Social and Constitutional History to 1688 (2s.); Vol. 4, British Social and Constitutional History, 1689 to 1928 (2s. 6d.) (Rivingtons).

This series is designed to provide a four years' history course for pupils in senior or central schools. They are well written, well planned, and well provided with tables and diagrams, and provide an excellent course of study for the class of pupils for which they are intended.

We are of opinion that, taking into consideration the present-day multiplication of subjects—and with special reference to the time now required for practical work, which so congests the timetables of these schools—teachers will not have the time at their disposal to cover adequately the subject matter contained in these four volumes. We think that if they can absorb the first two of them in the available two (possibly three) periods a week at their disposal they will be fortunate.

This criticism, of course, in no way reflects upon the merit of the books, and arises through no fault of the authors.

J. W. B. A.

A HISTORY OF SPANISH CIVILISATION: by Rafael Altamira. Translated by P. Volkov; with a Preface by J. B. Trend. (21s. Constable.)

Spain, just now, is on our doorstep. We look curiously across to her, await news, and wonder. She has a secluded corner of Europe, and is somewhat aside from routes of trade and of pleasure. People go round her, but few go across her on their

way to somewhere else. She has been our national enemy and ally. She is reserved in more than one sense. Mr. Cunningham Grahame has done his robust best to rid us of our British ignorances of Spain. Still, Britain has a better understanding of Spanish America than of Spain or Spaniards.

Señor Altamira offers us no startling theories, no paradoxes, blackenings, or whitewashings of any moment. He shows us a people rising from the Stone Ages, partly settled by Greeks, Celts, Carthaginians, conquered and civilised by Rome, overrun by Goths, dominated and civilised by Moors, rising supreme in war, imperial rule, adventurous, exploring, and colonising; then in decadence, stung to life by the French Revolution, swung from side to side, emerging stripped of Empire, to face, un-equipped, a new industrial Europe.

If ever romance was a word of significance, surely here it is; to us a story imperfectly known. It is well told in this book, if somewhat coldly. The preface suggests that some preliminary knowledge of Spanish history is necessary, though not much. But Señor Altamira's book is complete in itself. The fifty or sixty illustrations are a story of Spain in themselves; the bibliography could only be fully appreciated by an expert.

Spain of to-day has, of necessity, little space here; but some suggestive facts emerge. Between 1859 and 1914 there were schemes enough for primary education, for example; but they remained, for the most part, as schemes. Masters and primary schools "were more than once reduced to asking alms." Their minimum salary, before 1903, was about £8 a year. In 1903 it was raised magnificently to £20 a year. And "the results of the backwardness of primary education" upon the national status and prospects are set forth clearly, if not exhaustively, in the last chapter. The experiment—and the fate—of Francisco Ferrer do not appear. There is mention of a Ferrer, but this one lived in the fourteenth century. The story of Modern Spain is not yet begun. We may now be watching or hearing its prologue. R. J.

School Drama.

HISTORY-HOUR PLAYS: Guy N. Pocock. (1s. 6d. Dent.)

All educators are agreed in stating that in school we should make use of the natural activities of children. Now young children like to sing, to dance, to draw, and to act, and the wise teacher gives them ample opportunities of exercising their liking.

Thus it comes about that the "Dramatic Method" is finding more and more favour in schools, and it is particularly adapted to the teaching of history.

Mr. Pocock's little book of plays provides excellent material. Perhaps its chief merit is that the author has given us not merely scenes from history arranged as dialogues, but real live plays, with proper dramatic motive and development, leading to a definite conclusion, and thus giving a sense of completeness and satisfaction.

We imagine pupils will have great fun and no little profit in "giving tongue" to the excellent material Mr. Pocock has provided.

Ready boys? Ring up the curtain and let her go.
P. M. G.

AMATEUR STAGE MANAGEMENT AND PRODUCTION: by Charles S. Parsons. (7s. 6d. Pitman.)

How much may be implied by the word amateur. In the arts it has come to be a term of reproach. Amateur artists, amateur singers, and amateur actors are generally regarded as decidedly inferior in skill to their professional brethren, and to speak of a performance as "amateurish" is to damn it.

In sport, on the other hand, the term amateur carries no such reproach. It is in no way a measure of a player's skill, but rather of his social status.

But why this distinction between amateurs and professionals? All artists are amateurs, lovers of the game, and if they happen to make a little money at it, so much the better. It is high time that the term amateur shed its inferiority complex. Happily, in the art of the theatre, the distinction between amateurs and professionals is beginning to disappear. Amateur (or amatory) theatricals, as we knew them thirty years ago, are things of the past. Everywhere are found drama societies and clubs, devoting themselves wholeheartedly to the presentation of plays, and it may with some truth be said that what their producers and stage managers don't know about production isn't worth knowing.

We think, therefore, that Mr. Parsons underestimates the knowledge and skill of the amateur, and though the advice in his opening chapters is doubtless excellent, much of it is already familiar to most amateur players of to-day, who will think it hardly a fair return for the expenditure of seven and sixpence.

But on the material and technical side, in matters of scenery, lighting, and effects, the amateur works under difficulties unknown to the professional, and here Mr. Parsons, from his wide experience and knowledge of engineering, is certainly helpful.

The book is, moreover, well planned. There are some excellent diagrams and the printing and paper are all that can be desired. Drama clubs should certainly have a copy of this work in the club library.

In order to avoid any misconception of the quality of the stage management recommended by this book, may we suggest that "Stage Management and Production for Amateurs" would be the better title?
P. M. G.

Sculpture.

MODELLING AND SCULPTURE: by F. J. Glass. (18s. Batsford.)

This book well deserves its sub-title of "a practical treatise for students." For practicality is its essential feature, and the author has learnt in his experience as Head Master of the Doncaster School of Arts and Crafts the needs of students. Hence, so far as the technical details of modelling are concerned, there is little that is omitted from this work, whether it be modelling a bust or figure from life, working in relief, moulding in gelatine or wax, or casting in plaster or metal. Stone and marble carving are but slightly treated.

The survey of historic sculpture is admirable, as are also the illustrations, of which there are nearly three hundred, through the gamut of the necessary and the practical to some fine reproductions of ancient and modern sculpture, serving to illustrate some point in the text.

Essentially the writer is a teacher who knows his subject in detail, and who combines with an intimate knowledge of the technical side a fine appreciation of the art side of sculpture. Both as a guide and, with its index, as a work of reference for students, this book should prove most useful. A. R.

MODELLING FOR SCULPTURE: by Gilbert Bayes, F.R.B.S., H.R.I. (3s. Winsor and Newton.)

This is an excellent little book for beginners. But it is more than that, for although it deals simply and clearly with first steps in a way calculated to be a real help to those who are essaying modelling for the first time, yet there runs through it a certain vein of inspiration, as of one who should say to a beginner whose steps he would guide, "Start here and thus, but see what lies beyond," striving to give him at his first steps something of the vision of the artist. One would expect this from a sculptor of Gilbert Bayes's power—a man who has striven and achieved works of force and works of pure beauty.

The value of the book is enhanced by excellent plates. May we not look forward to a more advanced book from his hand? A. I.

Mathematics.

ELEMENTARY TRIGONOMETRY: by A. F. van der Heyden, M.A. (2s. 6d. Rivington.)

This is quite an interesting introductory text-book of trigonometry, and in the space of a hundred and fifty pages the author deals adequately with all the elements of the subject. The chief characteristics of the book appear to be the large number of examples and problems given at the end of each section, and the well set out "worked examples" which make the different processes clear to the

pupils. A feature which is not usually found in books of this nature, and which is of real interest, is the inclusion of a table of Pythagorean Numbers, from which a very great number of right-angled triangles can be constructed. Such a table would prove very useful to those who have got to set examination papers, and who do not want to use problems in exactly the same form in which they have already appeared.

The book is good, but the publishers have spoiled the production by plastering the fly-leaves with some very ugly advertisements of other "educational works." R. S. M.

School Science.

POST-PRIMARY SCIENCE: BOOK I, FIRST YEAR'S COURSE: by W. F. F. Shearcroft, B.Sc. Hons. (Lond.). (2s. 6d. Harrap.)

Mr. Shearcroft's preface is such as to induce a feeling of confidence that the course of work he has supplied is both good and reliable, and this feeling is fully justified and confirmed by the contents of the various sections that follow. These contain an excellently illustrated course on general science, which is obviously the work of a skilled teacher, thoroughly familiar with his subject and with the needs and capacities of those for whom it is intended. A method has been wisely adopted that lends itself to either class or individual work, sufficient information being given to help the independent student, while the exercises are such as to involve and stimulate individual thought and effort, without being so difficult as to lead to discouragement and disappointment.

Without going into details, the work may be said to be all very commonplace, and for that reason excellent, seeing that it is by our knowledge and understanding of the commonplace that we are best able to make use of our opportunities and adapt ourselves to our environment. And to enable children to do that is the essential function of education.

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English.

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CH. CH.

THOUGHT IN ENGLISH PROSE : by A. J. Coles. Junior Edition. (2s. Heinemann.)

This book is intended for middle forms of secondary schools. The compiler hopes that the method employed in this book, besides providing matter for the exercise of the intelligence, will also awaken some appreciation of the style—and under the guidance of a competent teacher we think it should. Both the subject matter in this work and the exercises thereon are excellent. We commend to all teachers Mr. J. C. Dent's interesting and suggestive introduction—with special emphasis on the conclusion!

J. W. B. A.

INTRODUCTORY PRACTICAL ENGLISH : by C. F. Allan, M.A., Ph.D. (1s. 6d. McDougall's Educ. Co.)

We have already spoken well of Mr. Allan's former work on "Practical English." This original little book contains a number of instructive suggestions and amusing exercises, and we are assured that it will prove popular with teachers and scholars alike.

A.

GATEWAYS TO ENGLISH : by Terence Quirke. Book 4. (Paper, 9d. ; cloth, 1s. McDougall's Educ. Co.)

This book consists of a number of literary extracts, each accompanied by numerous and well planned exercises thereon. It should prove useful for candidates in elementary schools who are preparing for Junior Scholarships.

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This book, the fourth and last of the series, is intended for fourteen plus children in elementary schools. It contains a number of well chosen literary extracts and a number of very good suggestions and exercises on subject matter, composition, and grammar.

Quite a useful piece of work and well drawn up—but we are tempted to inquire whether there is to be any end of this monstrous regiment of English books on similar lines, the issue of which still proceeds unabated without apparently the slightest "mitigation or remorse."

A.

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(Continued on page 94.)

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THE EDUCATION · OUTLOOK

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SPECIALIZATION.

The Head Master of Charterhouse has caused something of a flutter by protesting against the amount of specialized knowledge demanded from candidates for university scholarships in science. Professor Baly, speaking at the annual dinner of the British Association of Chemists, said that there were distinct signs that the present system of teaching students was beginning to break down. Thanks to research, knowledge was increasing at an alarming rate. Within a limited period of study young people had to have crammed into them an almost unbelievable quantity of learning, and then had to pass examinations which were becoming more and more difficult. He suggested that the teachers and others who control these matters have lost their sense of proportion, forgetting the difference between knowledge and wisdom.

The complaint that knowledge is increasing at an "alarming" rate is in odd contrast with Tennyson's well-known line: "Let knowledge grow from more to more." The poet was not thinking of examination knowledge, but rather of the kind of knowledge which Plato described as "virtue," or clear perception of relative values. Such knowledge is not easily associated with the kind of information now expected of boys and girls who try to obtain science scholarships. They must exhibit a mass of learning and some aptitude for anticipating the requirements of examiners, but it may well happen that they are lost in the fog of their own hasty acquirement. Such a result cannot be called education, however gratifying it may be to the university teacher who is looking for research students.

Early specialization in any subject involves a loss of attention to other subjects and brings about a lack of balance. This should not be possible in a well-ordered school, but it is often made inevitable by the demands of examinations. It may be doubted whether the present treatment of physics and chemistry in schools does much to further the real education of the pupil. These subjects become more and more complicated, and even the teachers have a struggle to keep abreast of modern discovery. Yet some kind of foundation is necessary, and we ought to find one. The ruling principle should be to give to every pupil a clear idea of scientific method as distinct from the empirical or the merely authoritative. This does not demand a return to the doctrine of "formal training." It has been described as

knowing the difference between a hypothesis and a fact, and such knowledge involves a consideration of the means by which the difference is made evident.

This aim in learning is worthy of more consideration than it has yet received. We have been over-much inclined to think of "subjects" and to impart information in the form of more or less related facts. We are coming to see that this is not enough. We must show how facts are obtained and tested and why they are grouped as they are. We must show also the relation between groups of facts, or "subjects." Such a training would give some mastery over intellectual processes, enabling the pupils to carry on their own education in later life. Our present plan often results in providing them with nothing more than a kind of varnish of learning, which soon cracks and peels away, leaving but a few fragments at most. There is comparatively little merit in a school course which leaves a majority of pupils less inquisitive than they were at the beginning, less eager for knowledge, with critical powers not exercised, and with no desire to build on the foundations which a school is supposed to lay.

Towards the end of his life Sir Isaac Newton is recorded as saying that his work was like a child's gathering of pebbles on the shore. On one of the last visits which he paid to Glasgow University, the late Lord Kelvin told the students that after years of research he felt himself to be no better informed as to the real nature of physical phenomena than he was as an undergraduate. With these examples in mind we shall do well to eschew the fallacy that knowledge is the sole end of education. We shall not push specialization in any branch of school work to the point where it begins to hamper, instead of helping, our real purpose.

We need a fresh consideration of the technique of examining in order to discover better ways of bringing out latent powers and knowledge. We are moving towards this already, and the schools can help by making it clear that they will not sacrifice their aims to the requirements of unsuitable examinations, whether for scholarships or anything else. It is something of a confession of weakness when the head of one of our great public schools complains of the tyranny of examinations. It is a tyranny which he and his colleagues can speedily remove if they will.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS.

FROM A CORRESPONDENT.

Progress of Registration.

Down to the end of February the number of applications for Registration was 82,714, an increase of 340 during the month. The total number of applications accepted is 79,788. Special efforts will be called for during the remainder of the year to bring this total up to 100,000. Even this will not include all who are eligible for registration, but it must be remembered that recently qualified teachers cannot be registered immediately. They may become associate members of the Royal Society of Teachers, but for full membership a year of satisfactory probation is demanded. It is found also that teachers who are approaching the retiring age often feel that there is no need for them to become registered. A noteworthy exception was that of a retired teacher, over eighty years of age, who applied to become registered, and said that throughout his working life he had desired to see the establishment of a real teaching profession, adding that he would be glad to support the movement if permitted to do so. The spirit which he showed is widely different from that of some who seem to demand assurances of personal benefit before being willing to register. It is, of course, quite impossible to give such assurances, and no teacher's association of any kind would ever have been formed if the pioneers had not been willing to make some individual sacrifices for the general good.

The Certificated Teacher.

The growth in the number of applications for admission to the Official Register continues as the result of the renewed efforts of the National Union of Teachers to induce all qualified members of that body to become registered without delay. Certificated teachers in public elementary schools are sometimes disposed to think that Registration is quite unnecessary for them, as their fitness to teach has been already tested and confirmed by the Central Authority. They do not realise, it may be, that the ordinary member of the public knows very little about the Government certificate or what it means. There are even members of Local Education Authorities whose knowledge of the certificate is limited to the fact that those who hold it must receive higher salaries than those who do not. It is true that the Board of Education Certificate forms the sole requirement which has ever been imposed on those who teach. Even in the elementary school field it is imposed only on those who take up posts as head masters or head mistresses, and this rule is subject to occasional exceptions when uncertificated teachers are appointed to control small rural schools. It is strange to reflect that the

head master of one of our great public schools, or a Fellow of an Oxford or Cambridge College, would rank officially as an uncertificated teacher in a public elementary school, and be ineligible for the headship.

Training in Teaching.

From the beginning of its work the Council has recognised that some form of training in teaching should be taken by those who seek to become registered. The one exception which has been allowed is the teacher who works in a university or in an institution of university rank. Such teachers are often appointed, not so much to impart knowledge by the ordinary processes of instruction, as to conduct research and to train students in the methods of research. Some may think that university teachers would gain by a study of the methods and principles of teaching, and this is certainly true of those who work in schools, of whatever type or standing. The present position is that a degree or other evidence of attainment serves by itself as a passport to teaching in all types of schools, save the public elementary school. Yet there are thousands of men and women who are graduates but have no intention to become teachers, and what we need is something which will serve as a qualification or attribute to distinguish the teacher from graduate members of other callings. The Council's requirements do not involve attendance at a training college. They may be satisfied by anyone who submits evidence of having spent at least one year in the study of the methods and principles of teaching, accompanied by practice under supervision. This form of training is permitted under the Regulations of the Board of Education for Teachers in Secondary Schools, and it is to be regretted that it has not been more widely adopted, especially by young graduates who find themselves unable to face the expense of an additional year in a University Education Department.

A Note on Etiquette.

There are forms of conduct which are to be deprecated, although they may not call for severe disciplinary action. Examples are to be found where members of the Royal Society of Teachers are taking part in the work of private examining bodies which sell diplomas on easy terms. The Council has ordered that no recognition is to be given to these diplomas, and it is hoped that members of the Society will not prepare pupils for the examinations, still less act as agents or examiners for the bodies conducting them.

THE MONTH'S CAUSERIE.

BY THE DOMINIE.

The President Resigns.

The Rt. Hon. Charles Trevelyan has resigned office, and if we may judge from the terms of the letter of resignation which he addressed to the Prime Minister, he did so in a mood of disappointment, not unmingled with petulance. We can all sympathise with his feelings over the rejection of his proposals for raising the school age, but those who know anything of the history of educational developments in this country would have been able to tell him long ago that very few Presidents of the Board have been able to see their hopes realised to the full. Mr. Trevelyan started with a fair wind and with every prospect of reaching his harbour in safety. His greatest mistake was that of trying to accomplish a very big change in a very short time. This can never be done in English education. Even the Balfour Act of 1902 grew out of soil which had been carefully prepared, and the Fisher Act of 1918 was one of the few beneficent results of the War. It is probable that reorganisation will now go forward, despite the failure of the Bill. The school age will be raised gradually, in some districts more speedily than in others, but everywhere within a very few years.

The New President.

Sir Charles Trevelyan is succeeded by Mr. H. B. Lees-Smith, who comes from the Post Office with an excellent record as an administrator. He has valid claims to a knowledge of education far exceeding that of some of his predecessors in office, for he acted as Vice-Principal of Ruskin College, Oxford, for many years, and has taught also in the University of Bristol and in the London School of Economics. His experience of adult education, especially among working men, should be of great service to him at the Board. It is well known, too, that he has a strong belief in the need for giving to every child the fullest possible measure of educational opportunity. We are told that the Bill for raising the school age will be reintroduced at an early date, and the new President will be confronted by the task of reconciling the diverse views of denominationalists and undenominationalists, a task which has proved insuperably difficult more than once, and may well prove to be too much even for him. The recent controversy has done nothing to help towards a solution, but has rather increased the bitterness of the ancient conflict.

What is a Church?

As an example of the kind of conduct which makes accommodation difficult in the matter of religious instruction, I quote the following story, told by Dr. Henry Townsend, of the Baptist College, Rusholme. An Anglo-Catholic vicar went into the school connected with his church, and asked the children whether they were at church on the previous Sunday. Among the rest a child of Nonconformist parents put up his hand. The vicar said to him, "Were you in my church?" "No, Sir," said the pupil, "I go to —" (naming the Free Church). "But that is not a church," said the vicar. It must be remembered that this boy was fully within his rights in attending that school, since it is a public elementary school, aided and, to a very large extent, maintained out of public funds. I doubt whether the vicar was within his rights in putting such a question to the pupils, and he certainly went beyond the bounds of seemly behaviour in saying what he did to the child. It is this tendency of clergymen to treat public elementary schools as their private sheep-folds which, in the past, had led to so much ill-feeling among Nonconformists, especially in one-school rural areas.

O.T.C. Grants.

The Secretary of State for War, introducing the Army Estimates, announced a considerable change in the treatment of the O.T.C. in schools. Hitherto the boys have been recognised as members of the Corps at the age of thirteen. In future no boy under fifteen will be recognised, and no grant will be paid in respect of any boy under sixteen. The significance of this change lies in the fact that it postpones the age of decision, and does something to save young boys from the "moral compulsion" which some head masters have admitted to exist in their schools. To those who urged that school branches of the O.T.C. should be abolished, Mr. Shaw replied that, while there is an army, he must find recruits somewhere, but it is not clear that he is bound to look for them in the schools. Nor is it clear that the actual results in recruiting justify his attitude. The number of commissions in the regular army granted to former members of the O.T.C. is about 400 or 500 a year. The number of cadets in the schools is about 35,000. We seem to be maintaining a very large organisation for a very small return.

The Future of the Burnham Scales.

It is announced that the Local Authorities Panel of the Burnham Committees will give notice to terminate the operation of the Burnham award. This means that the whole of the salaries question will presently come up for reconsideration, and it may be assumed that a number of authorities will press for a reduction in the present rates of payment. It must be admitted that circumstances are not propitious from the teachers' point of view, and a stiff fight is in prospect if the Burnham Scales are to be maintained. That they should be drastically cut down is not to be thought of, unless we are to give up all hope of improving our educational system. Everybody knows that the Burnham Scales have had an excellent effect in the schools, bringing a measure of content to the teachers and promising an improved supply of recruits for the future. It will be deplorable if false notions of economy prevail in this matter, since the first effect will be to produce a widespread feeling of discouragement among teachers and a poor supply of newcomers to the work. It should be remembered, too, that a very large number of those at present engaged in the schools were induced to become teachers by the prospect of being paid and, in due course, pensioned on the rates drawn up by the Burnham Committees.

A Real Board of Education.

The suggestion that we should have a real Board of Education, made up of representatives of Local Authorities, teachers, and members of Parliament has been revived lately, and I am told that Lord Eustace Percy is not wholly opposed to the plan. Further support may be found in the proposals of the Ministry of Transport for the establishment of a Board to control passenger vehicles of London. Presumably, this Board will work the system of London transport, and be responsible to the Minister for what it does. In his turn, he will be responsible to Parliament, thus maintaining the constitutional position. I have never been able to see the force of the argument that the responsibility of the Minister of Education will be grievously impaired if a real Board of Education were placed in charge of the school system of the country. In theory we have a Board already. It is true that it never meets, but if it were to do so, the responsibility of the Minister would be just as much impaired as it will be if a real Board of Education is created. The advantage of having such a Board would be that we might have some continuity in policy. Educational progress is bound to be slow, since public opinion must be carried along with it, but we need a body of well-informed people, able to consider the position as it is and to lay plans for future developments.

The Primary Report.

I am glad to hear that the latest Report of the Consultative Committee has not only had a good press but is selling well. It is an excellent piece of work, and it shows conclusively that the primary stage between the ages of seven and eleven plus is not merely a halting place between the stages of infancy and adolescence. This period of schooling has its own problems, calling for special consideration and for the development of a special technique. Our infant schools have progressed greatly during the past twenty years, but the elementary schools, dealing with the primary stage, have been somewhat slower in their advance. This may be due to the influence of the old rigid system, which survived long after payment by results was abolished. The worst effect of that system was to absolve teachers from the necessity of thinking out their own problems. All that was required of them was to follow the Code very closely, and to see that their pupils earned the grants. They were not expected to question the suitability of the curriculum or to adapt their teaching to the needs of individuals. In short, they were mechanics. The new Report has the great merit of providing a scientific basis for primary stage work, besides giving much valuable counsel on the teaching of the various subjects taken at this stage, and proving that the primary school offers full scope for the most efficient teacher.

Sir Aubrey Symonds.

I regret to learn of the death of Sir Aubrey Symonds, Permanent Secretary of the Board of Education. He had been absent from duty for many months by reason of illness, but it was expected that he would recover and resume work after Easter. He has died at the comparatively early age of fifty-seven, having been at the Board only six years, a period of service far shorter than that of his immediate predecessors, Sir George Kekewich and Sir Amherst Selby-Bigge. His work was interrupted in 1927 by a visit to Canada, so that his actual influence on the affairs of the Board has been limited mainly to internal reorganisation. He was appointed from the Ministry of Health, where he had served as Second Secretary and had worked with Lord Eustace Percy. It could not be claimed for him that he was well-informed on our educational system, but he was regarded as an excellent administrator. I venture to think that this qualification, admirable as it is in itself, needs the backing of first-hand knowledge of the things to be administered, and I hope that the President will not find it necessary to go outside the Board of Education or, at any rate, outside the educational field to find a new Secretary. The officers of the Board include several fully qualified for the post.

EDUCATION AND IMAGINATION.

BY THE REV. W. G. SMYLLIE, M.A. (Vicar of Cadmore End).

It is in childhood that one's imagination seems to be most active. In the boy not less than in the girl this is so, and nature cannot have erred in arranging it thus. But one must work along the lines of nature if anything is to be accomplished either in the teaching world or elsewhere. Nature should be enlisted as an ally and not regarded as a foe. How highly imaginative are the books of the Bible! From the story of the Creation in Genesis to the pictures of another creation in The Revelation, this is so. To treat the Bible otherwise is to miss altogether its teaching. Emerson said it was impossible to be a naturalist without imagination. The same could be said of all the sciences.

Nature crediting us with the gift she has given us holds us responsible for its use, and has no secrets for those who hide it in a napkin or throw it away.

Lack of imagination accounts more for our troubles to-day than we realise, and the school teachers or—what would be more correct to say—the officials to whom they are compelled to be subservient are largely responsible. What is taught in the home is untaught in the classroom; and the child, as he grows up, learns to despise the most useful weapon nature has placed in his armoury. If this continues we shall of all men be most miserable, and the improved conditions of life will not add one iota of usefulness or happiness to the lives of our people.

A student of sociology has declared that the working people in bygone days were not one whit less happy than those of to-day notwithstanding the improved conditions.

Can anyone be happy whose imagination is starved out of existence? Money can cure hunger, but it cannot cure unhappiness. Man cannot live on bread alone notwithstanding that without bread he cannot live at all.

The obsolete methods of education had one advantage over present-day ideas in that imagination was not ruled out. The result was that whatever children learnt they remembered. We want them to learn more; but the arranging of the school syllabus to-day is somewhat as though one edited a paper without taking into account one's readers, whereas an editor always uses imagination and visualises his public as he sits at his desk.

The complaisance of our education officials is not shared by the good teacher to-day because he is in closer contact with the children and knows his pupils. Some of our teachers are born teachers; but their innate gifts are practically rendered useless by the school curriculum, and the perpetual interference of officials who know little of child life and

whose knowledge of psychology is most extraordinarily limited.

Soon there will be nothing of interest left to the teachers but the amount of their salaries, and the qualifications necessary for pensions. As a matter of fact, those who attend Teachers' Conferences can already notice the prominence of such matters in the discussions. In the olden days it was: "Silver and gold have I none; but what I have give I thee." It will soon be silver for teachers, gold for inspectors, and nothing for the children—that is unless they are also compensated, which, as a matter of fair play, ought to be the case. Otherwise the parents will see no object whatever in sending their children to school. Meanwhile the country is bled, and the tax-payer is deluded into thinking that his money is being spent on education.

Now let us consider the teaching of one subject as an illustration of how the imagination in our schools is entirely ruled out.

To begin with, let me go back to my own childhood, and refer to something which distinctly helps us when treating of the imagination in education. It was my privilege, or otherwise, in those days to be brought to missionary meetings. These, naturally, took the form of discourses on foreign countries. The addresses were illustrated by what was then called "Magic Lantern Views." I clearly remember the tedium with which I tolerated the map of the country about to be viewed, but the pleasure and interest with which I gazed on the pictures which followed. I practically remembered nothing of the map, but everything of the pictures. Now this tedium, or boredom, is experienced by nearly every child to-day when an atlas is produced, or a map hung up, preparatory to a geography lesson in school. But the unfortunate person is not buoyed up with the knowledge that pictures are to follow, and so does not meet the situation with the fortitude which I remember being able to exercise. What was wrong with my missionary meeting was that the map came in the wrong place. The same, I believe, is the case with the ordinary method of teaching geography to-day.

As adults we recognise that without a good atlas one's geographical knowledge would be seriously hampered. Further, we feel that a good atlas is not only a boon, but a real source of pleasure. Why is it not so with the child?

I once found a body of people praying before a map, and amongst them were children who were as keen as their elders. The map did not take the place of a deity, but was an aid to devotion. The prayers were geographical, *i.e.* prayers for people in the

countries thus represented. But the worshippers had an interest in those for whom they prayed. The interest came first, the map afterwards.

A child will eagerly scan a map to trace the spot where a relative may happen to be living at the time. I knew a child who possessed much greater map knowledge of a fairly unknown country than myself. The reason, I discovered, was that at the time the father was travelling in that country.

In order to instil accurate geographical knowledge in a child's mind it is not necessary to transport a relative there. What is necessary is that the child should be interested. An appeal to the imagination will create the interest, but the map or atlas makes no such appeal, although when the appeal is made the map cannot be done without, and the need of it will be felt by no one more than by the child.

Teachers could learn their craft by studying the advertising methods of an ordinary newspaper. One reads an interesting article; and until one gets to the end, the shop, thus advertising itself, is not mentioned. One is, as it were, "had." What really happens is that the imagination has been appealed to, and one is carried along on this vehicle whither the advertiser wishes. To be thus carried into the realm of knowledge, instead of into the latest trade sales, would be to use imagination for, perhaps, a more useful end. Even the great daily papers cannot now dispense with a picture page in making their popular appeal.

"Truth embodied in a tale can enter in at lowly doors."

Interest opens the door, and the hard facts, whether of geography or anything else, easily enter.

Aristotle says: "The intellect by itself moves nothing." It is in an atmosphere of awe and wonder that nature teaches her best lessons, and for the teacher to ignore nature's method is asking for failure.

Art.

HOW TO USE WATER-COLOURS: by S. J. Cartlidge.
(4s. Winsor and Newton.)

This is a revised and enlarged edition of an entirely excellent treatise on the use of water-colours, by Mr. Cartlidge, who was formerly H.M. Chief Inspector of Schools of Art. Four shillings may appear a somewhat heavy price to pay for so small a book, but as a matter of fact the purchaser will find the money well spent. As an expert and from a wide experience Mr. Cartlidge is able to give exactly that information needed to make a really successful use of the medium—the nature of the best materials, the influence of colours on each other, methods of mixing, and varieties of technique, being among the various aspects of the art dealt with. The illustrations in colour are excellent.

THE PERFECT MAN.

Commercial interests have been so critical of the products of our schools that I have wondered into what sort of man they would wish the schoolboy to develop. Their advertisements might be a guide, I thought, so I examined a copy of the *Daily Paper* to discover the virtues of the Ideal Man. He should, it appears,

- eat more fish
- have gleaming hair
- look bright and full of energy
- not carry his life in his lap
- cure his indigestion with famous pills
- be bald and grow new hair
- have a trained mind (like Edgar Wallace)
- use Nature's surest cure for uric acid and gout
- have a wife who ends housework at 10 a.m. with a perfect suction machine, and who feels confident about her hair
- use safe milk (from a tin)
- safeguard his tender skin (never too young to start)
- get comfort and strength from throat pastilles
- know the secret of beautiful hair
- know the right number of cigarettes in a 6d. packet
- give the whole family bananas
- look on the sunny side when Income Tax is due
- use the acknowledged remedy for his rheumatism and gout
- find wonderful new comfort for his feet
- have a cold which will vanish in a day
- stop distressing conditions instantly by the sensible remedy
- make himself fit and well in a few hours by a perfect cure
- have teeth which give a flashing smile
- have his nights made restful
- have asthma which can be stopped with two tablets
- keep his vitality up, and his blood pressure down
- get free information that may mean the difference between life and death
- know what he couldn't do to a lager, and
- suck what the lift girl does.

True; it is never too young to start.

Will some beneficent commercial adviser kindly oblige with a suitable curriculum?

ONLOOKER.

AMERICA AT COLLEGE.

BY PATRICK M. MOIR.

Most American films give an entirely wrong idea of college life in the United States. According to them, cocktail parties, baseball, football, and anything except work are the main occupations of the so-called students. How different is all this from the actual truth! The American student is desperately hard-working, indeed much more so than his fellows at Oxford and Cambridge.

For his sake libraries remain open till midnight, instead of closing in the evening as they do here. Even then the young American is not always satisfied. Sometimes he applies for a pass to work into the small hours, and, contrary to the general idea, students of this type are the rule and not the exception. Their large attendance justifies the late closing to the full.

This fine response on the one side receives an equally warm encouragement from the other. Prepared to study late and long, students find the faculties ready to aid their study in every imaginable way. The lavish supply of books, apparatus, and other assistance creates general wonder. Indeed, I have heard a South African friend of mine declare that he received more attention as a research worker in a United States university than even a professor would receive in a British one.

What is the explanation of this vast general energy? Americans would reply that it is because they are studying for life. Not only do the mining engineer and other specialised workers prepare themselves with particular courses, but the short story writer and a small army of others receive similar attention also.

Yet, whatever the subject, the American tackles it with an exhaustive energy. He is not content with reading the three or so chief authorities of real importance. Every available relevant book must yield him further knowledge on the subject. There is no question of attending lectures during term time and settling down to serious study during the vacation as at our own universities. So long as the student is up, he avails himself of the splendid opportunities thrown out to him by the college faculty.

In some cases even the vacations do not bring rest to these energetic young men. The poorer of them take on work of one kind or another in order to help pay for their fees, while some even hire themselves out as waiters during term time in order to make the necessary money.

What then is the result of all this vast output of energy? The student learns to know his subject with a thoroughness which leaves our more slow-

going old-world minds surprised. Anyone can see it for himself on reading an American work on education, where the bibliography at the end of each chapter seems long enough to supply material for a whole book in itself.

However, such exhaustive study has its faults as well as merits. This painstaking research is apt to lead to pedantry at times, and to produce an outlook divorced from a practical and independent study of the subject. British schoolmasters admire the profundity of the American volumes, but object to matters undergoing so inhuman a treatment that the pupil is spoken of sometimes as "the educand." Workers of this sort are certainly apt to go through life weighed down by a vast bundle of dried facts upon their shoulders. Yet even then they can take a leading place in the general race, and the recent works of the United States educationists should provide stimulation and the greatest help to all.

Probably the fault lies in the American temperament. This is hustling, pugnacious, and inclined to be fiercely acquisitive. Fathers, who have set out with the grim determination to win dollars, bring up sons with an equally grim determination to get culture, and a belief that they can win it by the same hard-fighting, nose-to-the-grindstone methods that placed the "old man" in the place he holds today. In this manner the nation begins to produce the student who buries himself in his books as his family predecessors buried themselves in their offices and factories.

Through the questionable policy of certain educational centres the "degree factory" stigma has become attached to American education. Yet in Yale, Harvard, and their contemporaries this does not survive by any means, except in the case of the professional sporting heroes, who are attached to their colleges by a purely "courtesy" scholarship and purely nominal duties about the building itself. A man of this sort may be set to wind a clock each day (or week), or carry out some other duty equally nominal and ludicrous. He will perform this task regularly and as ostentatiously as possible. Yet his real purpose is to act as the university professional, and assume the same rôle as the paid and imported players in our British football teams.

However, apart from a man of this type, the members of the college are in reality most hard working and ambitious. Clearly before them is either the goal of gaining a true academic polish, which may have been lacking in their fathers, or else in many cases to obtain that thorough, technical knowledge which may raise them to the position of a Ford or Rockefeller in later years.

WHAT IS WRONG WITH OUR GIRLS' EDUCATION?

What a talk there is about girls' independence! To hear or read what some people say one might imagine that directly a girl leaves school there are hundreds of attractive jobs awaiting her. No mention is made of the training she must go through first, whatever career she may choose.

The fees of boarding schools are monstrous. Nobody can deny that. When a girl leaves school what post is she fit to take?

She could be a very inferior domestic servant, or else, more genteel perhaps, but requiring less brain, she could take small children for walks.

Those girls who wish to take up nursing, secretarial work, or any of the many other professions open to a woman, must be prepared for a long and expensive training. This is quite as it should be, for nobody expects a girl of seventeen to have been taught during her last year at school what usually takes several years for a man to learn. So long as these girls' parents have the money to spend and the inclination to spend it, all is well.

Then there is another type of girl, who has no leaning towards any special profession, and does not need to make any money. She goes in for social work. Not every girl can do this, for, if taken up seriously, a certain amount of expense is incurred, whatever the work may be. It is the girls who have comparatively poor parents for whom one feels sorry. These parents cannot afford to give them any training and the girls themselves have not enough money for much social service, so what are they to do?

Many stop at home "to help mother," but mother, having run a house for twenty years, will not hand over her duties lightly to her daughter.

The consequence is that the girl is left with very little to do but enjoy herself. This may be all very well for a time, but she is not being of much use in the world, and will soon become unhappy.

This type of girl would probably leave school when she was seventeen. During her last year there she would be in the highest form bar one, working hard at English, French, history, geography, botany, science, mathematics, and probably Latin, in the hope that she might pass the School Certificate or some similar examination at the end of the year.

She takes it, and passes or fails. The result is practically immaterial. For a few weeks she and her friends will be pleased because she has passed, and she will have upheld the honour of the school.

What good is this examination to her in after life, for she is taking no training?

In probably less than a year she will have forgotten all she knew when she sat for it. She may have a little more general knowledge than if she had not taken the examination, but that, and the character training gained by the effort expended, will be all.

Why could not these girls learn something that would be of use to them in after life, instead of wasting their time gaining useless certificates.

By the age of sixteen a girl realises whether she is going to any college or not. If she is not she must decide what kind of work, only requiring a little training, she would like to take up on leaving school. Some are good at needlework. If so, with a year's training, they could pass a recognised examination which would help them to obtain orders from big stores.

Other girls might prefer secretarial work. Teach them the elements of shorthand, typing, &c., so that with a little after-school training they would be fit to take posts.

Girls interested in arts and crafts could pass a similar examination to that taken by the needlewomen, and so on, each girl specialising in the type of work which would be of use to her in after life.

If only the one subject is taught the girl would soon grow tired of it. Besides, she could not leave off her ordinary school teaching completely at the age of sixteen. French, mathematics, English, science, history, and geography, should also be included in the syllabus.

Below is a time table showing a plan of work for a girl during her last year at school. The blank spaces are for her particular subject.

Time.	9 to 9.45	9.45 to 10.30	10.30 to 11	11.30 to 12	12 to 12.30	12.30 to 1	4.45 to 7
Mon.:	—	French	—	Maths.	—	Hist.	Preparation
Tues.:	—	Maths.	—	English	—	French	„
Wed.:	—	Hist.	—	Maths.	—	Geog.	„
Thurs.:	—	Science	Science	French	—	Hist.	„
Fri.:	—	English	—	History	—	Maths.	„
Sat.:	—	Geog.	—	FREE TIME.		—	„

Fathers would probably be only too glad to pay the extra expense incurred by the necessary enlargement on the school staff, for they would be sure that their daughters would find some work to do on leaving school.

MODERN SCHOOLING

THE VILLAGE SCHOOL.

IV. Geography.

By WILLIAM CLAYTON, M.B.E. (Appleton Roebuck School).

This subject is included in the curriculum because its study helps children towards an intelligent and sympathetic interest in the life of communities, both their own and those outside their own circles. The special aim in geography is to lead children to look upon the activities of peoples in terms of their surroundings, and upon man as a vital agent in the development of his environment. This should lead further to a recognition of the interdependence of peoples throughout the world.

To carry out these aims fully the teacher should be an expert. Unfortunately we, of the village schools, are at the best but general practitioners; but there are now so many opportunities for us to attend vacation courses at our training colleges—summer schools, conducted by university specialists, at delightful centres on our coast; and/or short term refresher courses at nearby educational centres—that most of us can, if we will, make ourselves better teachers of this subject than our college training has made us. "Like teacher, like school," is almost as much a truism as "Like father, like son"; therefore we shall generally find that if the teacher is himself a geographer his enthusiasm is reflected in his pupils.

We have never dreamt of considering ourselves anything approaching the expert teacher, therefore what we do, or have done, must be looked upon as a village teacher's simple way of interesting his pupils in this fascinating subject which, probably more than any other, lends itself to successful outdoor teaching.

Our method is opposed to the "Suggestions" written for our guidance by the Board of Education; nevertheless, our practice has always been to make this subject as practical as possible by making the geography of our township the foundation upon which all our teaching in this subject is built.

We have limited means of judging whether such teaching is successful or not, but a keen and continuous interest is taken by our pupils in all that we do. Geography is a live and practical subject to them all.

We have traced our streams from their source on the higher ground, and have travelled on their banks, down the slopes and over the level fields, until we have come to their confluence with the larger streams. We have followed these to their junction with the tidal river, and have here watched both the ebb and flow of the tides in their normal and equinoctial periods. We have noted that our

streams are not single units, but that each is a part of a wonderful network of streams serving their separate uses as part of the drainage system of our area. We have, as we have wandered, noted how the bed of the stream changes in character from stony, gravelly, sandy, and alluvial soils, to the soft warp lands round the mouth of the tidal river. Without any direction on the teacher's part our children have noted the changes in vegetation—the scanty pastures of the hilly portions, the fertile arable lands of the middle portions, the rich grazing and meadow lands of the deep alluvial and warp soils near the river. We have noted how in days long gone by our forefathers had built high banks to keep our river in bounds, and so make the adjacent low-lying lands of use and value to the inhabitants.

We have noted how the streams twist and twine in their course, and have proved with pick and spade why the stream was prevented from taking a beeline from its source to its mouth. We have measured the depths of the water in various places, and have noted how the deep pools at the bends have been caused by the rush and swirl of the water in flood time. In conjunction with our rain-gauge we have noted how the heavy rainstorms affect our tiny streams, and have timed how long it takes for these to increase the depth and width of our rivulet. We have seen how each feeder widens its mouth where it joins the main watercourse, and how it throws out its soil effluents to form sandbanks and channels therein. Junction, mouth, confluence, and tributary are terms which, when introduced on the spot, explain themselves, and score an indelible mark upon the minds of our pupils. The bird and animal life on the banks and adjacent lands has been duly noted, and the fishes and water insects have been examined and their habits watched. We have observed how the hill pastures have been burnt up in hot seasons, whilst the lowlands have been lush and green. We have visited these lowlands when the floods have subsided, and examined the layer of brown silt which the waters have left to enrich the feeding pastures and meadows in the following summer. We have seen our own sleek cattle on the rich pastures and drawn fairly true pictures in our minds of the thousands of bees on the vast grazing plains of the La Plata.

We have called our estates "continents," and seen how many "countries," in the shape of farms, it has taken to make up their content. We have

counted the fields on the farms and called them "counties," and seen how they were each bounded by stream, or hedge, or dyke, over or through which the cattle might not pass without being trespassers. We have applied this knowledge to our maps and atlases, and observed how the frontiers between countries or nations were of similar character, to which the same sanctity of ownership must be observed.

We have gone to the farms and seen our "exports" in the shape of grain and potatoes being loaded on to the wagons for transportation to the more densely populated parts to feed the workers in our factories and mines. We have seen the heavily laden motor lorries from our seaports bringing goods to supply our village stores—tea, coffee, sugar, rice, and other surplus productions of warmer climes brought for our comfort and need. In the classroom later we have found out where these things come from, and have tried to learn something of the people—young and old—who have been interested in the production of these goods.

In these and a thousand other simple ways we have learned much not only of the land we live in, but of the great world beyond the seas, where our ships are constantly sailing to take our surplus productions and manufactures, and come back laden with luxuries and necessities for our use.

Surely with such a foundation, expert teachers in our senior and secondary schools will be able to build a geographical structure which will continue to grow as long as life lasts.

Biology.

ELEMENTARY BIOLOGY FOR MATRICULATION AND ALLIED EXAMINATIONS: by Mary E. Phillips, B.Sc., and Lucy E. Cox, B.Sc., F.L.S. (7s. 6d. Univ. of London Press.)

Although confessedly prepared for students reading for the Matriculation Examination in Biology there is so much in this volume that is interesting that it may well find a wider circle of readers. The joint authors are lecturers and specialists in biology and their work reflects both knowledge of the subject and skill in presenting it. The information given concerning the lives and activities of plants and animals, simple and complex, is clear and reliable, and the practical work is ample and varied, the whole being very helpfully illustrated by hundreds of clear drawings. It would be a singularly dull student who failed to satisfy any reasonable examiner in elementary biology after taking such a course as is here provided, and teachers of nature study and of rural science will find much in it to render their lessons both interesting and valuable.

F. H. S.

THE COST OF STATE EDUCATION.

The recently-issued Memorandum on the Board of Education Estimates for 1931 may be obtained from the Stationery Office for sixpence. It is packed with information, set forth in the form of tables of statistics. Reading between the tables, so to speak, we may build up an interesting picture of our educational system in its financial aspect. To begin with there is a table showing the estimates and expenditure over a period of years, excluding those of the war. From the figures we learn that in 1913 we spent on education from exchequer funds the sum of £14,368,794. In 1919 we were spending nearly 19½ millions, and in 1930 we spent about 45½ millions. During the present year it is estimated that we shall spend nearly 48½ millions, or £48,362,377. To this outlay from the taxes must be added the local expenditure from rates, making an estimated total for 1931 of £86,876,000, allowing for receipts from pension contributions and other sources. The amount we are expending on State-aided education has been nearly trebled in the past eighteen years, and the strict economist may be troubled in spirit. He should remember that before the war a pound went much further than it does today, and that an outlay of, say, 40 millions in 1913 would represent one of nearly 70 millions in 1930. The intervening period has seen extensive developments in our school system. Many new schools have been built, and on the secondary side especially there has been great activity. There is also a new form of expenditure in the contributions of Local Education Authorities to the superannuation of teachers.

Cost per Pupil.

In 1913 the cost per pupil in elementary schools was £4. 15s. 2d. In 1931 it is estimated to cost £13. 17s. 9d. The items shown give an increase in teachers' salaries from £3. 1s. per child in 1913 to £8. 13s. 4d. per child as the estimate for 1931. This increase need not alarm our economists if they will remember that a salary cost of even £10 per child to-day would represent only £6 or less in 1913, and that in the latter year qualified assistant masters in London elementary schools were expected to live on less than £3 a week. Salaries in the provinces were even smaller, and there were recurrent shortages of teachers. The teacher is the most important factor in the schooling of children, and we must be prepared to offer such salaries as will attract recruits of the right type in numbers sufficient for our needs. If we fail in this our educational system will be a poor thing, however much we may spend on buildings and equipment.

PURPOSE AND METHODS OF EDUCATION.

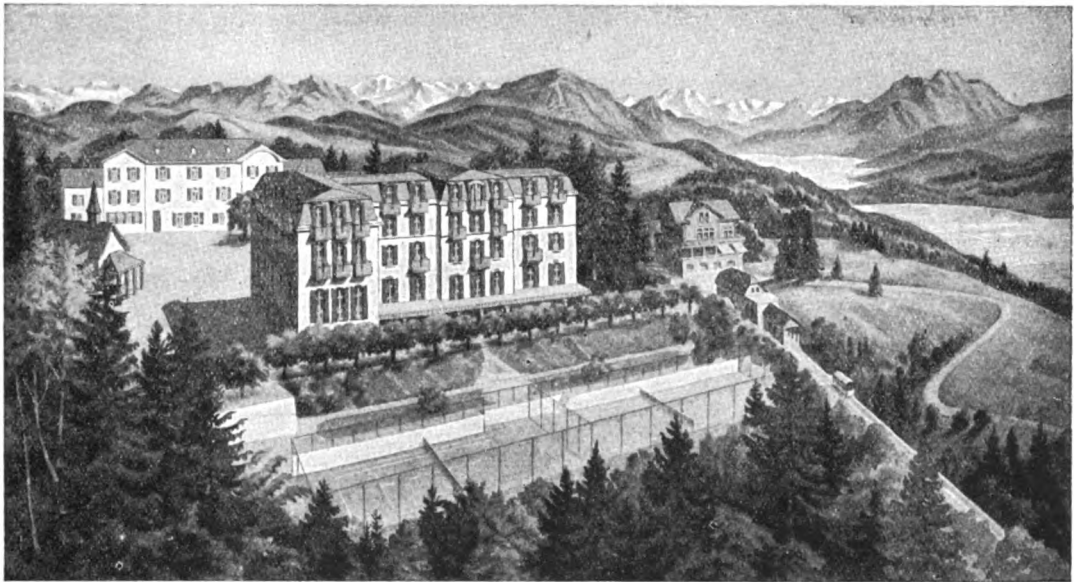
An Interview with a Continental Educationist.

By C. J. DRYDEN, Ph.D.

During a recent visit to Switzerland it was my good fortune to come into contact with an enthusiastic educationist, Dr. Max Husmann, the head of Montana College, Zugerberg. The following is a résumé of the conversations I had with him which I feel will be of interest here, at a time when the extension of the school age is practically agreed

tion to train youth to play games merely for the sake of gaining a proficiency in them. Games should be encouraged simply for their service to health and for the cultivation of the spirit of fair play. When so employed they have the additional advantage of recreation—a change from serious study.

MYSELF.—I agree, and then?



MONTANA COLLEGE. GENERAL VIEW.

upon and yet no decision arrived at as to the curriculum for the extended period.

MYSELF.—What, would you say, is the purpose of education?

DR. HUSMANN.—First, let me clear the way by saying what is *not* its purpose.

MYSELF.—Well, that would be helpful.

DR. HUSMANN.—It is not the purpose of educa-

tion to train youth to play games merely for the sake of gaining a proficiency in them. Games should be encouraged simply for their service to health and for the cultivation of the spirit of fair play. When so employed they have the additional advantage of recreation—a change from serious study.

MYSELF.—You mean, I take it, that a youth should be taught logically to handle the information he gains. But how is he to acquire or at least to

train the logical faculty? What mental gymnastics are to be employed?

DR. HUSMANN.—That brings me to the real purpose of education. In the first place it must be perfectly clear that the walks of life, its professions, its occupations, are so many and so diverse as to make it impossible for a schoolmaster to prepare a youth for any or all of them. But he *can* make the passage of life from the school to the working

classic lore (proficient in the rhetoric which laid the world at the feet of the young Greek or the young Roman) is now like a man alone on an island, cut off, by seas of modern knowledge, from the rest of his fellows. There is, in short, no connection between his education and the life he will have to lead unless that life be one of the professions which still find a use for the ancient languages. The education of youth, therefore, must imply the laying



THE FIVES COURTS.

world far easier than it has been in the past. The truth is that our educational methods have not kept pace with the progress of civilisation, with all its complicated industries and varied commercial intercourse. We have lagged behind to such an extent that we have sent men into the world totally unfit to perform the tasks which a modern world demands of them. The university graduate steeped in ancient

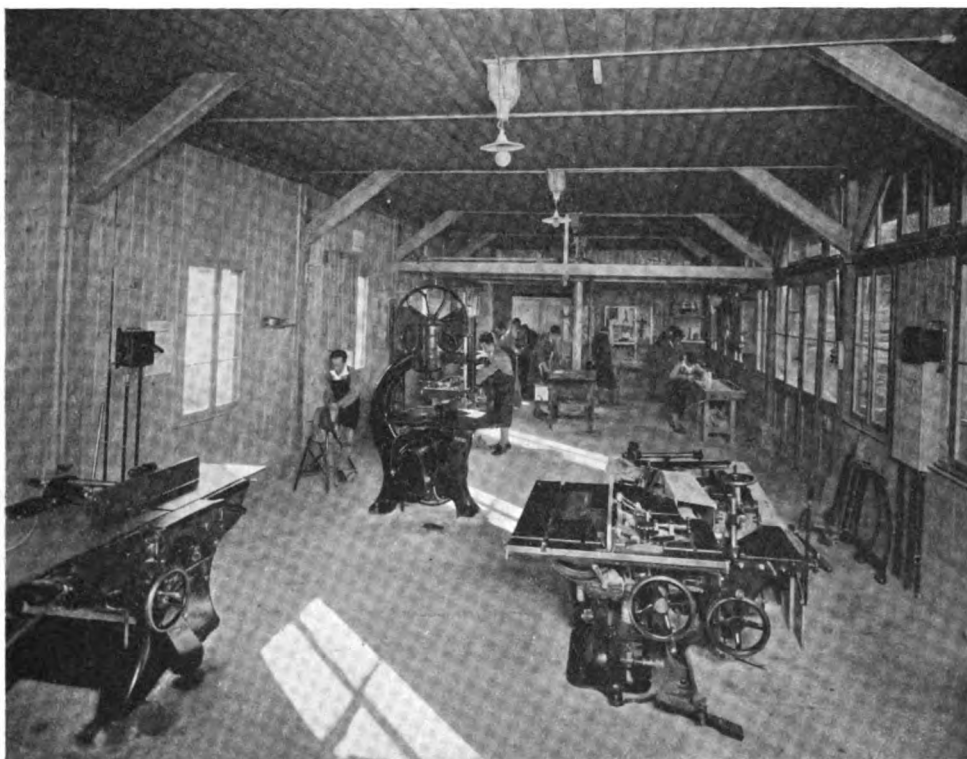
of a foundation of something which later life completes. School life and life in the world must not be cut off the one from the other, but be parts of one whole. Industrial life and commercial life, as well as professional life, should begin at school.

MYSELF.—In other words, engineering, applied science, commercial knowledge, modern languages, should have their place in school curricula as well

as preparation for the older professions. With that view, too, I agree. But do these afford as good a mental gymnastic as did the old classical curriculum, and do they tend so well to the formation of social qualities as did the old humanities?

DR. HUSMANN.—As to the latter part of your question, I do not see why the reading of the classics in translations should not give the same results in this connection as did the more pedantic ploughing of linguistic fields. As to the latter, cause and

DR. HUSMANN.—They are very important. Every child should become the study of the teacher. You must not, indeed you *cannot*, standardise in education. Individuality must be considered and deftly handled. Only in this way can school education be changed from the performance of tasks, irksome to youth, to an interesting course of adventure into the various fields of knowledge. Moreover, the modern boarding school must be a real home, retaining only that minimum of restraint which is



WORKSHOP.

effect are ever present in the teaching of science, and such mental gymnastics as Latin, for example, affords may be found in the acquirement of some modern languages. The effects upon character are as beneficent in the modern course of study as in the old one. And the logic of facts is as good as the logic of the "Schools."

MYSELF.—And what is your view of the modern psychological theories relating to the school child?

essential for the maintenance of discipline in the boarders' own interests.

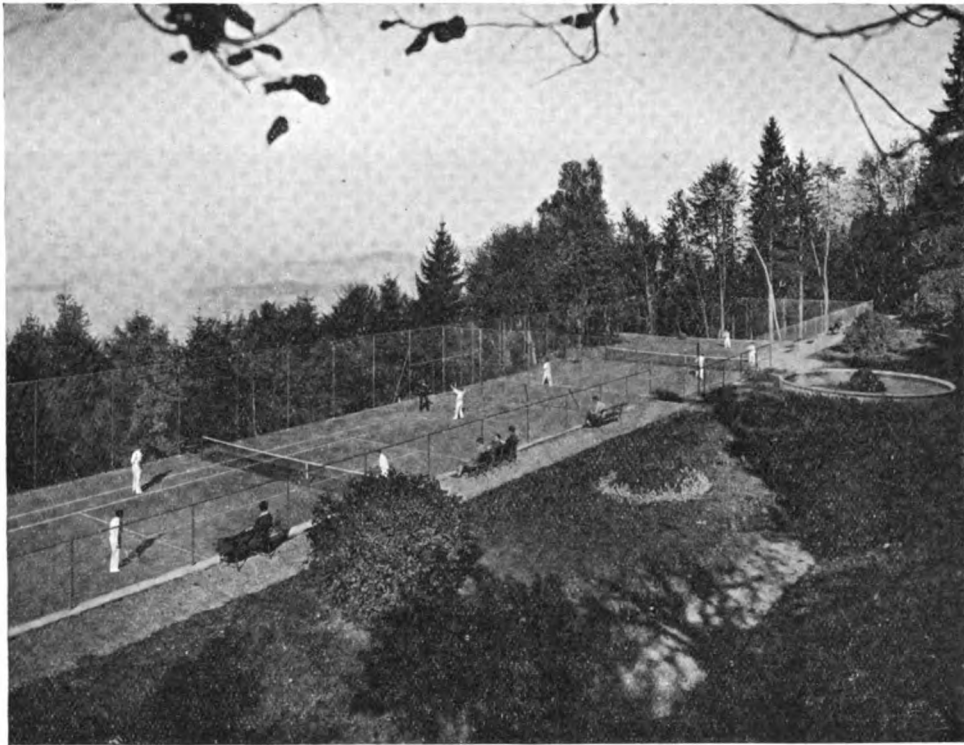
MYSELF.—And how is this attention to individual character and training to be got in the public school attended by, say, hundreds of boys or girls?

DR. HUSMANN.—Only by the formation of small classes. Even in these disparity in attainment occurs, so that a boy will be weaker in one subject than in another, and will require individual atten-

tion in his weak subject in order to become on a par with his class fellows.

MYSELF.—But a teacher can hardly be expected to give class and individual instruction simultaneously?

in a lower class simply because he is weak in one subject. In this way he does not feel aggrieved, as he would do by being kept back in his old class till he has made himself proficient in every subject alike.



TENNIS COURTS.

DR. HUSMANN.—I obviate that difficulty by a system of movable classes. A boy who is weak, say, in French, may take his French lessons in a lower class than that to which he belongs, and yet retain his proper place in the school. He will not be kept

MYSELF.—That is an excellent idea, which I shall commend to the consideration of head masters at home. And, again, the purpose of it all?

DR. HUSMANN.—To train leaders of men—no, not commanders, but leaders.

The Church and Education.

In the course of a Lenten Address on "The Sin of Ignorance," the Dean of Manchester (Dr. Hewlett Robinson) said that he regretted the fate of Sir Charles Trevelyan's Education Bill. He would like to see the Church as a whole rise up and demand that each boy and girl should be given a long chance of education. That should be the one cry of the

Church. He would like to see the same enthusiasm in the search for truth in this country as there was in Russia. The Church had done big things in the past for education, but it must do more. He did not like to see boys and girls turned out into the industrial world not properly equipped with knowledge and not having the spirit or desire to search for the truth of life.

AN AID TO SCHOOL DRAMA. The Little Theatre, Citizen House, Bath.

By C. M. DE REYES.

The Little Theatre, Citizen House, Bath, has functioned for the past fifteen years as the chief educational centre for play production in schools and colleges throughout the country, and numbers among its friends and members representatives of every university, secondary, and elementary school in the United Kingdom. Possibly there is no school that has not had recourse to the many thousands of stage costumes which are always available on loan for educational purposes, or to the stage curtains, scenery, and properties which are so numerous that an old eighteenth century mansion of a hundred rooms is required to house them in Bath.

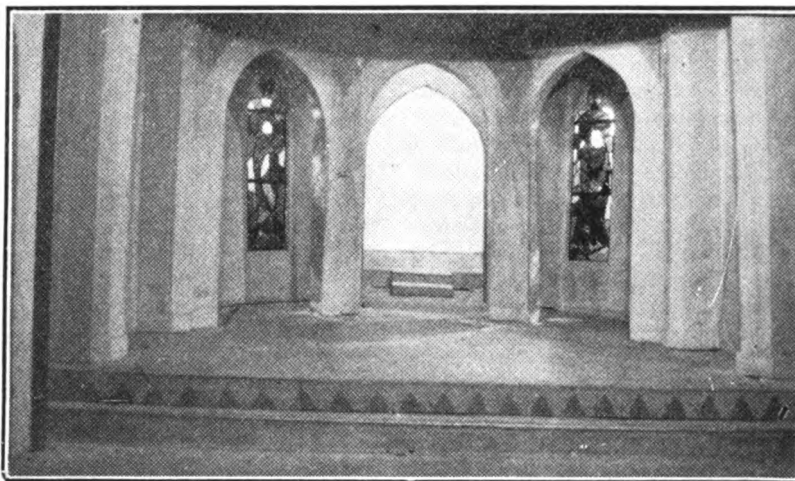
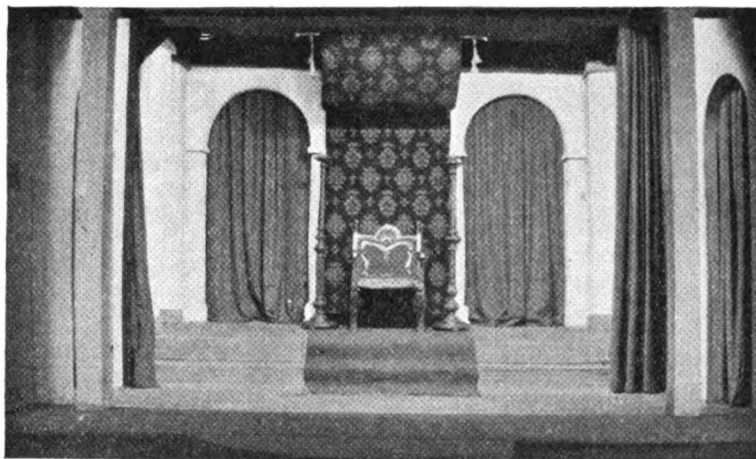
The widespread recognition of drama as one of the most potent factors of education has led to a very wide extension of the work of Citizen House, and for some time it has been felt that a London centre is required in addition to the work in Bath. It may be of interest to our readers to know that the well-known Everyman Theatre at Hampstead has been acquired for this purpose. Here it is proposed to hold regular tutorial classes in drama production during the school vacations. Such classes will include every aspect of play production, such as the selection of a play, rehearsal methods, stage technique, the making of scenery and costumes,

and the final production of plays by the student members themselves.

The annual Summer School for dramatic production at Citizen House, Bath, held during the first fortnight of August, has always attracted a large number of education experts on account of the intense value of the practical work. This year the school is to be attended by members of the American Drama League and representatives of universities, schools, and colleges in the United States. To accommodate the large number of English and American members who have already notified their intention of joining, it is

hoped to arrange an Easter School at the Everyman Theatre, London, in addition.

Possibly the main value of the training afforded by Citizen House lies in the fact that the most beautiful stage effects are gained by the simplest methods which fall well within the scope of every school producer. From a few battens of wood, some discarded packing cases, several yards of cheap calico, and a bucket of distemper, scenes such as those represented in the accompanying photographs are built up in a few hours. Many of the modern stages and platforms of schools and colleges have been designed by Mr. Peter King, the stage manager of Citizen House, who is always glad





to place his experience and advice at the disposal of any education authorities who are building their halls or stages. It is greatly hoped that the Everyman Theatre, London, will thus become the practical laboratory of all desiring to study dramatic production in schools, and that the standard of production will consequently be raised to a level befitting that art which is the symposium of all arts.

LETTER TO THE EDITOR.

“Deciduous.”

Sir,—I note in the news—and I am sure it is very important news—that Mr. G. M. Cuthbert, General Manager of the South African Deciduous Fruit Exchange, has arrived in London on somewhat technical business in connection with marketing.

Excellent! But what a horrible thing to call a man! The word “deciduous,” which I understand, so far as the fruit trade is concerned, means peaches, plums, apricots, and the like, connotes in our everyday, man-in-the-street conversation something most unpleasing in human appearance. It means a sudden “falling down” of hollow cheeks and sagging underchin. “Cadaverous” is about the only common term of the kind I can recall which is as unpleasant.

Why brand this excellent produce, and incidentally himself, with such a name, instead of saying “falling fruit”? Or even “tree fruit,” which would include the berries on their bushes, and exclude the banana?—Yours faithfully,

J. T. KINGSLEY-TARPEY,
Chairman, Faculty of Arts.

1190-195 Piccadilly, W.1.

PHYSICAL TRAINING EXHIBITION IN VENICE.

Under the patronage of their Majesties the King and Queen of Italy international displays of physical education and sports will be held at Venice in May.

At the same time the First International Congress of the Friends of Physical Education and Sports will be held.

Gymnasts of fourteen European nations will attend and, so far, more than sixteen thousand have entered for the competitions.

Clubs, schools, colleges, universities, and any sporting institution can compete with teams or individually in the athletic and artistic competitions for *men and women* at the Gymnastic and Sports Concourses. The Congress, which will be held in the Royal Palace in St. Mark's Square, will be attended by crowds of experts and sportsmen, and the various problems relating to physical education will be dealt with, especially those problems regarding physical education for women and gymnastics with curative and preventive aims.

An exhibition will be held in the pavilions of the International Biennial Art Exhibition in the Venetian Public Gardens. It will contain sections for every branch of sport. Besides a special display of sport architecture, complete with plans of gymnasiums, playing grounds, stadiums, swimming baths, &c., there will be a large section for photographs, reports, rules, and methods illustrating the sport organisation in various countries, armies, schools, communities, &c., and finally there will be a show of apparatus, sports costumes, and uniforms for men and women.

The prizes for these displays and competitions, other than cups and medals, will amount to more than £1,100.

All the competitors, the exhibitors, those attending the Congress and visitors will enjoy railway, customs, and accommodation facilities.

English.

JANE AUSTEN'S NOVELS: Connected Extracts: ed. by Elizabeth D'Oyley. (2s. 6d. Arnold.)

We have read this little volume with much interest, and hope and believe that it will prove popular with young people, and induce them to read some of the original novels. CH. CH.

“Books Within Books.”—KNIGHTS OF THE ROUND TABLE; THE CRUMMLES FAMILY; THE PRISONERS' TREASURE; HERETOFORE THE MARQUIS. (1s. each. Nelson.)

These volumes are additions to T. Nelson's well-known and excellent series “Books within Books,” edited by Richard Wilson, D.Litt. The books in question are abridgments from “Malorv,” “Nicholas Nick'ebey,” “Monte Cristo,” and “A Tale of Two Cities,” and make excellent reading.

A SCHOOL DANCE.

By R. ATTWOOD.

One of the successful ways of obtaining money for a school fund or charity is a dance organised by a house or form. If the tickets are sold at 1s. 6d. each, it is possible to make almost 1s. profit per head.

A committee of about six girls with a Mistress as Chairman is chosen some weeks before the date, and this committee is responsible for the programme and the refreshments. One of them or the Mistress in charge will act as Master of the Ceremonies at the dance. The committee should include home science specialists and good dancers.

Six tickets may be made by each girl from a plain post card cut into pieces. On the ticket should appear date and time of the dance and the object of the profits. A book should be kept, and as each girl sells a ticket she enters her name, the name of the buyer, and the price of the ticket. By this means the number of guests is known exactly and funds may be estimated at any moment.

A band cannot be afforded, but perhaps the school possesses a gramophone which can be hired for the evening at a small charge, this music being supplemented by pianists or even by an orchestra made up of a few of the organisers. The programme should be written up on a blackboard in the hall where the dance is taking place.

Supper is the most important item when considering expense. If the guests number about eighty, it is a good plan to divide them into four groups for supper, putting some members of committee in each group to be responsible for "feeding" it. This will be found easier to manage than one large crowd. Remember that each group must contain an even number of people so that partners will not be separated. Each group will be glad to have a small table on which the sandwiches and lemonade may be placed. The sweets, trifle, ices, or whatever is chosen to follow the sandwiches, may be kept on large tables outside the groups and brought round to the guests by the committee when needed. In drawing up the menu, consider expense and labour involved.

Lemonade, which is easier to make than coffee, will be appreciated, and if made with lemons (one lemon will do for about four people) it will be

cheaper and better than lemonade powder bought in tins.

It is useful to keep a tin of this in reserve for fear your home-made supply unexpectedly fails. A small number of girls—those particularly good at domestic science—should prepare the lemonade and sweets the day before the dance. A local confectioner will generally cut sandwiches for a penny each, and this will save a great deal of trouble for the organisers. A sandwich each is enough to allow if you provide a generous allowance of jelly, biscuits, cakes, &c., to follow.

Fruit salad is spilt rather easily. It is better to make a jelly and fruit dish. For eighty people you need about twelve jellies and six tins of fruit. Choose varied fruits, but remember that cherry stones are a nuisance, and that a tin of mixed fruit salad is more expensive than a tin of unmixed fruit. Cut up the fruit, especially the pineapple, into small pieces. Make the jellies in large mixing-bowls, each of which will hold three jellies. If you have eighty people, make four bowls of jelly, one red, one yellow, one green, and one purple. Then when your jelly has cooled slightly drop the fruit into the jelly and put aside to set. To save time, the separate portions of jelly may be prepared before supper-time; they look very pretty if a little of each of the four is mixed on each plate.

Allow about two cakes each, and also lay in a store of biscuits, slightly more than you expect to use. They can be sold to the organisers if they are not used.

The crockery can generally be hired from the school and washed up afterwards at a small charge. You will need two plates each, one spoon, possibly a fork, and one tumbler, and also a dozen or so large plates for cakes, a few knives and trays, and some large jugs for lemonade.

With regard to the programme, it is best to give one or two "spot dances" for which small prizes are awarded. An occasional "Paul Jones" or fancy dance will be very welcome.

If you wish to make a large profit, do not waste money on elaborate decorations. You can make a good effect with a few balloons, or with fresh flowers, if it is the season for them.

Every organising committee will naturally have different ideas as to detail, but a school dance run on these general lines is bound to give pleasure and be a source of profit.

NEWS OF THE MONTH.

The Secretary of the N.U.T.

On Saturday, March 21, Mr. Fred Mander, of Luton, was elected to succeed Mr. Frank Goldstone as Secretary of the National Union of Teachers. Mr. Mander is a science graduate of London University and a former President of the Union. He will take up his new duties after the summer vacation.

Retirement of the Head Master of Rugby.

The Head Master of Rugby, Mr. W. W. Vaughan, has announced that he intends to retire at the end of next term. He has been teaching for over forty years, and was Head Master at Giggleswick, and later of Wellington, before going to Rugby in succession to the present Bishop of Liverpool. Mr. Vaughan has taken an active part in the work of the Head Masters' Conference and of the Incorporated Association of Head Masters. He has been President of the Modern Language Association, and of the Science Masters' Association, and a member of several Government committees, including the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education.

Dr. R. P. Scott.

We regret to announce the death of Dr. R. P. Scott, formerly Head Master of Parmiter's School, London, and from 1903 to 1920 a member of the staff of the Board of Education. From 1903 to 1904 Dr. Scott was Chairman of the first Registration Council, and after his retirement from the Board he became a member of the Consultative Committee for four years. With the late Sir John McClure and Canon Swallow, he may be regarded as one of the founders of the Incorporated Association of Head Masters.

O.T.C. Grants.

In his speech on the Army Estimates on March 9, Mr. Shaw announced that fifteen years would henceforward be the minimum age for recognition of members of O.T.C.'s in schools and sixteen years the minimum age for grants.

On March 18 he explained that in future no boys under fifteen would be permitted to enrol in the Junior O.T.C., and that no money from Army funds would be spent on boys between fifteen and sixteen. They may attend camp, however, and have the usual equipment provided that the authorised camp establishment is not exceeded.

Burnham Scales.

It is announced that the Authorities' Panel of the Burnham Committees has agreed to give notice to terminate the Burnham Awards. Sixteen of the authorities did not favour this course.

Rome on Sex.

A decree on sex education has been issued by the Supreme Congregation of the Holy Office of the Roman Church. It describes as harmful all "eugenic theories tending to improve the human race," as, it states, such improvement is amply provided for by divine, ecclesiastical, and human laws regarding marriage and the rights of the individual.

Bromsgrove School.

The Governors of Bromsgrove School have elected Mr. D. J. Walters, M.C., M.A., to the head mastership, and he will enter on his duties in September.

Mr. Walters, who graduated from Brasenose College, Oxford, has been for the last twelve years a house master at Uppingham, and was formerly assistant master at Haileybury.

Lady Sadler.

We regret to learn of the death, which occurred at Oxford on Monday, March 16, of Lady Sadler, wife of Sir Michael Sadler (Master of University College, Oxford, and formerly Vice-Chancellor of Leeds University).

Mr. James Watson.

We regret to announce the death of Mr. James Watson, who was for several years the Educational Representative for the University of London Press. Mr. Watson was known to a large circle of teachers in the Midlands, West of England, and South Wales.

The Right Hon. H. B. Lees-Smith, M.P., President of the Board of Education, has appointed Mr. F. R. West, M.P., to be his Parliamentary Private Secretary. Mr. F. R. West, who is M.P. for North Kensington, was formerly History Master at the West Kensington Central School.

Field-Marshal Sir William Birdwood, formerly Commander-in-Chief in India, has been elected Master of Peterhouse, Cambridge, in succession to Lord Chalmers, who retires at the end of June.

Sir Alfred Ewing, who was responsible for intercepting German wireless messages during the war at the Admiralty, has been nominated as President of the British Association for 1932.

The King has approved the appointment of the Rev. Percy Dearmer, Lecturer in Art and Professor of Ecclesiastical Art at King's College, London, to a canonry of Westminster.

"One boy for three-quarters of a year at a public school costs as much as would keep a well-paid artisan and his wife and four children for a whole year long—rent, food, clothes, and all, 'and jolly glad to get it, sir!'"—Henry W. Nevinson.

LITERARY SECTION.

BOOKS AND THE MAN.

Mr. Tawney on Equality.*

Mr. Tawney's readers will not be counted in millions; but among them there will be many of those who "count," and whose comments, adverse or favourable, will carry weight. One distinguished reviewer has already committed himself to an impatient "pushing aside" commentary. But neither Mr. Tawney nor his subject can be so disposed of. It is a subject on which Matthew Arnold wrote half a century ago: "A system founded on inequality is against Nature, and, in the long run, breaks down." That "long run" does not now seem so inevitably long as it did when Arnold was writing in the midst of the "system" against which he raised his voice. It was a system, as Arnold saw it, as Dr. Tawney sees it, as several Continental observers have seen it, not exclusively English (that would be obviously absurd), but somewhat characteristically English. In our lighter reflections on the fringes of the subject we quote Gilbert's lines:—

"When everybody's somebody,
Then no one's anybody."

Witty, and sufficiently true. But we never seem to make the primary deduction, always this secondary one. For if everybody's somebody, it surely follows that everybody is somebody; whereas many of these bodies have been and are nobodies. The fact that England has a larger percentage of families wholly or mainly dependent on weekly wages than any other country in the world, may become a fact as significant, even dangerous, as now it is half known and apparently irrelevant. Dr. Tawney gives some striking figures.

The equality that Arnold, Mill, Jeremy Taylor—to cite three who are here quoted—"emphasise as desirable is not equality of capacity or attainment, but of circumstances and institutions and manner of life." It is the equality of the "one class" ship or train, applied throughout social living. It cannot co-exist fully with wide economic inequality, as the history of the United States (where man is born free by the Constitution) plainly shows.

Mr. Tawney finds little help from the Economic Determinists, who are so convinced of inevitable results that they spend their lives in making them a bit more inevitable, thus defying their own stated beliefs. It is solemnly funny, as was the father who said to his crying child on Bank Holiday: "I've brought y'out t'enjoy yerself, an' ye'll jolly well after."

The author of "Secondary Education For All," of course, applies his thesis to education. Among the

dead and dying dogmas of these times he mentions that "the doctrine that children so improvident as to choose parents in an inferior economic position are properly punished for their recklessness with an inferior education is, if still powerful in practice, no longer axiomatic." Of course, it never was; but vague implied assumptions have a wide range.

This quotation will give a glimpse of the author's manner. Here is one other sample: "The principal characteristic of the social mechanism is that it is not a machine." A "mechanism" which is not a machine.

Mr. Tawney may stir your complexes. He may furiously disturb you—but the fury will not be his. Be as annoyed as you will, if your complexes are made to such annoyances; but do not affect to brush Mr. Tawney or his theme aside. R. J.

REVIEWS.

Education.

THE EDUCATION OF THE WHOLE MAN: by L. P. Jacks. (6s. Univ. of London Press.)

This volume is "a sequel to the 'Inner Sentinel'": a criticism of our educational schemes (or customs) and an adumbration of a more excellent way. It begins by "discovering," in the older sense of the word, that all philosophies are based on a categorical imperative: Thou shalt live and have thy being thus, and not other.

We soon get to particulars. Vocational education is rightly divided into "a preparation for making money," to which the writer will give no countenance, and a higher kind, which is excellent and desirable. This is something beyond and additional to the "book-say and hear-say" of a book-dominated education. "In the broadest sense I would maintain that vocational training is the proper business of education." Truly; if we but rightly conceive of the child's whole life, projected into adulthood.

We may not so readily join in the author's approval—if but an imperfect approval—of the "tribe of savages who have their own methods of birth control, but take the most stringent precautions in disclosing them, whipping their youths and maidens till the blood flows before they are permitted to hear a word about the matter." In still plainer English, these precautions are—savage, like the tribe that uses them. A like semi-approval is given to a like custom of the Orphic Mysteries. Here, as in some other places, the book is provocative. "Short hours for the men," said a miner's wife to me once, "short hours for the men means long hours for the women. My husband and sons work six hours a day. I work eighteen, following the shifts." And from the context—taken with a

* "Equality": by R. H. Tawney. (7s. 6d. Allen and Unwin.)

shuddering prospect of the effects of a four-hour work-day—one gathers that long hours are to be preferred. But the matter is more complex than the treatment here suggests.

These, however, are not of the heart of the book, which is a plea for a broader view of education, and that always claims and should have a good hearing.

R. J.

THE SCHOOL IDEA, ANCIENT AND MODERN: An Essay on the place of schools in civilisation, and on their present characters and functions: by Valentine Davis. (6s. Allen and Unwin.)

Mr. Davis begins with an historical sketch of the school. This reaches from a slight reference to schooling in Ur of the Chaldees, 693 B.C. and earlier, to the national systems of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. This we could have wished to be fuller, but in the general plan of the book it is a preliminary and a background. For this purpose it is full enough. The chapters that follow deal with Schools To-day; Allies of the School; the School Idea and Modern Civilisation.

There is a curious apostrophe on an early page—"What a different atmosphere there would be in a modern general election if the electorate consisted of 'learned men' only!" But in fact we have such a state of affairs, on a small scale, in our university members. Anyone who has closely watched its working could tell Mr. Davis that the atmosphere indeed is a little different (not very different), but of such nature that its general adoption would produce results that are very far from those desired, even by the "learned men." Aristos shows a constant tendency to be pronounced Plutus.

There is a noteworthy Epilogue, which contains a Plan to Develop Peace, and this is worked out in seven sections:—I, Removal of Existing Injustices. II, A Pact of Peace. III, Work for the League of Nations. IV, Work for National Governments. V, Educating the Nations in World Knowledge (an international language, a revision of school history and geography books, world travel for teachers, press supervision). VI, International Competitions. VII, Personal: "Patriotism is not enough."

In this plan are elements that show a naive view of political and national psychology and practice; but it should not for that reason be ignored or slighted. Here, as often, Mr. Davis says what all sensible men often say and wish; and, happily, he is not so "sensible" as to be silent about it. R. J.

Geography.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC GEOGRAPHY: by L. Brettle, M.A. Oxon., B.Litt., F.R.G.S. (10s. 6d. net. Pitman.)

The scope of this volume is indicated by its title; but its many excellences are to be discovered only

by studying the contents. The fact is too often ignored by writers on economic geography that man is quite as important a factor to be considered as are the physical conditions under which he lives. Divorced from the human aspect economic geography loses half its value and interest and makes its appeal chiefly to traders and those whose interest in the world's products is mainly financial; and a warm welcome should be extended to this admirable volume in which Mr. Brettle has skilfully mingled both aspects of the subject, and in which he has found space for a considerable amount of interesting information not usually found in geographical text-books. Thus the student of ecological botany will find much to interest him; and the value of plant-breeding is strikingly brought home to the student of agriculture in its broad sense; while the student of languages will find a delightful illustration of the development of Chinese written characters from symbols representing the common things of the everyday life of the people. Indeed it would be difficult to imagine anything more calculated to give a living interest to lessons in geography than the various sections of this book; more especially those that deal with "the interrelation of relief, climate, vegetation, animal life (including man himself), in the major natural regions of the world, and the manner in which representative groups of men in these regions have made use of their local opportunities." Nor is it merely the nature of the information purveyed by the author that calls for commendation. It is impossible for the student making full use of this book to become or remain a mere memorizer of geographical facts; he cannot help but become a geographer—a vastly different being. And this because of the number and nature of the "questions, exercises, and topics for discussion" which follow each section; exercises which involve the intelligent study of the numerous excellent diagrams, maps, and pictorial illustrations, and a fair amount of research. Altogether it is safe to prophesy that any student or teacher making use of this volume will find it of quite exceptional interest and value.

F. H. S.

Civics.

THE PEOPLE'S GOVERNMENT: A Book of Civics: by K. Gibberd, M.A. Oxon. (2s. 6d. Dent.)

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(Continued on page 122.)

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R. J.

History.

A SHORT ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL HISTORY: THE DARK AND MIDDLE AGES: by L. G. Brandon, B.A. (2s. 6d. The Gregg Publishing Co.)

This is a most interesting book. It has plenty of detail, and mostly of the kind that attracts young readers. The writer has followed his own method, giving his picture of the past without very much regard for the traditional text-book style and substance. Children will find fascination in the list of relics that pilgrims set out to see: St. George's arm, a water-pot of Cana, powder that once was the flesh of St. Lawrence, a twelve-pound tooth of Goliath, Aaron's rod (there was another at Rochester, says the compiler), the bones of Adam and Eve, salt, *i.e.* Lot's wife.

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R. J.

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R. J.

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J. W. B. A.

(Continued on page 124.)

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THE EDUCATION OUTLOOK

MAY, 1931.

THE INDEPENDENT SCHOOL.

The Departmental Committee on Private Schools is hard at work on the question of discovering means by which independent enterprise in education can be brought under public supervision. The simple device of abolishing all such enterprise is wholly impracticable, although it continues to find advocates in some quarters. At least half a million children between the ages of compulsory schooling (five to fourteen plus) are outside the grant-aided schools. The mere cost of bringing them within the State system is prohibitive, but a more weighty objection is to be found in the danger of bringing all children into one fold. The ordinary British parent likes to have some voice in the upbringing of his offspring, but those whose circumstances compel them to make use of State schools are not greatly encouraged to interfere. The result is that many working-class parents become content to know little or nothing of the doings of their children at school. This is unfortunate and wrong in principle, for schooling should be an extension of parental effort and not a substitute for it.

The present difficulty concerning independent schools is not new. We have always had "private schools" which were very good, others which were mediocre, and some which were thoroughly bad. The problem is to discover means for improving the mediocre and extinguishing the bad without at the same time harassing the schools which are satisfactory. No solution of the problem is to be found in attempts to make all the independent schools conform to a type. A school system should be uniformly good, but not uniform in the characteristics of the different schools. This is now accepted as a principle in the schools which are grant-aided, and it is important to avoid rigid standards in dealing with independent schools.

The requirements should include due care for the physical well-being of pupils, a well ordered curriculum, drawn up with regard to the range of work attempted, and, finally, some assurance that the person in charge of the school has valid claims to be regarded as a teacher. The worst of the private schools are such as are opened and carried on in small houses by persons whose attainments are of the slightest and whose knowledge of educational method is even less. There are hundreds of such "schools," and their continued existence is a blot on our educational system. Clearly we need some device to ensure that parents shall no longer be

deluded by the misleading prospectus and that children shall no longer be damaged by incompetent persons claiming to be teachers.

We need a three-fold test. To begin with, the Local Education Authority in every area should have the duty of securing that all premises used as schools are fit for the purpose in respect of sanitation, warming, ventilation, and space. These should be considered in relation to the number and age of the pupils and the character of the school's aims. Further, the Local Education Authority should have information as to the number and qualifications of the staff. Schools which are found to be satisfactory should be listed as part of the educational provision *in* (not *of*) that area, thus providing for the listing of schools which receive boarders from outside the area.

The next test should take the form of visits of inspection by representatives of the Board of Education, who would be able to assess the general educational merits of the school and suggest improvements where required. This assessment by the Board would counter the risk of having widely different standards in different areas. For example, it would serve to encourage the Local Authority in a seaside resort to deal faithfully with inefficient schools even though they are conducted by big rate-payers. Where a school has been refused admission to the Local Education Authority's list the proprietor should have the right to appeal to the Board for a special inspection.

Finally, the qualifications of the proprietor and staff should come under review. After an appointed date no new school should be listed by a Local Authority unless the proprietor or principal is a Registered Teacher. Of itself this requirement will not guarantee success in the conduct of the school, but it will ensure a measure of professional fitness and responsibility. It will put a speedy end to the establishment of small "schools" in front parlours, such as are now often started by people who imagine that teaching is a ready means of obtaining money.

The scheme here outlined is one which will not harass the well-conducted private schools in any way. It will bring them into the field of national education without binding them in State fetters. They will gain by the removal of the inefficient schools which now compete with them for pupils, and will thus have more security than at present.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS.

FROM A CORRESPONDENT.

Progress of Registration.

The number of applications for admission to the official Register of Teachers and membership of the Society has now reached a total of 83,500. It is expected that this total will be greatly increased before the end of June, since a growing number of teachers are making use of the instalment scheme authorised by the Council. The special campaign which has been inaugurated by the National Union of Teachers is also likely to bring many recruits. In this connection it may be noted that the Conference of the Union at Yarmouth gave unanimous support to the Council's declaration that none save Registered Teachers should exercise professional supervision over the work of other teachers. The meaning of this declaration is clear. The time is coming when men and women who have been duly admitted as members of the teaching profession will no longer be content to work under the direction of those whose claims to professional standing have not been examined and approved by the representative Council established by Parliament for the purpose.

Teachers and Doctors.

The General Medical Council is sometimes mentioned as a kind of model for the Teachers Registration Council. There is some justification for this, but there are important differences between the two bodies. Although both were established by Parliament and charged with the duty of forming and keeping professional Registers, it must be remembered that the doctor deals directly with the patient whereas the teacher is usually employed and paid by an intermediary acting between himself and the pupil. More important, perhaps, is the fact that teachers fall into far more categories than doctors. The Medical Council is able to prescribe fairly uniform conditions of admission to the Medical Register, whereas the Teachers Council must allow for many varieties of teaching work, seeking only to ensure that in each branch the conditions are appropriate without being relatively easy. Thus a teacher of music may be Registered, and also a University Professor of Philosophy. The conditions cannot be the same for both, but they must be equally difficult. The Medical Council cannot admit an osteopath unless he has taken the ordinary medical course, but if the Medical Register were kept in the same manner as the Teachers Register there would be recognised standards for osteopaths and for other practitioners in specialised departments of healing.

Teachers as "Workers."

In a publication called *The Educational Worker* there recently appeared an article on the Royal Society of Teachers, in which the writer displays an almost comic disregard for facts and a determination to see things, not as they are, but as they might appear to a resident in Bedlam. He declares that the use of the letters M.R.S.T. "may appeal to the snobbish instincts of a certain class of teachers and increase the tendency of differentiation between educational and other workers." He says that doctors, lawyers, and dentists are not paid by the State, and that teachers to a very large extent are. Hence he concludes that a self-governing profession for teachers is a "will-o'-the-wisp." But he does not remind us that bricklayers, plasterers, and plumbers—to mention only a few "workers"—have even more self-government than doctors or lawyers. He declares that "the vast mass of the population have got teachers because they fought for them." He would know better if he had read the descriptions of work in the London Board Schools in the early seventies, when working-class parents often fought the teachers instead of fighting for them. Our simple-minded critic sees in the R.S.T. nothing but another manifestation of the evils of the "capitalist State." Probably he sees such manifestations everywhere, and he urges us to remember that "teachers are workers, whose interests are opposed to those of the ruling class." Apparently he finds no comfort in having a Prime Minister who was once a teacher.

Profession or Trades Union.

When the contributor to *The Educational Worker* has recovered from his present fever he may be able to consider the difference between a profession and the trades union which he seems to favour. Briefly the difference is that in a profession there is some standard of admission. This is not imposed to rule out those who are poor in pocket, although it may have that effect so long as we have a meagre supply of scholarships and other aids for poverty-stricken ability. The "working-class" boy or girl may need help, but this is not to be given by abolishing standards of admission to the profession, but by enabling them to reach the standards. The great defect of the trades union has been the refusal to recognise that where rights are claimed duties must be fulfilled. Higher wages and shorter hours are demanded, but the unions rarely take any steps to ensure that proper service will be given in return. In a profession there is some attempt to ensure that those admitted are properly qualified, and that their subsequent conduct is seemly.

THE MONTH'S CAUSERIE.

BY THE DOMINIE.

Supply of Teachers.

The optimism of Sir Charles Trevelyan concerning his proposals for raising the school age led him to issue permits to the training colleges, allowing them to increase the number of students admitted. That was two years ago, and the first batch of these additional recruits will be leaving college in July. Sir Charles has resigned, and his Bill is in cold storage, but these young men and women cannot fairly be left stranded. Their number is about 1,000, and they can be absorbed readily enough if the Local Authorities will take the Board's hint and appoint them. Meanwhile the Board is trying to bring back the intake of students to the former figures by asking the colleges to accept withdrawals from applicants without replacing them. Apparently there is some fear lest we should have too many qualified teachers in our schools. At present we have in our elementary schools nearly 32,000 uncertificated teachers and nearly 8,000 supplementary teachers. There is, of course, a considerable annual wastage in both categories, due to deaths and retirements. It would be a wise measure to enact that this wastage must be met by the appointment of qualified teachers. In this way we should inflict no hardship.

The National Union of Teachers.

The annual Conference of the N.U.T. was noteworthy for an excellent address by the new President, Mr. Angus Roberts, who gave good reasons for raising the school age and showed that he is a statesman and not a trade union "boss." Although the size of the meetings precludes real discussion, the debates were interesting. I was glad to see that the Conference rejected a proposal to issue a warning against recruiting for the teaching service. So long as we have some 40,000 semi-qualified or unqualified persons at work in our elementary schools, and over 5,000 non-graduate teachers in our secondary schools, besides 7,000 graduates who have had no professional training, we ought not to discourage any recruit who is willing to go through a course of preparation for teaching work. There was a brief discussion on the question of religious instruction, from which it is clear that the N.U.T. has no common policy. Sooner or later I expect the Union to recognise the fact that, although religion is a part of education, it is not of necessity a part of State schooling. For over a century the question of religious instruction has impeded the progress of State schools, and it will continue to do so until we agree to leave that part of education to the churches and cease to expect our teachers to be theologians.

Salaries.

There seems to be a general expectation that teachers will be required to suffer a further reduction in salaries. It will be remembered that the original Burnham scales have already been cut down on two occasions. After these subtractions the remainder is a rate of payment which cannot be described as excessive, considering the demands now made upon teachers. We shall be told, of course, that teaching is an easy job, that the hours are short and the holidays long. Those who say these things should remember that during the working day a teacher is compelled to expend an amount of physical and nervous energy far beyond that required of any office worker. It is no easy task to give four or five lessons a day and to see that they are attended to by a group of pupils. The number of teachers who suffer from the strain is considerable. Apart from the nature of the work there is the plain fact that unless we offer reasonable salaries we shall not obtain recruits in numbers sufficient for our needs. By far the most important item in our educational budget is that of salaries, and I hope that, whatever adjustments and revisions may be adopted, there will be no general attempt to reduce the rates of payment.

Teachers and the Dominions.

I see that the Transvaal Provincial Executive have decided to accept a resolution declaring that no teacher shall be eligible for appointment in the Transvaal Government schools who has not resided in the Union for at least three years. Apparently this action is intended to shut out British teachers, some of whom have secured posts in the Rand and in Pretoria during recent years. This policy is to be deplored, since it destroys one of the best means of welding the Commonwealth into a real unity. The number of emigrant teachers will never be unduly great, but their work will be of immense service in promoting good understanding between the mother country and the dominions overseas. We hear much of projects for securing economic unity, but it is even more important to foster cultural harmony. It would be a wise step to encourage a wider interchange of teachers by bringing about a proper correlation of salaries and pensions. This should be so devised as to ensure that a teacher might move freely from one part of the Commonwealth to another without suffering financially. The Transvaal policy is lamentably parochial, affording a curious commentary on the speeches of some of our apostles of imperialism. Our "overseas cousins" may be a little more than kin, but some of them would seem to be less than kind.

Matriculation or Skill.

In a recent address to the Conference on "New Ideals in Education," Dr. L. P. Jacks urged that skill rather than knowledge should be the ultimate aim of our schools and universities. He said that the efforts of our secondary schools are directed to satisfying the tests known as matriculation, or some equivalent. As the primary school leads to the secondary school the matriculation ideal governs both. He pointed out that only a small proportion of the pupils in our schools do in fact qualify for matriculation, and suggested that the great majority go to swell the multitude known to medical examiners as C3. This last is perhaps an extreme statement, but Dr. Jacks is right in urging that we should not seek knowledge to the exclusion of skill. We must train the whole man. Sanderson of Oundle used to say that nine out of ten people think with their hands. This means that practical work should form an important part of a child's training and that we should add to book learning some kind of manual proficiency. Even book learning should not stop at verbal instruction. It should be fortified by some attempt to apply what has been learned. By such means alone can knowledge become a permanent source of interest, and a foundation for self-education. Too many of our people are devoid of the ability to entertain themselves.

Geographical Language.

I am glad to see that Sir Halford Mackinder has been uttering a warning about the use of technical terms in geography. He said that some students of the subject attempted to obtain a terminological hierarchy for regions and districts of certain sizes. This he held to be impossible, because there was nothing like sufficient uniformity between areas to make the attempt successful, and there was also a constant change in economic and social and political values in any given area. He thought that in most cases the resort to technical terms was due to laziness. Such terms were of use to experts in conveying ideas which they wished to put to one another. But they were not literature, and where they were used they should be short and clear. Teachers of geography would find that one of the best exercises they could give to pupils was to express in plain English what they could read from a map.

I welcome these remarks because I have often found the modern geography expert a terrifying person, equipped with a fearsome vocabulary and unable to convey to children any sense of enjoyment in the study of the new science which he professes. The old geography was mainly topography, and often it was very dry, but it could be made interesting and even exciting when properly taught. The new geography is sometimes a mere vocabulary.

A Business Man's View.

We sometimes find a captain of industry talking arrant nonsense about education and demanding that boys shall begin to fit themselves for particular callings as soon as possible. I welcome the views of Sir Hugo Hirst, head of the General Electric Company, who told a representative of the *Evening Standard* that it is a mistake to begin educating a boy too early for a particular calling. There should be no specialisation before seventeen at the earliest. An all-round education will prove to be an invaluable equipment for whatever special work he chooses to go in for. Moreover, said Sir Hugo, the world goes forward, and we cannot tell what direction progress is going to take. A boy may receive a specialised training for a particular industry and then find, when he is ready to start, that it has vanished. Ten years ago a boy might have been encouraged to prepare himself for work as an electrical engineer in charge of a local generating station. But where there used to be 600 local stations there are now only about fifty. The national electrification scheme has brought about the change. Again, thousands of people are to-day engaged in the manufacture of wireless equipment, but not one of them was trained for it as a career.

Changes at the Board.

I welcome the appointment of Mr. E. H. Pelham as Permanent Secretary, and of Mr. Maurice G. Holmes as Deputy Secretary of the Board of Education. Both have won the respect of teachers and of Local Authority representatives who have had dealings with them at Whitehall, for they are essentially fair-minded and willing to consider the non-official side of a question. This temper of mind is likely to be of great service in the coming years when educational development will probably proceed by administrative rather than legislative methods. Mr. Pelham is the son of a former President of Trinity College, Oxford, and Mr. Holmes is the son of Mr. E. G. A. Holmes, a former Chief Inspector of Schools and to-day a vigorous champion of freedom in education.

Miss Margaret McMillan.

I regret to record the death of Miss Margaret McMillan, the pioneer of the nursery school movement, whose early efforts met with official discouragement from the L.C.C. Later she received high honours, and her school at Deptford became an example to be followed elsewhere. She will be remembered as one of the great educators of our time, for she was the first to recognise the truth that the pre-school years are vitally important, and may be fatally so in the poorer districts of our large towns. She has saved hundreds of children from disablement and misery.

COMMERCIAL TRAINING IN GIRLS' SCHOOLS.

BY KATHARINE JENKINSON, B.COM.

The view still persists that commercial education has no part in the curriculum of the high school girl, that she must continue with purely academic subjects until the age of seventeen or eighteen when she will leave school to seek other fields of learning. This is quite reasonable for the girl who will eventually proceed to a university or training college, but what of the others? About 50 per cent. of pupils go on to college, and that is a generous estimate in many cases. Of the other 50 per cent., whose scholastic attainments or financial situations do not warrant their spending another three years in training, a large proportion attend the numerous business colleges which have sprung up all over the country.

There never was a time when the business world needed a higher standard of attainment in those conducting its affairs. Employers complain of juniors who know nothing of business when they enter a firm—they have to learn by experience, and while experience is undoubtedly a good school, yet business cannot afford to pay for youthful mistakes.

The Education Authorities under the Board of Education have realised this, and they have introduced a commercial bias into the curricula of their central schools, which are schools supplying free education to the pupils of the ordinary schools who have the ability to take advantage of secondary education. Even in these schools the ideal has not been reached in many cases, as it is essential to give instruction not only in shorthand, typewriting, and book-keeping, but to give the scholars opportunity for studying the various documents and principles of commerce generally.

The ideal for secondary and high schools would be to allow those who are not proceeding to a university to take a specialised course in conjunction with academic subjects, for the cultural side of education should not be neglected for the utilitarian. The study of English, history, mathematics (omitting advanced work except in special circumstances), and geography should be continued. Insufficient attention is paid to this last subject in the majority of schools, and it is above all important for those entering business. Languages should be continued, too, and the claims of Spanish and German should be as strong as those of French for inclusion in the school curriculum. The days when it was considered good form to speak French must give way to a new era when the utility of a language has to be considered as well as its cultural value. French at one time was an almost universal language, but trade has brought us into close touch with German and Spanish-speaking countries.

Latin has undoubted value as a foundation for

other languages, including English, but beyond a certain point modern languages should take first place with those not preparing for a scholastic career. German and Spanish have a culture of their own, and though Spanish has a more limited supply of literature, it nevertheless offers a good field of study.

Shorthand is despised by many as a purely utilitarian subject, but this is far from being the case. It has a very strong claim as an educational subject. It teaches the student the use of words, and with intelligent use of the dictionary the vocabulary is developed to a very great extent, and also correct pronunciation, as it is entirely phonetic.

Even typewriting is not the purely mechanical affair it is thought to be. One has only to compare the work of several different operators and the amount of individuality displayed by the several typists is enormous.

Again, no matter what sphere of life a girl may occupy, a knowledge of book-keeping is an undoubted asset. Everyone should understand the keeping of records, the uses and advantages of a banking account, and the hundred and one other details of business life that occur in everyday life.

Such a course should aim at developing the reasoning power of the students to make them rely on their own opinions, not merely to learn off by heart the routine of an office; to learn principles and how to apply them; in short to enable them to enter an office and do the work given them without fuss and undue questioning.

The Matriculation Board of the Northern Universities offer shorthand and book-keeping as alternative subjects for School Certificate and Matriculation, so that a student wanting to matriculate need not be debarred by taking commercial subjects.

London University offer a special School Leaving Commercial Certificate whereby three academic subjects and three special ones are taken.

As an example of the value of such instruction a certain Midland town (which is noted for its progressive policy and outlook) has instituted such a course in one of its higher grade schools, and the result is that the scholars are entering business with a very good start. Employers in the district are now recognising the value of this instruction, and are asking for the pupils of this school for the junior positions in their offices.

Only by bringing up those members of the younger generation who are to enter the business world to appreciate the acquisition of definite knowledge and principles of commerce and industry shall we hold our own in the future with other nations.

THE "DANGER OF LEARNING."

By J. REEVES.

It has probably occurred to many students of education that their subject shares with politics and religion the great merit of simplicity, inasmuch as conclusions on points of educational theory and practice may be reached and confidently enunciated by persons who evidently have not made themselves acquainted with either of these departments of lore. Hence the pronouncements we so frequently meet with in newspapers, novels, and elsewhere. A few recently encountered include statements that some of the subjects taught, or some parts of their contents, are unsuitable; that right subjects, or parts of them, are wrongly taught; and that, though "£70,000,000 of public money is wasted on education," and "the teachers have a good time," "the children remain ignorant."

In a recently published book of popular fiction there is an account of a meeting of a gang of crooks. Three of the less distinguished members, it is stated, possessed, in addition to other undesirable attributes, "that smattering of education which is the truly dangerous thing." The leaders of the gang, however, were obviously persons of superior education (as well as ability), and were obviously much more dangerous men than their subordinates. But apparently it did not occur to the writer that the higher degree of education must therefore be more dangerous than a smattering.

The words quoted from the novel are, of course, a variant of the famous dictum of Pope, which for two centuries or so has probably done more than a little to damp the enthusiasm of some of our rulers and many others for the general (and, of course, elementary) education of the people—"A little knowledge is a dangerous thing."

Pope's view was a distinct advance on another that was long in vogue, viz., that all learning was dangerous in one way or another. Common points of connection were those of knowledge or wisdom with sorrow and madness. Prior wrote:—

"From ignorance our comfort flows:
The only wretched are the wise."

This was repeated by many writers, sometimes with curious modification, as in Byron's couplet:—

"Grief should be the instruction of the wise:
Sorrow is knowledge."

In the book of "Ecclesiastes" (dated 250-200 B.C.), the reputed work of an intense thinker whose great aim was "to seek and search out by wisdom concerning all things that are done under Heaven," we note the following: "And I gave my heart to know madness and folly. I perceived that this also is vexation of spirit. For much wisdom is much grief; and he that increaseth knowledge increaseth

sorrow." And in course of the arraignment of Paul, Festus, the Roman Governor of Judea, said: "Paul, thou art beside thyself; much learning doth make thee mad."

These suppositions in question, then, are a legacy from ancient times, and it is not unlikely that they bore some relation to still older notions. There was the fear of the written word which has been shown by illiterate peoples. An early Greek song or poem refers to writing—seen first, no doubt, by the Greeks on the bills or other documents of visiting Phœnician merchants—as "baleful signs." And though there does not seem to be any direct record of such fear on the part of the Hebrews, who advanced to civilisation, including writing, at about the same time as the Greeks (900-800 B.C.), there may be some connection of the notion of the mystery, or magic, and peril of writing and the action of David, who, when in great fear of Achish, King of Gath, feigned madness, and among other things "scrabbled" (made marks) "on the doors of the gate." (We may take for granted that David, who lived from about 1000 to 960 B.C., could not read or write, though he would probably see the writing of Philistine and Aramean merchants, and possibly of the Canaanites or other neighbouring peoples.)

There was also the notion of the degeneration or fall of mankind from some superior pristine condition, which arose in Egypt soon after what may fairly be called civilisation began (3000-2500 B.C.), and is contained in the Prisse Papyri. The spread of this doctrine, which appears full-blown in Greek poetry (Hesiod's) about 750 B.C., would doubtless promote the tendency towards the conclusion of Ecclesiastes that "All" (including study, knowledge, wisdom) "is vanity."

Returning to the idea of Pope and others that a little learning or education is a dangerous possession, we may now reasonably hold that it is erroneous. The only sense in which even fragmentary knowledge is dangerous seems to be this—that a child, or an adult of low mental development, having become acquainted through observation with, say, fire and with knives, may injure himself or the home. This, however, may be fairly considered to be due to lack of knowledge and ideas as to the destructive effects of the things mentioned, and is comparable to the ignorance of the man who (in the story) burnt down his house in order to get roast pig. We may now confidently conclude that all "learning," in the scholastic sense, whatever its extent or degree, is beneficial, and constitutes the remedy for any danger that may lie in use of isolated, unassimilated bits of knowledge.

EDUCATION ON THE GOLD COAST.

A Native Attitude.

BY WILLIAM PALMER.

When Lady Clifford, C.B.E., wife of the then Governor and Commander-in-Chief, invited letters from boys and girls all over the colony and its dependencies in competition for prizes offered, she did, perhaps unconsciously, a great service towards the solving of the always difficult problem of the attitude of a native, if not savage mind, towards a more civilised system of education.

The schools circularised included the Government and principal mission schools on the Gold Coast, in Ashanti, in the Northern Territories, and in the British sphere of occupation in Togoland, and represented an attendance average of nearly 20,000 children.

All types of native children competed, children of pure African descent but one generation from a totally illiterate and almost savage environment of "the bush," children whose forebears by reason of living on the coast had come much in contact with the Europeans, and children in whose veins flowed native blood tempered with that of the English, Dutch, and Portuguese, whose names they frequently bear. Many of them thin-lipped and pale of complexion, with delicate features and eighteenth-century European names. Living records of the age when European traders and adventurers fought with one another for the metal their fathers brought down to the sea; evidence that the early pioneers had seen fit to tarry awhile on the palm-fringed surf-beaten shores; and with minds smoothed and rounded, and made more receptive of European ideas and methods by generations of residence in the coast towns where they have come under the influence of the great educational mission settlements. And others with the facial characteristics of race strongly, almost violently apparent. Scarred with their tribal marks, uncomfortable in shoes, and although theoretically worshipping what they have been taught and what at heart they know to be a better and a kinder God, still conscious of the existence and influence of other gods to whom a "goat without horns"—a human being—is still an acceptable sacrifice.

Such is the mixed and supremely interesting material which falls into the educationist's hands, and to about twenty thousand of such boys and girls were addressed one of these two questions:—

(1) Why educated girls ought to be able to keep house, clean and cook, better than uneducated girls?

(2) What work do I wish to do in the world when I am a man, and why?

And from the remotest corners of that vast tract of that terribly vaster continent came pathetically eager and sincere letters in reply. The replies from the boys are really more interesting than those from the girls, and are very definite in their ambitions, and much given to philosophical justification and explanation of their choice. "Please I love to be a teacher," writes a little Benjamin from the country market centre of N'Swam, "for I have known the goodness of education." In olden days, this youthful philosopher insistently points out, his ancestors used to kill persons. Why? "Because in those days there was no educated man in our land, and so cruelty ruled. Would the teachers come? Nay, he dread at going away from the coast for fear of being killed." The "educated man" has now come to the land, and goes far away from the coast without fear of being killed, and he has been a greater deterrent to cruelty than the missionary proper, who either had no teaching programme, or sometimes was unfortunately not in possession of the elementary machinery of teaching—greater, indeed, than the policeman and native customary law, greater even than the doctor. And the youthful native population had been quick to realise this, and quick to see not only the practical beneficial results of education, but also its spiritual influence. "It is the noblest profession . . . the work is one that needs patience, good manners, and love." And what more could anything teach? What higher standard of conduct could any race, black or white, savage or Christian, set for itself? Patience, good manners, and love.

Two facts then emerge from a careful consideration of the answers to this questionnaire. The native is fully able to appreciate the value, and earnestly welcomes the further progress of education, and supports his belief in the most sincere fashion of all by wishing, above all things, that he might take part in it. "I want to teach schoolboys as has been done to me." He also, to a marked degree, shows himself conscious that the possession of "book-learning" will not necessarily hinder his pursuit of farming, trades, or handicrafts, and many who either through shrewd appreciation, which their letters indicate, of economic conditions, or through some hereditary love or existing favourable opportunities, wish to become farmers, fishermen, or mechanics, are able to prove in a most surprisingly convincing fashion the superiority of the educated workman over his illiterate brothers. But as the progressive education of all native races is still largely of the nature of an experiment, the results are frequently far from satisfactory. Only too

familiar in tropical countries is the town "high-lifer" with his European clothes, his affectation of European bad manners, his rudeness, vulgarity, and viciousness, and his inevitable arrogant defence: "I am an educated man." For he is not yet able to realise that the heritage the white man has carved out for himself through generations of agony and toil cannot immediately be enjoyed by him. He cannot at this stage compete with the white man, but must be content to go patiently through the pains and labours which go to the forming of any race, black or white, and it is only through education that he will come to see that such a premature assumption of what he considers European habits and customs makes only for a rudeness and vulgarity of mind and behaviour.

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Miss Margaret McMillan, writing on “What the Nursery School really is,” gives a clear and vivid word-picture of the commencement of the day’s work for young student helpers.

“The nursery school day begins not at nine, but at eight o’clock in the morning, and the first hour in the day is the busiest of all, as indeed it ought to be. Picture one of our three hundred mothers turning in at our gate on a winter’s morning, with a toddler in her arms, and a three- or four-year-old at her side—pinched, cold, perhaps even sleepy. Here is welcome: kind hands are stretched out to receive them here. Young girls of eighteen to twenty-five race down the covered ways eager to welcome their babies. Grey is the sky, but the camp is bright with blue and pink overalls and young rosy faces. The little ones go to their own shelters, their own indoor bathroom, where is an abundance of hot water. They are quickly overhauled, washed, dressed warmly, but with few garments, and made entirely comfortable, as every child should be, and is, in any good private nursery. At nine, all sit down to breakfast, and at nine-thirty no one cares a rap either for Jack Frost or his brother Snow. The toddler’s camp rings with laughter and the tripping of little feet. On the tables and along the walls are coloured discs, coloured balls, insets, colour scales, bright letters to be fitted, pictures, and picture-books. Outside there are sliding boards, steps, and rib stalls. The two-year-old works hard. He has so much to learn; it is hard to stop him. At twelve there is a two-course dinner, with two-year-old monitors serving, and at twelve-thirty the three hundred little ones are fast asleep.”

Miss Margaret McMillan, who has just died at the age of seventy, was remarkably pleased in seeing the fruition of all her labours. She and her sister Rachel first started the London School Clinic at the elementary schools at Bow and Deptford in 1910, and by the year 1921 it was found necessary to extend the premises in order to accommodate three hundred little ones. The school is now the largest nursery school in England. It is run on open-air lines, and is taking the lead in the systems adopted by the majority of pioneer nursery schools. Rachel McMillan died in 1916, but for the last fifteen years Margaret has carried on her great work with unflagging will and energy. The Rachel McMillan Training College for Students at Deptford was opened last year by the Queen, and Lady Astor gave £20,000 towards its equipment. It is now filled with students. Many of these are taking the three years’ course of study; some are working to be certificated teachers, others are taking the College diploma and Higher Froebel examinations; whilst many are working for the College diploma alone. Margaret McMillan, practical and far-seeing mystic and visionary as she was, has died in the firm belief that both students and schools will increase and multiply and carry on the work, until the whole of our national system of education will feel the influence.

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schools recognised by the education authorities, and a few supported by voluntary contributions. From these facts it will be seen that the demand for young trained teachers will increasingly exceed the supply. In addition, private nursery schools for paying pupils are being established in residential districts. Well-to-do parents look with longing eyes upon the highly skilled and competent teaching provision which is being made for the education and training of the little children of the slums, and have remarked that the babies of the gutter are in possession of greater advantages than the "poor little rich child." Amongst all classes the demand for the new type of infant school is increasing. Eventually we can foresee that all children under seven years, rich and poor, wherever possible, will be brought up on nursery school lines, under the care of teachers who have made a thorough study of the physical and mental development of childhood, and who possess motherly instincts and happy, vigorous personalities.

In the nursery school, although no formal instruction is given, all the activities carried on are educational. Play occupations, toys, stories, ear, speech, eye, and sense-training, all take an important part. They are happy schools, where nobody is forcing young children to conform to standards suitable only for older girls and boys; and the young nursery school teacher is a happy girl, guiding the child into the development of the sense of wonder, the desire to do small tasks by himself, amidst ideal conditions for creative work. She knows that little children are by nature active, and that only so can they be healthy and strong, both morally and physically.

In the nursery schools, environment, the freedom of open-air life, the cultivation of little gardens, the care of birds, animals, goldfish, and living things take the place of desks and primers. All the fascinations of nature study, the growth of leaves and flowers, bulbs, worms, snails, grass, and daisies form lessons for the babies.

The staffing of a nursery school (of thirty or forty pupils) varies considerably, but usually the staff consists of a superintendent, a teacher, a nurse, and several young student probationers.

It is necessary for the superintendent to possess a high standard of capacity and a wide experience of child life and psychology; also the gift of "motherliness," and ability to direct both the physical and mental training of young children. Under her wise direction, the teacher and students learn by service and experience.

Many girls appear to be under the impression that a nursery school teacher takes an inferior position in the educational world. As a matter of fact, however, she ranks as high as the most fully-

qualified teachers of older children. For her, not only is culture necessary, but a wide training in the processes of nurture. She is selected with scrupulous care, for her work lies with the most critical years of childhood, and her previous education and length of cultural training, as well as her natural characteristics, are all taken into account. The work needed is of the highest standard, for it is no light matter to be responsible for the health, training, and development of very young children.

The young students work under trained teachers, and are trained in a new way. Miss McMillan said that the student of to-day desires often to find life's real meaning and mission. In the student of yesterday this soaring desire was quenched in the rising. It is not quenched now, and in the nursery school a young student finds real work, with a deep human interest which will sweep any girl into higher reaches than the mere desire for success can win. She does the work of a nurse for three hours daily in her first terms, just as a doctor works. What she learns in the bathroom and nursery gives life and meaning to all her study in psychology, and lends her mind a grasp and vision of reality that the student of yesterday could not reach.

The Board of Education now pays the same grant for students taking their student course for the first year in a nursery training centre as it pays to the older colleges. They are allowed to take their second year at any of the training colleges. Many students do not wish to be teachers, but to gain experience in work amongst the children—as nurses, doctors, public health officers, infant welfare workers, superintendents of clinics, day nurseries, or maternity welfare centres. These students need not proceed to training colleges, but can stay on as helpers at the nursery school.

The chief training colleges are: The George Dent School, Darlington; The Goldsmiths' College Demonstration Nursery School, New Cross, S.E.; The Gipsy Hill Training College, West Norwood; The Rachel McMillan School, Deptford.

Candidates who wish to enter one of these colleges may not be less than eighteen years of age, and must have passed one of the qualifying examinations specified by the Board of Education. Musical qualifications are specially valuable.

University graduates are admitted as one-year students to train for nursery and infant work. The two-year course of study includes education, nature study, and hygiene, in theory and practice. This includes visits to children's homes, public health institutions, hospitals, clinics, and first aid, the study of general literature and professional literature, speech training, music and eurhythmics, art, needlework, and cookery.

The third-year course is chiefly for super-intendents, and includes special study of backward, defective, or supernormal children; social problems, supervision of young teachers, mothercraft and domestic science, and practice in public speaking. Also advanced psychology of health and childhood, and practical experience in hospitals and welfare centres. Visits to nursery schools and all kinds of social and educational institutions are arranged for all students, and opportunities given for meeting health visitors, doctors, &c., with a view to the better understanding of social problems.

Fees.—A recognised student admitted to a college as resident in accordance with the Board of Education Regulations for the Training of Teachers for Elementary Schools, and eligible for grant, pays fees amounting to about £54 per annum. A recognised day student is charged about £12 per annum, an allowance being made for maintenance of approximately £5 per term. Private resident and day students are charged about £114 and £40 per annum respectively. On successfully completing the two-year course, and passing the final examination, students receive the Teacher's Certificate, University of London, recognised by the Board of Education.

The Associated Board, R.A.M. and R.C.M.

The following candidates gained the Gold and Silver Medals offered by the Board for the highest and second highest Honours Marks, respectively, in the Final, Advanced, and Intermediate Grades of the Local Centre Examinations in March-April last.

Final Grade Gold Medal: Francis E. Holmes, Sheffield Centre (Pianoforte); Final Grade Silver Medal: Ursula Davy, London Centre (Pianoforte); Advanced Grade Gold Medal: Dora H. Livesey, Liverpool Centre (Pianoforte); Advanced Grade Silver Medal: Harold J. Reuben, Cardiff Centre (Pianoforte); and Peggy I. Atkinson, Worthing Centre (Pianoforte). (These two candidates gained an equal number of marks.) Intermediate Grade Gold Medal: Reeby M. E. Yarnold, Nottingham Centre (Pianoforte); Intermediate Grade Silver Medal: Francesca T. Rossetto, Hastings Centre (Violin).

An Educational Tour.

The Educational Travel Association is arranging an attractive programme of a tour to Norway. The party will leave Newcastle on August 8 and will visit the fiords, the sub-arctic tableland at Finse, and fertile valleys round Oslo. Visits will be paid to the Viking ships, National Open-air Museum, the collection of Eskimo exhibits made by Amundsen.

Further particulars may be obtained by sending a 2d. stamp to the Hon. Sec., E.T.A., "Noddfa," Wistaston, Crewe, who will send illustrated booklets descriptive of the areas to be visited.

SECONDARY EDUCATION DRAWBACKS.

BY DOUGLAS BROWN.

While agreeing that secondary school education provides a boy with better opportunities than elementary education, yet it is my opinion that secondary school education, at the present time, is far from being perfect. This conclusion has been reached after a systematic study, over some time, of the progress of boys after they have left school.

In several cases boys from elementary schools have done far better in after life than their better equipped (from an educational point of view) brothers. This I consider, however, is a proof, not that secondary education is a waste of time, but that in many cases it is not being used as it should be.

In many secondary schools there may be found boys of eighteen or nineteen years of age who have not the slightest idea as to their future careers. Now that is where secondary schools fail.

Teachers should endeavour to ascertain what profession a pupil wishes to enter, and should advise him accordingly. For instance, a boy who intends to go in for commerce is wasting his time if he is taking a classical school course. He would be better employed if he were receiving instruction at a school which specialises in commercial education. But many a boy leaving a secondary school without any particular idea as to what he wants to be obtains a situation that is altogether unsuitable. Many of the boys whom I have observed—and boys who were looked upon as clever pupils, too—have left secondary schools and obtained positions which, while probably offering good wages to begin with, have no prospects for the future.

A well varied but none too illustrious list of occupations that boys who have left a certain secondary school within the last year have entered includes a milkman, barber, butcher boy, assistant chef, grocer, errand boy, collector for laundry, and linoleum layer. While this list, of which the above-mentioned comprise only a few, does not prove that secondary school education is futile, it certainly proves that somewhere there is a very weak spot in our educational methods.

The Late Margaret McMillan.

Sir,—I have been entrusted with the task of writing a record of the life and work of the late Margaret McMillan. It will assist materially if any of your readers will send to me any important letters, papers, or pamphlets they may possess.

Personal memories would be most helpful. All documents will be returned in due course.—Yours faithfully,

ALBERT MANSBRIDGE.

38 High Oaks Road,
Welwyn Garden City, Herts.

SCHOOL IN THE SEVENTIES.

By F. M. P.

I believe I ought to have said "the Sixties," for our little market-town was in education, as in most other things, quite ten years behind the times.

My fourth birthday had just passed and I was to go to school—school, mind, not kindergarten, which for Bottleston was still far in the future.

Miss Parsons, a dear old white-haired lady with tiny red veins all over her cheeks, welcomed me most charmingly, and took me through into the back room which was separated from the front room by folding doors, though I never saw them closed. I was introduced to Miss Nelly as "Little Miss Martyn," and "Miss Martyn" I remained until I moved on to another school four years later!

I have no recollection of Miss Nelly's class after the first day when I wept tears of bitter indignation at having to read "The cat sat on the mat. Did Hal pat the cat?" and so on—I who had revelled in *The Three Bears*, *Red Riding Hood*, and other sagas of childhood as long as I could remember.

I think I must have been moved up at once into one of Miss Parsons' classes, though even here my recollections are vague, except for a certain needle-work class in which Miss Parsons read aloud a thrilling story of Russian travellers pursued in their sleigh by a pack of wolves.

At eight years old came a change. I was sent to Branston House, *the* school of the neighbourhood, for of course county secondary schools had not been invented, and even high schools were few and far between.

My entrance was rather disconcerting. "Your name, dear?" "Miss Martyn!" A giggle from the class. A stern look from Miss Ellison. "Yes, of course, I remember—Marion Martyn." "Yes, please," and "Miss Martyn" was left behind till school days were over.

The third class, which was Miss Ellison's, sat on cane-bottomed stools round a long table at one end of the room, the second class had a room to itself, and the first class had a table like ours at the other end of our room, but they had chairs to sit upon, because of their "long backs" I learnt afterwards.

They were immense, those Class I people!

Hair done up in impressive buns or coronets of plaits, and nearly all their dresses had trains! When I got up into Class I, alas! trains had gone out. Needless to say, there was no hockey or net-ball or cycling in those days, though croquet, with a cage and bell in the middle, was indulged in sedately by the boarders in the summer evenings.

This was the order of a morning:—In all classes from nine to ten every day, Scripture. We read a chapter round twice, the first time undiluted, the second time with explanations and questions. From ten to eleven, "lessons" which had been prepared the night before, about five of them—text, *i.e.* a verse or two of the Bible, always, then perhaps a chapter of history, some grammar, tables, spelling; or another day, text, geography, dates, general knowledge, mythology. From eleven to twelve "classes," history, arithmetic, or literature, and perhaps a dictation or reading lesson.

French came every afternoon and was followed by another "class." In these classes we never saw a teacher—"governess," I should say—divorced from her book; she *read* to us what Hume, or Morley, or Sinclair had to say on the subject, and we listened if it was interesting enough.

In my later days Latin was introduced, as an extra of course, taught by the Rector of a neighbouring parish, who, lounging in an easy chair in the dining-room and chaperoned by one of the principals, doled out very meagre doses of grammar and Virgil to his small and select band of pupils.

About the same time an enthusiastic but helpless little governess undertook to teach us "awlgebra," and a blackboard, the first anybody had seen, had to be procured for the purpose. I am afraid I don't remember anything of her lessons, as I spent most of the time in hilarious games under the table. My sympathies now are all with the little governess, whom I met years afterwards when we were both sitting for our degree in London.

Do you wonder, by the way, how our arithmetic classes were conducted without a blackboard? Quite easy! You worked through the examples in your text-book till you came to a block, or wanted a little diversion, then you took your slate up and joined the throng behind the teacher's chair, waiting joyfully until it was your turn to be attended to, then you sat down again and went on—perhaps!

"How deadly dull it all sounds!" I hear you say. Yes, perhaps, but I think we enjoyed it as much as you enjoy your school days, and we were quite as proud of our school as you are of yours. Didn't I tell you we were *the* school of the neighbourhood? We worked for the Oxford Locals—a name to conjure with then—and a failure was unknown. "Had we any graduates on the staff?" No, of course not, unless you count the Latin-teaching rector! Why, years later women graduates were such strange folk that I had a whole paragraph to myself in the local paper headed "A Lady B.A." Do your graduates enjoy such fame to-day?

TOWARDS A TEACHING PROFESSION.

BY R. H. WHITEHOUSE.

For many years now, there has been an advance towards a real teaching profession; yet we still seem to be a long way from the realisation of those reformers who have endeavoured to impress public opinion with the importance of, and indeed necessity for, regarding teaching as a profession. What is the position? In the universities and colleges, anyone who appears to the authorities to be sufficiently endowed with scholarship, and has attained a certain reputation in a particular subject, may be entrusted with the teaching of his subject. For the junior posts, young men and women fresh from college are drafted on the staffs as teachers. In neither case is required any sort of training in the technique of teaching. In our public schools, training is certainly not a primary qualification for appointment; proficiency in sport is perhaps an easy first, and the passing of a successful university course next in value for a master's post. Training in educational method is often not seriously considered.

For appointments in secondary and elementary schools training is useful though not essential. In private schools much depends on the school, but in the large majority training is ignored.

How does the situation compare with the practice of medicine, or law, the army and navy, the Church, or even accountancy? Recognised medical men, lawyers, officers of the navy and army, clergy, and accountants are all assumed to have had a more or less lengthy specialised training in fundamentals and detail of their professions. But teachers—those so often referred to as nation builders, character builders, and so forth—need not be trained in their craft. It is not universally recognised that more than mere knowledge of a subject is required for the practice of teaching; anybody can teach.

Why is this? Why do not people say anybody can practise medicine or the law? Simply because medical men and lawyers have to undergo a long specialised training in their craft. Teachers do not; hence there is little wonder that the general public do not regard teaching as a specialised profession.

Now, as regards the training received by those who do enter special colleges for teachers, I have invariably taken the opportunity, on meeting young teachers, teachers who have just completed training

and those who have left the training college for varying periods of a few months to five years, to ascertain their candid opinion as to whether they think their training has benefited them. In almost every case the answer has been "No," and the few exceptions have hesitated with remarks prefaced by "Well, I don't know, but I suppose it must have done." I do not for one moment believe such a view to be correct, but the fact that it is so commonly expressed is, to say the least, unfortunate. The opinion of these teachers is almost invariably that they got little or no instruction in the technique of teaching and that supervision of their school practice was inadequate. In this I believe they are right. But who is to blame? The colleges find they can scarcely do more than they do already in this direction solely because time does not allow of it; and the staff is inadequate for more detailed supervision.

Up to this point, then, we may summarise the situation thus: teaching is a business—we cannot call it a profession—for which specialised training is not universally demanded; and the training available is totally insufficient on the side that teachers feel is most valuable to them—actual school conditions.

It would seem, therefore, that what is needed is a teachers' university or college course of four years, terminated by a degree in education, but not the kind of degree in education now given, not an arts or science degree capped by lectures and examinations, or thesis on psychology, history of education, and the like. To the vast majority of teachers psychology is vague philosophy and is regarded, rightly or wrongly, as wholly unnecessary and utterly boring.

Every subject for the degree in education should be such that the teacher will be convinced that it has a direct bearing on his work in the schools. And further, the subject needs to be treated, *in college*, in the way that the teacher is expected to treat it in the schools. For example, every training college student nowadays gets lectures on individual methods—lectures on the very subject which is intended to cut out lecturing in the classroom. Says the intelligent and critical student: "If this individual method is so effective, why do not our teachers in college adopt it? We learn about individual methods by mass instruction!" One cannot but feel that young teachers would have something to go upon if they had themselves been trained in a manner similar to that which is expected of them in the schools. They are also badly in need of more school practice for continuous periods, and what is most important, these teaching practice periods should be entirely free from theoretical

examination studies, in order that the whole attention of the student teacher may be devoted to teaching, and his uninterrupted practice may more nearly approach actual teaching life.

If the organisation of the training of teachers were so arranged that it involved a four-years' course, each year providing at least two months of continuous practice in schools, the whole leading up to a degree in education, we should be nearer a real profession of teaching. Four years is not too much; many at present take a four years' honours degree course plus an extra year of training, and some take a three years' course of training. Tests could be held annually and the unfit eliminated before they had proceeded too far or were too old to try another avenue for a living, as is done in medical colleges. The final test could be held in two parts, so that the theory would be finished before school practice began, and the practical test held at the end of the practice, in the schools, under ordinary conditions.

The training in school practice could be given at such times that in four years a student could cover a whole year's work in a school, taking a different two months each year. Such an arrangement would be far less unsettling to the school organisation than many present-day schemes. To have young teachers coming into a school on odd days, only when odd jobs can be provided, is a far greater nuisance than having a semi-permanent assistant about. If the whole year is covered, the school even has the advantage of a number of assistants throughout. The advantage to the young teacher is obvious, for

he can feel he is a member of the staff. And the attitude of pupils to a casual student teacher is very different from that towards one who is teaching continuously in a school.

I do not believe that such a scheme is impossible. In fact, much of it is in practice at a training college in India, except for the length of training—an unfortunate difficulty due entirely to the fact that training in England is only required for one year. But study is done by individual assignment methods, a teaching degree examination is taken, the theory in April and the practice in June, after a long continuous period. It is only necessary to strengthen the staff, mainly on the school practice side, to ensure effective practice supervision. One advantage of a purely educational or teaching degree course is that from the start entrants are entered because they intend to be teachers, just as the medical student intends from the first to be a doctor. Automatically, therefore, we cut out the man who comes to teaching as a last resort. It goes a step further in helping the youngster to make up his mind early and train for his profession. Many times I have asked university students in arts or science: "What are you going to do after college?" and got the answer, "I really don't quite know, but if nothing better comes along, there's always teaching I suppose." The medical or law student would question one's sanity if one asked what he intended to do after college. Many young people just drift into teaching, the one vocation where drifters are not wanted.

TERMS of *MRS. MASQUERIER'S*
Boarding School,
 Upper End of Church Lane,
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 Board including French, English, Writing, Arithmetic, Geography, Needlework, & Dancing, for Twenty Guineas a Year, and One Guinea Entrance.
 Parents or Guardians
 may depend on the utmost care taken of the Young Ladies' morals and manners, and a particular tenderness shown to their persons.
 As the house is central and the situation remarkably beautiful.
 To those who do not chuse to learn all the above branches, a reasonable deduction will be made.
 A Shilling Stage to Holborn, Wool Street, 6 the Bank, several times a Day.

By kind permission of Messrs. Batsford, Ltd., we print a copy of the prospectus of an eighteenth century private school, taken from the volume "Georgian England," from which we learn that "Private academies existed for the children of parents who could not afford tutors or governesses, including both day and boarding schools for both sexes. In London and other cities there were a few free schools for the poor. In the better schools education centred almost entirely round the classics."

PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

Suggestions drawn up by the Royal Society of Teachers.

The Royal Society of Teachers was invited to send a Memorandum to the Departmental Committee on Private Schools. The following are the suggestions which were offered at the end of the Memorandum. They fall under three main heads, namely :—

(i) Health of Pupils.

This should be the concern of the Local Authority, which should have legal power to forbid the use of premises for school purposes on the recommendation of the School Medical Officer for the district. The use of private houses should not be allowed unless the conditions in respect of sanitation, heating, lighting, ventilation, and washing accommodation have been extended to meet the needs of a number of children. The standard of building and equipment need not be that of a modern secondary school, but it should be such as will ensure healthy physical conditions for the pupils.

(2) Education of Pupils.

The owner of a private school should be required to submit annually to the Local Authority a copy of the prospectus, time-table, and curriculum of the school, with particulars of the number of pupils, age and sex, and the number of boarders. The name and educational qualifications of the responsible head teacher should be given, with the names and qualifications of the staff of teachers—whole time and visiting. If the school receives pupils who are physically or mentally defective, the staff should include teachers with special qualifications for training such pupils.

Where the Local Authority is satisfied that a school is reasonably efficient, having regard to the range and kind of educational work which it undertakes, then the school should be listed as part of the recognised educational provision in that area. Schools not listed in this manner by the Local Authority should not be recognised as places of efficient instruction such as will satisfy Section 42 of the Education Act. In practice this would mean that non-listed schools would be compelled either to improve or close down.

The Board of Education should arrange for the periodical free inspection of all private schools that are listed by the Local Authority. This is important as helping to ensure some approach to uniformity of requirements. Where a Local Authority has refused to place a school on its list the owner should be allowed to apply for a special inspection by the Board, and for this a fee should be charged as a deterrent to frivolous appeals. The present resources of the Board might be strengthened by making greater use of occasional inspectors.

Retired and working teachers have been found willing and able to undertake such duties, and their number might be increased.

(3) Qualifications of Teachers.

The teacher is the pivot of educational work, and the Council's experience shows that a large number of private schools are staffed by persons whose ill-furnished minds and lack of teaching technique render them totally unfitted to undertake any kind of teaching work.

The Council regards it as essential that in every school the power of direction and control should be exercised only by a teacher who is professionally equipped for the task and duly accredited as a member of the teaching profession. The Register of Teachers, formed and kept by the Council as ordered by Parliament, furnishes an appropriate means of ensuring that schools are in charge of teachers who have satisfied at least the minimum requirements in respect of attainments and training in teaching. This is not to say that all such teachers will be highly efficient and successful; but it is safe to say that they will not be charlatans of the type now occasionally to be found. The Registered Teacher is responsible, not only to the pupils and their parents, but to his own colleagues, and it is part of the work of the Teachers Registration Council to encourage good service while checking unseemly conduct and dealing severely with grave offences. It is not suggested that the owners of existing schools should be compelled to become Registered, but it is urged that after an appointed date no new school should be listed by a Local Authority unless the head teacher is Registered. Later it may be possible to require that a proportion of the staff should be Registered, according to the number of pupils, but it is not contemplated that Registration shall be made obligatory for all who are engaged on the staff of a school. In all professions there are subordinate grades, but the unregistered person should always work under professional direction.

The prescribed Conditions of Registration will serve to show that the requirements of the Council are such as should be satisfied by any person who undertakes responsible work in education. The Council hopes that the Departmental Committee will recognise this, and recommend that the Register of Teachers already authorised by Parliament should be utilised for the purpose of ensuring that private schools are no longer to be opened and conducted by incompetent and unfit persons whose activities do so much to disparage the work of good private schools and to hinder the progress of education in general.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS UNION. LONDON ESSAY COMPETITION.

The London Federation of the League of Nations Union has just completed a big essay competition for young people under nineteen. Hundreds of essays were sent in from all parts of London, and the scheme was arranged for age groups. In addition to the prize winners there were over two hundred children who were awarded Certificates of Merit of First or Second Class. The prize winners were:—

Senior Grade (ages sixteen to nineteen).—First prize: Susan Maliniak, St. Martin's High School, Tulse Hill. Second prize: May Knight, Charles Brooke School, Camberwell. Third prize: Bertram Penn, Hampton Grammar School.

Intermediate Grade (ages thirteen to sixteen).—First prize: Albert Hourain, Mill Hill School. Second prize (bracketed): Desirée Burns, Wanstead High School; Douglas Borgars, Mill Hill School. Third prize: Edward Goodman, Mill Hill School.

Junior Grade (under thirteen).—First prize: Betty Hawes, Davidson Council School, Croydon. Second prize: Molly Stevens, Davidson Council School. Third prize: Marjorie Smith, Victoria Senior Girls' School, Teddington.

LETTER TO THE EDITOR.

The National Book Council.

Sir,—As head master of a London school, my experience convinces me that teachers and coaches spend more time in searching for sources of information than in any other incidental part of their work. In these days of specialisation one has to keep in touch with a host of subjects, old and new, far beyond the scope of the most concentrated private reading.

It does not appear to be generally known that the National Book Council is open to membership by any interested member of the general public. Its service of book guidance has been to me invaluable. A statement of my requirements, on the most unusual subjects, has never failed to bring from the Council's Inquiry Bureau a list of just the right books by return of post. This alone, quite apart from the other rights and advantages of membership, ensures a saving of time and increase in efficiency which I feel would be of equal value to every other teacher.

"HEAD MASTER."

March 27, 1931.

TALKING PICTURES IN EDUCATION.

Following immediately on the experiment by the Middlesex Education Authorities on the use of talking pictures in schools comes news of the extension of the experiment in boys' and girls' preparatory schools and public schools. In consequence of representations from the principals of schools from all over the country, the Western Electric Company are offering their co-operation in the showing of talking pictures in schools. An itinerary is being rapidly made up in the Home Counties and the South Coast area.

Schools will be offered one day's use of the equipment, subject to a maximum number of three performances a day, each one and a half hours.

A library of films has been selected from which principals of schools can choose subjects which they think most suitable. These films, which are supplied by the British Movietone News, include such subjects as "The Life of Sir Henry Segrave," "A Visit to a Coal Mine," "Glimpse of Australia," "The Indian Round Table Conference," "A Cruise in a Submarine," "Sir Wilfred Grenfell on Life in Labrador," "The Spring Cruise of the Atlantic and Mediterranean Fleets."

It is intended to ask principals of schools who have these performances to supply their views on the value of talking pictures for teaching purposes, and, where possible, to obtain by means of questionnaires and essays the reaction of pupils to these films.

This collected information will in due course be passed on to the Commission on Educational and Cultural Films, a body on which the Government is represented, to assist them in their study of the educational use of talking pictures.

English.

ABILITY EXERCISES IN ENGLISH. Preparatory Book I (ages six to six plus) and Book III (ages six plus to seven. (Manilla, 5d.; cloth 7½d. Russell.)

We have already had occasion to commend the senior books in this series. Those before us are equally good. They arouse and hold the children's interest throughout, as all the exercises are based on stories or verses which specially appeal to children of these ages. The work is very skilfully graded, and should certainly help much towards paving the way to good composition in the higher classes. A teacher tells me that her children much enjoy the word games and "jumbles." The books are very suitable for individual work. They are very cheap, and it is well worth your giving them a trial—you will not be disappointed.

MODERN SCHOOLING

THE SCHOOL PLAY.

BY MAGISTER.

I know of no harder work or more heart-breaking experience than producing a school play. However, reward often comes in the end, for school children are intensely loyal, and will always strive to give of their best—poor as sometimes we producers know this to be.

Soon I shall be scanning over school plays and deciding on the most suitable. This, in itself, is a formidable business. One has to bear in mind the material available, especially the human material. Not all school children are born singers, dancers, or elocutionists.

It is a great point whether one should choose a *straight* play or a musical one. The children, regardless of their limitations, will plump for the musical one, with its greater variety and in many ways greater fun in the preparation.

Having, after much thought, decided on a suitable play, the next thing to do is to choose the cast, or at least a preliminary cast. I say preliminary cast advisedly, for I have yet to meet the producer who finished the play with the same cast with which he started.

The casting of the play is really the most important part of the business. And here trouble begins.

For instance, you choose a certain boy to play Prince Charming. He seems to be well fitted for the part in physique and presence, and then you discover, alas! that his singing voice is like the raven's croak.

Then the young maidens you have chosen to play the part of fairies can do everything but dance. The girl whom you would like to take the part of the Fairy Queen because of her sweet voice has a figure more suitable for the part of the stout old dame. Having suffered these drawbacks, the horrible idea seems to fix itself in your mind that, after all, the play you have chosen is not by any means the most suitable one. All sorts of misgivings take possession of you, and it is hard to get rid of them.

We are now supposing that the cast has been fixed upon. The producer then reads the play to the players, and gives general explanations as to what is required. The parts are then distributed, and the music, if any, to those who will sing or play some musical instrument.

Rehearsals are held frequently, as school routine permits, and at last you begin to think that the play is taking some semblance of shape. Your Fairy

Princess is singing in wonderful voice; the Fairy Prince has assumed for the time being a Prince-like deportment; the Courtiers are as Courtiers should be; the Fairies have learned not to turn their toes inwards; the Villain has for the nonce cultivated a deep and impressive bass voice; and even the Court Jester has ceased to laugh at his own jokes. Within the camp all is well. But stay . . . what is this that you have heard on your way to school? *Jimmy Jenkins has got the measles?* Impossible! Absurd! It can't be right! It is only a rumour! Jimmy would never so lower himself as to catch measles at this important period of his life! The very idea of a Prince Charming catching such a complaint as measles is ludicrous. But the awful truth comes out. *Jimmy has got the measles.*

Well, there is nothing for it but to gird your loins and start afresh. Another Prince Charming is soon forthcoming, and again the play goes merrily along—at least merrily for the children, for all children like play-acting.

But there is yet another blow to fall. A month before the production Mary Timkins comes with a note from her mother to say that she, Mary's mother, is awfully sorry, but Mary will be going away at the time the play is to be produced, and that she thought that I would like to know this in time.

And so it comes about that Mary Tomkins, who does the solo dance in Act I, basely deserts the cast, and is replaced by Linda Lou, who has only a remote knowledge of the part and a still more remote knowledge of dancing. With stoic indifference you affect not to notice that your singers are becoming husky through colds, and that the play is only a week off.

At last comes the final rehearsals and then the day of days. You'll never forget the latter as long as you live. Everything goes wrong from the very beginning. Costumes are lost or misplaced, the footlights suddenly fail, the pianist forgets his part, and—but why continue? You are probably reduced to a state bordering on nervous prostration.

And then comes the final curtain.

You want to slink away and shed tears of vexation and disappointment; but what is this you hear? Applause? Good heavens! They can't be applauding the play! But they are. They are even stamping their feet. Suddenly your arm is gripped and you hear a voice as though in a dream saying: "Magnificent! Splendid! Congratulations! The finest show I've ever witnessed. The kiddies were wonderful!"

MENTALLY OVERFED CHILDREN.

By KENNETH STONE.

How many parents, I wonder, could do their child's homework satisfactorily? How many would care to grapple once more with the burden of learning imposed on them in their youth?

In the seventeenth century, La Bruyère, tutor of a young French aristocrat, and keen critic of the society of his time, said that we should teach children languages and nothing more till the age of fourteen.

The French schoolboys to-day, it is true, have a rather worse time than ours, but angry protests against this overwork are coming from more than one *père de famille*. Here is a list of subjects to be passed for the French equivalent of our matriculation: the examinations are held in two parts, with a year's interval.

French composition; two modern languages; arithmetic; algebra; geometry, plane and solid; trigonometry; kinetics; statics; cosmography; physics, including heat, light, electricity, and magnetism; chemistry; biology; philosophy, including logic and morals; ancient French; French literature; the literature of the modern languages chosen; history; geography.

In our own schools the mental pabulum is not quite so varied; but the average child finds much of it indigestible, and the strain imposed inevitably brings nervous ailments.

Running before we can walk.

The Hon. Bertrand Russell promises us the millennium in a generation if we will train our children properly. Have our educationists seriously considered the advice of La Bruyère? True, the sum of human knowledge has grown enormously since his time. The tutors of the seventeenth century were not embarrassed by choice from such an imposing array of subjects. French, German, and English literature were of course far less extensive; while physics, chemistry, and biology scarcely existed. But there would seem to have come with this new learning an unreasonable fear that our children will grow up into ignorant men and women.

The whole world cries out for men and women of character; it has little use for mere erudition. Shall we give our children the widest knowledge they can absorb, or devote ourselves to training their intelligence, sensibility, and will? "Character" almost defies analysis; it is, moreover, often wrongly applied to anyone of uncommon personality. Most of us have met men or women with minds so perfectly poised that they could face any crisis without loss of equilibrium. We have been arrested by the peace in their eyes; invigorated by the strength

radiating from them—that little known spiritual strength beside which muscle and animal courage seem unimportant. We have been awed by their love of beauty.

One day the world may see a beauty unsurpassable, when all men and women have attained perfect "character." This is the goal of human effort. To make a god of knowledge now is to try to run before we can walk.

Children are natural linguists.

Of course, La Bruyère thought children should be taught languages because they were unable to learn anything else; and they can indeed master them with an ease which many a grown-up envies. Let them learn what they can learn well and easily. Would it hurt to drop the majority of subjects now taught? Surely we need aim at nothing more than to give a foundation of learning which will serve later for an edifice of that special knowledge which a man needs for his life's work. Could we not leave this till the last school year? The elements only are good enough. History, for instance, could be taught by half-a-dozen cinematograph films.

And what a precious possession such a knowledge of languages would prove! The great literature of the world an open book! None of us can develop to the full without the influence of greater minds; and, as Descartes said, reading of all good books is like a conversation with great minds of the past.

"Une langue de plus, c'est une âme de plus." The advice of La Bruyère has not lost its force. The child mind has not changed, and the ways of moulding it are not dependent on the knowledge which will afterwards be needed.

Oxford Summer Course in Music Teaching.

We have received an attractive booklet containing the programme of the Tenth Summer Course in Music Teaching organised by the Federation of British Music Industries and supported by other bodies. This year's course opens on July 29 with a dinner at New College and continues for a fortnight. Students are housed at Worcester College and Lady Margaret Hall, and the list of lecturers includes the names of Major J. T. Bavin (Director of the Course), Dr. Adrian Boulton, Dr. George Dyson, Dr. E. Markham Lee, Mr. Cyril Wiann (of the Board of Education), and Mr. Ernest Read. Particulars may be obtained from the Director, Education Department, Federation of British Music Industries, 117 to 123 Great Portland Street, London, W.1.

THE VILLAGE SCHOOL.

V. The Teaching of History.

BY WILLIAM CLAYTON, M.B.E. (Appleton Roebuck School).

This subject is often taught successfully in our village schools, although the methods are entirely different from those of the urban and town schools.

The special aim in the teaching of history is to lead the children to look upon the present as the outcome of the past and upon themselves as the builders of the future.

These principles should be interpreted from the point of view of the children's interests rather than from the idea that history is a science, consequently there will be a great variety of schemes based on the individuality of the different schools and areas. In this subject, as in all others, successful teaching will depend upon the staff; therefore it is a good plan, even in our smaller schools, to let the teacher who is particularly interested in the subject specialise as much as possible and have a major share of the responsibility for history teaching throughout the school.

The Board of Education's suggestions contain such valuable hints about this subject that the inclusion of a paragraph or two is worth while. We read, "It is essential that in each school attention should be paid to the history of the town and district in which it is situated. This will generally be best done not by giving a separate course of work on local history, but by a constant reference to local history as illustrative of general history."

In our village school we have always tried to remember that many, maybe a majority, of our pupils will leave their native soil and seek their fortunes in the larger centres of population. It is essential therefore that, though the fullest use is made of local colour for our teaching, the broader and deeper knowledge of world history should never be omitted. We should fail entirely if we neglected to encourage our pupils to grasp the main facts of our country's development and influence upon world history. To teach this thoroughly we must not only have a plentiful supply of reliable books—both text-books and works of reference—always at the command of our pupils, but we must use every possible means of training them to read widely and intelligently, so that they will desire to continue their researches long after we have lost control over them.

Unless we have taught them how to winnow the chaff from the corn, we shall have failed to produce a generation of thinkers, and shall only tend to swell the crowds which stand with open mouths and swallow the mass of loose thinking which the loud-mouthed demagogues pour out at the street corner, or from near the Marble Arch.

The village child is slow to show its capabilities because of its inherent shyness, but is, nevertheless, often quite intellectual, and can appreciate facts and retain impressions as well as most children.

My experience shows that they love research and can make good use of material which such work has accumulated.

It has been our practice for many years to keep our senior children usefully employed by giving them definite simple research work to undertake and to tabulate their facts as graphs, or charts, which they leave behind.

A "Wheat" graph was drawn up by a very thoughtful senior boy in the two months prior to his leaving school. He used a variety of sources for the compilation of his facts, such as "The *Daily Mail* Year-Book," "Whitaker's Almanac," "The N.F.U. Year-Book," "The *Agricultural Gazette*," "The *Journal of the Ministry of Agriculture*," "Board of Trade Returns," and many others.

Our pupils have made an intensive study of the Manor House with its three-foot-thick walls, stone mullioned windows with their leaded lights, red-tiled roofs, and over-hanging eaves, and from old parish records and manorial rolls made fairly accurate plans of the three-field system in vogue days before the earliest enclosure acts were passed.

Our medieval moats have formed the basis of many a valuable lesson, and though of the Saxon castle not a trace, except the moats, remains, we have measured, sketched, and dreamed in the sunlight, and when recreation time has come have divided ourselves into attackers and defenders, and seen many a would-be intruder sent rolling down the steep bank into the moat by the lusty dwellers in the keep.

Because Black Tom Fairfax dwelt in the mansion near the wharfe inside our parish boundary, we have gone with his stern men to fight against Prince Rupert at Marston Moor, seen where the "bloody hand" was hung over his entrance gates to signify the king's displeasure at the actions of this Parliamentary leader.

In happier days, when this rebellious family had received the Royal pardon, we have followed Charles II down the famous Oak Avenue when that monarch led the gay procession to and from the thirteen hundred years' old church in the nearby village to see his favourite George Villiers wed Fairfax's fair daughter.

These and scores of similar local touches have made the study of history for our pupils real and interesting. We are certain that if our curriculum had to be cut down none of our pupils would vote for the exclusion of either history or geography.

HOMEWORK: A GENTLE PROTEST.

BY B. J. PENDLEBURY.

There must be many parents who regard homework as a necessary evil. Some, indeed, are merely impatient because it is apt to interfere with their domestic arrangements, but there are many others who are seriously worried by the strain which it imposes on their children. In the summer months especially it is difficult to see the wisdom of keeping children at their books from nine in the morning until nine at night. And this is no exceptional requirement. Candidates for the School Certificate, that is, children of fifteen or sixteen, are commonly expected to work two to three hours every evening. Some of them, no doubt, enjoy their work and do it without protest, but many, especially girls, are worried and obviously overburdened. A thoughtful parent cannot help wondering whether such extensive study is essential to a good education.

Teachers also have their misgivings on the subject, though they are concerned with a somewhat different aspect of it. They see many of their pupils, notably in the middle forms of secondary schools, falling into a permanent lethargy, and doing their work so mechanically that they can derive little or no benefit from it. Boys and girls who are alert enough at the age of ten are frequently weary and hopeless at fourteen. It is this weariness which can make the teaching of some classes a nightmare of futility. A teacher who spends most of his time with the inferior forms of a secondary school is apt to feel that his work is so much wasted endeavour, that he is trying to force his pupils to do something which is quite beyond their powers. There must be many teachers who are seriously concerned to find some explanation for this state of things. There are some who condemn the traditional methods of discipline and instruction, and advocate a greater measure of freedom for their pupils. There are many who believe that a large proportion of pupils in secondary schools is unfit for the academic curriculum usually provided. There is much to be said for these and other views which may in time effect considerable improvements in our educational system; but there is another possibility which sometimes occurs to teachers, but which has not, I think, been much emphasised in public. Is it not possible that the education provided by our secondary schools is, on the whole, sound, but that there is far too much of it? May it not be that those lethargic pupils in the middle forms are simply suffering from chronic overwork? I believe this possibility deserves careful investigation.

I should like to suggest an experiment which would cost the rate-payers nothing and might benefit the rate-payers' children both physically and

mentally. Let the hours of work in a number of selected schools be drastically curtailed. Let there be no children confined to classrooms on fine afternoons, and none doing homework on summer evenings. Let the leisure thus acquired be spent mainly in the open air according to the tastes of individual pupils. The details of the scheme could be left to the staffs of the schools concerned, and might vary considerably. I am convinced that in many cases the quality of the pupils' work would improve and that examination results need not suffer. If, however, it should prove necessary to drop some of the subjects commonly required for examinations, I believe pupils could be better educated by attempting fewer subjects.

The value of an education does not depend mainly on extensiveness of information, nor on the practical usefulness of any particular subject. It should be measured rather by the pupil's ability to undertake various types of mental activity. A pupil who has benefited by the present normal curriculum should be able to learn a new language easily, to read intelligently in his own, to acquire scientific or technical knowledge easily, and to express clearly whatever knowledge he acquires. Now this alertness and versatility might well be fostered by a study of English, one foreign language, one scientific subject, and one branch of mathematics. It is not necessary for a pupil to take all knowledge for his province. A boy cannot hope to acquire at school the scientific knowledge which is required in any particular industry, but if he has made a successful attempt to grasp the method of one branch of scientific study, he is better prepared to tackle a new branch than a boy who has dabbled with several. As for foreign languages, the chief reason for including them in the school curriculum is their cultural value, the value of sharing the experience of another race. Surely this is a matter for intensive rather than extensive study. A pupil who has really learned to read Virgil has definitely enlarged his or her mental experience, and may be essentially cultured without knowing a word of French or German. On the other hand, one may scrape through a School Certificate examination in Latin and French, and remain unaware that those languages are anything else but grammatical puzzles.

It would not be difficult to make out a case against the usefulness of any particular subject in the normal school curriculum. This is not my intention; but I believe many pupils do not make sufficient progress in any one subject to see any purpose in it. Thus they miss the whole value of a secondary education because too much is attempted and their studies become a weariness to them.

NEWS OF THE MONTH.

Conferences.

In addition to the N.U.T. Conference at Yarmouth there were meetings of the National Association of Schoolmasters at Birmingham and of the Institute of Handicraft Teachers at Morecambe during Easter week. The former was mainly concerned with the vexed question of "equal pay," and it was affirmed that all boys over seven years of age ought to be under the influence of men teachers. The Handicraft Teachers devoted their attention to the development of handwork in schools, and the Handbook of the Conference contains an admirable historical survey written by Mr. J. H. Judd, late Head of the Handicraft Department of the Manchester Education Committee.

Child Labour.

"No decent citizen can read unmoved the disclosures about child labour made at the Conference of the National Union of Teachers. Thousands of youngsters with bodies and minds yet in early growth toil for the public pleasure and convenience up to seventy-two hours a week. Many often work till midnight. Stunted bodies and unformed minds must too often be the result. Our youth should be protected from such gross exploitation."—*Daily Herald*.

Open Scholarships in Dalcroze Eurhythmics.

The London School of Dalcroze Eurhythmics, 23 Store Street, London, W.C.1, offers one Scholarship to the value of £230, being the tuition fee for three years plus the examination fee in the Training Department of the school. There are also two Scholarships of £115 each, being half the fees mentioned. For information and conditions write to the Secretary of the School at the above address.

The Board and Reorganisation.

In a Memorandum to Local Education Authorities the Board announce that Authorities may continue to proceed with their plans for the education of senior children on the basis of a four years' course for those over eleven years of age, who are likely to be at school after the end of the period of special pressure expected in 1933 and immediately afterwards. Circular 1397 suggested that a three years' course might be provided, with a margin for voluntary attendance beyond fourteen. It is evident that the Board desire to remove all obstacles from the voluntary raising of the school age. If Local Authorities co-operate as they should there may be little need for legislation.

National Union of Women Teachers.

The National Union of Women Teachers will hold a public conference at the Central Hall, Westminster, on May 9, preceded on May 8 by a dinner at the House of Commons. On the Saturday there will be a luncheon at Pinoli's Restaurant, at which the subject of the speeches will be "Equal Pay."

At the morning session on May 9, beginning at 10, an address will be given by Mr. A. E. Evans, Hon. Secretary and ex-President of the Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions. At 11.15 Mr. Leonard Brooks, President of the National Association of Inspectors of Schools and Educational Organisers, will speak on "Geography in Education and Citizenship." The afternoon session will last from 3.15 to 5.15. Miss Margaret Phillips, Vice-Principal, Cheshire County Training College, will speak on "The Professional Training of Teachers," and there will be an address by Professor Marcault.

The T.P.S.

The Teachers Provident Society—the Friendly Society of the National Union of Teachers—has the distinction of having the largest average financial reserves of any friendly society in the country. With a membership of 79,583, the society has total funds of £3,648,982. The society not only provides for sickness benefit, but the members can insure for life insurance, annuities, and endowment benefits.

A New Inspector of Art.

Professor E. M. O'R. Dickey, M.A., has been appointed Staff Inspector for Art under the Board of Education to advise the Board generally on all questions relating to art education.

Mr. Dickey is Professor of Fine Art and Director of the King Edward VII School of Art, Armstrong College, University of Durham. He will take up his new duties in September next.

English Lecturer for U.S.A.

Miss Jane Bradshaw, M.A. (Liverpool), has been appointed assistant professor of English at Smith College, U.S.A., for the academic year 1931-1932. She is at present lecturer in English at Homerton College, Cambridge.

Mr. Clement Davies, K.C., M.P., has given £400 to the Llanfyllin County School, to provide a fund to help school leavers to enter a career, or aid them in other ways.

Mr. F. W. Goldstone, M.A., General Secretary of the N.U.T., has sent a cheque for £200 to the B. and O. Fund of the N.U.T., being a joint gift from himself and Mrs. Goldstone.

LITERARY SECTION.

BOOKS AND THE MAN.

The House of Batsford.

High Holborn is one of the streets of London which has so far escaped the dull monotony produced by ranks of "multiple shops." How long it will preserve its pleasant variety is uncertain, but it still retains a few independent shops. Among them stands that of B. T. Batsford, Ltd., where we find an interesting blend of bookselling and publishing, each branch most efficiently carried on. Lately the firm has opened a branch at 15 North Audley Street, in a large and attractive house which has been fitted with a seemly and appropriate shop window designed by Professor A. E. Richardson. Here are commodious showrooms where visitors—as well as customers — are free to examine books. The first floor has an excellent picture gallery, and the whole place gives a feeling of comfort and satisfaction. My readers should write to the address given above for a copy of the attractive booklet which describes the house and gives a short history of the firm.

Batsford's have a well-deserved reputation for producing books which are handsome in form and attractive in their contents. The "History of Everyday Things in England," written by Mar-

jorie and C. H. B. Quennell, is one of their publications well known to teachers, as are the later volumes in the "Everyday Series" by the same authors. The firm specialises in books on fine and decorative arts, architecture and design, and applied science. On the bookselling side they will obtain for purchasers any book available in these branches, whether it is new or old, British or foreign. Their shelves are laden with volumes of fascinating interest, and I know of no better place for an hour's "browsing."

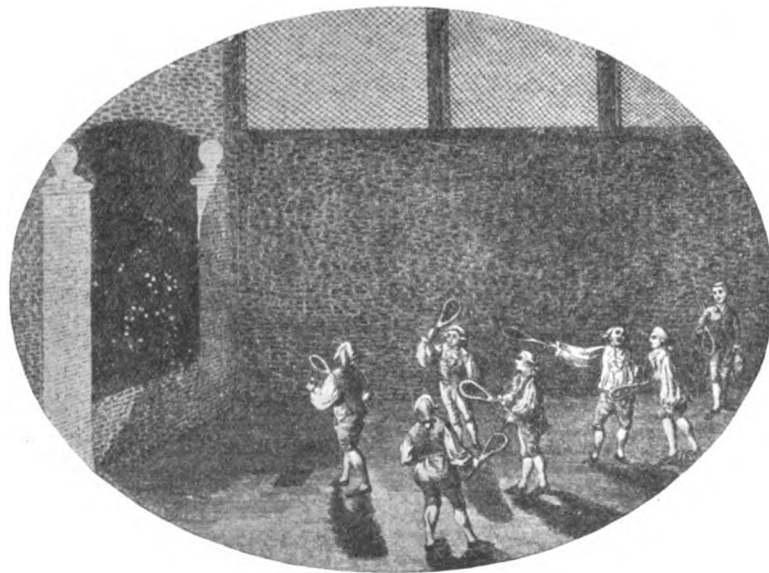
Among their more recent publications is a volume entitled "Georgian England: a Survey of Social Life, Trades, Industries, and Art, from 1700 to 1820." It costs 21s. net and is worth more, for it has 261 illustrations, including a coloured frontispiece. The writer is Professor A. E. Richardson, F.S.A., F.R.I.B.A., the well-known authority on the period, who supplies a vivid and extremely interesting account of the life and manners of the eighteenth century. Some of the pictures are reproduced elsewhere by the kind permission of the publishers, and I hope

that the volume will be bought for school libraries. There could be no better supplement to the history lessons on the period.

SELIM MILES.



STREET FOOTBALL IN BARNET.



PLAYING AT FIVES IN THE TENNIS COURT IN LEICESTER FIELDS.

REVIEWS.**Education.**

THE WILL TO LIVE: An Outline of Evolutionary Psychology: by J. H. Badley. (10s. 6d. Allen and Unwin.)

The author of this work is the Head Master of Bedales School, Petersfield, and his approach and outlook are naturally those of an "educationist." This is the more so as the book "had its origin in the request of a group of boys and girls in their last year of school for some account of the theories, such as those of the psycho-analysts, to which reference is now so common."

Thus we find some account of Behaviourism, with Dr. Watson's affirmation that "psychology can do without the terms 'mind' and 'consciousness'"; of Freud (quite late in the book), who uses "sex" "in a very wide sense, to include any impulses that can be associated with it"; Adler, "who makes little use of the idea of the Unconscious, and regards self-assertion and the instinctive desire for superiority to others as factors of greater importance than sex in the production of repressed complexes"; of Jung, to whom the Unconscious is "also the source of inspirations and intuitions, the home of our undeveloped potentialities."

These accounts, however, are embedded in a systematic study of the subject, and by an arrangement that represents a considerable re-emergence of the order and methods of the older works on psychology. An introductory chapter and a Chapter II, on "Fundamentals," form a good forty-page foundation. The "Fundamentals" are dealt with under the heads: *The Will to Live* (which gives the book its title), *Impulse, Growth, Complexes, Conflict*, and *the Subconscious Mind* form three of the last four chapters. There is evidently no immediate hurry to satisfy the usual curiosity of youth—"Just show us how the thing works." There seems to be a deliberate aim at insisting on an ordered body of knowledge, with nothing left "in the air." This is a true scientific method—a question raised here in connection with "Is Psychology a Science?" The author's answer is cautious and satisfactory—a science in the making.

Consciousness, Instinct, Habit, Intelligence, Thought, Intellect, Emotion, have separate treatment. On "Intelligence" our author describes it as implying "not only a wider range of variation of response in accordance with the lessons of previous experience, but also some power of forming and maintaining a purpose through a series of actions which, however different, are related to each other by the end kept in view." This may stand with the many definitions and descriptions that have been given. Upon the essential question, what is

the one characteristic mark of intelligence, we may still dispute.

The book is readable, cautious, and not earmarked for or by any school. The purpose for which it was designed might have been achieved in several other ways; but not necessarily by better ways. The definite adherence to a systematic plan makes of it a better book than the "conversational-chat" method usually produces. The young reader, at the end of it, knows where he is and what he has covered. He has been trained so that he can continue his reading intelligently and effectively. And he has been given no encouragement towards cheap and incorrect generalisations. R. J.

Economics.

YOUTH AND POWER: A Social Approach to Some Economic Problems: by C. R. Fay. (10s. 6d. Longmans.)

This is a rather "queer" book. The sub-title above appears on the dust-cover. On the title-page is another: *The Diversions of an Economist*. In the preface Professor Fay says:—"I began this mental excursion in the university of my youth with its exhilarating atmosphere of freedom and research"—a combination by no means inevitable. Here, evidently, we catch a professor not very conscious of the academic necessities.

The book is an economic commentary on Canada, the United States, and Great Britain. There we have a definite "thesis" which might appear in quite an academic dress—it might even be a thesis for a Doctorate—only that Mr. Fay has left such experiences far behind him. But the chapters of this book are mostly reprinted from magazines published in London, Canada, and U.S.A. The first chapter, "The Outlook of Youth," is a declaration of belief (and unbelief), with a page or so on the Cambridge curricula, a picture of the public school-boy, correlated with "Punch," and a postscript on *The Belief in Immortality!* Mr. Fay accepts the belief, (1) because otherwise "life is futile"; (2) because of "the instinctive faith of the mass of humanity in it." This sounds like a hotch-potch, but it is not. The reading is of interest and it is suggestive.

Glance now at the chapters that follow: *Types of Power; The Political Autocrat; The Labour Union; and Flexible Finance*. On the first, take this:—"The Fascists of Italy have lived for ten years in the intoxicating atmosphere which the English middle class inhaled for the brief spell of a week when Mr. Churchill was their Mussolini" (i.e., the General Strike week, when the unemployed officer class "smashed without bloodshed the general strike, and earned the gratitude of their fellows"). The others must be read as they stand.

There follows "Adam Smith and Foreign Trade," where Mr. Fay speaks from a knowledge unusually complete. "Consumption, Machinery, and Employment" deals more with the post-war Smiths than with Adam. It ends with a question to America: "What joy would you have in the whole wealth of the world for the ages to come if you mounted to it on the back of a weakened Britain, whose weakening was three parts her fault and one part yours?"

Then come "Public Ownership of Electric Power," "The Peopling of a New Land," "The Psychology of Social Revolt." In this last are Lenin, Marx, Owen, Paine, but not Veblen. And as an Appendix to the book we hark back a few centuries to "Machiavelli's Political Philosophy."

If it be insisted that here is a hotch-potch, the point must in literalness be ceded. But a dominating interest makes the whole into a book, and makes it interesting. It is the problem of the modern swiftly-changing world, the post-war world. And that is of the first, if not the actual first, of our interests to-day.

R. J.

Domestic Subjects.

THE TEACHING OF DOMESTIC SCIENCE: by Elizabeth Atkinson. (5s. net. Methuen.)

The primary importance of domestic science as a school subject has always been sufficiently obvious to those who take thought as to the real function of the school as a place of preparation for life, and its value is very properly emphasised in the Hadow Report. This being the case, its inclusion in the curriculum of girls' schools is a matter of common sense, as is also the provision of properly trained teachers of the subject—a training such as is obtainable at the Manchester Municipal Training College of Domestic Economy and Cookery, in which Miss Atkinson is a staff teacher. A very important part of the qualifications of a teacher of domestic science—although, of course, not peculiar to that subject—is the ability to devise a syllabus such as is likely to meet the requirements of her pupils, and it is claimed that this book is the first to give the much-needed help in the construction of such syllabuses, and teachers feeling the need or desirability of being able to change or modify the daily routine will find the first part of Miss Atkinson's book of great value. Of equal value is the second part, dealing with lessons and their preparation, while the third part provides extremely helpful Notes of Lessons. Altogether an exceptionally useful volume on a fundamentally important subject, and one to be unreservedly commended. F. H. S.

New Literary Readers.

Under the skilled direction of Mr. R. D. Morss the firm of Ginn and Co. have established a solid reputation as producers of school books. Especially

valuable are the various sets of reading books, beginning with the "Beacon Readers," which are designed to smooth the path to reading in the sense of identifying words and uttering them with intelligence. Then come the "Beacon Study Readers," showing the pupil how to learn from the printed page. Now we have the "Beacon Literary Readers" in five handsome volumes with delightful end papers, stout covers, good type and paper, with well-drawn pictures in black and white. The aim of these books is to show the child how to gain enjoyment from words. Hence we have a series of well chosen extracts, drawn from many sources, and all serving to illustrate the use of words as instruments for the expression of good thoughts in good language. The Editor is Mr. J. Compton, M.A., who is to be congratulated on the results of his labours. He has given us a set of Readers which embody sound principles and are certain to be of great value in school work.

B.

Physics.

1. SCHOOL CERTIFICATE MECHANICS AND HYDROSTATICS: by W. F. F. Shearcroft, B.Sc., and C. N. Lewis, B.Sc. (4s. 6d.)
2. SCHOOL CERTIFICATE HEAT: by C. N. Lewis, B.Sc. (4s. 6d.)
3. SCHOOL CERTIFICATE LIGHT: by W. H. Hewitt, B.A., B.Sc. (3s. 6d.)
4. SCHOOL CERTIFICATE MAGNETISM AND ELECTRICITY: by H. Toms, Ph.D., M.Sc. (5s.) (Pitman.)

"These up-to-date text-books have been specially written for candidates preparing for examinations of School Certificate standard. In most cases an elementary knowledge of the subject is assumed, but important principles and laws are briefly explained in order to make the books as complete as possible for reference and study." This is what the publishers tell us about this series of books on elementary physics. They also tell us that the books "are thoroughly modern in conception," but on looking through them individually we notice that, while they are absolutely efficient, they differ but little in detail and not at all in general from a large number of other text-books on the same subject. A pleasing feature of the series is the bold clarendon type which is used at the heading of each paragraph, thus making it easy to find one's way about the book. The diagrams are also plentiful and clear.

1. Turning to the books themselves, we notice that in the work on Mechanics and Hydrostatics the mathematics is purposely kept as simple as possible. This is sensible, and the authors have realised that they are writing a book on an experimental science

(Continued on page 158.)

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and not on applied mathematics. The experiment on Atkinson's "Vector-Trolley" described on page 53 is novel and interesting, and should work well. The second part of the book, on "Hydrostatics," is not so detailed as the rest; in fact, it might be described as "rather scrappy."

2. The book on Heat follows the usual syllabus, and has a leaning to the historical side of the subject. There are good accounts of a thermostat, vapour pressure experiments, and the hot water system of heating buildings, but otherwise the treatment is rather ordinary.

3. The series improves with Mr. Hewitt's work on Light. He starts off by giving us the old fallacious proof of the rectilinear propagation of light, but once past this obstacle he goes ahead unchecked. He wisely emphasises the difference between front-silvered and back-silvered mirrors, and explains how to correct the error introduced by the latter. The inclusion of the episcopes and epidiascopes in the chapter on optical instruments is timely and good, for these pieces of apparatus are now being increasingly used in lecture rooms and laboratories. This is definitely a book to be recommended, and we are looking forward to reading the author's companion volume on Sound, which is to be published shortly.

4. Dr. Toms has written a very full and interesting book on Magnetism and Electricity. He has been careful to stress the great importance of units, and his exposition should clarify his pupils' minds on this very important subject. The diagrams showing the magnetic field due to bar magnets in various positions are exceptionally clearly drawn, and the other diagrams and illustrations are also good. An experiment not usually included in a text-book of this nature is one which measures the effect of temperature on the magnetic moment of a magnet. It is interesting, and is quite within the range of School Certificate pupils.

The books in this series are well produced, and end papers giving various tables are provided in each volume. The standard is on the whole rather higher than that of the School Certificate examination, and in several cases the books would be sufficient for a pass in the Intermediate. R. S. M.

Hygiene.

HEALTH AND SOCIAL EVOLUTION (Halley Stewart Lectures): by Sir George Newman. (4s. 6d. Allen and Unwin.)

A good deal of this book is a brief history of England and of Europe from the point of view of health and what we now call sanitation. We begin in the Middle Ages, and we end with a statement of what the State cannot do. This, coming from a great public (State) servant, who has seen the

State medical services grow, and has helped in their growth, is very striking, and deserves to be quoted—though there is a marked danger to full truth in quoting it apart from the whole picture in which it has its setting. However, here it is. The State cannot choose a man's wife for him; fix the size of his family; create homes; teach manners; prescribe length of days; abolish disease or death. There are some obvious replies, especially to this last item. But here is the practical man, made aware by his work of his work's scope—and of its limits. There is another short list of great significance—"four characteristics of the past which are now disappearing"—and it is a very recent past:—Promiscuous spitting; chronic constipation; filthy teeth; no physical exercise. These, he says, are going, yet not so much because science has condemned them as because custom has frowned upon them.

Some of the measurable marks of progress, even during the last century, are likely to startle those to whom statistics are an unfamiliar bore. Thus, roughly in the 1840's to 1850's, the expectation of life at birth was about forty years (male) or forty-two (female). It is now about fifty-seven (male) or sixty (female). During the same period the death-rate from pulmonary diseases has diminished by 75 per cent.

Sir George is sparing of his statistics. His book is readable throughout, and whoever does not know the essential facts of its subject could hardly wish for a better introduction. R. J.

History.

THE SOCIAL AND POLITICAL IDEAS OF SOME REPRESENTATIVE THINKERS OF THE REVOLUTIONARY ERA: edited by Professor F. J. C. Hearnshaw, M.A., LL.D. (7s. 6d. Harrap.)

This is "the sixth of the series of King's College lectures on social and political ideas," several of which have been noticed in these columns. For this

(Continued on page 160.)

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volume the period covered is broadly the sixty years of the reign of George III. It is, in effect, an inquiry into what the "thinkers" of Right and of Left (chiefly of Left) wings were writing and printing when "Yorktown," "Plassey," "Ulm" became words of immediate significance.

Certainly two of the lecturers tell us that their branches of the subject are almost innocent of theories—Professor McElroy, on "The Theorists of the American Revolution," and Professor Laski, "The Socialist Tradition in the French Revolution"; but they give us a picture of the men and of the thought of the time and place, and that, after all, is what we and Professor Hearnshaw want.

Burke, Paine, Godwin, Bentham get a lecture each. (The Editor's "Burke" has an unintentional supporting foot-note in Professor Laski's lecture. Whether we admire Burke greatly, as do both of these professors, poles apart in their political views, or react from him, his forecast of what would happen, and did in fact happen, was a prophecy of the day, like Mr. Keynes's "Economic Consequences of the Peace" in our own time.)

The Early English Radicals, the Revolutionary Era in France (this by Professor Holland Rose), and the German Thinkers of the Revolutionary Era (rather short, this last) complete the volume.

The lecture on Godwin is wisely given, in the main, to "Political Justice"—the usual illuminating story of the three guineas served as a proper introduction—that Pitt, being urged to prosecute the author of "Political Justice" for sedition, remarked that a seditious book at three guineas a copy could not do any harm.

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Correction.

In the April Number, under Books of the Month, "Youth and Power," published by Messrs. Longmans, was described as being by C. R. Fry. This should read C. R. Fay, at present Reader in Economic History at the University of Cambridge, and late Professor of Economics at the University of Toronto.

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THE EDUCATION OUTLOOK

JUNE, 1931.

OUR UNIVERSITIES.

In the April issue of "The Universities Review," published on behalf of the Association of University Teachers, Professor R. C. McLean has an interesting article on the Future of Research in the Universities. His immediate purpose is to remind us that the gathering of knowledge is no less important than the instruction of students. He says that the university, as a society, came into existence with a view to enrichment of the mind. It owes in this respect a duty, not only to its members, but to all mankind. It must disseminate knowledge directly to the world at large, and also entrust knowledge to students who will carry it abroad as a leaven to society. Nobody will quarrel with the view that our universities should fulfil this double function, but Professor McLean is not satisfied that they are doing it. He says that not half-a-dozen teachers in all our universities are clear as to how their duty should stand towards (1) their students, (2) the subjects they profess, (3) their college, and (4) the public. There is no clear guide to action, and meanwhile the majority of university teachers are distracted by demands on their time and attention which they cannot meet without sacrificing some of their bigger aims.

There is much of truth in this. We do expect our university teachers to spend a lot of time in attending committees and in dealing with trivial questions of administration. Where the staff is small in number the demands are heaviest, and the wholesome practice of research may be displaced by tedious discussions on curricula and time-tables. Instead of having a joint effort of professors and students in search of knowledge we may have the mere purveying of facts for examination purposes, and our university will become nothing but a school or technical college. This state of things is already manifest, and Professor McLean reminds us that when research is wanted we are beginning to establish special institutes instead of calling on the universities for help. We have such places as the National Physical Laboratory and Research Stations for Agriculture. Following the war we had the high-sounding Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, based on the fond idea that commercial firms would forget the competition of the markets and unite in promoting research. The enterprise has languished and is already abandoned in some branches of industry. A wiser

course would have been to enlist the help of the universities at the outset, giving to them the funds which were mistakenly allocated to the new Department, and encouraging the firms concerned to cooperate.

The development of research in the universities will not satisfy all our needs. It is time for us to reconsider the position of these institutions afresh. Instead of allowing each of them to become a self-contained place, offering advanced instruction in every subject, we ought to aim at making each university adopt its own main line or lines. Thus there seems to be little need for a Department of Agriculture or of Forestry at Oxford, with Reading only a few miles away. The practice of migration should be developed, and students who have taken a general course in one place should move on to another for advanced instruction in their chosen subject. It is not easy to find teachers, especially in technological subjects, who are willing to exchange the financial rewards of commerce for the stipends of professors.

The honours degree business also needs attention. The Burnham Scales have led many young people to specialise in the hope of gaining a degree in honours which their intellectual background does not justify. Some local authorities will give grants to intending teachers only on condition that they read for an honours degree. Inasmuch as our universities will inevitably have to undertake the main part in preparing teachers, they should institute general courses with an honours class for candidates of exceptional merit. Courses for specialised degrees should be undertaken only by students whose preliminary training is adequate to preserve them from becoming specialists of the kind that justify Mr. Bernard Shaw's remark that "the specialist is, in the strict sense of the word, an idiot." It is no part of the true functions of a university to produce one-idea-ed men and women. In school teaching such people are out of place, since they find it difficult to believe in the educational value of any subject other than their own. Specialisation in universities should be linked up with the work of research, and this work should be aided by relieving university teachers of trivial tasks and by arranging a due balance between the work of teaching and the equally important work of discovery.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS.

FROM A CORRESPONDENT.

Progress of Registration.

At the Council held on Friday, May 15, it was announced that the number of applications during March and April was 725, bringing the total up to 83,439. Since the beginning of May there has been a great increase in this total, and already it is evident that before the end of the month the number of applications will exceed 85,000. The instalment scheme authorised by the Council is being taken up by a very large number of young teachers, and to meet the convenience of those who will be leaving training colleges in July, it has been decided to defer the raising of fee until the end of September. Announcements concerning this will be made later.

The aim of the Council is to have a Register of at least 100,000 names by the end of the present year. With this support it will be possible to go forward towards the development of the Council's policy of reserving for Registered Teachers all posts which involve the professional supervision of the work of other teachers. This policy has found widespread support, and it can be carried out as soon as teachers themselves have shown that they desire it by becoming registered.

The Instalment Scheme.

It may be useful to describe briefly the procedure in connection with the instalment scheme. Instalments are paid either directly to the Council's offices or through an authorised collector. In each case the applicant is provided with an instalment card on which are set down the amounts paid from time to time, these being acknowledged by the signature of either the authorised collector or, in the case of direct payments, by the Council. With the first instalment, or even before sending it, the applicant is advised to complete the form of application and send it to the Council, either directly or through the collector, in order that it may be examined for the purpose of seeing whether the applicant can be accepted when the instalments are completed. Those who cannot be accepted are informed and thus saved from the annoyance of paying instalments, only to learn at a later stage that they cannot be registered. Authorised collectors are supplied with a record sheet, on which they can keep an account of the money received, and they are asked to send remittances to the offices of the Council at convenient intervals of about one month. The scheme is working smoothly, and it will probably become a permanent part of the machinery of the Council.

The Married Woman Teacher.

Certain Local Education Authorities, including London, have made a rule that women teachers must resign their posts on marriage. It is found that this rule is a serious obstacle to Registration, since the younger women teachers working under these authorities are able to point out that there is little reason for them to join a profession when they may be compelled to resign their posts if they marry. The Council has passed a resolution in the following terms:—"That, in the opinion of the Royal Society of Teachers, it is undesirable on educational and professional grounds that marriage should be regarded as a barrier to teaching."

It will be noted that in this resolution it is implied that marriage in itself should not be regarded as involving professional inefficiency. From the reports of the discussions held at meetings of various Local Authorities it may be surmised that professional efficiency has not entered into the question. It is more likely that the decision to dispense with the services of married women is based on the notion that anybody who can be supported without working ought not to compete for posts with those who need salaries or wages. This view is widely held, but it is economically unsound, since everybody should work who can do so. Moreover, the rule is apparently not applied to charwomen and others who work in subordinate grades, even in the offices of Local Education Authorities.

The Annual Communication.

It will be remembered that with the formation of the Royal Society of Teachers it was decided that an annual communication should be issued, giving an account of the work of the Council. Last year many communications were returned, because those for whom they were intended had not informed the Council of their change of address. It is hoped that this year's communication—which will be issued early in June, if not before—will serve as a reminder that all changes of address and of post should be entered on the Council's records without delay. It will be a very great help if members will observe this request in future. Occasionally it is found that members are complaining that they know nothing of what the Council is doing. Quite recently one declared that she had no communication from the Council for several years. On inquiry it turned out that she had changed her school, and that the name of the new school had been changed, but she had not troubled to inform the Council. Communications sent to her previous address had been returned through the post office with the discouraging mark "Gone away."

THE MONTH'S CAUSERIE.

By THE DOMINIE.

Salaries.

There seems to be an impression abroad that teachers must be ready to accept a further reduction in salaries. It is an impression which is shared by teachers themselves to some extent, especially by those who shrink from the prospect of noisy and acrimonious discussions on questions of money. Yet such unpleasantness must be faced if it is seriously proposed to reduce salaries to anything like the equivalents of those paid before the Burnham Scales were adopted. The question goes beyond the private inclinations of any teacher and touches the welfare of education. For too long we were content to find recruits where we could, paying little attention to quality and fitness. Boys and girls were induced to take up teaching in elementary schools by the attraction of grants in aid of training, and in our Council secondary schools we expected graduates to be content with the wages of a skilled mechanic. The Burnham Scales were adopted, not as a cost-of-living device, but as a means of improving education by raising teaching from the level of a sweated occupation. We were expressly told that the scales had been devised without regard to the living costs then prevailing. It will be most unfair to make these costs to-day a pretext for reducing salaries.

Trades Union or Profession?

There are few among us who desire that discussions on salaries should follow the model of disputes between organised bodies of trades unionists and employers. Behind these disputes there is always the possibility of a strike or a lock-out. Such interruptions of work are silly and generally harmful to both sides, but they affect chiefly the people concerned, although the outside public may suffer inconvenience as well. The machinery is left idle for a time, but it may be started again when the dispute is over. We cannot interrupt the schooling of children and start again as if nothing had happened. In some measure this would resemble the conduct of a doctor who interrupted his treatment of a patient, or suspended an operation, to engage in a strike over fees. We must act professionally and avoid the cruder methods of trades unionism. The difficulty is that some members of Local Authorities and even some of their officials will persist in treating teachers as mere hirelings whose claims to decent remuneration must be met with the kind of rejoinder which is common in our industrial life. It is not easy to carry on civil negotiations if one side is taking advantage of the decent restraint exercised by the other.

The Term "Teacher."

Unfortunately there is no clear idea in the public mind as to the real meaning of the word "teacher." It is commonly assumed that anybody is a teacher who attempts to give instruction. Unlike the professions properly so-called, the work of teaching is not yet associated in the minds of the public with definite standards of qualification. This makes it difficult to persuade the rate-payer that teachers should be paid at professional rates, and be treated as professional men and women. The difficulty will remain until teachers have bestirred themselves and made full use of the Register as a means of securing professional recognition. Many sectional differences will have to be wiped out, and instead of merely talking about the unification of the teaching profession we must take steps to make it a reality. As things are we may find the most absurd manifestations of class consciousness among teachers. The public school looks down on the grammar school, the grammar school feels superior to the secondary school, and all three like to feel far removed from the public elementary school. The last-named has the retort of greater numbers, and makes claim to superior teaching technique. In a real profession these artificial differences would yield to a general regard for efficiency, wherever exercised.

An Educational Question.

It should be clear to everybody that the remuneration and conditions of work associated with teaching are of vital moment. It is easy to say, as some critics do, that teachers are making selfish demands. The plain truth is that, unless these demands are fairly considered, we shall not be able to ensure a supply of recruits adequate in number and in quality to the needs of our national system of education. Experience shows this, for even in our public elementary schools we were driven to employ many thousands of teachers whose examination qualifications were either negligible or below the level of a university matriculation. It is idle to say that these people are found to be satisfactory. Such a statement condemns our own standards and shows that we still regard schools as places to be run cheaply, even where essentials are concerned. The main essential to good schooling is a supply of men and women whose minds have been disciplined by study and whose professional skill has been fostered by a well-ordered course of training in teaching. The necessary preparation takes time and costs money, and this should be recognised in the salaries offered. Failing this, we shall find that young people will not become qualified teachers.

The Schools and War.

Some little time ago the Austrian educationist, Anton Tesarek, wrote an interesting article for *The New World*, affirming that the war spirit is still being kept alive in the schools of Europe. He says that in his own country the Minister of War has arranged the preparation of a film showing soldiers at drill and in sham fights. In a well known kindergarten at Budapest the children have a scheme of organised play as soldiers. We are told that "there is no question of spontaneous play of the little ones. In the kindergarten they have printed rules for the military exercises. The children have soldiers' caps and toy guns. One child is 'officer,' others are called 'recruits.' The officer commands: 'Report.' The recruit answers: 'Yes, sir, my name is . . .' While answering, the children put their hands saluting to the brims of their caps, and then there begins a merry shooting with toy guns." This picture of toddlers earnestly preparing to order themselves obediently and reverently before sergeant-majors and captains would be comic if it did not reveal the persistence of the war-mind in high quarters. We in England offer a similar tableau, but our own military pantomime begins a few years later than the kindergarten stage. A sound physical training and a better understanding of international affairs might well replace this playing at war.

What Teachers Read.

Do English teachers read educational periodicals? As far as I can learn, they read chiefly such as contain advertisements of vacant posts or supply material for lessons in the classroom. I have heard an eminent head master, speaking at the annual dinner of his association, win ready laughter by declaring that, when he was feeling unusually strong and well, he sometimes tried to read a well known educational newspaper which he named. A company of doctors would hardly have smiled if a leader of their profession had said that he sometimes tried to read one of their medical journals, such as *The Lancet*. It may be pleaded that educational writings are generally dull, and this is possibly true in regard to people who are not interested in education. Technical journals are likely to be dull to the layman. The trouble is that so many teachers take a sort of pride in being amateurs. They are rightly impressed by the importance of personality in the teacher, but they are prone to forget that this attribute is not enough. A teacher should be keenly interested in the technique of his calling and alert to discover what others are doing. Then he will find something of interest even in the most dull periodical. In some American training colleges the students are required to read educational journals and prepare summaries of articles.

The Carnegie Trust.

I have been reading the Annual Report of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, which appears in a handsome volume of over one hundred pages. The range of activities described is a wide one, covering libraries, playing fields, play centres, women's institutes, and various other forms of pioneer work designed to foster intellectual and social advancement. On playing fields alone the Trust has made a grant of £200,000 spread over four years, and of this sum £108,000 has already been expended on 356 schemes, involving an area of about 5,000 acres. A college for men teachers of physical training at Leeds University receives a grant of £30,000, and the Sadlers Wells Theatre has been greatly helped. Equally important is the aid given to village drama and to rural community centres.

The maps given in the Report show that the south and west of England have not yet taken much advantage of the Fund to provide local libraries, and in the west there are comparatively few play centres connected with the Trust. This is to be regretted, because the Fund may be usefully expended in promoting social life in the villages. The Trustees are to be congratulated on a splendid year's work, carried through with wise discretion and designed to encourage self-help instead of replacing it by mere bounties.

The "Chief Factor."

I have frequently been assured that dogmatic religious instruction with attendance at Church on Holy Days are indispensable to education. A friend, who is a teacher of handicraft, receiving at his Manual Training Centre boys from several different schools, recently found one boy from a Church school present before the appointed time. The following dialogue took place:—

Handicraft Teacher.—"You are early this morning, Fred. Have you been to Church?"

Fred.—"Yes, sir! We got out before ten o'clock."

H. T..—"Why did you go to Church?"

F..—"It is one of the Church days, sir."

H. T..—"Which one?"

F..—"I don't know, sir!"

H. T..—"Don't you know that to-day is Ascension Day?"

F..—"No, sir."

H. T..—"Do you know what I mean by Ascension Day?"

F..—"No, sir."

This authentic report of Fred's knowledge makes me somewhat doubtful as to the educational value of the dogmatic religious teaching which he has received.

A NEW SPECIAL SCHOOL.

BY DAVID THOMSON.

The form room which from time to time glows with a moment of illumination justifies its master in claiming kinship with the creative artist. Such a form teacher may therefore be pardoned if he betrays some irritation before the cackler who quotes at him: "Those who can, do; those who can't, teach." For the cackler is unaware that Shaw is right in saying simply that those who "can't, can't"; that is that they are "barren rascals," but that those who can, teach.

But this moment of release, this creative intimation which the artist knows, and which we by contact with his work may know, too—does it occur in the form room as often as it might? There is much in every school, we are aware, that darkens the windows against its approach—the uninterrupted pace of work and games that leaves no room for what Mr. Graham Wallas calls "the stage of incubation"; the mere machinery of control; "fixed desks, forced will, head master absolute." But it must be clear that if it does not occur, then one of our greatest purposes as teachers is not being realised. And that purpose surely is that those of highest potential quality among our pupils should be given a burning love for creative work: that the schools should be awakening those whose thoughts could enrich the blood of the world.

The greatest danger that besets a modern democracy, based on an appearance of political equality, and using with more or less intelligence the machinery of applied science for nearly all its purposes, is the danger of mediocrity, of being made up of great masses of people to whom a real or fine purpose seldom comes. The child then who might pass out into the exhilarating life of creative work must not be lost for that life by dullness in the school.

It is not to be guilty of any kind of intellectual snobbery or undemocratic bias to urge that we must be at the greatest pains to see that the right conditions, as far as we can assure them, are provided for the best minds among our school population. And the right conditions, it is the aim of this article to plead, can only be provided in a special school.

The special school as we know it so far, however, has been created particularly for the sub-normal, never for the super-normal child. A developing humanitarianism, a more advanced medical science,

less empirical educational methods, to say nothing of the mere administrative insistence upon school attendance by all children till the age of fourteen, have given us a very considerable number of special schools; schools, for example, for the mentally retarded or deficient, for the crippled, for the blind, for the tubercular, and so on. The needs of such sub-normal children lie upon the public conscience, and I have known few who would protest against the public expense implied in the special organisation, equipment, and the staffing of these schools.

Is it idle then to suggest that there are reasons as valid for the special provision of special schools for the super-normal? The present selective secondary and central school would not become a dull place by the withdrawal of these children, for they would contain still by their selective methods a good level of ability in their pupils. The existing schools indeed might gain much for their own craft and method by the experience of the new school suggested.

As long ago as 1927 the creation of such schools was proposed, with point, force, and a high sense of urgency, by Mr. Graham Wallas in his "The Art of Thought." The only justification for repeating what has already been set in a great framework by Mr. Wallas is the sense of the need as it is to be seen daily in the work of the schools, especially the schools that are concerned with the education of the adolescent.

And what would this special school be like? Mr. Wallas's picture is interesting because it approaches so nearly to what many of us desire for the schools we know. (Are we therefore wrong in that desire?)

"Those who provided buildings and organisation would aim at giving the school itself an individuality which could be loved and could stimulate. The clever sensitive boys and girls who came to the school, either as boarders or as day students, from dull homes, might find there something answering to their vague yearning for beauty and significance in life. It might be placed in or around an abandoned seventeenth-century house, which the suburbs of a manufacturing town had enclosed; or a public-spirited architect might welcome an opportunity of showing that a modern building could be beautiful without being too expensive. Some artists might be glad to send copies of their best prints, and some authors their best books, to a place where they might help their future fellow craftsmen. When the school was twenty years old the students would begin to be aware of the achievements of their own predecessors. Care would be taken to preserve specimens of the schoolwork of those students who

seemed likely to 'make good' by later service to the community, so that when some former student died, after a life's work as writer or administrator, or scientist or teacher, the students could see in the school library his early exercises, and the teachers could realise that some of their own students, though younger, might be abler and more important than themselves" (pages 299-300, "Art of Thought").

It seems clear then that, in the internal organisation of such a school, there must be the greatest freedom with the wisest discipline. Freedom to create is the right of the man born to create highly, as indeed it is the right of every man who is to fulfil himself. Perhaps a generation of such schools, few as they must inevitably be, might give us a democracy a little more like that which Pericles describes in the great Funeral Speech: "And our public opinion welcomes and honours talent in every branch of achievement, not for any sectional reason, but on grounds of excellence alone"; or again: "Ours is no work-a-day city only. No other provides so many recreations for the spirit, contests and sacrifices all the year round, and beauty in our public buildings to cheer the heart and delight the eye day by day." The freedom will be rooted in the recognition of the special aptitude of the individual pupil. The aptitude discovered must be served, not alone for the pupil's growth, but for the enrichment of the community into which he will ultimately go. In serving it, the school and schoolmaster must not insist unremittingly upon the stages of thought that Mr. Wallas has called Preparation, Illumination, and Verification, but must remember always that Incubation, "the wise passiveness" which yields the valuable illumination, may to the outward eye seem but a wanton idleness. Freedom means freedom to leave the special hour for an hour, for a day, for a week, or even a term, either that intimations may be born or that the whole man may be served. The aim is to send forth the individual pupil capable of fulfilling the unusual quality which has—perhaps by Intelligence Tests—been discovered in him, at once a good specialist and a good amateur. "What we should aim at producing," says Professor Whitehead, "is men who possess both culture and expert knowledge in some special direction. This expert knowledge will give them the ground to start from, and their culture will lead them as deep as philosophy and as high as art" ("The Aims of Education," page 1).

The teacher, therefore, in this special school must be no sentimentalist, but must be aware always of the delicacy and the toughness of the material which it is his privilege to guide. And to guide wisely is not to adhere immovably to a fixed time-table, or to a fixed idea of purposes. "We have to remember," says Professor Whitehead in a sentence that

reinforces the need for freedom in the school; "we have to remember that the valuable intellectual development is self-development," although in remembering it we must not sentimentally admit the many time-wasting methods which have here and there been justified on the ground that the child must make his own discoveries.

And the wisest discipline? In the special school for the super-normal child, at least at the adolescent and post-adolescent stages, the wisest discipline will be the discipline the special interest imposes. The student's time-table "would be the under-pattern of the carpet, and might be allowed to look untidy, if the intellectual life, which was the upper pattern, were well harmonised. The advantage of regular habits during the student years is great; but the optimum point at which the curve of that advantage cuts the curve of the advantage of fresh initiative is different for those whose professional work will be intellectual origination, and for those of different powers and aims" ("Art of Thought," page 297). The discipline to be sought is the kind that yields at last that "most austere of all mental qualities . . . the sense for style," which Professor Whitehead defines as "the ultimate morality of mind."

By the establishment of such schools there would be raised, it is obvious, big but extremely interesting problems. How, for example, should the governing bodies be composed? How should the schools be staffed? Would creative ability in a candidate for a post on the staff be regarded as a higher qualification than proved teaching ability? What would be the relation of such schools to those already existing? Should they be created, and through the governing bodies in part controlled, by the great publicly-elected Councils, or by the initiative of some high-minded man or group of men of wealth? Would grounds of internal convenience and efficiency of organisation—or maybe, too, grounds of public expense—lead to compulsory attendance for a fixed number of years, or would the priceless importance of freedom in such schools mean a voluntary system? Since the super-normal, it may be assumed, will be found in every class of society, what difficulties of social and family prejudice would arise and how could they be met? Would such difficulties lead to the adoption of a boarding or of a day school system? Above all, what kind of public attitude to such schools would be likely to develop? Would there be any expectation, and would it be justified, that out of these schools would come men trained for public leadership?

"We differ from other States," said Pericles, "in regarding the man who holds aloof from public life not as 'quiet' but as useless." What would the men trained in the new special schools think of that attitude?

EDUCATION IN 1930.

With commendable promptitude the Board of Education have issued the annual volume containing the account of their work and the statistical tables relating thereto. The volume costs 3s. 6d. net, and may be obtained through the Stationery Office under the title "Education in 1930."

The chief feature of the Report is the evidence which it furnishes to show that, although legislation may linger, administration is going forward.

The first chapter of this latest Report shows that great progress has been made in providing more and better accommodation for pupils of the senior school age. This progress goes on in spite of the rejection of the Education Bill, and there can be little doubt that many parents will be willing to keep their children at school till the age of fifteen as soon as they understand the new arrangements. The Report shows an increase in the number of secondary schools and in the number of students attending technical schools.

We are told that the Board's estimates for 1930-31 amounted to £45,495,653, showing an increase of £3,809,754 on those for 1929-30. This increase is partly due to the development of the education services and the automatic growth of expenditure on teachers' pensions, while the sum of £1,686,000 is set down as due to changes brought about by the Local Government Act of 1929, which led to a reduction in the product of the sevenpenny rate—one of the elements in the grant formula.

Elementary Schools.

In the section on elementary education the most gratifying news concerns the growing care for the physical welfare of children. During the year there were 206 schools removed from the "Black List," and we are told that plans have been approved for the removal of a further 223 schools. The original total of these unsatisfactory buildings was 2,827, and of these 1,168 have been either closed or renovated. Playing fields—as distinct from playgrounds—are being provided, either for separate schools or for groups of schools, over 117 sites being approved between March, 1929, and December, 1930. The number of classes with over 50 pupils on the register fell from 10,883 on March 31, 1929, to 10,017 on March 31, 1930. On the latter date there were only 306 classes of senior pupils (over 11) with more than 50 pupils, as compared with 514 such classes in 1929. All these improvements are noteworthy as showing that the administrative machinery is working towards results which are possible without special legislation. Perhaps this is the best route to follow, and the Board are to be congratulated on their achievements.

Secondary Schools.

The number of secondary schools continues to increase, and in March, 1930, it was 1,354 as compared with 1,341 a year earlier. The number of pupils was 394,105 (207,462 boys and 186,643 girls), as compared with 386,993 in 1929. Nearly three-quarters of the pupils admitted to secondary schools for the first time during 1929-30 had come direct from public elementary schools, and of these over 60 per cent. were "free placers." The Board also recognise 356 non-grant-aided secondary schools and 194 preparatory schools.

In the grant-aided schools there are 20,338 children under ten and 66,346 over sixteen. These figures are especially interesting when it is remembered that they refer to secondary schools. During 1929-30 these schools admitted 8,289 pupils under nine, 5,439 under ten, and 10,740 under eleven years of age. It is surprising to find that over 5,000 were admitted as free pupils below the age of eleven. Clearly we need some definition of the term "secondary education." Such a definition will perhaps take note of staffing. Our secondary schools have 21,165 full-time teachers, of whom 5,497 are non-graduates and 9,646 are not trained. Of the head teachers 855 out of 1,254 have had no professional training. Yet such training is usually regarded as indispensable for head teachers of public elementary schools, and it is difficult to understand why we should depend on amateurs at the later stage, even if these amateurs are "born teachers" in their own esteem.

Higher Education.

Chapter III of the Report gives some interesting particulars concerning the development of what is called Further Education. The schools and classes coming under this head and recognised by the Board were attended by 27,479 full-time and 941,244 part-time students. The numbers show that the increase during recent years is being maintained, and we are told also that there is a gratifying improvement in regularity and punctuality of attendance. In many areas the work of evening institutes is developing. Taking two examples of widely differing districts we find that in Coniston, with its population of 900 inhabitants, no fewer than 138 are attending the Institute, while in London the City Literary Institute enrolled 5,600 students last year.

NOS LYCEENS: by Marc Ceppi. (1s. Bell.)

We are pleased to welcome another of Bell's Junior French Readers, reprinted from "La France." Those who know "Ted Bopp" will need no encouragement to sample these further thirteen stories of the same type.

A. B. G.

EXIT OR DISSOLUTION ?

We are told that the Burnham Committees have risen from their chairs and departed. We may regret this, but we need not jump to the hasty conclusion that there is no possibility of reunion. In the theatre it oftens happens that "well-graced actors" make an exit, but their leaving the stage does not mean that the curtain must be finally lowered. Until the end of the last act there is always the likelihood of their returning. The metaphor had better stop there lest we should begin to wonder whether the Burnham Committees are presenting tragedy, comedy, or mere farce. If there is such a dramatic form as farcical tragedy they have come near to giving it. When two parties enter upon negotiations it is indeed something of a farce for one to begin by demanding that the other shall accept outright and without discussion a principle which forms the main topic of their projected debate.

The representatives of Local Education Authorities played a somewhat unworthy part when they demanded at the outset that the Teachers' Panel should agree that the total outlay on salaries must be reduced. In our industrial disputes we are only too familiar with the difficulties which arise when masters or men lead off by saying that they will not negotiate unless certain points are conceded by the other side.

The Burnham Committees are not the sort of people who ought to take this line. The Local Education Authorities and the teachers alike are there to consider how education may best be advanced. That they should have regard to public finance is obvious, but it must be remembered that more than one-half of the expenditure on teachers' salaries is borne by the State, and that the Board of Education has no integral representation on the Committees. It would have been more seemly if the Local Education Authorities had refrained from playing the part of employers bent on beating down wages. They should have entered on the discussion as representatives of the public, ready to hear the other side. Even if the discussion had been fruitless, the time spent would not have been wasted. The anomalies of the existing scales might have been examined and an effort made to remove them. Urbane discussions carried on with this end in view would have led to a better understanding, and it is possible that ways might have been found by which the salaries bill, as it affects the Local Education Authorities, could have been reduced.

Nothing will be gained if the Local Education Authorities abandon the practice of united discussion. The Burnham Committees must make a fresh entrance to the stage, and play their parts with no less grace than vigour.

HOW I TAUGHT MYSELF SPANISH.

BY A FRENCH COACH.

Doctors frequently experiment upon themselves. Why should not teachers do the same ?

I am by profession a French coach, able to speak and write the language fluently. Six months ago I decided to learn Spanish, partly for the love of it, partly in order to be able to read Spanish literature, which is rapidly coming to the fore, and partly because the knowledge of a language may at any time prove of great value. Being in London at the time, I bought second-hand a commercial grammar book, a dictionary, a Spanish reader, and a novel—Ibanez "Los Quatro Jinetes del Apocalypsis"—the latter as a spur and reward for my efforts. Gramophone records were out of the question, but by means of the phonetic key I quickly picked up the rudiments of pronunciation. I have always read everything through to myself in Spanish, only consciously translating when I did not know what I was reading about. To-day I am told that my pronunciation is good.

As to the best method of acquiring the language, I determined to disregard all professional theories and to experiment. At first I translated sentences from the grammar book, religiously writing down and learning all new words. I also learnt some of the most necessary verbs. This made a good background, but was rather tiring. Then I thought I would see what progress I made by reading Spanish only, looking up the words, but making no effort to memorise them. I found that, although I soon read easily, I could not write or speak. To cure this I reverted to the very old system of making a translation of the Spanish, and then retranslating this into Spanish again. By comparing my version with the original I learnt a great deal about the order of words, and about the difference between English-in-Spanish and the real language.

Lately I have been reading newspapers, and I believe that ultimately they teach more than any book. I have no dictionary which would have told me the Spanish for a talkie. From the context of cinema advertisements I gathered at once that it was *una sonora*. I also make a point of reading any French or German newspapers I can get hold of, as I find them invaluable in keeping my knowledge of the language practical and up to date.

It is quite probable that learned pedagogues will be horrified by my methods. I do not say that I would use them were I teaching a child, but I maintain that they were successful in my own case because they kept alive my interest and sweetened the only disagreeable aspect of a foreign language—the hard slogging and concentration, a pill which modern methods may gild, but cannot dispense with.

WHAT WE CAN LEARN FROM GERMANY.

BY MARGARET HASTINGS.

In the educational world Germany is perhaps the most advanced of all European nations.

Intensive study, long hours of work with but little playtime, and a minimum of leisure, would ill accord with British ideas.

It is rather the attitude of mind than the actual method that may teach us a valuable lesson.

Take, for example, their attitude to the acquiring of foreign languages.

In England we study foreign languages, but even with improved methods of instruction and excellent teachers, how few Britishers have a good working knowledge of even one foreign tongue.

We often hear it said, "Oh, English people are no good at foreign languages!"

This is not so; the children of English parents, resident in France and Germany, very frequently speak the foreign language perfectly and without any trace of English accent.

In England the teaching of foreign languages has been completely revolutionised during the past ten or fifteen years.

In the early stages the study is made a game to delight and attract the child, and to encourage him to take an interest in it.

So far so good, but when it ceases to be a game, there is the very definite tendency to lose interest, to vote it a bore, and to do the minimum of work.

If opportunities for conversation are provided in our schools, as a rule the pupils profit but little by them, either from timidity and from fear of appearing ridiculous, or from laziness.

When German people, children and grown-ups alike, set themselves to learn a language, they do it whole-heartedly. They never miss an opportunity for conversation. They make use of the teacher or the chance traveller, as the case may be. They talk, making mistakes undoubtedly, but they talk, nevertheless; in this way they gain confidence and fluency in the use of the foreign tongue.

A short time ago I asked a German girl how she occupied herself during her periods of recreation.

"Do you play games?" I asked her.

"Not much," was her reply.

"What do you do then?" I insisted.

"Oh, we walk and we talk!" she said.

"What are your subjects of conversation?"

"Well, you see, our lessons are so interesting; we discuss them, and when we have learnt new words in French and English, we use them; we talk your English, you know," she repeated.

The putting into practice and making use of the lessons learnt in school is a point in which we should do well to emulate the Germans. Too frequently it is said that what we teach in school is of no practical use to the pupil.

As a nation we work at what pleases us! What pleases us is not necessarily the subject that we can do most easily.

Classics and mathematics, both considered difficult subjects, are studied much more assiduously than modern languages.

This is avoided in Germany by the fact that there are definite schools in which the study of foreign languages plays the most important part in the curriculum, and *vice versa*. The *Realgymnasium* specialises in languages and science, the *Gymnasium* in classics.

Specialisation does not, however, come until middle school age, when the pupil has shown a decided bent in one direction.

Every pupil must spend at least three years at the *Grundschule* or elementary school; four years is the usual period, but in the case of exceptionally bright children the course may be covered in three years. The pupils pass from the *Grundschule* to the *Gymnasium* (for boys) or *Hochschule* (for girls).

How do they teach foreign languages in Germany? Their books are dull in the extreme—heavy print and few, if any, illustrations; yet, in spite of this, the pupils study and make definite progress.

They make use also, to a certain extent, of their love of music, and what is learnt in song remains with one.

Perseverance, however, is the main thing. About six weeks ago a young German girl of eighteen arrived in this country. She came from a small school in a small town. She had studied English for three years; on arrival she spoke but little, although she understood most of what was said to her. Her written work was distinctly good.

The very first day she arrived she produced a small note-book and pencil. Every word she heard or read that she did not already know she noted down and learnt. She was most assiduous in her attendance at church and lectures of every kind, asking questions of all and sundry. Now she speaks amazingly well, using idioms freely and making very few mistakes. She had had a thorough grounding in grammar, and had learnt much by heart; this she has been able to put into practice as opportunity offers.

Can we stimulate and encourage our pupils of the middle school to persevere and conquer foreign languages?

A SCHOOL IN EGYPT.

BY JOCELYN BLUNT.

If people who go to Geneva to study the work of the League of Nations would come here instead, I could show them a League in miniature. For I live in an international city and teach in a big girls' school which takes pupils of any and every race. Amongst our two hundred children there are represented thirty-two different countries, ranging from Russia to Morocco. The school, however, is run on English lines and by English teachers, and all lessons are given in English.

In this work we have to readjust many of our ideas of the schoolgirl. The most startling revelation was my discovering that most of the girls were ambitious and prepared to work exceedingly hard. If, for any reason, they had to miss a homework they were most annoyed. They were prepared to learn notes by heart and copy out, in their spare time, any for which they had been absent. It was baffling at first, but pleasant when I got used to the phenomenon.

Next I discovered that they completely lack the phlegmatic boredom of the English schoolgirl, being excitable, enthusiastic, and sentimental. They talk continuously throughout a class, but mostly about the lesson. By the time I have quieted a particularly turbulent Vartanoush and Nevart I discover that they were only discussing (in Armenian) a knotty point I have not made clear, while Hellé, Iphegénie, Victoria, and Germaine were settling the same problem in Greek and French.

They have a tendency to clasp their hands and ejaculate sentimental comments throughout history or literature lessons. Once I told the story of Kate Douglas and James I to a fifteen-year-old audience, who listened entranced. At the end a pretty little Spaniard raised a pair of soft dark eyes to me and said, "Oh, madam, she loved too much!" and nothing I could say would persuade the class that Kate had been anything else but desperately in love with the King. They could not grasp the ideal of loyalty for its own sake.

At first I thought it would be difficult to teach history—especially modern history—in such an international community. I feared that some of my remarks would cause ardent young patriots to rise up in righteous indignation and defend their native lands. But I have rarely found any such national feeling, and if I ever happen to say anything against any country, its representatives usually agree most cordially. Occasionally when teaching modern

European history in the sixth form I have felt the atmosphere becoming tense and electric, but on the whole the girls do not know the meaning of the word "patriotism."

They all unite, however, in a most touching admiration and affection for England and everything English. They frequently try to Anglicise their names, and Marie, Hélène, and Cécile become Mary, Helen, and Cecily. The few (mostly Maltese) who claim British nationality are regarded with envy and respect, and the worst thing that can be said to a troublesome child is "They don't do that kind of thing in an English school."

Their English, of course, is a constant joy. They pick up stilted, old-fashioned phrases and use them in strange connections. I remember a Syrian girl studying her marks for geometry one day. They had gone in some such sequence as two, three, five, and six out of ten, so she clasped her hands ecstatically and exclaimed: "Oh, madam, how I do progress!" During a drawing lesson Aida dropped her india-rubber, which bounced some little way along the floor. She apologised and added: "But, madam, my india-rubber, he is very gymnastic; he is a good high-jumper." They can never differentiate between the sort of language suitable for an essay and colloquial, everyday English. I was once informed—in writing—that the Puritan authors were "full of pride and sin and humility, and all that sort of stuff."

Of course, dealing with these children is difficult in many ways. They have little or no sense of honour, and will lie and cheat and tell tales in a way that would be unknown in English schools. But most of them have never been taught to look at such things from our point of view, and they are very amenable and anxious to improve.

Once I punished nearly a whole form for cheating, and spoke to them as severely as I knew how. They took their punishment well and seemed distressed, but, at the same time, they could not see why I was annoyed. At the end someone said, pathetically, "Are you very angry with us, madam?" and I suddenly realised that they had not understood. So I tried, more gently, to explain why it was wrong, and at last they began to see what I meant. They became genuinely sorry, and promised "that it would not occur again; it was a pure accident." And as one sees these "accidents" becoming fewer and fewer, as one finds girls taking a scolding without becoming sulky or hysterical, cheering the opposite side after a match, speaking the truth "to their own hindrance," one feels that our school is justifying its existence.

HISTORY IN THE SENIOR SCHOOL.

By T. W. SUSSAMS, M.A., Saltley College.

The reorganisation that, despite politicians, is slowly reshaping the educational system of England, is bringing many problems in its train. Not the least of these concerns the organisation of curricula in the new senior school.* Its pupils are distinguished from their contemporaries in grammar schools, modern schools, and junior technical schools by certain well-marked characteristics, the consideration of which must form the starting point of any scheme of education designed to meet their needs.

Generally speaking they are natively less well endowed than their scholarship-earning brothers and sisters. But often individuals show some specific aptitude which, properly exercised, would prove educationally fruitful. As a whole they are not bookish. Their pens labour, words come grudgingly, the formal essay is for them a most unnatural mode of self-expression. Subtly worded descriptions, whether read or heard, add to the tedium rather than the interest of a lesson. Consequently the conventional oral lesson, dependent so much on the questioning technique and narrative skill of the teacher, finds a much diminished place in the senior school. Mental activity is often the concomitant and sometimes the resultant of manual activity. Ideas are gleaned not from the printed page, but from manipulative skill employed in some worth-while project. If the task makes no direct and strong appeal to an instinctive urge of the pupil's, its worthwhileness is judged by its immediate practicality on narrowly utilitarian grounds. Drudgery is only undertaken when its object is clearly visualised and not far distant.

Such basic considerations, only emphasised the higher we go up the school, make the task of teaching history to school leavers doubly difficult. The values of history are elusive. We are convinced of the utility of a time sense and an attitude of critical reverence towards the legacy of the past. But these intellectual gifts are implicit in daily conduct, and not explicitly measurable and demonstrably money-earning like the ability to type neatly or make ledger entries. The gifts of the spirit command no market value, but their absence makes both individual and national life the poorer. Because of their essential nature, the ultimate aims of the teaching of history can only be appreciated by an adult mind. Any attempt to answer a child's "What's the use of it all?" must be couched in

language unintelligible to children. Indeed, the question ought never to arise, for such inquiries made by candid children can only be regarded as symptomatic of flagging interest.

One sure way of provoking doubts as to the value of history is to repeat in a more pretentious fashion the history that has been discussed in previous forms. Children will be able to recall, when prompted, a sufficiently hazy impression of the facts to identify the story, to anticipate its climaxes and spoil its drama. Sunday's joint on Monday's table needs a pungent relish to make it palatable. Another straight road to disaster in teaching history to the children under consideration is to rely exclusively on book reading and note-taking as a method of approach. The problem to be faced is dual. Granted children of this particular type in the last year of their school career, what is to guide our selection of material, and how are we to treat the selected material so that those values, which normally result from the study of history, may be realised by children deprived of the normal means of floating off such values through literary agencies? How are we to awaken in children a sense of wonder at the present, and convince them of the oneness of past, present, and future?

Some teachers have solved the problem in a drastic fashion. They have attempted to give their courses a practical twist by jettisoning formal history and introducing "civics" into the curriculum of the final year. Under this thin disguise a motley gathering of subjects has crept into the time-table. "Civics" may be anything from local history and social hygiene to political economy, elementary ethics, and the story of the post office. Children are interested, but not primarily by the subject. They find the appeal of "civics" in the methods by which it is taught. The post office is there to be visited, local bye-laws and town councils are often majestically portrayed in the person of the policeman. "Civics" is liked because it is real and tangible and not on its intrinsic merits as a subject. Moreover, the rightness of spending part of the last valuable year in school on topics that must impress themselves forcibly during the first year out of school must be questioned. In the time devoted to "civics" some stirring episode in the history of mankind might have been studied, and some of its glamour and romance might have kindled the minds of the young adolescents being fed on the drab ordinariness of town planning and municipal banking.

The particular topic chosen for treatment matters very little so long as the teacher is personally enthusiastic and so long as the range of time covered

* The term is used throughout this article to mean a non-selective, post-primary school as distinct from the selective modern and grammar schools.

is large enough to give scope to the development of a time sense through continued travel in time. Some topics that suggest themselves as suitable are: The rise and fall of Greece, the coming of Christianity to the West, the Renaissance, the epic of Puritanism, the revolt of America, the French Revolution, or the industrial and agrarian revolutions of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. All these periods present affinities with our own time, they all admit of comparison with other periods of intellectual splendour or material progress, they all give scope for practical treatment, they are all intrinsically worth while, and some of them allow the use of local material to illustrate their main theme.

Actual oral teaching is to be reduced to a minimum. What few oral lessons are given will aim at being definitely inspirational, consolidating and clarifying past work and opening out new lines of advance for the future. The success of such a scheme will depend very largely upon an adequate class organisation and co-operative team work. A class of forty children should be divided into about ten groups with from two to six members to each group under the captaincy of a group leader. He will act as liaison officer between his group and other groups and the class teacher. Care should be taken to give each group a bias according to the talents distributed throughout the class. One group will contain the class artists, another the neatest hand workers, another those whose only pride it is to write beautifully, another the few with literary bent who have been passed over in the scramble for scholarships, and so on. Opportunities should be provided in class for members of the groups to explain their projects to other groups, and from time to time the class teacher should make a formal survey of the related activities.

Having settled the organisation of the class it remains to sectionalise the work into convenient topics. For the purpose of these notes the Renaissance has been selected for illustrative treatment. Interest is to be maintained and reality ensured by actually examining the works of the great painters and sculptors, by reading the very letters and pamphlets of the scholars, by modelling the boats and studying the maps and charts of the intrepid voyagers. This method will replace the more usual one of reading what other men have got to say about the giants of old. For orderliness of discussion the Renaissance may be rather arbitrarily handled under the following teaching headings:—

- (i) The Renaissance in Italy, stressing the rebirth of the fine arts.
- (ii) The Renaissance in Spain and Portugal, stressing the renewed interest in maritime discovery.
- (iii) The Renaissance in Northern Europe, stress-

ing the rebirth of humanism and its repercussions on theology and politics.

(iv) The Renaissance in England, stressing the exuberance of Elizabethan England.

(v) The Renaissance to-day, a retrospect and a prospect.

Before commencing any formal introduction to the Renaissance proper, the connection between the fifth century before Christ and the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries of our era must be established. One possible way of doing this is by an examination of typical buildings of the various periods. A comparison and contrast of St. Peter's, Rome, Notre-Dame, Paris, and the Acropolis, Athens, will reveal the kinship between the classical and neo-classical buildings. A closer study of a number of Gothic cathedrals should throw light on the terror-haunted minds of their builders. Gargoyle and sanctuary, mullioned window and massive door, dim light and sacred flame, build up a picture of the Dark Ages and the paramount importance of the Church in such a difficult world. This contrasts with the light airiness of the Greek temples and the pagan splendours of St. Peter's. If any further confirmation of the tentative identification of the spirit that animated Athens in 500 B.C., and the genius of Florence in 1500 A.D., is needed, a glance at Michelangelo's Moses and the Laocoon should settle all doubts. By our examination of typical works in these first lessons we have explained the term Renaissance; we have ranged through a period of two thousand years, and we have been confronted, though not in such terms, with two conceptions of life. Now the groups can get to work on the construction of an illustrated time line from 500 B.C. to 2000 A.D. They can start the task of collecting representations of buildings, paintings, statuary and effigies from the Greeks, the Medievalists, the Neo-Classics, and the Moderns. A few individuals can turn the pages of an encyclopædia to find out something of the lives of Praxiteles, Socrates, Saint Francis, and Savonarola.

A more detailed study of the Renaissance in Italy can be made through an acquaintance with the work of some typical figure, such as Leonardo da Vinci. His legacy of pictures and sketches will provide that practical approach essential to our course. Attention can be drawn to his choice of religious themes, but his frankly humanistic handling of the chosen topics. He bridges two ages. He draws homely Italian men and women and calls them apostles and saints. Having introduced a real man through his extant works, the manifold interests of Leonardo as engineer, aeronaut, scientist, soldier, and courtier may be touched upon. The probability that he invented the first flying machine will give another group of boys an interesting and congenial project

to work out—a chronological survey of the history of aeronautics from Leonardo to Glen Scott, illustrated, of course, by an orderly collection of cigarette cards, newspaper clippings, and original sketches.

The geographical Renaissance, a topic which is likely to extend over several weeks, provides no difficulty of approach. Reproductions of contemporary maps are to be had from the British Museum or most public libraries. A graded collection of these shows the growth of knowledge; a comparison, by superposition of the maps and charts of the fifteenth and sixteenth century on the modern atlas, reveals the ignorance of the contemporaries of Columbus. Finally, a glance at some of the quaint picture maps with the Garden of Eden, the Seven Gates of Hell, Behemoth spouting and Leviathan swallowing a ship, the Anthropophagi, and Lakes of Fire, all plainly located and marked, show the superstitious fears that kept all but the hardiest from daring the perils of the unknown. The making of maps, the tracing of voyages, the sketching of the "Santa Maria" and her crazy consorts, the diagrammatic comparison of their tonnage and speed with those of the "Majestic" and "Asturias," a dip into Hakluyt, a roll of honour of the great seamen of the sixteenth century, and a chart illustrating chronologically the development of ship building, will furnish fruitful occupations for all members of the class. This particular portion of the course can be usefully rounded off by a lesson on the adventurers of our own day, Shackleton and Byrd, Irvine and Mallory.

The Renaissance in Northern Europe is usually dealt with through the time-worn figure of Luther and his impetuous ink-pot. This does injustice to a much more characteristic and travelled personage. Luther is important, but he is not a creative mind. He borrowed both wittingly and unconsciously from the great Erasmus. This fact is clearly brought out in the letters of Erasmus, where, too, can be traced the debt of the Reformation to the New Learning, the zeal and fervent hatreds of the first Protestants, and the gradual deterioration of the movement as a result of political complications. As a young man Erasmus writes: "They (the mendicant friars) call it a sign of holiness to be unable to read. They bray out psalms in churches like so many jack-asses. They do not understand a word of them. They pretend to resemble the Apostles, but they are filthy, ignorant, impudent vagabonds." Later he says: "I am now fifty-one years old, I am not enamoured of life—I do not want the popular theology abolished. I want it enriched from earlier sources. I wish Christ to be taught plainly and simply. The reading of the Bible and the early Fathers will have this effect." A sheet of such typical quotations, the very words of Erasmus, some

guiding questions to aid in studying the sheet, provide a provocative introduction. The actual construction of a working model of the Gutenberg printing press, a comparison with the huge rotary presses of our own day, tell their own tale of the dissemination of knowledge. One result of cheap printing has been to make available for all a copy of "The Cloister and the Hearth." A reading from this classic will give just that touch of colourful detail needed to infuse breath into Holbein's portrait of one of the intellectual giants of his age.

From the storm of the Lutheran conflict we turn to the happy contentment of Merrie England. The Renaissance came late to the island shores, but the splendour of its eventful coming has been eclipsed by no other age. To the teacher it presents so many possibilities that he is often perplexed by its richness. In one particular case a worried pedagogue solved his problem by completely Daltonising his programme, cataloguing the things that might be attempted, and then abdicating his desk for an energetic three weeks among his pupils. His catalogue included a ground plan and sketch of Anne Hathaway's cottage and Audley End, a Community Song Book (for songs written between 1550 and 1650), the "Counterblast against Tobacco," "Hakluyt's Voyages," annotated drawings of the "Ark Royal" and the "San Martin," Macaulay's "Revenge" and "Armada" as a challenge of the veracity of poets, the coat of arms granted to Drake, and his sailing charts of the Spanish Main, a model of the Globe Theatre and details of the Old Vic, a life of Sir Philip Sidney, and a large portrait of Mary Queen of Scots.

The scattered members of the class were finally assembled again to survey the completed results of their extended activities. In orderly progression, man's triumph over earth and sea and air was demonstrable; his greater triumph over doubt and fear and ignorance was implied. The children saw round the walls of the classroom how man had discovered a new world, a new art, and a new mode of life. Because they had made these symbols, the children through their activity had also made the Renaissance of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries an intellectual possession of their own. They had built up historical records for themselves, and to write your own text-book of history in a form you can understand is the surest way of appreciating history. To open their eyes to the significance of the present is one of the professed ideals of history teachers. But this can only be done by teaching children, not subjects; and by making the process of learning a purposeful activity directed towards the solution of real problems, and not a merely passive absorption of "inert ideas" laboriously mined from a general text-book.

ALCOHOL, TOBACCO, AND YOUTH.

By F. J. GOULD.

More than fifty years of my adult life have been innocent of alcoholic drinks. During all my life I have smoked only once, and that was when I wished to witness a prize fight at Leicester, and, being well known as a City Councillor, I disguised myself in awful shoddy, and, sitting among apparent gunmen and burglars, I puffed spasmodically at a cigar. Yet I have always found it difficult to join in the enthusiasm of anti-tobacco and of the Prohibition-of-Alcohol Movement. When, on educational ground, I face youth, I agree that, in ethical logic, self-control is an admirable and necessary doctrine; but I inwardly and uneasily protest that self-control is not the last word to be said in the presence of the problems of alcohol and tobacco. I am even ready to assert that, in itself, self-control is not a virtue. A vile assassin or a heartless thief may avoid alcohol and tobacco in order to attain the complete self-control needed for effective murder or a night robbery.

Why do people drink alcohol? I have asked priests, without getting a clear answer. We reach nearer to the reason in a story told by my friend, the brave ninety-one-year-old Charles Rowley, music prophet and social reformer in Ancoats, slum district of Manchester: namely, that a man who was asked by a clergyman why he got drunk, replied that it was "the shortest way out of Ancoats." That is a negative way of putting the case, but true so far as it goes.

Self-control is not an end in itself. It is a means to an end. Note the self-control in the following examples: The digger of the soil who, in pose, in action, and in handling his spade, attends to economy of forces; the cook at her kitchen work, who avoids waste of materials, and is careful in timing her procedure; the seaman who obeys the signals of wind and wave and tide, watches the heavens, and consults the chart; the builder of cottage or temple, who studies the qualities of clay, wood, and stone, and adapts the structure to the environment, and prefers enduring strength to pretty superficiality; and so on. The self-control of the husbandman aims at wheat or fruit; of the cook, at wholesome digestion; of the seaman, at the safe voyage to the Happy Isles, &c.; of the builder, at a home of comfort and security. In other words, the repression of the "self" is a path cut towards some form of joy, of spontaneity, of creativeness, of the art of life.

The weak soul, the sensitive soul, the overwrought

soul, the passionate soul, and the dull soul all search for this essential joy. It is this Beauty that I detect under the veil of the Beast. I sympathise with the objective of the drunkard, and wish he knew a happier method of reaching it. I sympathise with the objective (serenity of nerve, I suppose) of the tobacco smoker, and wish he could find a less primitive and cave-man-like method of reaching it, and a method less likely to give offence to non-smoking neighbours in train, theatre, or restaurant. So marked is my sympathy that I resolutely keep out of Prohibition activities, and offer no shekel to any anti-tobacco mission.

Now I turn to youth. And as every educationist should be a citizen of the world first, and a teacher afterwards, I touch the problem in two modes, and note the civil mode first. This means that, in sociological outlook, I include hygienic conditions of birth, sanitary housing, and a general decent economics as essentials to preparation for citizenship. The teacher, as such, cannot control this machinery, but he will never let it pass from his view and calculation. As a member of the community, it should haunt him in all his downittings and uprisings. Let us call the other mode spiritual. It is at this point that I decline to salute self-control as the final principle. There is in human nature—in the clean, limpid, buoyant urge of human nature—an eternal movement towards what Plato would name music. If, under the term "music," we subsume the ideas of rhythmic, eurhythmic, dance, adornment, happy arts and crafts, joyous service and comradeship, poetry of converse, and a camping out of the soul in fields of wide vision, then we may say that the inferior powers of tobacco, alcohol, and such-like stuffs, must sooner or later yield submission to the charm and force of musical education. I know that such an outlook takes us to a high Darien point whence we stare, with the "wild surmise" of Spaniards, at a great Pacific, and the rumour of such distant splendours ill suits the ramshackle system of our primary and secondary schools, and teachers' training colleges. But, like Mary, we can ponder far-off glories in our hearts, and the pondering will deeply influence our poor, tentative efforts of to-day. I shall say no word to-day or to-morrow against the quite valid, sober, and honourable doctrine of self-control. As things are, it is a sound ethical instrument. But, like certain faiths and pieties and creeds, it must dissolve into a finer world of education, where religion and beauty and the vital spring (Bergson's "Élan Vital") become the naturalness of daily life, needing no stimulus from dried leaves or musty vats or mash-tuns.

MODERN SCHOOLING

THE "TEAM SPIRIT" IN THE CLASSROOM.

By E. R. NORTH.

In these days of Scout, Guide, and Brownie "corps," and of all kinds of "troops" and "bobs" and "gangs," there is possibly no spirit more easy to arouse or to appeal to than the "team spirit."

And since to work for his team is so much better for the child than to work selfishly for his own aggrandisement, the more this team spirit is introduced the better.

Nor is this team spirit something that must be relegated to play-time hours, and be made use of only in games, sports, and out-of-school activities—on the contrary, it is a most wholesome and energising spirit to introduce into the classroom.

The competitive spirit is strong in every child, and cannot be ignored, but it may be turned from self and used to very good purpose under the direction of a wise teacher.

Given an ordinary class of from twenty to thirty children, the teacher will find himself dealing with as many different personalities. Roughly speaking, the children are of the same age, are capable of mastering the same work, and are mentally more or less on the same level; yet there are such differences of character, of the working of the mind, of physical and mental energy, and of home environment (which counts enormously in the child's mental capacity and receptivity), that there are times when the teacher despairs of carrying his class along together, and is sure that either the quick ones are being unfairly held back, or that the slow ones are not really assimilating what is being given them.

Now the introduction of "the team" into the classroom is a very real help in this direction—a great assistance to the teacher, a tremendous benefit to the slower pupils, a beneficial spur to the lazy, and a steadying salutary influence on quick and impatient minds.

A class of thirty children can be divided into three teams of ten, and the leaders should choose their own team.

Here, again, a clever child who is perhaps not so robust as his fellows, and who is laughed at and

despised on the playing-fields, may come into his own as a team leader in the classroom.

The leaders may be appointed by the teacher, and each should choose his team, taking turn and turn about so that the teams will be more or less equal.

The leaders may then post a complete list of their respective teams (probably the ornate and decorative lists that all children delight in) on the notice board in the classroom, and against the names all merit marks, stars, or other awards for good work should be placed.

It is not wise to record bad marks, or returned work, for the child's mind is so quick to adapt itself to circumstances that a team that fails to compete with any degree of success for good marks will soon in self-defence set out to win notoriety by gaining a record number of bad marks.

This team work has been proved on experiment to be most successful with boys and girls of from ten to fourteen, and the increased output and the higher standard of the work accomplished has been remarkable.

To quote two cases from personal experience there are the stories of Stuart and MacWatt.

Stuart was a bright enough boy really, but he preferred to pose as dull because he had a fixed aversion to work. He would fling himself wholeheartedly into games, and was an intelligent enough companion out of school, but he reserved a perfectly blank expression for use in the classroom, and foiled, by the most apathetic and exasperating assumption of stupidity, every attempt to get him to take any real interest in school work.

However, there came to be a very close competition between the first and third team of his form, and since Stuart was the only boy in the third team who had no "merit" to his name, he began to be extremely harassed by the constant remarks of the other members of his team. He was the last boy to face unpopularity, and, since nothing but a "merit" would satisfy his team mates, he did for once turn his mind from play and concentrate on the lesson in hand.

Alas for Stuart!

"If you can get one 'merit' you can jolly well get another. Arithmetic seems to be your subject, so stick to it and get a few more 'merits,' and we'll beat 'One' into 'a cocked hat.'"

That was how his team leader received his contribution to their work record, and Stuart found

himself stirred out of his comfortable state of lethargy, and expected to contribute good, sound work for the honour and glory of his team.

MacWatt was scared into stupidity; he was a nervous, delicate child with appalling gaps in his "mental content"—gaps due to times when illness had interfered with the course of his studies, in consequence of which he was constantly getting "bogged" where all was plain going to the rest of the form.

He was in Duncan's team, and Duncan was one of those boys whose mission in life seemed to be to put everyone else right. He was not an easy boy to deal with, not a very attractive boy, and not by any means popular with his fellows.

But Duncan proved a godsend to little MacWatt, and MacWatt became, as it were, a safety-valve for Duncan, someone to whom he could explain and expound to his heart's content, to their mutual pleasure and profit.

This experiment of introducing the team spirit into the classroom differs from many in that it takes up no extra time, and calls for no special work on the part of the teacher, and yet it is a help to him in every way.

For when all is said and done the child really values the good opinion, or, contrary-wise, feels more acutely the disapproval of his fellows than that of his teacher, and a team leader can probably deal more effectively with a slacker than the teacher himself.

For a boy who cannot be brought to see the iniquity of wasting his own time, and the money that his father is spending on his education, much more readily grasps the fact that to lose his team a "merit mark" by producing an ill-prepared or untidy exercise is distinctly not "playing the game."

Finally, by introducing this team spirit we are bringing into our classroom that great dynamic force, interest, without which the best teaching is of little avail, and with which all things are possible.

Size of Classes.

In March, 1930, our public elementary schools had 50,480 classes containing over forty but under fifty pupils. There were also 10,017 classes containing over fifty pupils. In our grant-aided secondary schools the number of classes with more than thirty-five pupils was only 101, according to the Report for 1928. This was 0.6 per cent. of the total, whereas in the same year there were 7.2 per cent. of the classes in public elementary schools with over fifty pupils on the roll and eighty-five classes with over sixty.

VOICE CULTURE IN THE SCHOOLS.

BY NORMAN BECKETT.

Although during recent years the methods of education adopted in the schools have greatly improved, it is a fact that there is a grave lack of training in speech. Parents find it hard to understand why it is that their children, even those who have attended good schools, speak indistinctly with hard and unattractive voices.

The reason is that, though they are taught grammar, and how to write and pronounce English, they receive very little, if any, training in the art of self-expression through the voice. Such important matters as voice training, intonation, and oral expression are lightly passed over.

It is of infinite value, both socially and in business, to an individual that he should be able to express himself clearly and distinctly, and, if possible, without trace of a dialect.

In business especially, the man who cannot articulate clearly is severely hampered and his chances of promotion are thereby restricted. And yet, knowing this, the schools are continually turning out hundreds of students incapable of speaking decent English.

Again, good address brings confidence. The man who knows that he can, at any moment, say what is in his mind—and say it well—goes about his duties with a feeling of confidence. He does not go to a dinner dreading that he may be called upon to make a speech; and when, as a shareholder, he attends a meeting of the company, does not sit passively by and watch his interests being jeopardised. He states his opinions.

The same thing applies to the scholars themselves. When asked a question by the teacher, no one, as a rule, replies. Often it is not because they do not know the answer. They are diffident and lack the confidence which comes when they can frame a clear and concise reply.

Never before have people of the working class had such opportunities of taking part in public life as they have to-day. It is possible for them to become Aldermen, Councillors, Members of Parliament, and even Lord Mayors. But all these positions bring with them the onus of public speaking.

There is no doubt that the possession of a good speaking voice and the power to express himself clearly is one of the greatest assets that a person can possibly have. And yet, no doubt realising this, the education committees in this country make practically no effort to see that the pupils are instructed in the art of elocution. This is difficult to understand when they take such pains to give the scholars a good knowledge of French, Latin, and German. Is it not better to teach the children how to speak and write correctly their own language?

THE VILLAGE SCHOOL.

BY WILLIAM CLAYTON, M.B.E. (Appleton Roebuck School).

VI. The Approach to Mathematics.

It is probable that the only attention given to mathematics in the majority of our village schools is to be found in the arithmetic lesson.

The influence of the old "payment by results" system, where it was necessary to get three sums right out of four to secure a certain "pass," is still with us. Hence we find that our children rarely like arithmetic, and this hampers successful teaching.

For many years we have endeavoured to make our teaching as practical as possible by making it applicable to the environment of the child. It is refreshing, therefore, to find that a committee of experts, drawn from Inspectors of the Board of Education, university professors, and teachers in all types of schools, has issued a report to our Authority on "The Teaching of Mathematics in our Senior Schools," and has come to the following definite conclusion, viz. :—"Mathematics has a twofold purpose :

"1. To enable the children to deal successfully with the ordinary calculations which will arise in everyday life, and

"2. To enable them to analyse a simple problem with confidence and to develop the power of making clear oral and written statements."

Modern teachers will welcome especially the phrase last quoted, for it is impossible to make clear oral or written statements without a thorough understanding of the subject to be spoken or written about.

Older teachers will agree that under the old regime it was possible to drill a pupil to get three sums right out of four without the pupil understanding what the sums were about. There is a world-wide difference between mechanical accuracy and the power to make a clear statement about the processes involved in securing that accuracy.

When I was in Standard IV I believe I knew my square measure table, and could work a reduction sum in it as well as most boys, but I was grown up before I understood fully where the $\frac{1}{4}$ yard came from in $30\frac{1}{4}$ square yards = 1 square pole or perch. My pupils could not understand that line in the table, so we went out into the yard and measured out our five and a-half yards each way to form the square pole. When we had connected up the cross lines to form our $30\frac{1}{4}$ squares, we found that we had twenty-five perfect squares, ten half squares, and in one corner the mysterious $\frac{1}{4}$ square yard. It was as great a delight to me as to my pupils to find how that $\frac{1}{4}$ yard came in, and in order that successive generations of pupils should benefit by our discovery we made permanent drawings in our yard, which have been repainted many times.

Since that day all our mathematical exercises have been practically demonstrated whenever it was possible. As a result, though our mechanical accuracy may have deteriorated slightly, the pupils can and do make clear oral and written statements about the why and wherefore of their work.

We have taken out our Gunter's chain and measured the mile on the roadways leading in every direction from our school gate. We have marked this distance, together with the $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, and $\frac{3}{4}$ mile, by cutting varying sized arrows in the sods on the road sides. We have timed ourselves in walking, running, or skipping these distances as the years have gone by, so all our pupils have a definite knowledge of what a real mile is. We have gone into the fields and set out a chain from a definite point with twenty-two children a yard apart to form it. We have bounded our rectangular acre with living posts a chain apart, ten by one, five by two, four by two and a-half, as the case needed. We have divided these acres up into roods and the roods into perches. Because the pupils have been used to mark off the chains, or poles, they have become familiar with terms used in their lessons, and have not only been happier in their work, but have got a definite idea of distance and space indelibly fixed in their minds.

We have set out an acre in the forms of right-angled and equilateral triangles, and in these ways, by combining arithmetic and geometry, we have laid an understandable foundation for mathematical development.

We have gone into the fields where the ploughman was at work and with our rulers have measured the width of the furrow he turned over in his journey up the field. With our chain we have found out the length and width of the field, and in our classrooms have calculated the miles he must walk before his task is completed. Later we have revisited the spot and counted the furrows to check our results.

We have weighed and measured a brick, and have by practical work found out not only the number but the weight of bricks used in the building of different parts of our school walls. What is more to the point, this practical work has not prevented our pupils from doing quite decent work when H.M. Inspector has tested our school in arithmetic, notwithstanding the fact that his tests were such as this: "Multiply '0001 by '0001 and divide the answer by 1." Whether this type of sum or the one about the ploughman is the better "to enable the children to deal successfully with the ordinary calculations which arise in everyday life" is purely a matter of opinion.

EDUCATION IN THE HOME.

By JANE FERMOR.

Many parents seem to think that when they have sent their child to a good school their responsibility in the matter of the child's education is ended. This attitude probably arises from our lamentable habit of trying to fit each aspect of life into a separate, watertight compartment. "We send the child to school to be educated," we say, "and it is the school's business to turn out an educated boy or girl."

Education, however, is not a process which can be confined to definite hours spent in a school building. It is impossible for any school to provide that background of culture and general knowledge which comes from living in close contact with people of wide and intelligent interests, and which makes whatever is learnt at school of so much greater value.

So often children are not encouraged to employ their time at home in an intelligent manner. Parents—and indeed most of us—are apt to imagine that recreation must take the form of mere amusement, or even idleness, whereas what is required is a change of occupation. Outdoor games should, of course, play a part in the child's life, but a certain amount of time must necessarily be spent indoors, and children are never too young to begin learning to use their leisure profitably. It is the child with no intelligent interests, who spends its leisure roaming round the house getting in everyone's way, who grows up into the man or woman who is bored if obliged to spend an afternoon at home alone.

Our business is to see that children have the opportunity of enjoying the right things. And children are much more ready to enjoy the right things than some people are apt to imagine. A class of unintellectual and restive children will sit spellbound while a poem is read to them by someone with a good voice and a sense of rhythm, even if the subject-matter is above their heads. Young children like being read to, and there is no better way of helping them to appreciate the rhythm of verse. The child at a boarding school is apt to fare better than the day school child in this respect, for there it is usual for house mistresses to read to the children frequently; but in a day school there is less time for this more leisurely side of education, and the child is therefore dependent on its parents for this pleasure.

Many parents send their children to good schools, yet do not think of providing them with suitable books for reading at home. Books can usually be borrowed from the school library; nevertheless, in the holidays especially, children tend to read whatever is in the house to lay hands on, and opportunities are undoubtedly missed if the selection of books is

poor. Youth is certainly the time for the enjoyment of the long novels of Dickens and Scott, and if they are not read then, regret is often felt in later years.

Then, too, the older child likes to discuss and argue with his elders. Many parents would be surprised if they knew what complicated problems were exercising the minds of their youthful offspring. Here the day school child should have the advantage, for the conversation among a herd of children in a boarding school is not generally of a very high intellectual level, but, alas! only too often it is the parents who prove themselves incapable of disinterested argument, and after a time the child ceases to voice its opinions in the home. We may not all be highly cultured, but we can all make it our business to provide a certain amount of intelligent conversation in our homes. Nothing is more damping to the child whose intellect is just awakening than to be continually in the company of those whose only form of conversation is gossip or the recital of domestic woes. If, on the other hand, the child has no intellectual interests, it will do him no harm to realise that games are not the only occupation of importance in adult life.

One of the greatest obstacles to educational progress is the unscientific attitude of mind of the average person. Parents, and others, are often resigned to their own ignorance; they are content with complacently admitting that they "don't know," or with giving an explanation of the "they say" type of logic, when asked the reason why, for example, a poker propped up in front of a fire should make the fire burn. The child is a logical being with a keen curiosity, but if he is not encouraged to question statements and to find out things for himself, he will soon become infected with this "sloppy" attitude. An excellent game might be played by a family with a sense of fun; whenever one of its members makes a statement which is suspected of being based upon hearsay, he should be challenged to substantiate his assertion. It is surprising how many people bluster and are put to confusion when asked for their reasons. We are all apt to make baseless assertions, but in this way we should be training both ourselves and our children in more scientific habits of thought. A good encyclopædia and dictionary should always be at hand, for the pleasure of finding out things for ourselves is one that cannot be acquired too early.

The child who comes from a reasonably cultured home where intelligent topics are discussed will have every reason to be grateful to his parents for providing him with a background of general information which has been acquired entirely without conscious toil, and which cannot but prove invaluable no matter what career is afterwards adopted.

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“EXTRANEOUS DUTIES.”

By MICHAEL IRWIN.

On looking up the meaning of the word *extraneous* in a dictionary, I was rather surprised to find that it was given as “foreign . . . not essential.”

This should raise a smile on the faces of some residential teachers. They will surely appreciate the irony of “not essential.”

Now what are these extraneous duties? That is a question very difficult of a complete answer. Extraneous duties differ in every type of residential school, and even in similar types. Thus, supposing one takes, for example, an orphanage. The duties entailed in one orphanage will differ completely from those in another.

This difference is largely due to the position, size, and object of the school. A school situated in the country, for instance, may require its staff to take the scholars on special expeditions.

When I was an assistant master in a residential school in London I frequently accompanied the scholars to concerts at the Queen’s Hall, to the South Kensington Museum, and to Kew Gardens.

However, there are certain extraneous duties which are largely prevalent in every type of residential school. With these I will now deal.

Beginning with the early part of the morning I will first instance the supervision of the rising of the children at the morning bell. In my own school this rings at seven o’clock throughout the whole of the year. At half-past seven the bell rings again. This is a signal that every one must leave the dormitory and that I must inspect the turned down beds. This is very necessary, for boys love to pull down the clothes in such a fashion that they can be pulled up again with the least possible effort. This being the case, it is required of each boy that he separates his mattress from the remainder of his bedding. Occasionally a boy will forget to unmake his bed in this fashion, and to cure him of his forgetfulness I invariably tumble the whole of the bedding on the floor and thoroughly mix it together. A boy usually manages to remember what is required of him after this treatment.

At five minutes to eight the bell rings again, and I inspect every boy’s personal appearance, giving special attention to those regions behind the ears which so often escape the soap and water. At eight o’clock the breakfast bell rings and the whole school files into the dining hall. As it is my day on duty I accompany them and sit at the high table.

Breakfast over, I then take morning prayers, and immediately these are over every boy repairs to his dormitory to make his bed and await my final inspection. This coming to an end, the boys and myself are free until the morning school bell rings at nine.

School continues throughout the morning until twelve-thirty. Immediately school is over the boys wash and prepare themselves for dinner, which is at one o’clock. Here, again, I inspect hands for cleanliness, and accompany the scholars to dinner.

After dinner is over, usually about one-thirty, the scholars are free until afternoon school, which begins at two-thirty. Not so myself, however. For during this interval Jones minor wants me to censor a letter he has written; Smith major wants me to find out who has purloined an apple from his locker; the matron brings up a pair of torn pants (deliberately torn—all matrons say this!), and wants me to inflict suitable chastisement on Jenkins the owner; Simpkins, the porter, reports that the boiler-house window has been broken, and will I find out who has done it; the school nurse complains that Brown refuses to take his medicine; and Jenkins wants to know the cost of sending a parcel weighing 17 oz. to the Fiji Islands.

Here I smile again as I think of the dictionary definition of “extraneous.”

After afternoon school comes the tea routine similar to that of breakfast and dinner.

And now comes the evening. Naturally this is the time when extraneous duties will most vary in the several types of residential schools.

For instance, during the summer months the supervision of sports such as football, cricket, tennis, or athletics may occupy most of the time.

There may be such things as baths to supervise, preparation classes, choir practices, choral classes, boy scouts, literary and debating societies, and staff meetings.

When the pupils retire for the night there must be a last look round the dormitories to see that all is well and that lights are lowered.

I rather suspect that “extraneous duties” sound formidable to those who might happen to read this article, but one must realise that these duties are only taken in turn with other teachers, and that what looks formidable on paper is not half so formidable in practice.

When a teacher decides to accept a residential post he must certainly be prepared to give up a good deal of his leisure time, for it is expected in all these types of schools that teachers should enter fully into the whole life of the school.

However, the work is not without its reward. One soon finds his place in the scheme of things and becomes, as it were, an elder brother to the boys. Also one is enabled to study the boy in out-of-school hours, to learn something of his ambitions and his general attitude to life.

THE PITFALLS OF THE MODERN SENIOR SCHOOL.

BY THE CAPTAIN.

The war taught us many things. One learnt then that the interpretation of an order meant literally life or death, and that it was very necessary to know exactly what the other fellow meant. The elementary school is now entering upon a new era; will success or failure crown its efforts?

One of the dangers of the reorganisation of schools is that the further "break" at the age of eleven may give rise to retardation of a pupil's progress. This need not be the case if suitable steps are taken to ensure the co-operation of the junior school. There must be a very large measure of co-ordination between the senior and junior departments if grave loss of time is to be avoided. It would be undesirable, for example, that a junior school should use the method of "equal additions" while the senior school used the method of "decomposition," or *vice versa*. Similarly, if the tabular method of analysis were used in one department, and the graphic method in the other, time would be wasted in mastering the technique of two methods. The existence of such anomalies within the same department would undoubtedly be admitted by those who are privileged to visit a large number of schools, but, to the credit of our profession, they are gradually disappearing.

Another grave danger is the possible misinterpretation of the labels used for distinguishing the three types of scholars, and known respectively as A, B, and C. These will need defining in terms of some known standard, e.g. as Std. 5 in the case of an average child of eleven years of age. If a child is transferred from a junior school to a senior school, and labelled A, it is necessary that the label should have a definite meaning in order that no time need be lost in classifying the pupils.

Further, it is essential that the effort to co-ordinate the work of the senior and junior departments should involve some measure of agreement as to the scope of the work to be accomplished by the junior department. This will prove a valuable means of preventing needless retardation.

Finally, it is desirable that the function of the junior school be very clearly realised by those most nearly concerned, *i.e.* of bridging the gap between the infants' department and the senior school. On this transition stage will depend, in a large measure, the success or failure of the senior school. Unless the junior school develops in its pupils a real capacity for work and an aptitude for private study in the later stages, it will undermine any hope of the substantial benefits which the new senior modern school can confer.

FROM SHIPPING TO GEOGRAPHY: USING A DOCKSIDE FOR A SCHOOLROOM.

BY IAN HOLMES.

Most British children are interested in ships, and the proximity of a seaport offers an easy means of teaching geography. The shipping news and the company advertisements in the Press can very usefully be studied by an enthusiastic teacher preparing a geography lesson series for any of the schools around our coasts. Map-making, trade routes, and foreign products lessons were all hinged on a visit to dockland by a keen teacher recently.

A large plan of the dock area was obtained, and the children copied it. The different types of docks and harbours were explained—*e.g.*, the difference between quays, basins, and graving or dry docks, was gone into. The berth numbers were marked on the plan, so that a reference to the morning paper showed:—

1. The position of ships in the dock.
2. Whence or where the ships were for.
3. Ports of call, giving trade route used.

Thus was given the key to an elaborate trade route lesson; close attention being paid to the route taken by ships to far-off ports—Chittagong was a case in point.

The children became very keen about this sort of thing, and it was not long before the boys could tell the various steamship lines by the funnel colours, as well as being able to state the probable destination of a ship. The question of cargo can be made the basis of export and import lessons.

A judicious visit by the teacher to the Harbour Master's Office, or to a Customs Office on the quay, ought to give data for many a lesson in this manner. The officials there will be able and, if approached properly, will be willing to explain about the dock berths, and will also be in a position to state which papers, periodicals, or publications are the most helpful for the purpose of building up lessons.

If a party of children, especially seniors, can be conducted round the harbour or a portion of dockland by the teacher, under the eye of a friendly official, so much the better. There is usually a Trust or a Board responsible for the docks; a reference to the local directory will give the address of the secretary, who can be approached in connection with the dock visitation.

There is only one point to be borne in mind, and that is that time is money in the shipping world. On no account should the teacher or the children impose upon the good nature of the authorities by in any way hindering the prompt handling of goods at the docks by unnecessarily detaining anyone who is at work therein.

PERSONALITY AND PENMANSHIP.

By Z. MARSH.

Bad writers are usually lumped together as a class, and the symptoms of their disease dealt with by means of new nibs, copy-books, demonstrations on the correct method of holding the pen, &c., while the disease goes untended and frequently unsuspected, whereas they can be advantageously divided into different categories and treated accordingly.

A comparatively simple case is that of the very ordinary small boy with a desire for the centre stage. He may find that if he makes his normally poor script sufficiently bad he is talked about, his parents discuss the matter seriously, and, best of all, it affords material for endless jokes, and people can at last remember who he is: "Oh, you mean Jones, minor, the chap with the ghastly writing." If his writing is completely ignored, but every opportunity is taken to praise the legible efforts of others, his will slowly become more readable, as he realises that prominence is only obtained by those who write well, or whose writing is undergoing a miraculous improvement.

A rather harder task lies with the backward child who spells badly. Feeling doubtful whether beautiful is really spelt "butiful," she will blur the "i" so that it might be an "e" or an "j," and run the "u" along flat with the line, so that good spellers might read any other letters into it that seem right to them; while her knowledge of history and French may be so bad that she would much rather the mistresses could not read her answers and that they are compelled to half guess at them. Naturally she is ashamed of her work and has no incentive to put it in the best light by a clear legible hand, which would only shame the nakedness of the material. Much better show the world you don't care and sprawl the answer down. Here the point to peg away at is the general hopeless attitude. Explain to the girl why her writing is bad; then, if it is in any way possible, give her simpler work. In a case I had, extra coaching in a child's weak subjects was followed at the end of the term by an honours paper in which the general arrangement and writing were above normal.

In some ways the most trying type of culprit is the brilliant, impatient child who has done the next question in his mind's eye before he has written down the first. Often the boy will hardly trouble to finish the ends of his words; they either slope off into a line or run into each other. Again he will turn over a page while it is wet rather than pause to blot: while the general spacing is eccentric in the extreme. No paragraphs are inserted: in letters the main body is skied practically to the address, and the super-scription may touch either margin. Here reasoning will not help. In the child's mind logic is on his

side—matter is more than manner, so much more that he cannot spare time to attend to it while the world is unfolding such a wealth of treasure; after all, few adults think there is time to sign their names legibly. Any old-fashioned teacher knows how to deal with this type; you refuse to let him go on to the next stage until his work is legible and well set down.

The same teacher would deal effectively with another type closely akin to this last. This boy is determined to keep his position as the youngest in the form, but the work is really too difficult for him. To keep up he has to write too fast, with disastrous results. Pride will suffer a jolt when he is moved down, but it is the only way.

It is only when these approaches have been tried that it pays to fall back on the older remedies of seeing that the pen is held correctly, the right nib used, and, an excellent modern rule, the letters formed in the simplest way possible.

"The Duke of Devonshire Prize," 1931.

"The Influence of Sport in promoting the Unity of the Empire" is the subject selected this year for the competition for "The Duke of Devonshire Prize." The competition is open to boys of all the leading Public Schools throughout the country. Three prizes are awarded by the British Empire League for the best essays received, viz.:—First, twenty guineas; second, ten guineas; and third, five guineas. The winners of the first, second, and third prizes will each receive, in addition, a certificate and book with their names inscribed thereon. A similar book is also presented to the writers of other essays considered by the judges to be worthy of special mention. Particulars may be obtained from the British Empire League, Norfolk House, Laurence Pountney Hill, London, E.C.4.

Sir William Morris, Bart., D.C.L.

The University of Oxford has conferred on Sir William Morris, the well known motor-car manufacturer, one of the highest of its academic dignities by making him a Doctor of Civil Law, *honoris causa*.

Indian Students.

In reply to a question, Mr. Benn told the House of Commons that the total number of Indian students at present attending the universities, colleges, medical schools, and other educational institutions of similar standing in Great Britain is about 1740.

NEWS OF THE MONTH.

The N.U.W.T. and the Burnham Committee.

The National Union of Women Teachers has passed a resolution drawing attention to the fact that, although approximately 70 per cent. of teachers are women, the Standing Joint Committee on Teachers' Salaries consists of forty-six men and only four women. It asserts that any joint committee dealing with the professional interests of women teachers should contain a fair proportion of women among its members, and emphatically protests against (a) the exclusion of any representative of the National Union of Women Teachers from the Standing Joint Committee on Teachers' Salaries; (b) the unsatisfactory attitude adopted by the Board of Education and the Standing Joint Committee, each of which disclaims responsibility for the constitution of the Committee.

New Head Master of Rugby.

Mr. P. H. B. Lyon, at present Rector of Edinburgh Academy, was appointed Head Master of Rugby School in succession to Mr. W. W. Vaughan, who is retiring from the head mastership at the end of the current term.

Mr. Lyon, who is thirty-seven, is the only son of Mr. Percy Comyn Lyon, I.C.S., retired, formerly Treasurer of Oriol College, Oxford. He went to Rugby with a scholarship in 1907, to Steel's House. He was in the cricket XXII and the school running eight in 1912, and won both major and minor leaving exhibitions. He followed his father to Oriol College with an exhibition, and took a second class in classical moderations in 1914. He served with the Durham Light Infantry throughout the war, and was promoted captain and awarded the M.C. He was wounded and was a prisoner of war in May, 1918. After the war he returned to Oxford, won the Newdigate with a poem on "France," and obtained a first class in *Lit. Hum.* He was a master at Cheltenham till 1926, when he was appointed Rector of Edinburgh Academy. Mr. Lyon has published some volumes of poetry, and edited "The Shorter Herodotus." He is married and has a family.

Mr. G. E. Harding.

After fifteen years' service Mr. G. E. Harding has retired from the post of Vice-Principal and Lecturer in Education and History at the Government Training College, Colombo, Ceylon. Mr. Harding founded the Colombo Historical Society in 1921. He is also interested in theology, and holds the B.D. degree in honours of London University.

Association of Head Mistresses.

The Fifty-seventh Annual Conference of the Association of Head Mistresses will be held at the Clifton High School, Bristol, on Friday and Saturday, June 19 and 20, under the presidency of Miss E. Addison Phillips, M.A.

World Conference on Education.

Denver, Colorado, U.S.A., is the place appointed for the World Conference on Education, which will be held from July 27 to August 1. The Conference is organised by the World Federation of Education Associations, and invitations have been sent to all the leading organisations of teachers in this country. It is to be feared that the British representatives will be few, if any. Yet the State of Georgia, which is 2,000 miles from Denver, will have a delegation of five hundred teachers.

Girton College—A New Head.

Dr. Helen Marion Wodehouse has been appointed Mistress of Girton in succession to Miss Major. Miss Wodehouse has been Professor of Education at Bristol University since 1911, and before that was a Lecturer on Philosophy at Birmingham University. She is a niece of Mr. Graham Wallas and of Professor J. H. Muirhead. Herself a Girton student, she gained a First Class in the Moral Sciences Tripos, following a Second in the Mathematical Tripos. She has been President of the Training College Association.

University of London Library Gift.

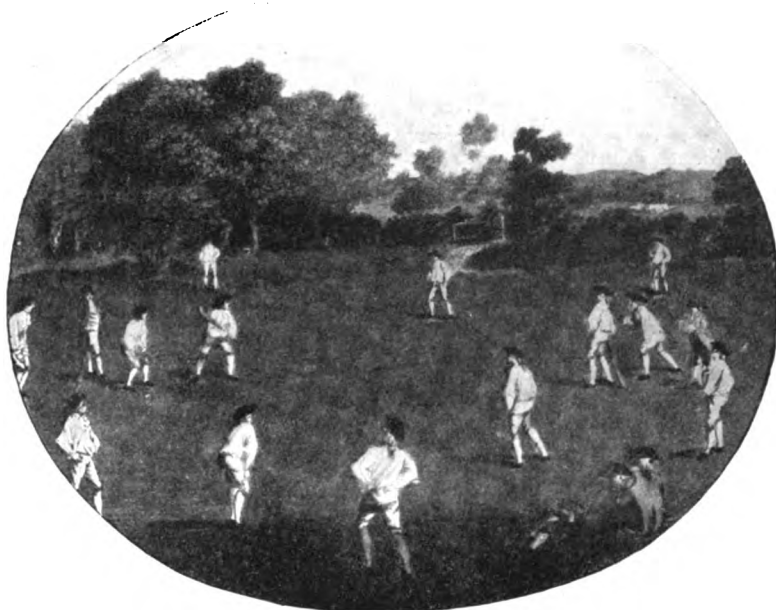
The Goldsmiths' Company's offer, subject to the consent of the Charity Commissioners, and to certain conditions, of a sum not exceeding £50,000 towards the cost of erecting and equipping the library building at the new head-quarters of the University of London in Bloomsbury, was accepted at a special meeting of the University Court.

New Professor for Cambridge.

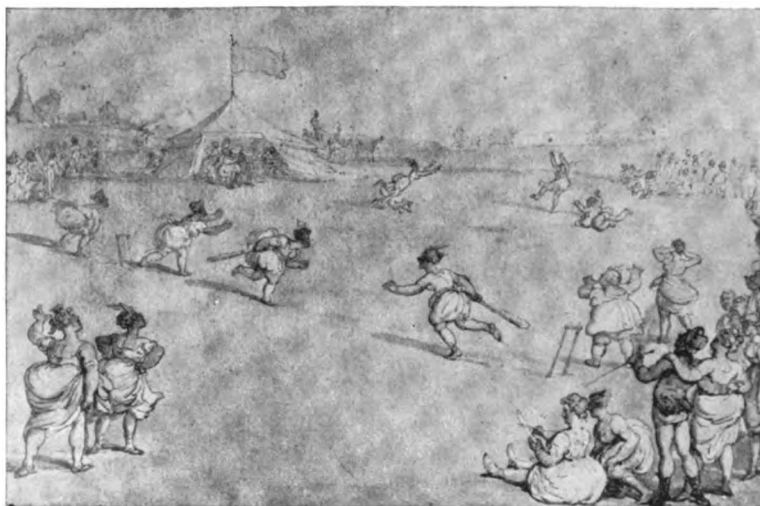
Mr. John Hilton, an Assistant Secretary to the Ministry of Labour, has been elected to the Montague Burton Chair of Industrial Relations in Cambridge University.

A Gramophone Lecturer.

At the Science Museum, South Kensington, the Gramophone Company has installed an instrument which responds to pressure on a button and delivers a brief account of a particular exhibit or group of objects. It is rumoured that this device is attracting the attention of certain university professors.



CRICKET WITH THE OLD CURVED BAT
(From a painting at Lord's Cricket Ground).



A LADIES' CRICKET MATCH
(From a Cartoon by Rowlandson, at Lord's Cricket Ground).

The above pictures are taken from "Georgian England," reviewed in our issue for May, and reproduced by kind permission of the publishers (Messrs. Batsford) and of the authorities of the M.C.C.

LITERARY SECTION.

BOOKS AND THE MAN.

School and Factory.

Students of educational developments in England soon begin to realise that popular schooling from the beginning of the nineteenth century down to the end of the war was closely related to the earning of wages by children. Our public elementary schools were not set afoot by Education Acts. They were the indirect outcome of Factory Acts. In an extremely painstaking and thorough fashion the story is set forth by Dr. Adam H. Robson in a volume recently published by Kegan Paul at 10s. 6d. under the title: "The Education of Children engaged in Industry in England, 1833-1876." The main thesis of the book is well indicated by a quotation from Professor Findlay's book, "The Children of England." It runs thus: "The real problem as it presented itself to Englishmen in the Thirty Years of Peace was concerned with the rescue of children from premature wage-earning. The student of educational politics should attach more importance to the Factory Bills and the educational clauses attached to these measures than to the trifling grants which were approved."

This is true enough, save that I should say "some Englishmen," for there were a considerable number who accepted the do-nothing ideas of Sir James Graham, or shared the foolish fears of the eminent Mr. Davies Giddy, who later changed his name to Gilbert and became President of the Royal Society. Mr. Gilbert (*né* Giddy) told the House of Commons that children of the labouring poor ought not to learn reading and writing, lest they should read seditious pamphlets and become revolutionaries.

But the fears of the timorous were overcome by the indignation felt by those who saw children of the tender age of five or even less being dragged to work in the newly established textile factories and compelled to labour from six in the morning to eight or nine at night. Humane considerations led to a demand that the factory masters should be compelled to allow time for elementary schooling. Dr. Robson shows how the proposals were resisted and the early Acts evaded. The first inspectors found a few employers who had some regard to the needs of their young workers, but the majority did little or nothing. One inspector, Mr. Henry Ashworth, reports thus:—"It sometimes happens that some lame, infirm old woman, who is unable to gain a livelihood by work, undertakes to become a teacher of children; she teaches everybody's children; what is usually termed a dame school; those are willing always to make a bargain with the mill-owner that they will undertake the teaching of the children." By such devices the masters satisfied their own con-

sciences and the requirements of the Act. It is recorded that one "schoolmaster" thus engaged was unable to write his own name, and a certificate of attendance written by one teacher is quoted: "this is to certify that 1838 thomas Cordingley as attend martha insep school two hours per day January 6."

It is somewhat humiliating to remember that the parents of these oppressed children for the most part resented the obligation to forgo a part of their wages by allowing them to attend school. The difficulty was met by making work in factories depend on school attendance, and this plan was in vogue right down to the year 1918, when the "half-time" system was abolished. Older teachers can remember the days when children of ten were allowed to work half-time in factories, but only on condition that their attendance at school was not less regular than their attendance at the mill. By this device the half-timer was saved from exploitation, and his regular attendance at school enabled him to cover the work presented by the old rigid codes.

Looking back, we can see that the whole thing was wrong. If those concerned had cared for education they would have perceived that elementary instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic was no adequate preparation for life, especially when it was given grudgingly and at times when the children were fatigued with toil. We are still paying the price of the mistreatment of children during the nineteenth century. Indeed, we are mistreating them still in some districts by herding them in schools which are insanitary. We have progressed, as readers of Dr. Robson's book will perceive, but we have still a long way to go. One measure of the civilisation and enlightenment of a community is the regard which it pays to its younger citizens, and I hope that many will read this book and learn from the mistakes of the past how we should behave to-day.

SELIM MILES.

REVIEWS.

Education.

THE NEW SENIOR SCHOOL: by T. Payten Gunton, B.Sc. (Econ.), L.C.P. Hons. (3s. 6d. Grant Educational Co.)

This is a practical book, based on experience as an Assistant and as a Head Master. On its practical side it deals with the Curriculum, Organisation, the Backward Pupil, the "Higher Top." There are specimen time tables, types of individual record cards, parents' questionnaire, reproductions of boys' historical diagrams, suggestions for subject teaching under the heads of subjects.

(Continued on page 202.)

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University of London Press Ltd., 10 & 11 Warwick Lane, London, E.C.4.

But the writer is interested in the theory (or theories) and in the history of English education and schools, more especially during the last century. His practical matter, as a consequence, is woven with a narrative and discussion of the main question: "What is it that we should be driving at in our schools?" and the subsidiary corollary "What are the best means towards our aim?" There are many references to and quotations from Sir Perry Nunn, Graham Wallas, John Dewey, Dr. Hayward, Matthew Arnold, and others, with excerpts from or references to Codes and Reports. There is a bibliography of books and reports at the end.

Now this is a great deal to pack into less than a hundred and twenty pages of print. Mr. Gunton has not written solely or chiefly for the teacher in a Senior School who is alert for hints and ideas—possibly even for "dodges." Nor does he address himself definitely to those whose interests readily express themselves in general ideas. For both of these he has something, and for the varying types in between them. Thus he has risked being blamed by the one for cutting short his theories to interpolate petty detail, and by the other for not giving his practical details more fully. His main, immediate aim is practical, and this he has expressed very well in the limits of the space set. The thread of theory and history is his own natural (or acquired) method of treating the subject. The "dodge"—searchers may grudge the space given to general ideas, but the book gains by the method.

The first-rate man will work out his Senior School scheme for himself. The timorous one will copy Mr. Gunton's or any other set schemes. The good average teacher will use just as much as already theoretically befits and fits his own ideas. R. J.

Biology.

BIOLOGY FOR SCHOOLS: by E. R. Spratt, D.Sc., F.L.S., A.K.C., and A. V. Spratt, M.Sc., A.K.C. (4s. 6d. University Tutorial Press.)

Intended for those students preparing to take the School Certificate Examination of the various universities, this volume may well make a wide appeal, especially to teachers of nature study. It is eminently practical; the work being based upon and involving observation of plants and animals in their native habitats, and the careful examination of their structure, correlated, of course, with function.

Living things, both visible and invisible, come under survey; and due consideration is given to their adaptations to their particular mode of life. The work throughout is thoroughly reliable, and the very lucid text is copiously illustrated, the line drawings being admirably clear. F. H. S.

Art.

ART IN THE INFANT AND JUNIOR SCHOOL: by A. G. Hannah. (3s. 6d. The Grant Educational Co., Ltd.)

Mr. Hannah is an enthusiast in the cause of art, but he is a very rational one; and those who are concerned with the subject should find this record of his work in infant and junior schools exceedingly helpful and stimulating. He traces the development of the young artist from the apparently aimless and meaningless scribbling stages to that in which he has learned to see intelligently, and has attained to some degree of skill and control of his materials. Colour masses naturally precede black lines; the expression of the emotions and ideas of beauty are of greater importance than correctness of detail; and art lessons should be a practical recognition of the human desire to create something. These are the fundamental features of Mr. Hannah's attitude towards his subject; and those who take advantage of his skill and experience will find themselves pursuing the same fruitful middle course between that of those misguided enthusiasts who deem it sufficient that their young charges are interested and amused, albeit their products are "like nothing on earth"; and that of those who would restrict the "art" work of the unfortunate youngster to the mere copying of objects within the limits of their undeveloped capacities.

F. H. S.

PAINTING GONE MAD: by Camille Mauclair. (1s. net. Pitman.)

Ordinary mortals who think that art of any kind, including painting, ought to bear some relation to reality, however idealised, will enjoy these articles reprinted from the Paris "Figaro," and translated by Frank L. Emanuel. Mr. Mauclair not only holds up to well-merited ridicule the preposterous and often appallingly hideous products of the Cubists, Post Impressionists, and their kind, but declares that the vogue they enjoy is largely the result of shameless "boosting" by unprincipled critics and dealers. However that may be, the unfortunate fact remains that there are a sufficient number of people found outside their own ranks, so curiously constituted mentally as to declare their appreciation of the monstrosities perpetrated, and thus to keep the perpetrators in countenance. This curious mental constitution is confirmed by such facts as these: a prize was recently awarded to an impressionist painting which was afterwards discovered to have been judged while upside down; while at exhibitions in which cubist, impressionist, and other "modern" works of art have been deliberately mingled with the work of very young children, and of the inmates of lunatic asylums, it has been found impossible for the uninitiated visitor to distinguish between them.

(Continued on page 204.)

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TOBIT.—Have you had a hard day, sweetheart?

ANNA.—Not particularly to-day. I was working in

the Government offices to-day. It is a pleasant rest to work in the Government offices. It is their reposeful atmosphere that is so soothing. Are you on Government employment, porter?

RAPHAEL.—Yes, in a sense.

ANNA.—I thought you looked too fat and healthy to be a casual porter.

An old theme for humour, you say, but how freshly served up. As a further example of subtle irony, consider this passage from the one-act play, spoken by a young Glasgow shopkeeper:—

"I'm a thinking man, you see. You'll be a bit old-fashioned yourself being a hundred and three, but I aye think the world's moving on. There's the wireless, d'ye see, and economics, and Einstein's theory. And there's the Quantum. You'll have heard tell of it, the Quantum? I'll not say I right understand it, but I believe in the Quantum. . . . To tell you the real honest truth, in Glasgow we leave religion to the Irish and get on with the job."

If space permitted we could go on quoting *ad libitum*, for the plays are full of good things, and we have greatly enjoyed reading them. We commend the book very heartily to the notice of our readers. P. M. G.

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(Continued on page 206.)

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THE EDUCATION OUTLOOK

JULY, 1931.

EDUCATION AND INDUSTRY.

In his presidential address to the Association for Education in Industry and Commerce, Lord Eustace Percy said that an educational policy for an industrial nation must be one which treated modern industry as the material on which the next generation had to exercise its mind, not as the material into which that generation had to be fitted. This is excellent counsel, provided always that we do not confine ourselves too strictly to modern industry as the material of instruction. While relating our instruction to the ascertained needs and conditions of the world outside school, we must not forget that "life is more than meat, and the body than raiment."

For too long our schools were in bondage to the traditional mode of teaching, based mainly on devices, invented in the later Renaissance period, for the purpose of imparting a knowledge of Latin and Greek. Every subject in the curriculum was treated separately and apart from the rest, and every subject was cut up into separate stages or grades, after being analysed by adult minds. The result was often a series of dull and dry prescriptions, engendering no love of learning, and leaving pupils unable to relate what they heard in school to the experiences of everyday life outside.

Then came the cry for more "technical education," a phrase which was much used by men who imagined vaguely that a complete scheme of technical schools would somehow enable them to meet foreign competition. It was not perceived that technical education must have for its foundations a greatly improved system of primary schools. "Even now," Lord Eustace Percy says, "the chief weakness of our educational system is the lack of finish in our elementary education." That is not to say that this education should be rounded off with a terminus of its own. The "finish" that is needed is greater thoroughness in learning, and the power to advance to further learning without having to hark back and make good early deficiencies.

"Subjects" should not be isolated from each other. Every one should be linked with the rest, and so taught as to help the pupil to comprehend his own environment. The history or geography in a city school will differ from that in a village school. Both will have elements in common, but the treatment will be adjusted to the child's surroundings. In this way every school may follow the accepted curriculum and still cultivate its own spirit and

individuality. We shall no longer have country schools which are indistinguishable from those in urban centres, and our town schools will alter their methods of "nature study."

Schools of every type will become preparatory in the true sense, making an effort to prepare pupils for the next succeeding stage of life.

This will lead to a new conception of the relation between education and industry. Instead of premature attempts to fit boys and girls for employment in office or factory, we shall try to improve their understanding and sharpen their wits, so that they may readily make themselves useful in any post. They will be educated and not merely trained. The training will be recognised as a task for the employer, one which he ought to undertake as an offset to the employment of adolescent workers. This kind of responsibility marked the system of apprenticeship, and it should be revived to-day. State schools, however excellent, cannot meet all the needs of modern industry, and the example of enlightened business firms shows that "Works Schools" are an investment bringing in a good return in the form of a corps of skilled and intelligent workers.

The value of the investment is shown in the volume recently published by Constable under the title: "The Firm of Cadbury, 1831-1931." We learn that as early as 1852 the girls employed in the Cadbury works were allowed to finish an hour earlier, on two days a week, in order to attend an evening school. In 1906 the firm established an educational scheme, and required every boy and girl from fourteen to sixteen to attend an evening school twice a week. The upper limit of age was raised later to eighteen, and for apprentices to twenty-one. In 1913 a day continuation school was established in the works, and all young employes attended for one half-day a week with pay. In 1917 the pupils were allowed the opportunity of attending for an additional half-day without pay, and over one-third accepted the offer. Now the school is a well-equipped institution, supported in part by the Birmingham Education Authority. There is a wide curriculum, designed to give not only technical knowledge but a sound intellectual training. Special ability has been discovered and released, no fewer than four pupils having proceeded to Cambridge, and others to Birmingham University. This admirable enterprise has helped the prosperity of the firm and has brightened the lives of its workpeople.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS.

FROM A CORRESPONDENT.

Progress of Registration.

The number of applications for admission to Registration and membership of the Royal Society of Teachers during May was 892, bringing the total of applications to 84,331. A very large number of application forms were sent out in response to requests, and since the beginning of June the total of applications has grown by over 1,500, not taking into account a further 2,000 or more which have come in under the instalment scheme. This influx of applications is probably due to the fact that the fee for registration is to be increased. The date originally fixed for this increase was July 1, but having regard to the position of young teachers who will be leaving the training colleges early in July, the Council has decided to postpone the increase to October 1 next. This will afford opportunity to young teachers to pay a first instalment, and thereby become entitled to admission, if qualified, at the lower fee. The opportunity is also open to other teachers who may have delayed their applications. It should be noted, however, that the Council has ordered that there shall be no further postponement beyond October 1. On that date the fee will be raised to three pounds (*not guineas*).

The Increased Fee.

A correspondent has written to complain about the increase in the fee, suggesting that it is ordered only to bring in recruits. The truth is that the increase was decided on only after careful consideration and with some reluctance. The lease of the Council's offices expires this year, and the necessary renewal involves heavy expense for dilapidations, besides a greatly increased charge for ground rent. The Council's modest surplus is invested in Government stock, and it is fairly certain that in the not-distant future some Chancellor of the Exchequer will negotiate a "conversion," with the aim of reducing the interest on this stock. Hence the Council must look forward to a reduced yield from investments, while providing for increased charges for office accommodation. It was clearly necessary to raise the fee, and it was equally necessary to give due warning of the increase. Otherwise there would have been just grounds for complaint. Probably the warning has stimulated to action many who have intended to become Registered, but have seen no reason to act promptly. Apparently the chance of saving one pound has furnished an incentive, but it must not be supposed that the Council raised the fee with this in view. There were other and stronger reasons. Another correspondent says: "When I hear the Royal Society of Teachers discussed, the chief com-

plaint seems to be that the fee is too big." This is a somewhat strange criticism when it is recalled that the fee is a single and final payment, covering life membership of the Society. To obtain a pension a teacher must work for thirty years, or for twenty years in the case of a woman who is allowed ten years rebate if she marries. The present fee of forty shillings thus represents a payment of 1s. 4d. a year, and the increased fee of sixty shillings will represent only 2s. a year, or twopence a month. Compared with the fees paid in other professions the amount is trifling. When teachers have determined to become a real professional body, recognised by the public as having proper standards of admission, they will have less difficulty than at present in obtaining salaries which will provide the means for paying a Registration Fee commensurate with the importance of their work.

The Instalment Scheme.

Where a qualified teacher finds the payment of the fee in one sum inconvenient, it is possible to pay by instalments, either directly to the offices of the Council or through the authorised collector. Already in many schools there are collectors who are generously helping the work of the Council. They are furnished with Instalment Cards and Record Sheets on which the amounts paid are recorded. Remittances are forwarded to the office at intervals of about one month, and any out-of-pocket expenses incurred by a collector are defrayed by the Council. The scheme works smoothly, and steps are being taken to make it known to all young teachers leaving the training colleges this year. The Council hopes to establish a practice whereby all teachers who become qualified will at once proceed to become Registered, and pass through the grade of associate member to full membership as soon as they have taught for the period prescribed by the Council. For those who have taken a course of training in teaching and are qualified also in respect of attainments this period is three terms.

Sir Harry Reichel.

The news of the death of Sir Harry Reichel, formerly Principal of the University College of North Wales, Bangor, recalls the fact that he was one of the original members of the Teachers Registration Council appointed in 1912. He was also the eleventh teacher to become registered.

Addresses.

All members of the Society who change their professional or private address are asked to send the new address to the office at 47 Bedford Square.

THE MONTH'S CAUSERIE.

BY THE DOMINIE.

Salaries.

The speech made by Sir George Lunn at the Conference of the Association of Education Committees was described by a later speaker as an example of playing to the gallery. The press reports tell me that this criticism was received with cries of "Withdraw!" and it was withdrawn accordingly. I fail to see any grave aspersion on Sir George Lunn in the remark of his critic, for the speech was an attempt to justify, in the eyes of the public and not merely in those of his audience, the action of the Authorities' Panel of the Burnham Committees. The Panel had demanded from the teachers at the outset an undertaking to accept a reduction in the salaries bill. Sir George Lunn knows very well that this preliminary demand has laid him and his panel colleagues open to criticism. So he brought all his oratorical skill to the attempt to justify the demand, hoping thereby to win support from the gallery of laymen. He made a bold effort to prove that the Burnham Scales have been related to the cost-of-living figures, and he tried to show that the Teachers' Panel were bound beforehand to refuse any proposal for reductions. On the former point the record is against him, and on the latter he might have learned that the Conference of the National Union of Teachers at Yarmouth gave a free hand to the Executive.

The Teachers' Side.

Sir George Lunn appears to take too much for granted. He says that the national finances are in a bad way, and he goes on to assume that the salaries of teachers must be reduced. If I remind him that the greatest possible reduction will mean very little when compared with the vast expenditure in other quarters, he will say that every little helps. But he made no suggestion that the salaries of education officials should be reduced. Nor did he give any indication of remembering that a very large number of our teachers were recruited on the understanding that their salaries and pensions would be based on the Burnham Scales. They have planned their lives accordingly, have sent their children to schools of good standing, and have undertaken obligations which cannot be evaded. Their position is wholly different from that of men and women who take risks in commerce or industry, for in these enterprises there are chances of great rewards, far beyond the highest hopes of any teacher. This talk about teachers being called on to make sacrifices leaves me cold, so long as the homily is directed to sections of the community, and not to the whole. It resembles all too closely the kind of exhortation which was addressed to young men during the early days of the war.

Salaries and Recruiting.

Apart from the effects of salary reductions on existing teachers, there is the effect on recruiting to be considered. We still follow the unwise plan of paying special bounties to induce young people to take a course of preparation for teaching, thereby wasting large sums of money every year. But in these days the subsidised student is under no legal obligation to take up teaching, and I have been told by tutors at Oxford and Cambridge that the teacher's grant is sometimes sought and obtained by men who do not wish to become schoolmasters, but need financial help to obtain a degree. However this may be, it is plain that the student who leaves a training college or university will not become a teacher unless the financial rewards are reasonably good. A reduction in the salary rates will cause a falling off in the supply of recruits, and a consequent difficulty in staffing the schools with the sort of men and women needed. During recent years we have spent large sums on building and equipment, and we shall be doing a foolish thing if we allow the teaching force to decline in numbers or efficiency. Already we have in our schools some scores of thousands of persons acting as teachers, although their professional qualifications fall below the standard for Registration.

The Board and Salaries.

I find the attitude of the Board of Education towards salary discussions difficult to understand. They are responsible for 60 per cent. of the cost, but they appear to be willing to allow the Local Authorities to have full responsibility for the rules and conditions. Previous experience seems to show that they prefer to hold aloof until agreement is reached, then reserving the power to revise any arrangement, for the are told that if the Burnham Committees they carry arrive at a decision this will have to be done afresh in the light of the Report of the elementary National Expenditure. This procedure, many a accord with the principle of least expenditure, is manifestly very convenient for the Local Authorities who went to any could read a enables them to escape odium, themselves understood stages. But it is hardly fair one had been having teachers to ask them to forego even or eight years. are to be modified at the Board's hands. The truth is that the independence to do such things as little more than a convenient writing. thing they do or attempt, yet how many power of Whitehall. I accurately, or draw an in-Education Committee even display an intelligent the question of salaries abouts of the different parts overtly, instead of they happen to have been there?

THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS.

FROM A CORRESPONDENT.

Progress of Registration.

The number of applications for admission to Registration and membership of the Royal Society of Teachers during May was 892, bringing the total of applications to 84,331. A very large number of application forms were sent out in response to requests, and since the beginning of June the total of applications has grown by over 1,500, not taking into account a further 2,000 or more which have come in under the instalment scheme. This influx of applications is probably due to the fact that the fee for registration is to be increased. The date originally fixed for this increase was July 1, but having regard to the position of young teachers who will be leaving the training colleges early in July, the Council has decided to postpone the increase to October 1 next. This will afford opportunity to young teachers to pay a first instalment, and thereby become entitled to admission, if qualified, at the lower fee. The opportunity is also open to other teachers who may have delayed their applications. It should be noted, however, that the Council has ordered that there shall be no further postponement beyond October 1. On that date the fee will be raised to three pounds (*not guineas*).

The Increased Fee.

A correspondent has written to complain about the increase in the fee, suggesting that it is ordered only to bring in recruits. The truth is that the increase was decided on only after careful consideration and with some reluctance. The lease of the Council's offices expires this year, and the necessary renewal involves heavy expense for dilapidations, besides a greatly increased charge for ground rent. The Council's modest surplus is invested in Government stock, and it is fairly certain that in the not-distant future some Chancellor of the Exchequer will negotiate a "conversion," with the aim of reducing the interest on this stock. Hence the Council must look forward to a reduced yield from investments, while providing for increased charges for office accommodation. It was clearly necessary to raise the fee, and it was equally necessary to give due warning of the increase. Otherwise there would have been just grounds for complaint. Probably the warning has stimulated to action many who have intended to become Registered, but have seen no reason to act promptly. Apparently the chance of saving one pound has furnished an incentive, but it must not be supposed that the Council raised the fee with this in view. There were other and stronger reasons. Another correspondent says: "When I hear the Royal Society of Teachers discussed, the chief com-

plaint seems to be that the fee is too big." This is a somewhat strange criticism when it is recalled that the fee is a single and final payment, covering life membership of the Society. To obtain a pension a teacher must work for thirty years, or for twenty years in the case of a woman who is allowed ten years rebate if she marries. The present fee of forty shillings thus represents a payment of 1s. 4d. a year, and the increased fee of sixty shillings will represent only 2s. a year, or twopence a month. Compared with the fees paid in other professions the amount is trifling. When teachers have determined to become a real professional body, recognised by the public as having proper standards of admission, they will have less difficulty than at present in obtaining salaries which will provide the means for paying a Registration Fee commensurate with the importance of their work.

The Instalment Scheme.

Where a qualified teacher finds the payment of the fee in one sum inconvenient, it is possible to pay by instalments, either directly to the offices of the Council or through the authorised collector. Already in many schools there are collectors who are generously helping the work of the Council. They are furnished with Instalment Cards and Record Sheets on which the amounts paid are recorded. Remittances are forwarded to the office at intervals of about one month, and any out-of-pocket expenses incurred by a collector are defrayed by the Council. The scheme works smoothly, and steps are being taken to make it known to all young teachers leaving the training colleges this year. The Council hopes to establish a practice whereby all teachers who become qualified will at once proceed to become Registered, and pass through the grade of associate member to full membership as soon as they have taught for the period prescribed by the Council. For those who have taken a course of training in teaching and are qualified also in respect of attainments this period is three terms.

Sir Harry Reichel.

The news of the death of Sir Harry Reichel, formerly Principal of the University College of North Wales, Bangor, recalls the fact that he was one of the original members of the Teachers Registration Council appointed in 1912. He was also the eleventh teacher to become registered.

Addresses.

All members of the Society who change their professional or private address are asked to send the new address to the office at 47 Bedford Square.

THE MONTH'S CAUSERIE.

By THE DOMINIE.

Salaries.

The speech made by Sir George Lunn at the Conference of the Association of Education Committees was described by a later speaker as an example of playing to the gallery. The press reports tell me that this criticism was received with cries of "Withdraw!" and it was withdrawn accordingly. I fail to see any grave aspersion on Sir George Lunn in the remark of his critic, for the speech was an attempt to justify, in the eyes of the public and not merely in those of his audience, the action of the Authorities' Panel of the Burnham Committees. The Panel had demanded from the teachers at the outset an undertaking to accept a reduction in the salaries bill. Sir George Lunn knows very well that this preliminary demand has laid him and his panel colleagues open to criticism. So he brought all his oratorical skill to the attempt to justify the demand, hoping thereby to win support from the gallery of laymen. He made a bold effort to prove that the Burnham Scales have been related to the cost-of-living figures, and he tried to show that the Teachers' Panel were bound beforehand to refuse any proposal for reductions. On the former point the record is against him, and on the latter he might have learned that the Conference of the National Union of Teachers at Yarmouth gave a free hand to the Executive.

The Teachers' Side.

Sir George Lunn appears to take too much for granted. He says that the national finances are in a bad way, and he goes on to assume that the salaries of teachers must be reduced. If I remind him that the greatest possible reduction will mean very little when compared with the vast expenditure in other quarters, he will say that every little helps. But he made no suggestion that the salaries of education officials should be reduced. Nor did he give any indication of remembering that a very large number of our teachers were recruited on the understanding that their salaries and pensions would be based on the Burnham Scales. They have planned their lives accordingly, have sent their children to schools of good standing, and have undertaken obligations which cannot be evaded. Their position is wholly different from that of men and women who take risks in commerce or industry, for in these enterprises there are chances of great rewards, far beyond the highest hopes of any teacher. This talk about teachers being called on to make sacrifices leaves me cold, so long as the homily is directed to sections of the community, and not to the whole. It resembles all too closely the kind of exhortation which was addressed to young men during the early days of the war.

Salaries and Recruiting.

Apart from the effects of salary reductions on existing teachers, there is the effect on recruiting to be considered. We still follow the unwise plan of paying special bounties to induce young people to take a course of preparation for teaching, thereby wasting large sums of money every year. But in these days the subsidised student is under no legal obligation to take up teaching, and I have been told by tutors at Oxford and Cambridge that the teacher's grant is sometimes sought and obtained by men who do not wish to become schoolmasters, but need financial help to obtain a degree. However this may be, it is plain that the student who leaves a training college or university will not become a teacher unless the financial rewards are reasonably good. A reduction in the salary rates will cause a falling off in the supply of recruits, and a consequent difficulty in staffing the schools with the sort of men and women needed. During recent years we have spent large sums on building and equipment, and we shall be doing a foolish thing if we allow the teaching force to decline in numbers or efficiency. Already we have in our schools some scores of thousands of persons acting as teachers, although their professional qualifications fall below the standard for Registration.

The Board and Salaries.

I find the attitude of the Board of Education towards salary discussions difficult to understand. They are responsible for 60 per cent. of the outlay, but they appear to be willing to allow the Local Authorities to have full responsibility for the negotiations. Previous experience seems to show that they prefer to hold aloof until agreement is reached, reserving the power to revise any arrangement. We are told that if the Burnham Committees resume and arrive at a decision this will have to be considered afresh in the light of the Report of the Committee on National Expenditure. This procedure may be in accord with the principle of leaving educational administration to the Local Authorities, and it is manifestly very convenient for the Board, since it enables them to escape odium, especially in the early stages. But it is hardly fair to the authorities and teachers to ask them to formulate proposals which are to be modified at the Board's pleasure. The plain truth is that the independence of Local Authorities is little more than a convenient official phrase. Everything they do or attempt is subject to the over-riding power of Whitehall. If I were a member of a Local Education Committee, I should be inclined to leave the question of salaries to be settled by the Board overtly, instead of covertly as now.

The Report on Private Schools.

The Departmental Committee on Private Schools has not yet issued a Report, but the London correspondence column of the *Manchester Guardian* recently contained a forecast to the effect that Local Authorities are to have responsibility for the efficiency of schools in their respective areas. I am told that this prophecy is incorrect, and I am glad to have the assurance. Private schools ought not to be left to the control of Local Authorities, since this would mean a wide diversity of standards. The Authorities should be charged to see that the premises and equipment are suitable for educational purposes, but the quality of the education given is a concern of the Board, acting through their inspectors. The greatest need is to ensure that those in control of private schools are professionally equipped. This would be done by requiring that in all private schools opened after an appointed date the head teachers should be Registered. Such a rule would speedily bring an end to the worst scandals of private schools, and would involve no hardship for the many efficient ones. Unfortunately, there is little immediate prospect of this course being adopted. There are people who think that anybody should be allowed to teach, but I observe that they are usually extremely careful in choosing teachers for their own children.

Day Schools or Boarding Schools.

I see that Dr. Ernest Barker, Professor of Political Science at Cambridge, has been saying that the public school system is not likely to maintain the vogue it has had in the past. He said that he was anxious to avoid any attack on the system, but he did not think its merits outweighed its disadvantages. Among the latter was a failure to encourage individuality in the pupils. He considered that the future might rest largely upon day schools, and that these would come to replace the public school as the main factor in secondary education, imposing less financial strain on parents, and doing away with some of the social distinctions now prevalent in the field of education.

Meanwhile there is a proposal to establish boarding schools for elementary school pupils, where the home surroundings are unsatisfactory. For this suggestion there is some justification, but we should have to guard against the danger of destroying the individuality mentioned by Dr. Barker. Few results of schooling could be more pathetic than the "institutionalised child," who has been drilled into obedience, punctuality, cleanliness, and other outward shows of virtue at the expense of human qualities. It is a very poor home that is not better than the best of institutions for a young child. That there are such poor homes is only too true, and while they exist institutions will be needed.

A Word of Praise.

Under the heading "Local History in a Village School," the *Yorkshire Herald* of May 13 said:—"In the current issue of an educational contemporary there appears an interesting account of the teaching of history in a village school. The method will be well known to those interested in education, since it is that so successfully practised by Mr. W. Clayton, of Appleton Roebuck School, York. The basis of the teaching in this school is to interest the pupils in the present as an outcome of the past and themselves as the makers of history. Local history is utilised to make their studies a living reality instead of the dry science it so often is. Under such tuition it is not so surprising to learn that the older pupils undertake definite simple research work, and we read of a senior boy drawing up a 'Wheat' graph. Could any large urban school show greater educational enterprise? This small village school has been for years an inspiring example to similarly situated schools throughout England and Wales." I welcome these kind words concerning an esteemed colleague, although the writer displayed uncalled-for reticence in refraining from mentioning the title of THE EDUCATION OUTLOOK. Mr. Clayton's school is a place where children find happiness in learning, chiefly because they are learning to understand their own world properly.

Mr. F. Wilkinson.

I regret to record the death of Mr. Frederick Wilkinson, C.B.E., who last October retired from the post of Director of Education for Bolton. Mr. Wilkinson, who was seventy-one years of age, had fifty-seven years' service in connection with education work in Bolton. A native of that town, he went to work at a foundry at an early age. By attending night school and devoting his leisure time to study, he educated himself to such an extent that in a comparatively short time he was able to become a pupil teacher at the Folds Road Board School, Bolton. He proceeded to Westminster Training College, and in 1882 became head master of his old school. In 1902 he found himself the first Director of Education for Bolton. After the war, at the request of the Government, he organised training and instruction centres for neurasthenic ex-service men, and in recognition of this work he was awarded the C.B.E. He was the first secretary to the Technical Instruction Committee of the Bolton Corporation, and had held many important offices in national and county educational spheres, including those of secretary and chairman of the Association.

KNOWING AND DOING.

By CICELY BOAS.

The celebrity who makes the speech at the prize-giving invariably tells the boys that he never won prizes when he was at school. This is regarded as a stock joke, but the true reason for it is that school prizes are won by knowing things, and celebrity is attained by doing things.

It has never been realised, least of all by pedagogues, that it is really quite useless to know things. "Faith without work is dead, being alone." The child must learn to speak correctly before it learns grammar; the man must learn to ride before he studies the theory of equitation.

Suppose a boy at the end of his schooling knew perfectly every subject he had been taught, would he be of any more use to his fellow men than a good encyclopædia? He could teach, of course—but *could* he teach? The gift of teaching is not given to all men who have the gift of acquiring knowledge. He could undertake research, for the one thing he would have learnt to do would be to assimilate facts—but there is no shortage of professors, and our scholar would not necessarily possess an attractive literary style. Apart from these two channels, it is difficult to see what all this knowledge leads to. With a brain worn out by assimilating facts, and with an unpractised hand, he will have to turn to and learn to do something before he can think of earning his living.

Now it is an interesting fact that whereas it is exceedingly difficult to teach people to know things thoroughly, and to go on knowing them, it is comparatively easy to teach people to do things. People can be taught to do the most astonishingly difficult feats of acrobatics, contortions, juggling, trick-riding, bicycling, skating, and tight-rope dancing, and we go to the music-hall or the circus and are amazed for an evening, and do not even remember the names of the performers next day. Equally, soldiers and musical-comedy choruses can be trained in a short space of time into a marvellous perfection of drill; factory girls attain incredible speed and accuracy of hand and eye; and quite "uneducated" people learn a skill in such occupations as knitting, sewing, and carpentry, which bears no relation to the length of time they have been learning them.

But modern schooling is devoted almost exclusively to the acquisition of knowledge, and if we admit for a moment the premise that knowledge is useless, and that only ability to do has any value, we shall find that the average man has profited very little from his "education"—excluding, of course,

any benefits to character and social position which he may have derived from it.

What, in fact, has he learnt to do? First and foremost, he has learnt to read, and this is a very remarkable feat. Reading, especially in English, where spelling bears so little relation to pronunciation, is an exceedingly difficult thing to learn. Anyone who has tried in later life to learn to read Braille, or Morse, or shorthand, or any code, or a foreign language such as Russian or Greek, or Chinese, with a different script from our own, will admit that it is an exceedingly difficult task. Yet we set children of four and five to learn to read, and not only clever children of intellectual parents, but every child in the realm, gipsy and bargee and labourer alike; and we do not give them highly skilled psychologists and professors to teach them. Some are taught irregularly by scatter-brained young mothers or uneducated nurses, some by amateur child-lovers in private schools, and the vast majority by devoted, uninspired infant teachers. And yet every child in the kingdom, except the actual mental defectives, learns in not more than three years' schooling to read well enough to understand an ordinary book or newspaper. There are two reasons for this astounding national achievement. One is the necessity imposed by public opinion—a man must be able to read nowadays: it is unthinkable in England that he should not—and what must be must. The other is that reading is a question of learning to do, not to know, and once acquired is practised daily and cannot be forgotten. All this applies also to writing, and to the first four rules of arithmetic, both in plain figures and in money; though in writing and in arithmetic the standard of attainment is probably rather lower than in reading. These famous old three R's are, for the vast majority of the population, all that they carry with them of their schooling through life.

This does not merely refer to the elementary school child. Many a society debutante, many a Guards' subaltern, can boast of very little more. Of the thousands of young officers who went to France during the War, how many could read a French newspaper, or make themselves understood in a French shop? Yet every one had been having French lessons for at least seven or eight years. They had been taught to *know* verbs and declensions and grammatical rules—not to *do* such things as speaking and reading and writing.

Every child learns geography, yet how many people can read a map accurately, or draw an intelligible road-map, or even display an intelligent knowledge of the whereabouts of the different parts of the world, unless they happen to have been there?

They are not taught to do geography, only to know it, and such knowledge in most cases only lasts till the next lesson.

As regards history, a recent book has proved that there is only one date in the whole of English history which is "memorable" to the average man.

Music is an interesting example of the same thing. The time is mercifully past when every young lady was taught the piano; nowadays hardly anyone learns it, and we are dubbed an "unmusical" nation. The reason is that those among our mothers who were only average musical were simply taught to sing a song or play a piece. Faced with music they had not seen before they were as helpless as a child might be if asked to read a passage from a book when it had only been taught to recite poetry by heart. They had not been taught to do, only to know.

Let the average reader ask him (or her) self, then, what can he (or she) do? Read, write, and cipher, of course; probably bicycle; in the case of women, knit, sew, and cook. Perhaps it comes as a slight shock to realise that these accomplishments are absolutely all that in a civilised community we can be moderately certain of people of any class possessing. If we want anything else we have to make special inquiries; thousands of people in all classes possess no other qualifications. That is why women of good character can always find work, whilst men cannot—because women can do more things than men. The man who advertises that he will "go anywhere and do anything" may be prepared to go anywhere but he can probably do nothing.

The average reader will announce with pride that, in addition to these accomplishments, he can ride, swim, drive a car, skate, row, typewrite, play tennis and golf and bridge; and we must give him the shock of remembering that all these boasted accomplishments are things he has picked up in his spare time.

If he admits, as he must do, that he could read, write, and cipher, almost as well at the age of ten as he can now; that his athletics and parlour tricks have been picked up in his spare time; and that his training for his particular profession was laboriously acquired after his schooling was over—we may well ask what on earth he was doing during the eight or nine years when the greater part of his waking time was devoted to being taught.

Some school boys emerge from school knowing everything, others know nothing; but as the world measures their value not by what they know but by what they can do, their chances are very fairly equal when it comes to employment. The only person who has any serious advantage over his fellows is the man who can do something, for that is a very rare accomplishment indeed.

THAT SCHOOL REPORT.

By B. MITCHELL.

"Why, oh why, must we spoil the last week of each term by writing these horrid reports? No one wants them, and they are so obviously insincere." So sighs the staffroom, and Miss Harman, who has been teaching for little more than a year, is specially bitter.

"Can you believe it? The head master actually said we must put nothing harsh or very critical about anyone; not even about Lucy, who is a vile sinner, if ever there was one. Deceitful, I call it!"

How the point of view differs! The head mistress wants, more than a little, to help her girls to do their best; now by encouragement and praise, now by kind and just criticism or rebuke. But in all but the large wealthy schools her hands are tied when signing reports. She dare not say, or allow her staff to say, critical words of Mary, Joan, or Betty, for unless the school report is a long list of "excellents" and "very goods," the parents are dissatisfied, and blame the school.

"Mary always did so well where she was before; we'd better take her away next term as she doesn't seem to be getting on."

"Joan says Miss X. hates her, so she'll never do well there. We'd better make a change."

No criticism can be accepted. Instead of parents and teachers working together and trusting each other to do the best for each child, even if that best must sometimes be disagreeable, a spirit of antagonism springs up. Hence the long lists of fulsome praise which are sent out from most schools at the end of each term. A race of prodigies must be growing up, and teachers surely can have no real trouble in getting such "excellent" pupils to move swiftly along the paths of knowledge!

Then why does Miss B. groan: "The woman is not born who could teach Jean the rudiments of history"; while Miss J. snorts: "History, that's nothing; any fool can absorb a few facts of history! But it's absolutely impossible to knock any geometry into a head as thick as May's!"

And in the home? Does anybody value the school report? Yes, a few fathers and mothers carefully tuck away each report as it comes, and feel happy and proud that little Betty is making such progress! A great many give an idle glance, and forget all about it in the interest of the next item on the wireless, whilst the children jeer, scowl, or feel complacent.

"Its no use, Dad, you needn't blame me; I never could do arithmetic."

A lot of labour, some fretted tempers, a good deal of ink and paper used three times a year; but the holidays are coming, so never mind, just let's grin and write 'em!

IMPRESSIONS OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

BY A LONDON TEACHER.

One can think of nothing more refreshing to an English teacher than a visit to America and her schools. The latter are so full of life, experiment, and a delightful keenness—a zest which one feels in keeping with the *joie de vivre* of American people. Moreover, there are to be seen working there many schemes in line with our own efforts to reorganise our educational system.

In America a child spends the first six years of his school life in a "grade school," which includes the kindergarten. About the age of eleven, he graduates from this to one of the marvellously equipped junior high schools, where his education will be continued along one of several diverse lines. Then, when about fourteen years of age, when we in England cast adrift our young folk—just as they are beginning to value and take an interest in their school work—the American child enters a "senior high school" for another three years. Then, if he passes the Entrance Examination, a free place in his own State university is open to him.

Each State makes its own laws in regard to education, and so the school-leaving age varies in different parts of U.S.A. But I was assured that in no State is it lower than sixteen, while in some States, as I found in Michigan for example, it is as high as eighteen. Only in very exceptional circumstances is permission granted to leave school before that age, and then only on condition that ten hours (day-time) weekly be spent in a vocational school until the age of eighteen is reached.

One could not long be in contact with the people and schools of America without being aware of the very different attitude of the average Englishman and American in regard to education. Its greatest boon—the development of a human being towards a full, free, and vital life—is seen perhaps no more clearly in America than in England, but the American citizen seems more keenly alive to its bread and butter value, and to its national importance. Moreover, the real democracy of America seems expressed in and by her schools. In them the children of the highest State Ministers, of the professional man, the tradesman, the labourer, sit side by side, and the schools are built and equipped accordingly.

True, there are, here and there, private schools and colleges of a very high standard, patronised by some Americans for various reasons. On the other hand, some of the greatest men in America insist on their children going through the public schools. (The name "public" is not a misnomer as in England, but is rightly applied in America to all State-provided schools.) To illustrate the

truth of this, which I queried, the Educational Adviser of Beaver, Pennsylvania, assured me that in one of his high schools there—a small one, comparatively—sat the only son of a Judge of the Supreme Court. This high functionary had insisted on sending his child through the public schools, so that he should imbibe early the true American outlook, and thus fit himself for a great career.

In the same school sat the son of one of the largest steel and iron magnates, side by side with the trolley-car driver's child. Small wonder that no kind of work is considered derogatory by an American, however cultured! One cannot but regard with sympathy and admiration the students one finds earning their maintenance fees for their next semester at college, by acting as porters and dish-washers in the great hotels during their vacations, working at "unseens" in odd minutes.

But to return to the schools themselves, and to begin with the "grade schools" as seen in Michigan, Pennsylvania, and New York State.

The first striking thing about them seemed their size. But everything in America seemed big—railway engines, streets, houses, gardens, trees, fields, parks, lakes, rivers, factories, sky-scrapers, the people themselves, and their talk. But it was not the generous size of the playgrounds which impressed me so much as the fact that they had no enclosing wall, resembling in this respect American gardens, fields, and even cemeteries! But these open playgrounds are well patrolled, and that frequently by child officers. In busy districts, tall, white-sashed boy-patrols from the high schools even control the street traffic near their schools at assembly and dismissal, and they seemed to be obeyed as readily as are our English policemen.

Many of the grade schools are two-storied buildings. A spacious and often beautiful wooden staircase leads from the entrance hall to the top suite of rooms. The classrooms are large and lofty. More cubic feet of space are allowed for each child in America than in England. Thus room is provided not only for the individual desks—as a rule scientifically adapted to the body of a growing child, and graded to size—but for various items of useful furniture. For example, I noted in the rooms several occasional tables used to hold flowers, books, magazines, "occupations," stereoscopic glasses and slides, from which children freely helped themselves in odd minutes between tasks. There was room also for the small movable chairs used for children to group themselves informally around their teacher.

The furniture and wooden fittings of the classrooms were very pleasing to the eye, being made of beautifully marked, stained, and polished wood.

Blackboards form an interesting feature, being used by the children as much as by their teachers. So they usually extend round three sides of the room, and are graded in height according to the size of the children in the class. In one class I saw an interesting example of their use in an arithmetic lesson. The girls came out and each set down with marvellous speed a compound addition sum. Then, at a given signal, a sum race began. Meanwhile the boys in their desks were working to check the girls. This they did with hilarious interest and zest, numbering the winners as fast as they finished; after which boys and girls changed places for a fresh race.

There was always one or more spacious canvas boards, on which all pictures, posters, slogans, and children's work were easily pinned. The slogans, often composed by the children themselves, were often striking. They must lead up naturally to an understanding use of advertisement, an art in which America excels.

One could not but be struck by the ingenuity of some of the classroom fittings. To mention a few:—the maps which came up and down like spring-blinds over the blackboards; the globes which were often seen suspended like swing-about chandeliers, ready for constant use, equally ready for clearance; the ingenious sun-blinds which could be unrolled both upwards and downwards from the centre of the window so as merely to exclude sun-glare, while allowing the soft top light and air to enter, and this without any annoyance by flapping; the refuse-bins into which children readily put waste paper for the pleasure of using the clever automatic device of their covers.

One could not but feel envious of the sanitary equipment of the schools. American children do not have to run across a playground in foul weather conditions, as do our scholars, for offices, which it was a pleasure to examine, are placed in the school basements. Tiles, up-to-date china pans and flushes, paper cabinets, such as are fitted now into good new middle-class houses in England, are the rule; while adjoining wash-basins, with liquid soap containers and individual paper towels, are provided. So in American schools the teaching of the hygiene lesson, "Wash your hands after using the toilet," can be practised as well as preached.

Then, too, no American child can be infected by drinking at the school fountains after a sore-mouthed or germ-carrying playmate. For only the cupless variety are in use. Pressing a button causes a little stream of water to spurt up, then down, the child drinking from the apex of the flow. Such fountains are to be found in playgrounds, corridors, and even in classrooms, for the young American is a great water lover (necessarily), and the supply is never cut off.

Great saving of time and work is effected by the excellent cleaning and dusting methods employed—vacuum-cleaners, electric polishers, &c. Books, "occupations," &c., need not be put back into cupboards at the day's end. No broom at night will raise a cloud of dust to veil them next day.

Unfortunately, classes possess the characteristic shown by so many other American things. They are big—too big to be properly worked. Reform in this respect is greatly desired by American teachers, who seem to work very hard. At present, in several States, the classes are handled very cleverly in two sections, each half a year ahead of the other, and working on a different schedule. The teacher gives her direct attention to each half alternately, the other half being set to work by themselves.

Freedom of movement and speech, and a sort of happy camaraderie seemed characteristic. A distinctly democratic attitude towards the teacher was evident, but never once did I see objectionable precocity.

At first it seemed to me that American teachers worked "by their books" too much, and were too much bound by the "skedules" (schedules), but on discussing this with the more enthusiastic of them I found that they did not chafe under it, inasmuch as every teacher has a voice when the syllabuses are prepared or revised. Once every month a meeting is arranged between all teachers in a district and their Educational Adviser, when school methods, problems, and results of experiments are discussed. In this way fresh ideas are freely circulated, and even the most conservative teacher is kept mentally on the move, and prevented from getting into a backwater. Moreover, every year there is a mass convention of teachers lasting for a week, held in each State, usually in the State university, and at the end of the long vacation. Attendance is compulsory and travelling expenses are allowed. Lectures by eminent men, debates, &c., are arranged; the idea being to enable teachers to begin a fresh year's work mentally refreshed, and with a broader horizon. I sampled and much enjoyed a session of one such convention in Pennsylvania.

In visiting schools afterwards, some of the ideas discussed at such meetings were seen being "tried out." Thus, in one large school in Detroit, the Platoon system was seen at work. In this each teacher taught her own class, in its "home-room," basic lessons such as English and number, during one half session; in the other half she received in turn other classes for instruction in her own favourite subject. Between lessons a bell was rung, when a general "family post" of the whole school took place in quick time. This scheme required skilful planning, but was said to give excellent results.

In other schools the "Project Method" found favour, and was evidently beloved by the children. In this a subject to be studied is divided into sections, and the children into study groups. Each section is apportioned to a study group, one of whom is appointed as spokesman. The children in each group work together or separately, gathering information, freely using the wonderful libraries which are so vital a feature of American schools. I was fortunate enough to slip into one room just in time to watch the outcome of a little piece of childish research on the sugar maple. The child chairman elected called upon each spokesman in turn to read or tell the result of the work done by his group. As each finished, the chairman asked for "Corrections? Additions? Questions?" And he did not ask in vain. Authorities were freely quoted, and descriptive extracts read by the children. The illustrations they had procured—leaves, bark, sugar, pictures, &c.—were passed round, after being shown to their unexpected English visitor with quaint politeness. At the finish, the teacher, who had been quietly watching from the back this delightful child activity, gathered up the points made, cleared up one or two difficulties, and judiciously awarded praise. With such training in early school life in oral English, small wonder the young American becomes an excellent salesman in the future!

I could not but be struck by the way in which even young children seemed to find their way in books, and to use them as tools. Later on, in the junior and senior high schools, this early acquired book sense is developed through the continual help of the cultured librarians, one or two of whom form part of the normal school staff.

One striking difference between American and English children is their rate of work. The American child seems to work naturally at a breath-taking rate. He learns by rhythmic writing-drills to write very quickly in a legible, if not beautiful hand, at an age when the English child is in the very slow and painstaking stage. Thus his ability to write is of service to him much sooner. But this very speed tends to superficiality and lack of thoroughness (which is often evident in written work).

In America, working hours and holidays seem longer than in England. The average salary, judged by its purchasing value, seems not very different. But there is no State pension to look forward to, and no security of tenure. A teacher's appointment has to be renewed yearly. The fact that this may help to keep teachers keen does not make up for the harmful sense of insecurity caused, especially in places where politicians abound. For although America reveals her true spirit of democracy in her go-ahead schools, she seems at least a century behind England in her politics.

GLEANINGS.

Portrait of a Schoolmaster.

"Abbott" (Head Master of the City of London School) "had a natural gift for teaching. Above all he had the sovereign gift of a great personality, at once austere and sympathetic, impressive and inspiring, without which the most accomplished teacher cannot succeed in moulding and fortifying the character of the young." From "Memories" (Lord Oxford and Asquith).

Harrow's Only Chance.

A correspondent tells a London newspaper that Harrow can beat Eton at Lord's. He says:

"I was in my first year at Harrow when the school last won at Lord's (in 1908). I have a curious (and quite untenable) superstition as to their next win: I believe that they will never beat Eton until they have a young man of title in their eleven!"

A Dream Realised.

The Head Master of Eastbourne College, at the Speech day, said that the school had at last realised some of the dreams of the young men and the visions of the old men, and would go still higher. The number of Class A certificates gained by the O.T.C. beat all previous records.

Five Best Things.

At the opening of the new Wellingborough Grammar School, on June 11, Sir Michael Sadler said that a liberal education was one of the five best things in life, the other four being good health, assured belief, a happy marriage, and freedom from financial anxiety.

A Snore Rewarded.

Sir Austen Chamberlain, speaking at the Rugby School Speech Day, said it was fifty years since he was last on the Speech Day platform of the school. The part then assigned to him was that of a sentinel in Sheridan's "Critic." He had to snore at intervals. Small parts in life often brought some advantage to those who played them, and with a little skill and much goodwill from masters his snores were rewarded by exemption from three copies of verse.

Boys and Uplift.

The Head Master of Sherborne says:—"One of my duties is to stand between the boys and all sorts of societies for the promotion of this, that, and the other, and the prevention of the other, that, and this. The endeavour of every conceivable interest to get hold of the young is a growing evil. Boys are only young once, and I object most strongly to those who try to steal from the young the youth which is their right."

ASSOCIATION OF HEAD MISTRESSES.

Fifty-seventh Annual Conference.

"I cannot imagine," said a speaker at Clifton High School during the Conference of the Association of Head Mistresses (June 19 and 20), "how anyone can combine the offices of President and hostess." Yet this was the successful and charming accomplishment of Miss E. Addison Phillips, head mistress of the school.

For the first time since 1917 the agenda included a resolution on the Registration of Teachers. Dr. Lowe said that many new members of the Association were apt to forget how such past and present members as Dr. Bryant, Miss Gadesden, Miss Douglas, and Mrs. Woodhouse were among the staunchest supporters of a movement which began with very halting steps, met with great obstacles, and had now emerged, by Order of the King, as the Royal Society of Teachers with nearly 80,000 members.

Head mistresses, she said, must often be asked what the Council did, and what was the use of a Register. The Council had done a considerable amount of very useful unspectacular public educational work, but its most important function was the compilation of the Register ensuring that members of the Royal Society of Teachers complied with the rules of admission, and this, in the somewhat chaotic condition of the British system of qualifications, was no mean task. Many answers might be given to the second part of the question, but one of the soundest reasons was, as with the medical profession, to set their house in order and, by distinguishing qualified from unqualified, to safeguard the public against imposition. The Council had never claimed to manufacture teachers, but to distinguish between those who possessed qualifications in their widest sense and those who did not. It served to co-ordinate the work of the different groups of teachers, to create between them a feeling of good companionship, to express their collective opinion in matters affecting education, and so to maintain the solidarity of the profession. Registration and the Royal Society were great factors in securing self-government by guarding their own entrance gate to the profession through a minimum standard of academic attainment, professional training, and teaching experience, and payment of a single fee which conferred on the teacher the honour of life membership of a Society described by Lord Gorell, Chairman of the Council and President of the Royal Society of Teachers, as representing the "basic profession of every civilised country."

In her paper on "Inter-relations between the Primary and the Secondary School," Miss H. V. Stuart spoke frankly of the lack of relationship

between teachers in the two types of school, and told how, on leaving a certain town, she had ventured to suggest to the Local Authority that this severance was a bad thing; her proposal, she understood, was shelved with the remark: "As Miss Stuart is leaving the town we need not consider her proposal." She was glad to see that it was one of the recommendations made by the new Report of the Consultative Committee on the Primary School.

Miss K. I. Bradley, speaking on the inter-relations between the Secondary School and the Training College, said the college had to evolve a system that would enable it to serve both God and Mammon. What of the student who, in pursuing a multiplicity of subjects, had to steer between the Scylla of superficiality and the Charybdis of mental indigestion? Those who controlled the elementary schools should realise more fully that students should leave the training college with a knowledge of methods, conscious of the scope of a subject, and therefore not willing to teach everything.

A lively discussion took place on a series of resolutions relating to entrance to the university, proposed by Miss E. R. Gwatkin, and seconded by Miss M. H. Meade. The halo, said Miss Gwatkin, still surrounded the blessed word Matriculation; the proud pupil offered it to the prospective employer, who in turn demanded it from the next comer.

The President's address was punctuated by applause. Miss Addison Phillips referred to the disappointment caused by the rejection of the Education Bill by the House of Lords. The picture, however, was not so black as it might seem, since reorganisation on the lines of the Hadow Report was going steadily forward. Those responsible for the Association's policy in the next few years would have the same demands made on them for wisdom, tact, and disinterestedness as were made and met by their great leaders at the close of the last century. The relation of head mistresses to the new schools, and even more to the teachers of those schools, would have to be determined; the whole question of religious education—to some of them the biggest question of all—must be faced.

Miss M. G. Clarke, a member of the committee on "World Citizenship," read a paper on "The Promotion of International Understanding through the Secondary Curriculum."

The Conference listened with deep attention and appreciation to addresses by Frau Anna Sprung on the "Secondary School in Germany," and by Professor J. E. Marcault on "Education for International Understanding."

It was announced that Miss Strudwick had been elected President for the next two years.

MODERN SCHOOLING

SOME ASPECTS OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION.

Points which are sometimes Overlooked.

By JULIE HOUGHTON.

The teaching profession holds out many apparent advantages. This is so true, that even to-day, when more careers are open to women than ever before, great numbers of girls take up teaching without any real idea of what it involves, simply because no one has taken the trouble to advise them. In the majority of girls' schools it is still taken for granted that any clever girl who shows a desire to go on to a university will do so with the object of becoming a teacher; and far too often she finds herself embarked upon a teaching career without having really considered whether she herself wishes it or not.

Let me make it clear, at the outset, that I am not attempting to argue away the advantages of the teaching profession, but merely to visualise them in a proper relationship with the other aspects of the case. These attractions, too constantly on the lips of almost every non-member of the profession to need much repetition, are the certainty of a good salary, the prospect of a pension if a girl does not marry, the shortness of the working hours, and the length of the holidays compared with those to be found in other professions.

There is also, of course, the fact of a reasonable security, which in these days, when so many institutions are toppling about our ears, seems of paramount importance.

Over against these things may be set, from the financial point of view, the length of training that is required before a girl can earn a penny as a teacher; and also the difficulty which many find in obtaining a post at all, even after four years at a university, and probably another year spent abroad, or in doing some kind of research work.

These arguments must, however, be fairly obvious to anyone who has thought about the matter at all, and the points which I should like to make clear are rather those which concern the life of the girl who has actually entered upon a teaching career.

In the first place, the work of a teacher is such that it makes tremendous demands upon her vitality; the famous "short hours and long holidays" have not been instituted for nothing—they are the result of experience, that work of this kind simply cannot be carried on for long periods without entailing serious nervous exhaustion. For the teacher has not only to control a number of children, which in itself involves a great nervous strain, but she has to

be always giving them a part of her very self; and unless she has some means of constant renewal, the result will be physical and mental weariness of a deadening kind.

Moreover, her contact with youth means contact with immature minds, and the dangers of this are twofold. Either it may bring about a superior, dogmatic attitude, which is naturally disagreeable to other people, or, through "talking down" to a young audience, it may lead to a certain rather childish mode of expression, which is equally distasteful to older society. Not every teacher, of course, is trapped in either of these pitfalls, but victims of both are common enough to warrant a note of warning.

Now it must be clear that these evils will be intensified by a life of loneliness, and conditions are such that, in the great majority of cases, a teacher finds herself living in rooms in a strange place, where probably her only acquaintances are fellow members of the staff of her school. Hence the relaxation and change of atmosphere which she needs are doubly hard to obtain, with the result that she too often forms the habit of spending her evenings on her work, or in company with her colleagues, where the temptation to talk "shop" is very difficult to escape.

On the other hand, a great deal of the trouble can be counteracted by home life. Since the war there has, of course, been a considerable tendency for girls to go away from home, with some notion of "living their own life"; but anyone who has tried both can soon tell which way of living is to be preferred. A man who finds himself in "digs" generally begins very quickly to think of marrying and getting a home of his own; in the case of a girl things are not quite so simple.

Home life means the opportunity of mixing in society, of discussion with minds which are formed, whereby a girl can develop her own; it means a natural mode of life amongst people who are not all engaged in the same work, as opposed to the unnatural solitude of rooms; it means the give-and-take which is far better for one's own character and peace of mind than the habit of considering only oneself, which is bound to arise when there is no one else at hand to consider.

The difficulty is that, under our English system of appointment, it is often practically impossible for a girl to get a teaching post near her home. It

would be well, from many points of view, if the Government would adopt the method which obtains in France, of appointing a teacher, on completion of her training, to supply work in the locality she desires, and promoting her, as occasion arises, to a suitable permanent position.

Failing this, much could be done by the awakening of public conscience to the needs of teachers away from their homes. If people would only realise that they are human beings, in need of human society, and put out a hand to draw them into the social circle, it would mean all the difference between existence and the life to which every girl has a right.

At the same time, a girl teacher should resolve to do all that lies in her power to make herself acceptable to society. She should guard against mannerisms such as I have spoken of, and be interested in things outside her own work; in this direction she can often help herself by joining some organisation. She should keep her ideas fresh with regard to dress; even if she be required to dress rather plainly in school—as is, unfortunately, still the case in some places—she should determine, when away from her work, to remember that being neat and tidy is not enough, but that it is the duty of every woman to be as smart and as beautiful as she can.

Finally, no girl should enter the teaching profession with her eyes closed. In the past it may have been the only avenue open to her, but to-day there is no need for any girl to become a teacher unless she really feels it to be her true vocation. If she is certain of this, let her go forward in the knowledge that she has chosen one of the most valuable of all professions, which will prove to be well worth while.

Scholarships in Technology.

The Manchester City Council is again offering a number of scholarships tenable in the Faculty of Technology of the University of Manchester. Successful candidates are required to follow a full-time course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Technical Science in the College of Technology, and Matriculation or its equivalent is an essential qualification.

For students who have been engaged in industry, and who have attended part-time day or evening classes, the scholarships are of the value of £100 per annum, while for students leaving secondary or central schools the value is £60. Both classes of scholarships are tenable for three years.

LINKING SCHOOL AND EMPLOYMENT.

By J. SWAILES INESON.

Self-confidence and reliability are demanded of youths immediately they leave school and enter the wage-earning community. An employer who finds these characteristics in his newly-engaged employee is at once favourably impressed. The school which provides candidates of this type for employment is giving first-class service to the community.

Under the apprenticeship system a training ground in initiative and responsibility was provided by means of instruction in the special vocation concerned. To-day the concluding years of school life should provide this training, not by selected vocational teaching, but by character training for any vocation. Whatever the vocation entered, this training is needed; without it unsatisfactory service will be the result, whatever the occupation chosen.

The last school year should provide full chance for the development of individual self-reliance. The lessons in previous years will have given the necessary rudiments of knowledge to form a basis for a pupil to be launched on a scheme of individual study in the various branches of the school curriculum. Unearthing of further information, or the application of known principles leading to the discovery of new ones, guided and tested by the teacher, will strengthen the pupil's self-reliance.

Pupils will be allowed to give most attention to the subject or group of subjects in which natural aptitude has been shown during progress through the school, with the reservation that essential subjects must be given the necessary attention to achieve the normal standard. Training in tackling irksome tasks should not be neglected. A subject distasteful to the pupil must not be allowed to drop for that reason alone. Insistence on a certain amount of work being done in the unpleasant subject along with prescribed sections of the favoured branch of study will provide valuable training in facing unpalatable work.

Craftwork, where a wide selection of mediums is available, and science, where a varied range of apparatus is to hand, provide the requisite training in a marked degree. Well graded series of exercises can be arranged in these subjects, gradually leading to the student being put entirely on his own initiative. Exercises combining the individual work of several pupils in contributing to some single achievement provide a training in team work eminently valuable.

The provision of a last year's course of this kind would do much to bridge the gap between school and employment. The former will have its richest year of work at the end of the pupil's school life, and the latter will receive a high standard of entrant.

THE VILLAGE SCHOOL.

BY WILLIAM CLAYTON, M.B.E. (Appleton Roebuck School).

VII. Rural Science Teaching.

The teaching of science in most of our village schools has not been very successful because of two principal reasons:—

- (a) The teacher's inability to draw up a syllabus simple enough to appeal to the average village child.
- (b) The adoption of ready-made exercises from some published book or periodical.

The chief essential for success is that we should not only awaken interest in the lessons but secure a continuity of such interest until a definite conclusion has been arrived at. The adoption of a series of experiments which have been drawn up and worked out by someone else may be an easy way for the teacher to get over the difficulty of providing a scheme of work, but it is fraught with dangers to both teacher and children. Though the teacher should make himself fully acquainted with the practice of our experts in these subjects, it is always best for the school to have a syllabus of its own in which the teacher's own knowledge will serve as guide, and which the pupils can absorb with understanding.

This individual selection will not only enable the teacher to use the environment of the school to illustrate important scientific facts, but it will show to the pupils that the world around them is filled with subjects which they can spend hours of their school days in probing, finding in them a variety of choice for more intensive study in their adult leisure.

If we are carrying out our duties effectively, the next generation of country people should find more profitable ways of spending their leisure than gathering in groups and passing uncomplimentary remarks about strangers who pass by.

I have already stated that one of the causes of our failure to teach science to our village children is because we place too much reliance upon the work of others instead of starting an adventure of our own. Nevertheless, I am constrained to indicate some of the avenues of approach which the occupants of a small country school have found useful.

In all my reading about school methods I have never seen a suggestion that children might profitably study the various changes which take place in a given arable field over a period of three or four years, and make careful notes and records, with dates of the cultural operations which the farmer and his men carry out, and of the animals, birds, and insects seen there. Such work must be systematic as to dates and records, and will include a wealth of information about weather conditions

and effects which will enlighten the most intelligent scientific observer.

To all teachers who are prepared to devote some extra labour on a continuity of observations I strongly recommend this study. Anyone who completes this course will possess a book of the highest scientific value.

It is surprising how few of our country children can correctly name our woodland trees, particularly in the winter season. Yet each species is so distinct in the manner of the growth of its branches and in its bark coverings that every village child of eleven plus should be able to name trees from a quick inspection of their branches or bark alone. Specimens of the timber of all our English trees should be included in the school museum for classroom study and comparison with pieces of foreign timbers, such as mahogany, teak, and satinwood. A careful study of the grains of these will not only disclose interesting facts about the growth of these trees, but will give to the thoughtful pupil reasons why the different woods are used for making various implements and furniture.

A careful and prolonged study of selected birds, *e.g.*, owl, rook, plover, starling, gull, partridge, will disclose many simple unthought-of facts which bear on the value of birds to the economic life of the countryside.

A detailed study of the root systems of our plants which show the reason why the nettle, the twitch, or the fibrous rooted buttercup overshadow and destroy the more useful corn plants, herbs, and grasses in our arable and pasture fields.

The nearby pond will furnish useful information about the genesis of insect life in the area, and incidentally prove the advantages of a good drainage system in our lowlands.

The caterpillar, particularly the woolly bear, can be used in school, not only to tell its own life story, but to train the pupils in the habits of regularity in the feeding of their pets at home.

The scents of the garden flowers, though a mystery much too deep for young minds, will furnish valuable scientific work in the gathering of such scents for use when the garden life is sleeping under the snow.

Daily measurements of the growth of shoots on trees and seedlings in the garden will give knowledge about the progress of growth in tree and plant such as cannot fail to awaken an interest which will *not* be confined to school days.

Because we have always looked upon each day's work as the dawn of a great adventure, instead of the daily grind, we have brought infinite happiness to the lives of both teachers and children.

FASCIST BOYS AT SCHOOL.

By F. J. GOULD.

When Balilla, an Italian boy, threw a stone at an Austrian soldier in Genoa, in 1746, and a rising against the rule of Austria followed, Balilla (so they say) opened the movement for the freedom and unity of Italy. Mussolini the Leader ("Duce") regards the stone-throwing in that way. And when, from a balcony in Orvieto, a Militia General addresses an assembly of schoolboys, black-bloused and blue-necktied, he bids the Balilla regiment imitate the Balilla of 1746, and throw stones at the right object and at the right moment. This picturesque incident is an item in R. F. Davanzati's Elementary Fifth Class School-book "Il Balilla Vittorio" (403 pages, published by the Italian Government). Balilla boys, in the Fascist system, are aged eight to fourteen. In a well-told and good-humoured fiction, the author traces the little adventures, sorrows, and joys of a thirteen-year-old Vittorio, son of a farmer in the Orvieto region, and reveals the economic, political, religious, and educational ideals of the Duce and his Italy. I have already noticed the "Third Class Manual" (EDUCATION OUTLOOK, January, 1931).

Numerous photographs of persons, buildings, scenery, machinery, and warships enliven the twelve chapters, and the Notes in a long Appendix. We hear the flutter of poultry, the lowing of plough-oxen, the throb of threshing machines, the chit-chat in rustic kitchens; we even anticipate an addition to farmer Balestrieri's family, and assist at the new arrival's christening. Vittorio's father, appointed to a post in Rome, moves with his family to a fourth-floor flat in the Capital, and places Vittorio under the care of an agreeable, sage, and spectacled master at a large city school. Classroom episodes, and trips round Rome, and to Assisi and Naples, fill the main part of the book, and incidentally introduce us to Mussolini and the Royal Family. The atmosphere of this manual is that in which 4,000,000 boys and girls are trained for the Fascist ideal. A note in the Appendix states that private schools take care of 150,000 pupils (100,000 girls and 50,000 boys).

The economic scheme is vast and decisive, and yet quite simple. Italian soil must be strenuously developed by draining of marshes, irrigation, good machines, attention to quality of seeds, and scientific manures. Italy must feed itself and its horses and cattle from the produce of its own husbandry, and no longer depend slavishly on foreign corn markets. The author takes immense pains to render village life and industry alluring and commanding. Vittorio, at the end of the book, enters a School of Agriculture

at the age of fourteen. With this enthusiasm for tillage is associated energetic enterprise in railways, canals, aeroplanes, and electric machinery, and mercantile fleets. English coal has to submit to the tyranny of U.S.A. petrol, and petrol trembles before the power of electricity, and Italy (the home of Volta) is strong in this new force. Electricity, says Davanzati, will support the plans of Mussolini, who desires a return to the soil, and airy cities, and a healthy environment for all the people, without class distinctions. This ardour for material betterment is combined, politically, with a doctrine of obedience, civil and military. Arrogance towards fellow passengers in a train, or boat, or tram is detestable, and calls for punishment, says the Manual; and it praises the silent sentinel who stands "at attention," and it frequently exhorts to discipline *senza discutere*—without discussion and democratic noise. Yet it must be noted that, in Vittorio's school, the teacher elaborately appeals to reason, and his Fascism, if imperious, is backed with fervid argument. Of course, the Catholic faith lends its aid all through. The very first page of the book tells of the sacramental bread which, broken by a sceptical priest from Bohemia (1263), dropped divine blood upon his hands. And through the essentially Italian saint, Francis of Assisi, and his hymn of laudation of earth, air, fire, and water, religion signifies its blessing on agriculture and general nature-conquest.

The doctrine of obedience, on a universal scale, is ingeniously illustrated in the school at Rome. Our Vittorio shows a disposition to snub grammar and sneer at geometry. For this insubordination, he receives two lectures, one from the class master, the other from his father. The teacher explains (rather too philosophically, perhaps, for a country lad!) that language, like society, needs laws. Latin, respected by all civilisation, was governed by syntax: so must our beautiful Italian be. Geometry orders the shape of snow crystals, and rules architecture. Law commands engines, motors, aeroplanes, astronomical calculation, and even children's games; and Fascist Italy seeks to reflect this divine order. As to the father—an ex-soldier—he relates how he had personally observed social conditions in Albania, and also how he had flown in an aeroplane of observation over Albania, and then to Brindisi and Italy; and he pictured the misery of lawless (though now improving) Albania, and the serenity and rational constructiveness of the home of Fascism.

I will not discuss the rightness or wrongness of Mussolini's methods; but I admire his effort to weave all the varied factors of a national life into a synthesis of feeling, thought, will, and development.

CHILDREN AND THE CINEMA.

Tawdry Films.

Somewhat tardily we begin to realise that modern inventions, such as the cinema and wireless broadcasting, cannot be ignored as factors in education. Whether we take note of them as factors in schooling or not, they are playing an ever-increasing part in the education of thousands of children. This is especially true of the cinema, which furnishes cheap entertainment for many children in our towns in the convenient period between tea and bedtime, or on Saturday afternoons. Often the harassed mother in a poor district will send part of her brood to "the pictures," knowing that there they will be under cover and safe from the dangers of the streets. The arrangement suits the cinema owner very well, since it gives him a full house during the first part of the evening and leaves the second performance for adults.

What has not been considered with proper care is the effect of these pictures on the child mind. Nobody who thinks about the matter and knows anything of the type of picture shown in many cinemas can believe that the effect is good. We find sheer vulgarity, much violence, absurd pictures of exotic life, looseness of morals, and grotesque attempts at humour. The mixture is rarely leavened by any glimpse of genuine dramatic art, and it is in nowise improved by the frequent incursions of sloppy sentimentality.

The Educational Effect.

On this rubbishy mixture the children are fed in the cinema, and their ears become attuned to strange noises which pass for human speech. In the schools we are trying to give them a sane view of life and a training in the correct use of their mother tongue, but in the picture houses they see a caricature of life and hear a distorted speech.

Inquiries.

It is welcome news that in several cities inquiries are going forward with the object of ascertaining the effect of the cinema on children. In Birmingham there is a Committee, presided over by Sir Charles Grant Robertson, Vice-Chancellor of the University. It has been at work for a year past, and the first Report is now issued. It may be obtained by sending three penny stamps to Miss A. James, 316 Hagley Road, Edgbaston, Birmingham, and it should be read by all teachers and others interested in child welfare. The Committee is not a body of "cranks" or austere Puritans. Its aim is to promote a widespread interest in a big problem with the object of ensuring that the cinema may become an instrument for good instead of harm.

Child Patrons.

The Report is too long to be summarised. It should be studied in full, but some of the results may be indicated. Thus, of 1439 children between the ages of eight and fourteen in Birmingham schools it was found that only thirty never go to the cinema, while 780 go at least once a week, and 184 go twice. In Smethwick, in an age group eleven to twelve there were 61 out of 69 who go regularly to "the pictures." Two clubs for girls above elementary school age report that their members go twice a week, while a lads' club numbering 42 includes 23 who go twice a week. These figures show that school children and adolescents are regular patrons of the cinema.

Why Children Go.

A valuable section of the Report gives verbatim the replies of children and young people to the question: "Why do you like going to the pictures?" The school children give three main reasons, namely, "For interest," "For amusement," and "To pass the time." A fourth reason is "For excitement," and a large number of the eleven to fourteen group say they go "For thrills." These "thrills" are further defined under such headings as "Motor and Horse Racing," "Flying," "Cowboys," "Fighting," and "War." In a group of thirty-eight girls aged eleven, twenty said they liked war pictures best, and nineteen boys in a similar group preferred "murder." On the other hand, many children say they go "to learn something," or "to see other countries," or "to see what is happening in the world." Many go for "music" or for "dancing." All these replies reveal something of hunger for excitement and a desire to escape from the commonplace. Those who would reform the cinema must remember that children will not be attracted by drab and colourless pictures, however improving.

The Choice and Comments.

Children are not greatly attracted by sex drama on the film. They want adventure and comedy. Some say that they learn about life. Many critics say that "some pictures are very rude." The Report shows beyond doubt that the "pictures" play a very large part in the lives of school children and young people, and that their social effects have hardly begun to be understood.

CORRECTION.

In a review of "Selected English Classics" (Ginn & Co.) which appeared in our June number, the price of each volume was wrongly given as 4s. 6d. It is 2s. 6d., and we should be sorry if our mistake deterred any reader from obtaining a copy of these excellent volumes.

NEWS OF THE MONTH.

Progress in Glasgow.

Rectorial elections in Glasgow University have been marked in past years by strenuous combats and the throwing of unpleasant objects. At the last election an agreement was made between the rival parties, in which this clause appeared:—"No eggs, fish, or decayed organic matter may be used in the fight." A ban was also placed on the use of smoke torches or dangerous chemicals.

Bequest for Scholarships.

Miss Margaret Joan Ashdown, Little Hallingbury, Bishop's Stortford, who died last February, left to the Governors of the Herts and Essex High School £2,000 for scholarships at Oxford for classics, and £2,000 for similar scholarships for any subject at any University.

A Protest.

The Students' Representative Council at Edinburgh has made a formal protest against the decision of two cafés in the city to exclude coloured students after 7 p.m. The protest is justified, for we can hardly accept these men and women as pupils in lecture rooms, and refuse to meet them outside. Individual cases of rowdyism, whether by whites or others, can be dealt with, but there should be no colour bar.

Spanish in Schools.

To stimulate the learning of Spanish in this country, and to encourage students of Spanish culture and affairs, the Anglo-Spanish Society have made an offer to secondary schools whereby any school subscribing a guinea a year to the Society may have all the privileges of membership, and the use of any books on Spanish history or literature which may help students. In addition, the Society will present a prize each year to the most proficient student of Spanish in each school which accepts the offer.

A Bishop's Suggestion.

Speaking at the Annual Conference of the National Association of Head Teachers, the Bishop of Portsmouth (Dr. Neville Lovett) said that something of the method of university organisation ought to be introduced in connection with elementary schools. He did not see why teachers with special qualifications should not move from school to school. It was strange that with all the advance of education the head teacher was not any more trusted than thirty or forty years ago; he was cribbed, cabined, and confined within the system.

Tavistock Square Clinic.

Dr. J. R. Rees, Deputy Director of the Tavistock Square Clinic, said recently that various kinds of dis-

orders which were apparently physical were due in reality to emotional causes. The clinic was started in 1920. Of the children treated in the early years of the work 82 per cent. had improved, and that improvement had been maintained. Among the adults the improvement was in 65 per cent. of the cases. There was a waiting list of about 300, and it was necessary to secure a better building for the work.

List 60, New Edition.

The Board of Education have issued a new edition of the List of Secondary Schools and Preparatory Schools recognised as efficient. The list gives the names of some 1,500 schools, in each case showing the body or person responsible for management, the name of the head master or head mistress, the fees charged, and the number of pupils, with the number of boarders, if any. There is also information concerning free-place pupils, and the scope of the school work as shown by the examinations taken. Copies of the list may be obtained through any bookseller or direct from H.M. Stationery Office. Price 2s. 6d.; by post 2s. 9d.

Abbots Bromley School.

Miss O. F. Martin, Vice-Principal of the Ladies' College, Cheltenham, has been appointed to the position of head mistress of the school of SS. Mary and Anne, Abbots Bromley, Stafford. She succeeds Miss M. A. Rice, who after over thirty years' service as head mistress is resigning at the end of this year.

Breakdown among Teachers.

During the past three years nearly 2,000 teachers have been granted breakdown allowances, and in addition there have been many temporary breakdowns. This statement was made in the House of Commons by Mr. Morley on the authority of Sir Charles Trevelyan.

Rhodes Travelling Fellowships.

The Committee of Award has appointed Mr. Ernest Llewellyn Woodward, M.A., Fellow of All Souls' College, and Mr. Cecil Graham Traquair Morison, M.A., Student of Christ Church, to Rhodes Travelling Fellowships for 1931.

Visits of Observation.

It is not widely known that arrangements can be made for teachers in grant-earning secondary schools to visit other schools for the purpose of observing methods of teaching. Last year eleven teachers availed themselves of this scheme, and the Board would like to see their example followed by many more. We are not told why the arrangement is not extended to primary schools.

LITERARY SECTION.

BOOKS AND THE MAN.

Marionettes.

Some years ago, during a visit to Winchester College, I met two young Wykehamists who had constructed an admirable stage for marionettes, and were preparing to give a performance. It was a somewhat surprising thing to find at Winchester. At least I thought so at the time, recalling the austere traditions of the place.

Yet the puppet stage is an excellent thing to have in any school. Recently the newspapers have been telling us how the boys in one school made their own stage and figures, learning to manipulate the wires and giving first-rate performances of plays, some of which were written in the school. Readers of that interesting work, "Heroes of the Puppet Stage," will recall the history of marionettes, and remember how world-wide this form of entertainment has been. To-day it is chiefly represented in England by the ever-attractive Punch and Judy show. From Messrs. Allen and Unwin I have received two volumes on marionettes. One is the second edition of Helen Haiman Joseph's attractive book, entitled "A Book of Marionettes" (16s. net). This is beautifully illustrated, and contains excellent pictures taken from old prints and other sources. The text covers puppet work in many countries, and gives valuable hints on the construction and manipulation of the figures. The author is wise enough to see the true merit of the puppet show. She says: "Why prate of benefit or pleasure to past or present audiences of the marionette, when the best reason for the *pupazzi*, the true reason I do believe, for their continuance and longevity, is the *fun* of puppet playing?" The other volume is entitled "A Book of Marionette Plays." It is written by Anne Stoddard and Tony Sarg, and costs only 4s. 6d. net. Here we have, first a most valuable introduction by Tony Sarg, who describes clearly and succinctly the various kinds of marionettes, beginning with the head and empty dress manipulated by the hand alone, as in Punch and Judy. Next comes the doll worked from below by means of rods, or by the legs of the figure itself. Lastly, we have the true marionette, a puppet operated from above by strings or wires. Later sections of the book describe fully the making of the dolls and of the theatre, with hints on manipulation, and I welcome a detailed description of Tony Sarg's Toy Theatre, which is meant for young children and for those who cannot control strings well. Here the dolls move in grooves and are worked from below.

Finally I must mention the plays which are offered after being "tried out" by the authors. We have versions of "Little Red Riding Hood," "Jack and the Beanstalk," "Hansel and Gretel," and others,

with suggestions for a vaudeville show. Altogether a most workmanlike and practical book, which should be bought for every school. There is endless fun and much educational value in marionettes. Try these books and see.

SELIM MILES.

REVIEWS.**Education.**

GROUNDWORK OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY: by James S. Ross. (5s. Harrap.)

The author's very modest preface to this book describes it as an attempt "to give students of education a workable knowledge of human nature on which to base their craft": an excellent description. Teaching is here plainly viewed as an "art or craft," which it is, rather than a science, which it is not, except in the limited sense in which doctoring or preaching are sciences. But whatever gifts and aids the modern science of psychology has to offer to the teacher are well summarised here, fully enough for comprehension, and clearly enough to make interesting reading. The book is "good money value," for there are over 250 pages of well packed information, and for reference work there is a good index.

In a book intended largely for teachers in training, there is, of course, no special advocacy of any of the conflicting theories of psychology. There are clear accounts of them, however, with one marked exception—the Adler School of Individual Psychology. Sir John Adams, Sir Percy Nunn, Professor McDougall, Dr. Rusk, and Professor Stanley Hall figure very prominently in the work. A teacher in training, even one coming to the subject of psychology for the first time, would find no difficulty in reading. The correlative knowledge required is given with admirable clearness. Thus "evolution" is described historically, and as the term stands in modern science (with an apt quotation from "Back to Methuselah"). Again, the account of Mendelism, with the one-two-one law, has not often been so simply explained.

Westminster Training College students will no doubt use this work of their Vice-Principal; but it is likely to be a text-book for many other colleges.

R. J.

Arithmetic.

THE WIDE OUTLOOK ARITHMETICS: by C. W. Saurin. Book III. (1s. 3d. Blackie.)

A good and useful selection of test papers for junior students.

GRADED TESTS IN ARITHMETIC FOR SENIOR GIRLS: by Edith Barron, L.L.A. Book I. (1s. Blackie.)

This book provides weekly tests in arithmetic for senior and central schools. Each test is divided

into three sections according to the ability of the pupils. The examples are well chosen, and the book should adequately serve the purpose for which it is intended.

STEP-AT-A-TIME ARITHMETIC: by R. W. M. Gibbs, B.A., B.Sc., D. G. Perry, B.A., and J. A. Howells. Senior Series, Book VIII. With answers, 1s. 9d.; without, 1s. 6d. (Black.)

This book—the last of an excellent series—is designed for the use of pupils doing post elementary work in practical mathematics in central and new senior schools, and should prove very useful in technical evening classes. We are of the opinion, however, that the book, seeing the amount of ground covered, is by way of being rather a stiff proposition for the average boy who has just passed Standard VII; but, in the hands of a good teacher, we feel sure that boys with a liking for mathematics will make very good progress indeed. But a less ambitious range of subject matter would, perhaps, stand a better chance of being thoroughly digested in the time. One year to us sounds a trifle optimistic.

Biology.

SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR OF INSECTS: by A. W. Imms, M.A., D.Sc., F.R.S. (3s. 6d. net. Methuen.)

Than Dr. Imms no one is more capable of dealing with the social life of insects, or indeed with insects from any other point of view; and it is safe to say that within the covers of this small volume the serious student of entomology will find more interesting material, including much that is the result of recent research, than in any other of like size, or indeed of many others of much larger size. Not that the volume will appeal only to serious students or specialists: the general reader interested in biology, and the teacher of nature study, will find much that will add to their knowledge without subjecting them to an undue strain by reason of technicalities. This is not to say that the work is as free from technicalities as the general reader might desire; and we venture to suggest that a glossary would prove very helpful to all who are not specialists. We may sum up our impression of this admirable little volume to the effect that it is an unusually able contribution to the literature of the subject, and one that will prove exceedingly valuable to all who are prepared to think it through rather than merely reading it. F. H. S.

Cricket.

CRICKET UP-TO-DATE: by E. H. D. Sewell, with a preface by Lord Hawke. (7s. 6d. Murray.)

This is indeed a fascinating book for cricket lovers—it kept us up well into the small hours! Space will not permit of our discussing debatable points, but we approve of the author's insistence, *inter alia*, on a return to the five ball over, less

intensive coaching (especially for youngsters), freer batting, and more attention to fielding.

Just recently we had been re-reading (for the *n*-th time) Pycroft's "Cricket Field," in our treasured 1851 edition with its frontispiece of "Old Clarke"—and we think it is interesting to note the agreement on fundamental principles between Alpha and Omega! For example:—watch the ball: left shoulder forward, facing the bowler: elbow up and follow through: when you hit, *hit* and don't fiddle about with it: get at the bowling before it gets at you: a straight bat to a straight ball, and so on and so forth. What would Pycroft have thought of the monotonous and unenterprising tactics of men who intercepted the ball with their legs instead of the bat, and whose favourite stroke was pushing the ball to the on for singles? Where, indeed, are the lusty drivers of the past! Well, the editor must have had enough of this, so I must, perforce, stop—buy, borrow, or beg this book and enjoy it.

J. W. B. A.

Economics.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF ECONOMIC DOCTRINE: AN INTRODUCTORY SURVEY: by Alexander Gray, M.A. (5s. Longmans.)

Of modern or fairly modern books on the history of economic theory there are only a few available in English—Harvey, Ingram, Cannon (limited in range, excellent otherwise), and Gide and Rist, in translation. There is no small book on the subject that can seriously compete with this work of Mr. Gray. It covers the whole story, from Plato to Marginal Utility—here rightly ascribed to Gossen. No other work offers us, in less than 400 pages, so complete a rendering of economic theories—certainly no other printed in English. And all students of economic theory in its historical aspect will welcome the reproduction of that eighth wonder of the world, Quesnay's Physiocratic "Tableau Economique." A reproduction was issued many years ago by the Royal Economic Society; but copies are now scarce. Once it could be classed (by no less than Mirabeau) as one of the world's three great discoveries—money and writing were the other two. Classifications change: but our wonderment at the "Tableau" remains with us. It has, however, changed its note, and we wonder why they wondered in just that way. R. J.

German.

A FIRST YEAR GERMAN COURSE: by L. M. Hayes. (2s. 6d. Blackie.)

The author, realising that German is given less time than French in English schools, compresses more into this First Year course than would perhaps be desirable if time were not so limited. The thirty-three lessons cover all the essential grammar, including all the tenses of regular verbs and the

declension of adjectives. No help is given in the pronunciation, which will have to be taught independently by the teacher. The first half of the book is arranged mainly for direct method work, after which the exercises include sentences for translation into German. The exposition of the grammar is brief and admirably clear, and there is plenty of reading material. Ten pieces of German are given at the end for practice in vocabulary and syntax. There is no English-German vocabulary, the pupil being expected to make his own. An excellent practical introduction to the language. A. B. G.

Geography.

NELSON'S GEOGRAPHY PRACTICE: by G. S. Dickson, M.A., B.Sc. (1s. 6d. Nelson.)

This book forms part of an excellent series under the editorship of John Gunn, M.A., D.Sc., and deals with the British Isles. It is intended for junior students, and aims at combining the features of a text-book, map-book, and exercise book for individual work. It is written in simple language, and the illustrations and diagrams and exercises alike deserve approval.

UNCLE PETER'S TRAVELS. Book I. THE TEMPERATE LANDS: by W. J. Rood and A. H. Rood. (2s. 3d. Harrap.)

The expressed object of the authors is to deal with geography by means of simple presentations of typical scenes from the various climatic regions of the earth; and this they very effectively do, as though at first hand, through the medium of the globe-trotting Uncle Peter. The young readers of Uncle Peter's letters, sent from the various temperate lands visited, will find them full of very interesting descriptions of the various peoples, their work, and the conditions under which they live; and the numerous excellent illustrations will add considerably to the pleasure and the profit with which the letters will be read.

French.

"New Term French Texts." — MES COPAINS ANGLAIS; LES AMIS DE CHICOT; LE TRÉSOR DU CAPITAINE MANCHOT; VIVRE LA NASSOIRE!: by H. Lasalle and P. Plantefol: edited by H. N. Adams. (Paper, 9d.; limp cloth, 1s. Sidgwick and Jackson.)

Any of the four short texts which inaugurate this new series could well be introduced during the second year. They are written by Frenchmen and represent the modern French outlook on life, but are quite simple and short enough to be read in a term by beginners, or in an hour by more advanced pupils. A set kept for occasional distribution to senior forms would be an agreeable change from the texts which are being studied in detail. They

are provided with vocabularies and a few exercises, and are pleasantly illustrated. A. B. G.

COURS MODERNE: by J. Ascher and H. A. Hatfield. (3s. Murray.)

The chief qualities here are brevity and simplicity. The book is arranged to cover the first two years' work, and should, it is suggested, be used without a supplementary reader, except for unusually good classes. We would prefer that a reader should be used with all classes, however weak. In any case, the reading matter here is suitably graded and varied, and the grammar is well presented. Revisal exercises are given after every six lessons. In addition to an English-French vocabulary, there is a word-list, showing the lesson where each word first appears, and a set of vocabularies for each lesson. The threefold process of finding a forgotten word may prove so laborious that the pupil will discover that it is worth while not to forget. The usual introduction on pronunciation, with phonetic symbols, many good illustrations, and a few poems, complete a very competent work. A. B. G.

A PRACTICAL APPROACH TO FRENCH: by S. A. Richards. (Book I, 1s. 6d.; Book II, 1s. 9d. Dent.)

This French course fully justifies its title: it is thoroughly practical. Beginning with a lucid explanation of elementary phonetic problems, introducing the international symbols, it goes on to take the pupil by easy stages through the first two years' grammar, covering each year's work in twenty lessons. In the first year most, but not all, of the exercises are of the direct method type. Pronunciation is indicated throughout. There is very little reading matter, so that a simple reader should be used almost from the beginning.

Book II takes us to the end of the second year, and is based on the same sound principles; but the lessons are no longer accompanied by word lists, and the exercises contain more translation material. Both volumes are well illustrated, and are exceptionally attractive in binding and general appearance, even for a publishing firm from whom we have learnt to expect handsome treatment in this respect. The practice of starting each new lesson on a new page is one which we should like to see adopted in all French courses. A. B. G.

COMMON ERRORS IN FRENCH: by C. H. Leather. (1s. 9d. Dent.)

Under about thirty headings are grouped most of the incorrect forms resulting from "thinking in English." It is to be hoped that many of these will not need to be corrected, since they should never be committed by the pupil who has been well taught by modern methods. However, the book should prove very useful to the private student, and will undoubtedly save the class teacher much time and

labour in correcting the slackness which so often creeps in when most of the available energy is devoted to pure grammar and translation work. Each section is completed by a number of sentences for practice of the correct form. The lists of "words easily confused" are particularly good. A. B. G.

LES JUMEAUX POIS AU REGIMENT : by Jaboune. (8d. net. Evans Bros.)

The Pea Brothers have left school, and are doing their "service." They continue their fantastic and entertaining adventures through ten more scenes, calculated to delight the heart of any schoolboy. An ideal reader for those middle forms who have read or acted "Les Jumeaux Pois au Collège" and asked for more. A. B. G.

Science.

CLASSROOM SCIENCE : by W. B. Little. Pupils' Books I and II. Price 1s. 6d. each. Teachers' Books I and II. Price 2s. 6d. each. (Nelson.)

In these volumes Mr. Little provides a very useful course of elementary science, based upon experiment and observation; Volume I dealing with the properties of Matter, Measurements, and Mechanics, and Volume II with Heat, Light, and Sound. The subject matter has been judiciously selected and clearly treated; and the illustrations, including numerous diagrams, are excellent with very few exceptions, one of these being that of the ear (p. 83, Vol. I), which represents all three of the semi-circular canals as vertical. The letterpress is pleasingly free from errors or misleading statements. We venture, however, to suggest that the teacher who draws a diagram explanatory of the rainbow (p. 102, Vol. II) will not represent the raindrops as acting like prisms in the commonly accepted meaning of the term; nor do we think Mr. Little is himself quite clear as to the nature of the "thin bubbles of water" suggested as the cause of the blue colour of the sky.

Rural Science.

RURAL SCIENCE : Volume I : by F. H. Shoosmith, Ph.D., B.Sc. Lond. The Standard Series, No. 1. (2s. Wheaton.)

The first thing to strike one is the extremely low price of this well-bound and well-printed book, with its 256 pages and numerous excellent illustrations, many from photographs. Dr. Shoosmith is well known as an authority on nature study, and with his knowledge he combines rare skill in presentation. The present volume is the first of two dealing with rural science, and intended as special reading books for children over eleven years of age. This first part covers the growth of familiar plants, and goes on to deal with birds and other creatures likely to be seen by children in the country. The descriptions are very clear and interesting, and the book will be greatly

liked by every child who is fortunate enough to have it included in the list of school readers. R.

History.

A LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS FOR USE IN HISTORY TEACHING IN SCHOOLS. (1s. Bell.) (Historical Association Leaflet No. 82.)

"But if he (a schoolboy) had only gazed with unseeing eyes at highly-coloured reproductions of John sealing Magna Carta, or impossible ships mercifully half concealed by the smoke of battle, he would have done nothing but waste time and money."

The intention indicated is so excellent that we may forgive Miss Dymond and the H.A. for the ever recurrent John (someone ought to endow him with a fountain pen as a climax), or the indispensable "unseeing" and "impossible." The plain fact is that teachers have offered to them many pictures that are only by courtesy to be called "historical," and that are only educational as many posters are educational. The expert subject teacher has some trained standards of judgment to help him. The inexpert teacher is at a loss. This pamphlet, solidly practical, will be a faithful and useful guide. Everyone who teaches history in an English school should be aware of its existence; and very many of them will heartily thank the Historical Association, and Miss Dymond, and the Illustrations Committee, for its issue. R. J.

WORK : WHAT IT HAS MEANT TO MEN THROUGH THE AGES (HOMO FABER) : by Adriano Tilgher. Translated from the Italian by Dorothy Canfield Fisher. (7s. 6d. Harrap.)

This is a very good piece of work, translated into clear English. The translator's Introduction is a delightfully downright talk to the probable reader, and an equally downright refusal to suffer fools gladly, especially "those pleasant, agreeable bridge-golf-and-poker players, learners of the latest dances, purchasers of the latest hats . . . who object very much indeed to any stirring up or clarification of the ideas which somehow have got into their heads." These people are warned off, lest they should be compelled to do some thinking. Professional scholars of many kinds are also warned off, lest they should be offered intellectual (and perhaps other) heresies.

This book is a history of theories of labour, from the Greek and Hebrew views to those of post-war Europe and America. Zoroaster, Christianity, Thomas Aquinas, Luther, Calvin, Voltaire, Marx, Ruskin, Tolstoi, Gentile, Rensi, Fascism, Bolshevism—they all come into this story. Here is a brief compendium of man's ideas about his work; not a history of work, but of ideas about work, what man as worker (*homo faber*) has thought about the nature of work. He has thought many things.

Work has been held to be an expiation, a primary curse; a burden; a tragic necessity; a blessing; a thing indifferent and accessory to life; an instrument of mere sustenance, of purification, of expiation, or of charity; a stimulus to strong action; an instrument of continuing progress; a means to endless creativeness; the maker of civilisations; an ethical problem; a non-ethical economic factor; an obligation of citizenship; a semi-religion (pre-war America); an unpleasant nuisance (post-war youth).

There is missing a final chapter on the author's own theory. That must be gathered from the whole book, and it must be gathered carefully. Thus the last paragraph reads:—"Capitalistic civilisation has stood towering up like a great many-storied skyscraper. Now, its foundations cracking, its steel beams attacked with rust, it begins to sway crazily, and threatens to crash down in ruins."

Socialistic, surely. Mrs. Webb (and Lord Passfield) might have used that paragraph to begin or to end "The Fall of Capitalism," or Mr. Tawney might have used it for "An Acquisitive Society." But the writer elsewhere condemns Socialism in a sentence. "The problem of thrift will always be insoluble by Socialist methods. . . . No matter how well organised a Socialist society might be, it could not increase the wealth of its community."

Again: Fascism is somewhat tenderly and somewhat approvingly handled—possibly for reasons of prudence, but not entirely so, for the book rings honestly. Yet Gentile's contribution to the subject is put through a sharp and destructive analysis. And Gentile is the Treitschke of Fascism. His book on Education is a Fascist tract, aiming at demonstrating that nationalistic education is the only true education.

As the translator hints, some of the economics of the work are—if we may use our own word—naive; the speech on pages 206-207, for example. But the book is a stimulating one, and some even of the golf-and-poker players might read it without being "too awfully bored"—might even read it with profit. True, they might hail its weaknesses (*e.g.*, pages 206-207 above) as its strength. But one must not demand too much.

R. J.

HISTORY JUNIOR COURSE. Edited by Catherine B. Firth, M.A., D.Litt. Book I, by Norah Mackenzie, M.A., 1s. 6d.; Book II, by Anna F. Tillerton, B.A., 1s. 9d.; Book III, by Elsa Nunn, M.A., 2s.; Book IV, by the Editor, 2s. 3d. Teacher's Books to accompany Books I and II, 2s. 6d.; to accompany Books III and IV, 2s. 6d. (Ginn.)

These attractive volumes are designed for children of seven to eleven years of age and make the best planned Junior Histories that we have seen. Each book covers a definitely limited period of

history, viz., Book I tells us about the children of Athens, London, and Rome. The subject of Book II is "From Romans to Normans." Book III deals with the Middle Ages—from the Normans to 1485; and Book IV—under the title of "A Century of Discovery"—with the Tudor Period. The subject matter is simply put and should make very interesting reading indeed for the children. The numerous and attractive illustrations are all drawn from contemporary sources—and admirably reproduced by Mrs. Lambert. Each volume covers work for a year, and is arranged in sections to meet the needs of six-monthly promotions, and of parallel classes which work at different rates.

The Teachers' Books explain the plan of work and provide a number of practical and interesting exercises, together with further historical material, much of which is from original sources. These books should prove a boon—a great boon, in fact, to non-specialist teachers of history. We imagine that any teacher who studies and puts into practice the suggestions contained therein should achieve very good and permanent results.

We recommend this series to the notice of all teachers in junior schools, and feel assured that they will not regret its adoption.

SKETCHES OF EUROPEAN HISTORY: by Netta Syrett. (2s. 6d. Murray.)

We can cordially recommend this very interesting book to schools and private students as a capital introduction to the History of Europe. The main topics which are dealt with are—the Saracen Invasion, the Holy Roman Empire, The Feudal System and Chivalry, The Renaissance, and the French Revolution. This is a good deal of ground to cover in a book of this size, but the author has the art of compressing without dullness, and the book is as easy and pleasant to read as any good romantic novel.

English.

"Kings Treasuries Series."—AN INTERMEDIATE POETRY BOOK: edited by Reed Moorhouse. (1s. 4d. Dent.)

A first-rate selection, ranging from Robert Manning Brunne to the latest modernist. Should there by any chance be anyone seeking yet another anthology of English poetry for schools, we can confidently recommend him this.

MASTER VENTURERS: edited by J. Compton, M.A. (2s. 6d. Macmillan.)

The editor truly remarks that modern travel books and biographies are usually published in large expensive volumes not easily attainable for school libraries.

Furthermore, we think the average scholar would be daunted at their length and size, although he would doubtless much enjoy certain parts. With

this in view, Mr. Compton has planned this book of extracts from a number of well known books. We think they make very interesting reading indeed, and should send young (and older) readers to the original works.

"The Keystone Series."—HEY! DING-A-DING: by Rose Fyleman. THE OLD NURSE'S STOCKING BASKET: by Eleanor Farjeon. ON THE GREAT BLACK ROCK: by Oliver Bowen. THE OLD BROWN BOOK: by Stephen Southwold. (Limp cloth, 1s. 2d.; paper covers, 1s. University of London Press.)

This new "Keystone" series of Supplementary Readers for Primary schools is designed for children of about eight years of age. They are all very interesting, very well adapted for their purpose, and very well illustrated.

Our favourite is "The Old Brown Book," containing the stories of the sampler pictures and some delightfully whimsical illustrations by Joyce Mercer. We are assured that the children will thoroughly enjoy both the text and pictures of all these little books, and confidently advise their adoption.

SELECTED POEMS AND SONNETS FROM WORDSWORTH: edited by Arthur D. Innes, M.A. (3d. Blackie.)

Within its obvious limitations, we do not think this selection could possibly be bettered. The poems are arranged according to the groups under which Wordsworth himself classified them. The introduction and notes are brief, interesting, and to the point. We can recommend this little book to all types of schools—it is indeed quite a remarkable threepenny-worth.

WARWICK THE KINGMAKER: arranged by F. J. Tickner, B.A. (1s. Nelson.)

Another worthy addition to that excellent series of "Books within Books," edited by Dr. Wilson. This book is taken from Lytton's "Last of the Barons," and any boy who is not interested and excited by its perusal must indeed be hard to please. We think that they will all eagerly proceed to the original novel and vote that history is not such a dull subject after all!

"Kings Treasuries of Literature."—DRAYTON, CAMPION, and JONSON: Poems selected and edited by G. Beaumont, M.A. (1s. 4d. Dent.)

This interesting and scholarly little book should prove of interest to secondary schools, and should do something to rescue the above-mentioned writers from the undue neglect under which they suffer. We suspect that few boys (and dare we say teachers!) are familiar with any of the subject matter of this book beyond Drayton's "The Ballad of Agincourt," Jonson's "Drink to me only," and the lines to Shakespeare prefaced to the 1623 folio. Well, we hope that this book will serve to improve matters.

BOOKS OF THE MONTH.

GEORGE ALLEN AND UNWIN, LTD.

A Book of Marionettes: by Helen H. Joseph. Revised Second Edition. 16s. net.

Experiments in Educational Self-Government: by A. L. Gordon Mackay, M.Litt. 7s. 6d. net.

Everyday Life in Old Scotland: by I. F. Grant. Part I, to 1603. Illustrated. 2s. 6d. net.

EDWARD ARNOLD AND CO.

More Simple French Plays: by Julia Titterton, M.A. 2s.

"Modern French Series":

Contes de Grand-Père: by Léon Pineau. 1s.
Une folle équipée: by Magdeleine du Genestoux. 1s. 6d.

Contes Français: by Julie Lavergne. 2s.
Un bon petit diable: by Mme La Comtesse de Ségur. 1s. 6d.

Montique: by Paul Bourget. 2s.

"English Literature Series": 2s. 6d. each.

The Riddle of the Sands: A Record of Secret Service: by Erskine Childers.

The Epic of Mount Everest: by Sir Frances Younghusband.

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Edue

THE EDUCATION OUTLOOK



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AUGUST 1931

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WITH COLOURED PRESENTATION PLATE

VOL. 8 NUMBER 8

NINEPENCE NET

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THE EDUCATION OUTLOOK

AUGUST, 1931.

ON THINKING.

The Head Master of Rugby recently declared that the chief need of the age is a greater and more widespread power of thought. This is no less true to-day than it has been at all periods of the world's history. Thinking is hard work, and most people find it less agreeable to make their own mental furniture than to buy it ready made at some emporium, such as a newspaper or a book. Since ideas are springs of conduct, there are those in authority who mistrust them, and would fain have the right of forming ideas reserved for themselves and their own kind. The ideas thus formed they would impose on the rest of the community, surrounding them with the awful-sounding sanctions of religion, law, or social convention, to ensure their being accepted with meekness and acted upon with due reverence.

It is a perilous thing to think for one's self—less perilous perhaps than it used to be, but still sufficiently discouraged to deter all but the boldest spirits from the venture. Even a Rugby schoolboy might find himself under correction if he were to condemn the theology of a sermon in the School Chapel, to criticise vigorously the views of a master, or to take an independent line on the value of compulsory cricket, or the parades of the O.T.C. What we call the public school product, and view with some complacency as the finest flower of British youth, is seldom the result of an intelligent and thoughtful acceptance of restrictions and conventions. It is more often the outcome of steady pressure, exerted during years of school life, which gradually persuades the boy that on certain matters he must not think for himself, but be content to go with the herd. It is idle to complain if we find that when he has done with school and college his mental muscles are weak and flabby. Lack of exercise could have no other result.

The cause and effect thus described are by no means confined to our public schools and universities. They are to be found in our State schools, in our churches, and in our political organisations of every kind. The party Whip in the House of Commons has no greater burden than the member of Parliament who persists in thinking, and who indulges his bent before entering the division lobby. The model M.P. is hymned by Gilbert:—

“He always voted at his party's call,
And never thought of thinking for himself
at all.”

Such docility of mind is recommended on the ground that it promotes the welfare of the party, sacrificing regard for principles on the altar of a greater loyalty.

Most people may find the sacrifice easy because they have not taken thought as to the principles which are worth maintaining. Here comes the value of Sir Josiah Stamp's advice to the children of the London Orphan School. He warned them against the belief that, if only a man has character, brains count for little. He suggested that it is possible to have both, and added that the man who has command over facts will achieve mastery all along the line. Such knowledge is in itself a form of character, but the speaker came near to stressing unduly the value of detailed information. What we need is knowledge that will furnish adequate material for thought, and a training which will enable children and young people to see the true relations between general principles and isolated facts. A man may have command of many facts and yet be unable to detect any underlying principle. As we say, he cannot see the wood for the trees. Or he may live on hasty generalisations of his own making, or, worse still, on catchwords made by others.

It was well said long ago that nobody is ever competently wise save by his own wisdom. To accept indolently the views of others, however eminent, is to resign one of the attributes which marks off the human kind from mere “dumb, driven cattle.” The chief aim of all education should be the development of those powers of independent thinking which the Head Master of Rugby holds to be inadequate at present. Yet we find some teachers waiting meekly upon the views of inspectors, or accepting the syllabus of a body of university examiners as if it came straight from Mount Sinai. This flabbiness of mind is a poor equipment for training boys and girls in the exercise of thought.

The conditions of modern life make it more than ever necessary that our young people should be trained to distinguish between the hard fact and the plausible hypothesis. They should be encouraged to demand reasons, and to exercise a critical faculty with courage and independence. In this way alone will they learn to think and gain respect for accurate information.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS.

FROM A CORRESPONDENT.

Progress of Registration.

The announcement that the Council intended to raise the fee for Registration and Life Membership of the Royal Society of Teachers from £2 to £3, as from July 1, had the effect of stimulating a large number of teachers to apply for Registration. During the latter part of June the number of applications received was well over 6,000, and a number of other applicants paid first instalments in order to come in, under the instalment scheme, at the lower rate. It was pointed out to the Council that the date originally fixed for raising the fee involved some hardship to young teachers leaving College this year, and therefore it was decided, at the June meeting of the Council, to postpone the date to October 1. This gives an opportunity to the young teachers, but the concession applies also to all who have not already sought Registration, and it is hoped that by Michaelmas the total of applications will be well over 90,000.

The instalment scheme is being worked with the generous help of many Registered teachers throughout the country, who are not only persuading their colleagues to enrol, but are undertaking the task of collecting the money and forwarding it to the offices of the Council. This service is greatly valued.

The Young Teacher.

A communication is being prepared for despatch to all students leaving the training colleges this year. Many of the young men are already fully eligible for Associate Membership, as they entered College through the central office or clearing house scheme, conducted by the clerical staff of the Council, and paid 5s. as an application fee before entering College. Each of those who paid this amount will be informed that he need not pay the fee for Associate Membership, as the sum of 5s. has been credited to him for that purpose. It will serve also as a first payment towards the present Registration fee of £2, provided that application for Associate Membership is made before the end of September. It is hoped by the Council that before long all teachers entering upon their first appointment will become Associate Members immediately, and full members when they have had the necessary experience. This period is three terms where a College course of training in teaching has been taken, but it is extended in other cases. It is clearly desirable that the Council's organisation should include all qualified teachers. Hitherto the main effort has been directed towards bringing in the older teachers, but in future the beginners must receive most attention.

Head Mistresses and Registration.

At the recent Conference of the Association of Head Mistresses in Secondary Schools, a resolution was carried commending the work of the Council, and urging that all qualified teachers should become Registered without delay. It is obvious that head teachers in schools of all types can do much to further the Council's efforts if they will bring the question of Registration before the notice of their junior colleagues, and ask them to take the proper steps to become fully accredited members of the teaching profession.

What is needed throughout the ranks of teaching generally is a greater measure of professional self-consciousness and of professional self-respect, as distinct from self-esteem. Although at present no tangible benefit follows from becoming Registered, it cannot be doubted that when the movement is seen to have the support of the great majority of qualified teachers the education authorities, central and local, will be moved to recognise the work of the Council, and to stipulate for Registration as a condition of appointment to posts of responsibility in all schools and educational institutions. This, however, will hardly come about so long as we have any considerable body of teachers who give the impression that they are indifferent to everything save the immediate problems of salaries and pensions.

Attainments.

Among the more difficult tasks to be accomplished by the Council is that of preparing satisfactory schedules of attainments where teachers of specialist subjects are concerned. In our universities, secondary schools, and elementary schools, the academic requirements to be expected are fairly clear; a degree or the Board of Education Certificate is usually offered, but in the wide field of specialist teaching there are many subjects, and an almost endless variety of examinations. For the most part the specialist teacher has been left without guidance as to the kind or range of knowledge that will satisfy an appointing body, and some teachers have sought safety by taking as many examinations as possible, instead of being encouraged to follow a definite line leading to a diploma of established repute. Others have sought "soft options," and have obtained the right to use letters which mean little or nothing to the instructed eye, but apparently are misunderstood to mean that those who use them are fully qualified. The situation is perhaps worst in the branch of music teaching, where several proprietary bodies are actively engaged in conducting examinations for private gain.

THE MONTH'S CAUSERIE.

BY THE DOMINIE.

Salaries.

The position in regard to the Burnham Scales is outwardly unaltered. I am told that a sub-committee of the Authorities' Panel has lately been engaged in drafting new scales, and that if these are approved by the Panel, they will be offered to the teachers. It is well known that if these scales involve reductions of salary, the Teachers' Panel cannot accept them without reference to their constituent associations. Supposing that these bodies reject them, there will be a return to the old plan of local bargaining, with the certainty of much friction and unrest. This will serve only to impede the work of the schools and to deter young people from becoming teachers. Sir George Lunn and his colleagues must be well aware of these results, and I am surprised that they should have discarded the plan of civil negotiation for one which an unfriendly critic might describe as an attempt at bluff or bluster. I am glad to learn that the Teachers' Panel have not appointed a sub-committee to prepare a scheme for the future payment of education officials, despite the dictum of Sir George Lunn to the effect that everybody must be ready to make sacrifices in these hard times. Perhaps the Authorities' Panel are doing this.

The Commons and Education.

By a private arrangement among the parties in the House the discussion on the Education Estimates was kept clear of the salaries question. This left the field open for a general talk which illustrated the saying of Calverley that "a discussion may begin at any point and wander to any distance from that point." To any teacher, confronted day by day by youngsters to be taught and trained, these parliamentary debates are almost comic in their futility. The President of the Board told the House that there is a lamentable gap between the work of the maternity centre and that of the infant school. Up to the age of one year the centres aid the mother in tending the child. Then come four years without supervision, and when the infants begin to attend school it is found that one in five is suffering from physical defects which may hamper them throughout life. He then went into statistics, saying that we have nursery school places for 3,300 children, and holding out hopes that we may have places for about another 2,200 in a few years' time. He did not remind us that the estimated child population under five years of age is over 3,000,000, of whom a large number are exposed to the risks he described. It would be interesting to know what is being done to stimulate laggard Local Authorities in this matter.

Progress.

At the present rate we shall have to wait for many years before we have nursery schools for all who need them. The President of the Board made an interesting speech, showing progress in almost every direction, but the advance is extremely slow. Following the elementary school there is at present another perilous gap during early adolescence. The estimated population between fourteen and seventeen is over 2,000,000, but of these less than 400,000 are in grant-aided schools or institutions. It is safe to say that out of every four in this age group three are left mainly to their own devices. We need not wonder if they forget many of the things they learnt in the elementary school. How much of his preparatory school learning would a boy retain at eighteen if, instead of proceeding to a public school, he had to go to a factory for forty-eight hours a week and roam the streets in the evenings? Nevertheless, we do advance. The President was able to say that during the eleven years since State scholarships were introduced the men scholars include 52 per cent., and the women scholars 28 per cent., who have gained first-class honours in university examinations. Of the free-place pupils in secondary schools, 54 per cent. passed the School Certificate, whereas only 29 per cent. of fee-paying pupils passed.

The Real Need.

Lord Eustace Percy showed something of the right temper for a debate on education. Statistics of progress on the old lines give him little comfort. He rightly desires to have our educational system remodelled in regard to the training which it affords for life in a modern community. I have seen criticisms of his views as tending to make vocational training displace intellectual and moral discipline, but I see no good reason for supposing that a boy who is learning things which will help him to earn a living must be prevented from learning how to live. A training which is exclusively or narrowly vocational is bad, but it is possible to have instruction which is manifestly useful, and therefore interesting to the pupil, without any impairment of the instruction in "humane" branches. We ought to bring our entire system under review, determining, in the first place, that we will have healthy citizens, and in the second place, that they shall have robust minds and the power to support themselves. Then we must take measures to release ability for the service of the community by making it easy for children of talent to find the places where they can do their best work.

Matriculation Questions.

There has recently been an interesting correspondence in the *Manchester Guardian* concerning questions in English at the Northern Joint Board Examination for the School Certificate. Among the set books were Hardy's "Under the Greenwood Tree" and George Eliot's "Romola." The former work has a sub-title, known probably to few readers of Hardy. It is given in the words: "A Rural Painting of the Dutch School." The candidates were asked to explain this. Some teachers have urged that the question is unfair for children of sixteen, and one has pointed out that the sub-title was omitted from the school edition used by his pupils. Although the question demands some knowledge of matters outside the book, it has the merit of testing the candidate's understanding of Hardy's literary method. I prefer it to such stock questions as the alternative asked in the same examination, namely, "Discuss the personalities of, and describe the part played by, any two of the following: Reuben Dewy, Fancy Day, Mr. Shinar, Mr. Maybold." Of the questions on "Romola" the following is quoted:—"Destiny had brought within his reach an opportunity of retrieving that moment on the steps of the Duomo when the past had grasped him with living, quivering hands and he had not disowned it." Explain all the allusions in this passage, so as to give a vivid outline of the novel to one who has not read it." Here is a stiff task to be done in thirty minutes or less by a boy or girl of sixteen or seventeen.

The Examiners.

Even more interesting than the questions they ask are the notes made by the examiners. Thus we are told that on last year's papers they were moved to say that "Many candidates suffered in the study of eighteenth century texts from the lack of historical knowledge. The activities of Thomas Connecte were more often than not assigned to eighteenth century England, and candidates assumed that Addison's picture of rural life was to be accepted without qualification." From this I gather that the papers on English literature must be approached by way of history. There is reason in that, provided that the syllabus in each subject is brought into line with the rest. I can imagine the history examiner complaining of a lack of geographical knowledge, the science man demanding better mathematics, and so on. We should see a revival of such blessed words as "correlation" and "concentric." I mistrust these examinations in "set books." They are usually far too detailed for children. Would it not be better to have questions which test the understanding and appreciation of books, and invite candidates to show their own mastery of English.

New Aids.

At the beginning of July there was an interesting demonstration of the use of sound films in schools. It was arranged by the Western Electric Company, and included pictures of the life history of woodwasps, extracts from the speeches of Disraeli, and one showing the operations of the building trade, and designed for vocational guidance. The first of these pictures had been prepared by the British Instructional Films, Ltd., for the Imperial Forestry Department. These pictures are expensive to produce, and will be expensive to use so long as the demand is small. The commercial cinemas find them unpopular with audiences that have become used to the highly seasoned fare which is generally offered.

A further difficulty is connected with acoustics. It is sometimes found, both in the talking film and in school broadcasting, that the sounds coming from the instrument bear little resemblance to human speech. While this defect remains the value of sound films and of broadcast lessons will be extremely doubtful. For myself, I should refuse to have either in my school until I was satisfied that the quality of the speech would serve as a standard.

Congratulations.

Education is a form of public service which is never honoured overmuch, and therefore I was glad to see that the retiring Secretary of the N.U.T. has become Sir Frank Goldstone, in well merited recognition of a long and distinguished career, which has included experience as a teacher, a member of Parliament, and an official of the largest organisation of teachers. The Director of Education for Sheffield is now Dr. Percival Sharp, having found honour in the University of his adopted city; and the University of Birmingham has conferred a degree on Mr. A. Weston Priestley, the Director of Education for Worcestershire.

Sir Harry Reichel.

The late Sir Harry Reichel leaves with his many friends the memory of a well-rounded life, devoted to the cause of education, particularly in Wales. At Balliol, whither he proceeded from Christ's Hospital, he had a most distinguished career, ending with a Fellowship at All Souls in 1880. Four years later he became head of the University College of North Wales, and there he stayed till 1927, building up an institution which is his own best monument. A man of great breadth of mind and clear vision, he took an active part in many educational enterprises, giving to them unstinting and distinguished service. His interests ranged from school handwork to university administration, and he was one of the first supporters of the present Register of Teachers.

IMPRESSIONS OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

BY A LONDON TEACHER.

II. The "High Schools."

One striking feature of the American educational system is the unified control of schools. By reason of this, American schemes are all neatly dovetailed, and there is co-ordination from one end of the scale to the other. Schedules of work are planned in natural evolution, without clashing or overlapping. Then again, detailed records on health, scholarship, aptitude, &c., are kept, and as the child enters in turn "the Grade," the "Junior High," or "Intermediate," the "Senior High," and the "State University," they are passed on with him.

On his first moving from "Grade" to "Junior High," a child is befriended by an "educational advisor," who guides him in making a suitable choice from among the several educational paths open to him. For while it is recognised that a broad, general education should be given to all, it is held that it cannot successfully be given to all in the same way. The planning and equipment of American high schools are a practical expression of this view.

Approaching one of the palatial school buildings, one feels that America's idea of the supreme value of her young life is there embodied. I could not but marvel as I saw these magnificent buildings—especially the newer ones. No English school seemed comparable in size, dignity, and beauty of structure and adornment, or in lavish and ingenious equipment. They seemed to be on the scale of our County Hall in London. Most of them stand in a "campus" of two or three acres. It is no uncommon thing for an American to gratify his civic pride by purchasing twenty acres or so and offering it for the campus of a school to be built in his town.

In this area there will probably be a stadium, with seating capacity for 10,000 people or more. For the inter-school soccer and baseball matches are weekly affairs, to be witnessed on Saturday afternoons by parents and friends. Well-equipped gymnasiums, with shower and swimming baths, either adjoin to the school or form separate buildings in the campus, while bicycle sheds and car parks are provided.

One ascends, perhaps by a marble stairway, into the spacious entrance hall, adorned with statuary and sculptured friezes, and passes through long well lit corridors. On the walls are pictures and cabinets for exhibits of the best current work done

by the various school departments. Here also one finds individual lockers for students, far superior to those in our University Colleges.

One may be informed, as I was on entering a fine "intermediate" school at Detroit, that there were in all 300 rooms for the use of 2,200 pupils and 75 teachers. But the time-saving telephone formed a connecting link between them all, including, of course, the principals' offices. (Telephones for the use of pupils were also to be seen.)

All courses in the high schools must include health education, social science (history or civics), English, mathematics, general science, and music or art. With this proviso, a pupil may follow one of three main lines. He may choose the General course, an American version of our English academic course, or the Commercial course, providing a practical introduction to general business methods, and enabling the child to test his aptitude for them while yet in school. Then there is the Practical Arts course, designed to enable the pupil to discover his special interests and aptitudes. It is this practical arts or vocational side of American schools which one finds developed in a truly wonderful fashion. One finds "shop" after "shop" filled with expensive plant, to guard which may demand the services of night watchmen.

There is the general shop, in which every boy is required to take a course at the beginning of his career. Here he gets a practical introduction to woodwork, sheetmetal, electrical, plumbing, and glazing work. If he goes no farther, he will at all events have learned to become a "handy man" in his home. But if interested, he may elect to take further courses along one of these lines.

So there are pattern shops, well equipped with motor-driven lathes, planes, band-saws, and moulding rooms; electrical shops, where boys are to be seen solving the mystery of an electric bell, &c. In one of these electrical shops in a large school in New York City, the head pointed out to me three boys, once notorious for ill-conduct in and out of school, who are now interested in legitimate activities, and have been reformed in work and conduct.

The carpenters' shops were hives of industry. In one of these I was surprised to find a woman instructress, and even more surprised at the note of pride in the voice of my male guide, as he informed me that her pupils did the best work in the town.

There were printing shops equipped with costly presses, where various styles and sizes of printing were practised. Here, of course, much of the print-

ing done is for school use. Programmes, menus, notices, school magazines, and handbooks are all produced by eager pupils.

In another shop boys were seen puzzling out the reassembling of an automobile engine, taken to pieces for their instruction. Room after room may be seen fitted up for feminine activities. Millinery and dressmaking rooms; rooms where home decorating or simple upholstery is taught; model kitchenettes, laundries, and apartments—all ungrudgingly equipped.

In the model kitchens, not only are students instructed in cooking, canning, and other branches of domestic art, but they are introduced to all manner of electric and other labour-saving implements and devices, and instructed in their use. Moreover, in all the model laundries one or two electric washers were installed. These facts made clear to me why, although American women refuse to do work which a machine will do for them, yet, with the help of a single maid, they will run a mansion which in England would be staffed by eight to ten servants.

A prominent feature of an American high school is its "auditorium." In this noble and theatre-like hall, capable of seating (with a good view) all the pupils, with its fully equipped and propertied stage, varied and most useful work is done.

I witnessed a celebration in one such auditorium belonging to a large junior high school in New York City, which I happened to visit on "Columbus Day." On the stage, before the admiring gaze of over 2,000 boys (all resplendent in white, self-laundered "short-shirts"), lay a large boy-made model of the ship in which Columbus had sailed on his momentous voyage. Three boys gave in turn the story of his life, &c., in consecutive sections. They were followed by eight lads, each carrying a giant letter, ready to make an acrostic from the word "Columbus." To do this, each recited a short poem—his own effort in rhyme and rhythm, a creditable sample of work in the English department. Short practical addresses by the heads, and a patriotic song, accompanied by the school orchestra, ended a celebration evidently keenly enjoyed.

In another, the auditorium of the oldest high school in Pittsburg, I watched a "movie-film" illustrating the pumping of crude oil, and its subsequent refinement into various products. Later on, the same auditorium was seen in quiet possession of a single class, whose members were rehearsing a play under the critical instruction of the "Master of Elocution and Public Speaking."

On yet another occasion—this time the senior high school near Lake Huron—I heard five students, aged fifteen to eighteen, voluntarily appeal from the stage to the assembled school for funds to help the victims of a national disaster. Their

self-possession, and clear, fluent speech, showed good training in oral English. I could not help thinking that a similar training would be far more possible in our English schools if each possessed at least a simple stage.

But what I coveted most when visiting American schools were the splendid libraries—magnificent, well-lighted halls, into which opened, in many cases, roomlets for child research and collaboration, generously furnished with well illustrated books and magazines.

I explored one in the city of Flint, Michigan. It had been started six years before with 4,000 volumes. Since then, \$400 had been spent yearly in upkeep and additions. (An interesting law in Michigan allocates the spending on school libraries of all fines taken from civil offenders.) The services of two trained librarians were insufficient in this school of 2,000 pupils. They were helped by young enthusiasts from the higher grades, who thereby gained a "school-activity credit." In one of the roomlets here I came upon two girls and a boy getting information on and discussing, "with fresh grave lip," "Capital Punishment," the subject of their next debate.

So alive to the value of a good school library are Americans, that in some small places, where a separate school and town library (or auditorium) cannot be afforded, they build and equip a hall adjoining the school, to be used jointly—in school hours by scholars, and at night by citizens.

The fine orchestras, cafeterias, and sports of the schools deserve more than this passing allusion.

In spite of all the wealth and interest lavished on her schools, the standard of university graduation in America is distinctly lower than in England. This results, say Americans, from making the universities free to all who qualify for entrance before she had a sufficient number of properly equipped teachers. From the comparatively few but intellectually select youth entering English universities, more can be expected.

The many and varying impressions made upon me by the magnificent schools of America focus themselves into two convictions. First, that England and America have each much to gain by studying the other's systems. Also, that wealth and suitability of *material* equipment, desirable though they be, are as nothing compared with the intangible spiritual equipment of those who teach, and their attitude to their work.

American teachers deserve a chapter all to themselves, if only to pay a just tribute to their kindness. Everywhere they went out of their way in friendliest fashion to welcome and help me, an utter stranger. Their many questions showed a sympathetic interest in our educational experiments, e.g., in our nursery schools.

ARE TEACHERS OVERPAID?

BY "ALASTAIR."

Schoolmasters are too accustomed to keep a more or less dignified silence while they are told by company promoters, bankers, and politicians that they are a lot of spineless drifters who enter the teaching profession because they have not got the initiative for anything else; that the results of their professional labours are inadequate and expensive because "modern boys often cannot write decently or even add up figures correctly," and are not worth the huge wages which they are paid by business men who seem to desire nothing more than copper-plate writing and mechanical accuracy.

In fact, the modern business man is too often the acquisitive descendant of a decadent Calvinism; he is full of righteousness at his acquisitiveness, and full of the rightfulness of his dogma. His psychology is that of the funk and the prig; he does not realise that he is the world's greatest sham. He preaches economy and wage-cuts for the strange reason that never before in the history of the world have manufacturers' raw materials been so plentiful and so cheap. Because the world is full of good things, we are urged to expect a stationary or a smaller share of them and yet, presumably, retain our confidence in the efficiency of business men. There may be subtle reasons for the paradox: I have heard many, but they do not convince me of the business man's competence at his own job, much less of his right to insist on judging the rewards which should be paid to others.

It occurs to me with monotonous frequency that much of the talk of reduced cost of living is humbug. It is not, for example, in the retail prices of manufactured products but in wholesale prices of raw materials that the slump has occurred; further, it is a well known fact that the official index figures of the cost of living cannot fairly be held to apply to the incomes of professional men. The schoolmaster does not usually find that the cost of his clothes, his rent, rates, taxes, school fees, medical fees, and insurance premiums have declined in like proportion to the cost of his food, and a schoolmaster is one of the last of men who can be expected to live by bread alone.

The local education authorities urge the need for economy; outspoken "capitalists" urge the need for economy. We spend roughly £100,000,000 a year on education; we spend £365,000,000 a year on War debt interest, and £350,000,000 a year on drink. What we need is not so much a sense of economy as a sense of proportion.

It is never likely that a reduction of the wages of one class of the community will preserve those of another; neither is it very difficult to realise that our foreign competitors would most probably reduce their

labour costs in reply to any extensive wage cuts in this country, and that, in consequence, our competitive strength would not be enhanced.

It may be argued that the teaching profession is "sheltered" from economic storms and upsets. Sir George Lunn (Chairman of the Newcastle-upon-Tyne Education Committee) is reported to have said at the Scarborough Conference of the Association of Education Committees (June 11, 1931):—"Teachers have been living for twelve years in a sheltered condition. The cost of that shelter is so much that others who need some shelter cannot have it, because teachers are taking up so much of the sheltered room." It is not generally known that the original Burnham salaries agreement was drawn up on the specific understanding that there should be no revision of it with reference to the cost of living; it was because of that understanding that the teachers accepted a smaller salary scale than was originally proposed. In spite of it teachers' salaries have been cut 10 per cent. during the last twelve years—a serious leak in Sir George Lunn's "shelter" which he does not mention.

Few graduate teachers are self-supporting until they reach the age of twenty-three; many, at that age, have invested what capital they can command in their education; even those who are aided financially by local authorities or the Government have sacrifices to make while waiting until they are qualified. No man should grudge these, but they are strictly relevant to salary scales.

Many schoolmasters are to be found eager for the emoluments of odd jobs such as examinerships and evening work. This is not because they are exceptionally avaricious, but because they find it increasingly difficult to keep up appearances, an expensive necessity, on their meagre salaries. The less salaries become the more schoolmasters will be compelled to regard their school work as a part-time job, and the more likelihood there will be of the best men avoiding or getting out of the profession altogether and of indifferent material drifting into it.

And this would be a pity, for schoolmastering is an exacting whole-time occupation for even the best members of the profession.

"Modern Language Series."—EN INGLATERRA: by M. Salter. An Introduction to the Spanish of Commerce. (2s. Harrap.)

This book consists of a series of forty practical, interesting, and well graded lessons, each accompanied by appropriate and useful exercises, the whole forming an excellent introduction to the study of commercial Spanish.

J. W. B. A.

A WORLD PLUTARCH.

By F. J. GOULD.

Nine years ago (July, 1922), in the Glass Hall of the League of Nations Building at Geneva, on the occasion of the Third International Congress of Moral Education (Dr. Nitobé, a Japanese, in the chair), I sketched a project which, though simple in statement, will take several generations to realise—namely, the preparation of a World Plutarch, or Biographical Bible of the Human Race. Exactly what of workmanship is needed for the task I think I can claim to know fairly well; for, since 1896, I have travelled far and wide in the land of books, journals, and "Once upon a time," and compiled in note-books a small store of 3,000 or more anecdotes of kindness, generosity, trustworthiness, self-control, honour, justice, valour for service, and the like, the larger part having got into a variety of printed forms. But such a travail is the merest drop in the vast bucket. So I venture here to spend a few moments in picturing the bucket itself.

For some years past I have pleaded from the educational platform that, while valuing the journalistic form of history (that is, chronological accounts of kings, presidents, wars, parliaments, revolutions, reforms, and national evolutions), we should look for the valid material for youth training in certain outstanding historical "norms," or social activities and expressions. I can indicate them, with practical completeness, as five:—(1) Nature-conquest (agriculture, domestication of animals, mining, exploration, &c.); (2) Industry (arts, crafts, commerce, finance); (3) The Arts of Beauty (poetry, legend, drama, music, dance, costume, painting, sculpture, architecture, gardening, and *eulaxis* or good choice of words); (4) The Sciences (mathematics, astronomy, physics, geology, chemistry, biology, sociology, ethics, and their growth); (5) Social Life (family, city, nation, law, manners, cults and traditions of the great Faiths, development of economic and mental freedom, international co-operation). As accidents, hindrances, and irrelevancies to these norms we may count (while not disregarding the heroisms associated with war) war, cruelty, poverty, disease, lunacy, and ignorance (personal ignorance, international ignorance, inter-racial ignorance). Thus, at a glance, we may see the enormous field over which the genius of education may endlessly roam in quest of materials for the World Plutarch, or Biographical Bible of the Human Race, its sections being Nature-conquest, Industry, Art, Science, Society. For the general spirit of research we have splendid models, as, for example, Hakluyt for sea voyagers; Smiles for engineers; Stirling for Spanish artists; Sir Richard Gregory for the "Spirit and Service of Science" (in his book "Discovery"); and, while Plutarch guides our choice

for Rome and Greece, Frederic Harrison's "Calendar of Great Men" (based on Comte's noble "Positivist Calendar," covering all ages) teaches us catholicity; and, for lives of saints, all the Faiths—Hindu, Buddhist, Muslim, Hebrew, Catholic, and Protestant—spread their ample pages. The treasures thus provided can be enormously enlarged, and on the familiar lines. What we additionally need is a collection, from all nations, of the life stories, simple and brief, of farmers, shepherds, foresters, miners, quarrymen, cotton growers, silk producers, merchant seamen, potters, masons, wood-carvers, cloth-makers, smiths, puddlers, &c.; and Silvio Pellico will remind us that even the "sorrowful sighing of the prisoner" may lend grace to an absorbing tale. He who smiles at the proletarian aspect of the list I have just presented perhaps forgets that one great faith adores a carpenter, another a camel-driver, a third a shepherd.

Such an enterprise would, I think, achieve a profounder influence than Peace Demonstrations in the Albert Hall, or Disarmament Conferences at Geneva, and I say this as a really enthusiastic worker for the League of Nations ideal. Theoretically, it would seem as if such a scheme would fall naturally into the agenda of the League's International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation at the Palais Royal, Paris; but I fear the proposal would cause epilepsy or apoplexy in the Palais Royal bureaux. Even by the History-teaching Congress now being planned by my friends, H.E. Señor Don R. Altamira (Hague Court) and M. Lhéritier (Comité Int. des Sciences Historiques, Paris), the idea might be considered, but not organised. So I pause, as one crying in the wilderness, not knowing which way to turn to discover the searchers, collaborators, translators, and publishers. The material swarms; the material grows; the material is born daily. I can scarcely pick up any ordinary journal without finding, in the midst of a thousand trifles and straws, the anecdote of a golden deed, or the sketch of a worthy career. The famous Gold Rush of California did not yield so delightful a treasure as could be won from the annals of Micronesia, or of half-a-dozen villages of Berkshire or Valencia.

SHORT FRENCH PLAYS: by A. F. Sack. (1s. 3d. Dent.)

The ten scenes are intended for acting in class, and would also be suitable for modest speech-day performances. They are short, easy, and amusing, just the thing for a young teacher with a young class.

A. B. G.

OF THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE MODERN TEACHER WITH LEARNING.

By DESMOND T. A. PONTON.

My landlady, when she brings in my meals, or peeps in to make sure that I am not burning the house down, often finds me engrossed in a book to the extent of my being almost unconscious of her presence.

"You should have been a parson and not a schoolmaster, Mr. O'Donoghue," she remarked the other evening, on finding me so engaged.

Somewhat nettled that she should rank a pedagogue below a clergyman, as far as reading was concerned, I asked her if she did not think it even more important that a schoolmaster should read than a parson.

"I dunno," was her reply, "but from time to time I have had a number of teachers staying here, but they didn't seem to read much beyond a six-penny novel now and again, yet they seemed to enjoy life."

It was then that an opinion, formed when I first entered the teaching profession, passed through my mind—an opinion which for some years has remained dormant, due, no doubt, to the novelty of my environment wearing off—that the hall-mark of the mass of teachers is a combination of appalling ignorance, lack of culture, a personality overbearing to the point of exasperation, and an incomparable power to bluff due to a superficial education. If the reader considers this opinion to be without foundation, let him pay particular attention to conversations in the staff-room, make an examination of teachers' interests outside the school, attend a meeting of teachers, and try to listen to a teacher talking to those in an inferior position.

In the present era one does not disclose the fact that one is a teacher if one would be respected by society. For a few months, a short train journey was necessary in order to reach my school. I became acquainted with two gentlemen, a doctor and a solicitor, and what would have been an uninteresting journey was enlivened by many an interesting conversation, until one morning by some mischance I disclosed my vocation. A look of incredulity, spiced with contempt, passed across the faces, and I was made to feel that I had been guilty of a grave deception. Up went the morning papers and henceforth I was an outcast. I was a teacher, and, as such, I must not claim the acquaintanceship of men who in the eyes of society are regarded as my superiors. Apart from any snobbishness or narrow-mindedness on the part of my two former companions, the incident admirably exemplifies the manner in which we teachers are regarded by those who, as far as learning, culture, and refinement are concerned, should be our inferiors.

Such wide fields of learning should we control, such vast resources of knowledge should be ours,

such an impregnable position should we hold, in the eyes of society, with regard to refinement and culture, that the mere name of teacher should suffice to earn the respect of all men!

What a heritage is ours! In our ranks have laboured men whose names will never be forgotten, names which will ever stand as imperishable monuments to learning, names of men whose devotion to the acquisition of knowledge and the expounding thereof have made the world what it is to-day. O shades of Socrates, of Duns Scotus, of St. Thomas Aquinas, of Champeaux, of Ascham, of Newton and of Arnold, arise from Elysium and come to the succour of thy pitiful posterity which cries to thee!

The age of scholasticism has passed; no more does the poor scholar, clad in threadbare garments, with his scant wallet and few manuscripts, tramp from university to university to hear the teachings of the great doctors. It cannot be said of the modern teacher:—

"For him was levere have at beddes heed
Twenty bokes clad in blak or reed
Of Aristotle and his philosophye,
Than robes riche or fithele or gay sautrye."

At the conclusion of the day's work we sever all connections with learning and join the throng of superficial pleasure seekers, and sorrowfully await the morrow because we have not the wherewithal to teach.

Now ethically, neglect of learning on the part of the teacher is a transgression of duty. From the date of his birth man is possessed of a soul which is capable of expansion into broad and magnificent proportions. With this he is gifted with an insatiable curiosity. He wishes to know all things, and to understand all things—an object which he will never achieve, because by so doing he would become a godhead. But these gifts are bestowed upon him in order that, by using them rightly on this earth, he will reach a state of perfection after death. It is therefore in man's own interests to spend this life in a striving for knowledge as a means to attaining honour and glory later. In other words, man must seek knowledge with no other end in view than that of intellectual enjoyment; he must possess a liberal education.

"Of possessions," says Aristotle, "those rather are useful which bear fruit; those liberal which tend to enjoyment. By fruitful I mean which yield revenue; by enjoyable, where nothing accrues of consequence beyond the learning."

Materialistic readers will ask, of what use will be these vast resources of learning once they are acquired? Why should we not concentrate our energies on that particular science which is the basis

of our vocation? To these I would reply that those sciences into which our knowledge is cast have a bearing one upon another, and without the power of comparison, which can be obtained only by a thorough grounding in the several sciences, narrow-mindedness will result, which at present is the canker of the teaching profession.

This brings us to another point, the manner in which teachers seek one another's company, but seldom that of other professional men. Rarely is a teacher seen at a meeting other than one which concerns teachers. They possess membership tickets only of societies which are run for and by teachers, and the element of brotherly love is so strong that they must needs go on their holidays together. Surely this again is conducive to narrow-mindedness. Truly the instinct of aggregation is well developed in the profession. The teacher should—nay, *must*, in order to fulfil his mission as an educator—throw in his lot with those of other walks of life. For it is only by intercourse with men of rival sciences that there can be any intellectual peace in society. By such intercourse men learn to respect and aid each other, and so each is able to interpret his own particular branch of philosophy in its real relationship with other branches.

"Thus," says Newman, "a habit of mind is formed which lasts through life of which the attributes are freedom, equitableness, calmness, moderation, and wisdom . . . a philosophical habit."

Awake from thy lethargy then, O helpless pedagogue, and steep thyself in the waters of the Pierian spring!

NEW SPANISH READER FOR BEGINNERS: by Lawrence A. Wilkins. (3s. 6d. Harrap.)

This is largely a reprint of the author's original work, published some years ago. It contains forty-five lessons, each accompanied by exercises designed to develop and test understanding of what has been read, and to aid in the extension of vocabulary and idioms through the study of synonyms, "word families," and the like. The reading subject matter can be easily mastered, and should prove most interesting to children, and the exercises, we think, could scarcely be improved upon. The book also contains a useful list of everyday phrases and proverbs for memory work, a list of irregular verbs for reference, and a full and excellent vocabulary. In addition there are fifty first-rate and appropriate illustrations, and some characteristic Spanish songs with music. We can unreservedly recommend this book to schools, and to all who desire to obtain (quickly, easily, and agreeably) a sound elementary knowledge of Spanish. We know of no better book for this purpose.

J. W. B. A.

GLEANINGS.

A Profound Truth.

Speaking at the Conference of the Institute of Public Administration held in Oxford, Dr. I. G. Gibbon, a principal assistant secretary in the Ministry of Health, said that, admitting that they had not sufficient evidence to be sure, all the evidence indicated that qualities of the mind followed those of the body, and that really exceptional men were few.

Exactly! That is perhaps why we call them exceptional men.

Ominous!

In a report of the Speech Day at St. George's, Harpenden, *The Times*, of July 13, told us that "there was a short silence before the speeches in memory of Dr. Ranking, one of the School Governors, and of Sir Neville Lyttelton. The School Musical Society gave Morley's madrigal: 'Fire, Fire.'"

Next to Godliness.

The Head Master of Chigwell School, in his Annual Report on Speech Day, spoke of the value of the O.T.C., and said that it was second only to the school chapel in its beneficial influence on the boys. He added that the martial atmosphere was not a spiritual danger.

A Test of Endurance.

"It is a pleasant proof of the good health enjoyed both by Princess Louise Duchess of Argyll and her sister, Princess Beatrice, that both ladies were entertained to luncheon by Mrs. Arthur James at her house in Grafton Street."—(*Evening Standard*, July 4.)

A Note on Speech.

"Speech is a two-edged weapon. A rich vocabulary, expressive of ideas, is indicative of high intelligence. A mere outpouring of verbal noises with no ideas is equally characteristic of imbecility. Democracy frequently confuses the two."—(*From "The Mental Defective," published by Kegan Paul.*)

A Pleasant Study.

Our distinguished contemporary, *The School Government Chronicle*, quotes Sir Arthur Thomson as having said that the essential things in school are "an encouraging development of brain-stretching, by all sorts of methods, from Greek verse to comic sections, sense training, and character building." We have long thought that the comic element was needed, especially in mathematics.

LEARN FRENCH IN MONTREAL.

By JOHN RADCLIFF.

If you want to learn French but cannot afford to pick it up in France, why not go to Montreal?

Montreal is the second largest French city in the world, and yet, being bilingual, has several advantages over Paris for the student with limited means. In a bilingual city one can slide without effort into mastery of French and can earn one's living while doing so. In fact, if one went out to Montreal in May and came back in September, one should be able not only to earn one's living but to recover the cost of travelling as well.

Jobs are easy to get during the summer, May to September, for it is only during the other seven months of the year that Canada is a hard country. This is because the severe winter paralyzes hundreds of commercial and industrial enterprises, which, however, jerk to life again about May, and try with feverish vigour to crowd a year's work into five months, offering jobs galore to all men really intent on being useful. And for women, of course, there are still better opportunities.

It is during these five months that university students, women as well as men, earn the money to keep them at "college" during the rest of the year, there being in the Canadian university calendar a five-month summer vacation and only a two-week winter one. These students do not turn up their noses at undignified jobs, but take whatever comes along, and what a university student is willing to do a student of French can bring himself to do. Anyway, between May and September a living can be earned if it is wanted.

However, the fact that it can be done is not everything. Is it worth doing? How much French will one learn?

No one would doubt the value of spending five months in Paris, yet in a unilingual city like Paris it is far harder to pick up French than in a bilingual city like Montreal, for wherever you go in Montreal you find the French translated. On the lamp-posts you see a notice: "Ne cracher pas sur le trottoir." And with it is the translation: "Do not spit on the sidewalk." You put out your finger to ring the door-bell of a friend and see the notice: "Sonnez la cloche." Underneath is the translation: "Ring the bell." Wherever you rest your eyes you enrich your mind with French phrases and their meanings. How different from Paris, where you see nothing but a bewildering profusion of incomprehensible hieroglyphs.

I know a man who acquired a tolerable knowledge of French by sitting in Montreal cinemas. Outside these cinemas one sees placarded the words: "Titres Français." The sub-titles, this is to say, will be given in French as well as in English. In-

stead of the hero's impassioned "I love you" being sprawled right across the screen, it is confined to one-half, the other half containing the French version: "Je t'aime." Even with the talkies there are the same facilities for picking up French without the trouble of laborious study, for the Quebec Province board of censors insist on films showing a French translation.

Some people might be afraid of getting a French-Canadian accent, there being as great a difference between the accent of Montreal and that of Paris as between the accent of London and that of Manchester. But if an Englishman spent five months in Paris he would not hear the best French spoken around him any more than a Frenchman would hear the best English spoken around him in the trams, tea-shops, and apartment houses of London. Moreover, in Montreal there are teachers of French who come from Paris. One could take oral lessons from these men and have one's accent carefully watched, for the various peculiarities of the French-Canadian accent are known and can be guarded against. The dangers of learning an undesirable accent are really no greater in Montreal than in Paris.

As a matter of fact, the French-Canadians claim that their French is purer than that of old France, and that even in France the accent of Tours is the best, far superior to that of Paris. It is undoubtedly true that one hears a more grammatical French spoken in Montreal than in Paris, the French-Canadian masses being better educated than their opposite numbers in France, and in addition having a passionate love for their tongue, a love that makes them cherish it and reject misuses, fearful that if they let it become slipshod it will lose caste and be submerged in the ocean of English around it. This greater precision is of the utmost value to an Englishman learning French, for it frees him from the danger of adopting slang in the belief that it is idiomatic, a danger he would have to be on sleepless guard against in Paris.

A summer in Montreal will teach you French and pay for itself.

An Interpreter Needed.

An indignant protest has been voiced in the Canadian House of Commons by Mr. T. Reid, a Liberal member who was born in Scotland, over the dismissal of an Immigration Inspector of British Columbia on the grounds that his Scottish speech was so broad that the travelling public were unable to understand what he said when he put questions to them.

THE MODERN GIRL.

What Her Head Mistress Thinks About Her.

Some Views of Miss E. Addison Phillips, M.A., Head Mistress of Clifton High School for Girls.

BY GERTRUDE VAUGHAN.

Does the girl of to-day make a good housewife and mother? On this perennial and often hotly-debated question I sought the views of Miss Addison Phillips, who, with her twenty-three years of experience as head mistress of a famous school which now has four hundred and seventy pupils, and her many years of devoted work for the Association of Head Mistresses, would be, I thought, an excellent authority on this vexed subject.

"The modern girl as I know her," Miss Phillips said, in an interview sandwiched between a number of scholastic and other engagements—she is a well-known Club woman and vice-president of the Council of the Soroptimist Clubs—"makes a first-rate housewife and mother. She 'buckles to' in household duties that many women of the last generation never had to do at all, and she is devoted to her children, and does more for them, because there is usually less money to spend now than there was then on domestic help. And it is charming to hear a young mother, at a reunion of 'old' girls, telling her friends, 'Do you know—I have a baby!'"

Thinking of some modern novels by and about schoolgirls, I asked Miss Phillips to tell me what she considered to be the outstanding characteristics of the schoolgirl of to-day, and without a moment's hesitation she answered:

"Generosity, courage, organising ability." They are generous, she explained, especially in their judgments of other people; courageous in tackling difficulties, and many of them seem to be born with the power to organise on a large scale when a "big do," such as a bazaar, a dramatic entertainment, or a dance is in question.

"My girls," Miss Phillips said, "organised a party for four hundred children, and did it splendidly. If anything of this kind has to be done it is quite safe to leave it to them; they will carry it through not only without a hitch, but with far less effort than older people would find it necessary to put into it."

"Does the modern girl still bring flowers to offer to her adored mistress?"

Miss Phillips laughed. "Oh, dear no! Much too sensible. She has strong steady affection for old and tried friends, but the *Schwärmerei* which, unfortunately, has been made the subject of certain novels, is quite out of date. It is simply 'not done.' It belongs to a period when public school education for girls was at its beginnings and had all the excitement of novelty."

Miss Phillips is far too careful an observer to pre-

tend to perfection where it does not exist, and she had a few criticisms to make. Some girls, she admitted, are rather inaccurate, just a little casual, and without sufficient sense of obligation.

"And in their keenness to 'get a job' on leaving school there is a tendency to lose sight of that sense of vocation which was so marked a characteristic of a generation before their own. To this there are, of course, wonderful and shining exceptions, for it is true that in some girls the impulse to social service is very strongly developed." Nevertheless, in the rush for "jobs" Miss Phillips sees this danger.

With a twinkle in her eye she admitted, too, that with all her cleverness in doing things on a big scale the modern girl is rather disposed, unless put on her honour, to leave someone else to clean up the mess when it is over!

"But," she concluded, "I always say that she is not so bad as she is painted except when she is painted."

THE UNKNOWN.

A schoolmaster working in India sends the following sketch:—

Pratap Singh, like many another Rajput, was an optimistic adventurer in examinations; but, unlike the majority, he was blest with imagination and a fondness for the truth.

It fell to my lot to correct a paper of his on an English novel set as a text-book for a special prize.

When I took up Pratap Singh's paper I found on the outer cover the cheerful invocation "Good Luck!" presumably a prayer for himself rather than a welcome to the examiner.

Turning to Page One I found some instructions, heavily underlined: "The Examiner should see the note on Page Seven before he reads the answers to the given questions."

With some interest I turned to Page Seven, and there I read this confession: "My answers of these questions are not satisfactory because neither have I read the book nor heard the story of the book. Even I did not see its face carefully. The answers have no connection with the book, but they are related to my mind."

Pratap was quite right. The answers had no connection with the book, but they were full of imagination; six pages of it.

There was a merry twinkle in his eye when he came up to me a few days later and asked if he had got good marks. "For, Sahib, the book looked rather a thick book to be read right through."

MODERN SCHOOLING

CAN WE SPECIALISE TOO MUCH?

BY ANNE DOWNS.

Educational efficiency is not subject to statistics. Who, indeed, is to constitute himself supreme judge as to the quality of the finished articles turned out by your schools? It would be difficult to find any consensus of opinion in the matter. You have only to turn over the sheets of our daily journals to find articles criticising the public schools, articles defending them, articles written by irate business men stating that nowadays young people have no arithmetic, cannot write and cannot take responsibility, and advocating the teaching of the three R's, to quote only a few differences of opinion.

Specialisation is now an integral part of our education system, and its position seems logical enough. We set out to teach children certain subjects which are generally considered to be of immediate practical value, valuable as training, or of indirect humanistic value as equipment for life. Teachers are chosen who have spent several years of their lives in the intensive study of one of these, and have graduated at our universities. Specialisation, we insist, will have made them masters of their subjects, and thus each part of the curriculum will be in efficient hands. All this is true, but only up to a point.

Are we not tending to overestimate the actual value of the subject as an educator? Some children, it is true, will leave school to follow an academic life, but they are the exceptions. The advanced specialist is essential to these; he can produce more advanced specialists, replicas of himself. Our secondary schools, however, are filled with Tommy Smiths who will become motor mechanics, grocers, architects, or city clerks, and Mary Browns who will become typists or nurses, or even stay-at-homes. These will not travel far in the realms of historical fact, utilise mathematical calculations, travel far in foreign lands and speak their language, or even spend overmuch time reading Milton in their leisure hours. The teaching of the subject is not therefore the all-important factor in education.

In examinations the specialist justifies himself. Your subject enthusiast carries off the distinctions in matriculations and higher schools, but are these important to anyone except the head master who wants public approval? Some test of capability on leaving school is necessary, but there are few who would accept public examinations as infallible. It

is being acknowledged more and more that written examinations test the power to take written examinations and little else worth testing.

We have agreed that the subjects of the school curriculum and the passing of examinations are not the fundamental aims of education. In spite of the assertions of our manifold critics, we have certain ideals in mind, however far they may be from achievement and whatever differences may exist as to which are of paramount importance. Here, however, for the purposes of argument the commonly accepted estimate of an educated person will suffice. The term suggests someone who can speak King's English, can construct lucid sentences, and can discuss a question impersonally without rancour, seeing many points of view. To attempt to achieve a race of such is obviously an ideal, but to this end we teach our subjects. With the great literature of our race we can enlist their sympathy and understanding of other lives and experiences than their own. Historical characters and historical events furnish an excellent means of training children to see many sides of a question. Logic, concise statement and accuracy, we hope to foster by mathematics. Before us, therefore, as educators, lies the task of presenting our subjects to the children wisely rather than presenting masses of material which they will be totally incapable of assimilating.

Coupled with an understanding of the subject there must clearly be an understanding of the minds of children and of the particular children in question. The complete specialist has little opportunity to study the individual children under his tuition. This does not necessarily mean that the old form system and the method still adopted for small children, of having one master to each form responsible for every subject, is best. It would never be advisable for some of us to teach art and music, for instance. There are few people who could conduct classes in English and mathematics equally well. Some form of compromise is, however, easily obtainable. Every arts or science graduate of our universities can teach three subjects adequately to matriculation standard.

We want our children to have an intelligent interest in all sides of human activity. Would our specialists therefore be better instructors, and indeed better men, if they read more widely and had more catholic interests?

THE TEACHING OF WEATHER STUDY IN RURAL ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Suggestions by the Royal Meteorological Society.

The following suggestions are the outcome of a request made to the Royal Meteorological Society for an approved syllabus in weather study for rural schools. By the courtesy of many education authorities and head teachers, information has been received as to what is actually being done in rural elementary schools. This has been considered by the Society, and the following statement is issued in the hope that it may meet the need.

There are two reasons for the inclusion of weather study in the curriculum, that it is useful, and that it is educative. On the one hand, it is obvious that in country districts the weather is something to be reckoned with in earning one's living, and though it is not possible to change the weather, it is possible so to act as to make the best of the weather that comes; this is all the more true if it is known what kind of weather is likely to come. On the other hand, it may be accepted that education of young people has to do with the giving of insight into the human world and the natural world in which they live, and that in the study of this natural world the weather may play a not unimportant part.

These notes give an indication of what may be done. School time, however, is strictly limited and of a certain definite length, about 9,000 hours altogether, so that the claims of competing subjects, all useful and educational, must be balanced, and the decision as to the amount done must rest with those responsible for the curricula. It may, however, be said that in some rural schools time is found for a very considerable amount of weather study, and in nearly all some attention is paid to the matter, so that the value of such study to a rural community is clearly recognised.

Observations.

It goes without saying that any weather study should be based on observations, in the making of which the individual pupil has had some hand. It is not, of course, either possible or necessary that each member of the class should make every observation, but he should have made enough to know what the particular observation means, be it temperature or rainfall, or the direction of cloud movement, and in general he should know that his own observations are part of a regular series.

These observations do not necessarily imply the use of elaborate apparatus. Most useful work can be done by non-instrumental observations. Even temperature and rainfall may be observed and records made in general terms: cold, hot, wet, dry; with more accuracy rainfall may be classified as drizzle, slight, showery, and heavy. Wind direction may be observed by smoke as well as by wind vane; the latter may stick and the former does not; cloud drift may also indicate wind direction above smoke and wind vane levels; if Beaufort numbers are good enough indices of wind speed for adults they are certainly good enough for children. The forms and amounts of clouds are essentially subjects for non-instrumental observations; the forms of clouds can scarcely be observed and the amounts estimated otherwise than by eye. Indeed, this kind of observation is of the essence of the study, for observation is not necessarily a formal thing. The study of the weather is educational almost entirely in proportion as it stimulates an alertness of mind which will notice and inquire into unusual happenings. These will naturally be recorded, but it is the noticing that is the important thing. The boy who brought his teacher out of school to notice that the smoke from the school chimney was blowing in a different direction from that of a farm half a mile away was making an observation of real value.

Even children under eleven may begin to notice simple weather facts, but serious work will be done by pupils over that age. Most schools can provide a thermometer and make a beginning with observations of temperature; maximum and minimum temperatures may also be observed without much difficulty. It is as well not to attempt rainfall observations till a little later; the principle of the measuring glass is not usually understood well enough to make it worth while; some time after twelve is usually early enough. If the barometer is read at all, it is as well to leave it till thirteen; in secondary schools it is found well to leave it till fourteen, as the principle on which it works can rarely be appreciated earlier by normal children.

Use of Observations.

Whatever observations are made, whether by eye or by instrument, whether they are simple or elaborate, it must be recognised that unless they are used they are of little account, and unless they are

used to understand the causes of weather, or the effects of weather, there is no weather study. To be a station of the Meteorological Office is a laudable ambition; it is worth while making careful, accurate, and elaborate records for other people to use, but unless they are used in the school no weather study is being done there. It is better to make the roughest of observations and use them, than to make elaborate observations that are not used. In particular, it should be noticed that the taking of pressure readings is of little value unless each reading is related to others. The readings of the barometer do show that pressure varies, but this is scarcely weather study. For weather study it is essential that they should be used. Barometer readings may show by comparison with other readings taken previously whether the barometer is at the moment rising or falling, and indications obtained of the coming weather, or may show by comparison with neighbouring stations how the isobars lie, and further indications obtained of probable weather, but in this case the readings must be "corrected" in order to be comparable.

Observations made at a school may be used in a great many ways:—

(1) They may be made the basis of a serious study of meteorology as a physical science, and in one or two rural schools this is done. This side of meteorology may be assumed to be interesting for its own sake; there is a logical and coherent scheme of study for which the observations supply a basis, but which also draws on other sources of information. It cannot be expected, however, that many schools will be so situated that this is possible.

(2) They may be useful in the study of climatology usually taken with geography. It is certainly true that unless a pupil knows what a temperature of 32° or 50° or 80° feels like he can appreciate not at all statements in books which refer to these temperatures. He cannot realise what a rainfall of so many inches means unless he has worked with a rain-gauge, or at least related rain-gauge readings to actual falls that he knows. Climatic conditions in other lands are usually given in averages for a month, a season, or a year, or a series of months, seasons, or years, and these cannot be interpreted unless he has had the facts for his own area. This implies a rather long series of accurate observations. The object in taking the observations in this case is to have some background for geographical work, to have some foot-rule by which statements made about other climates may be measured. If this is the object in making the observations, they must be used so that they have an effective result.

(3) They may be used in nature study. Here the emphasis is different. It is much more on the individual observation, on weather rather than on

climate, on differences from the mean rather than on the mean, that stress is laid. The effect of seasonal variation of temperature, of course, has its place, but this is only one of the variations considered; there are the effects of differences of hot and cold, wet and dry, on the germination and growth of this, that, and the other plant, and the effects of the differences of moisture on this or that insect. The purely weather observations may be correlated with events in nature's calendar, with dates of nesting, cropping, and the finding of flowers, or nuts, or frogs; they may be used to test weather proverbs and local sayings.

(4) They may be used in the gardening course. Here, as in nature study, emphasis is on individual happenings rather than on averages, and to a large extent the method and matter are the same, though details are different. We may in nature study come across the effects of different kinds of weather on different kinds of soil, but it is more likely that this subject will be studied under gardening; some things that may come into nature study must come into gardening. It is essential to know, for example, when to plant seeds, and what precautions to take against frost. Indeed, there is more need for weather wisdom, in fact for a study of the weather, to know not only what kind of weather there has been but what there is going to be—to know what the backing of the wind means, and what is going to happen when there is a dull morning with a north-west wind, and whether a red sunset or a mackerel sky is going to be followed by rain. The question of the weather map is much more important. In practice, of course, weather observations in a rural school may be used in two or three of these subjects, and rural science and health study in addition, and there may be correlation with handwork, hygiene, mathematics, including arithmetic, and physical science. It is quite possible, for example, that the weather map, so important in gardening, may actually be studied in the geography lessons.

Syllabuses of Work.

There are so many possible courses in which weather study plays a part, and the amount that may be done under different circumstances varies so greatly, that there is no such thing as an ideal syllabus, but it may be worth while to give some indication of what may be done. We have, indeed, suggested a good deal already.

(1) *Observations.*—These should, if possible, be made on seven days a week; plants do not stop growing at the week end, and if correlations are to be seen there should be a continuous weather record; if the observations are made by pupils the teacher should test them as often as may be thought necessary.

Age eight and over :—Simple observations of wind direction and kind of weather may be recorded; at first the observations should be exceedingly simple. It is curious that the directions N., S., E., W. are less often recorded in schools than are N.E., N.W., S.E., S.W.; it is probable that unless the direction is very nearly north the observation is given to the N.E. or N.W.

Age eleven and over :—More detailed weather records of a non-instrumental type may be made. The thermometer may also be read once (or twice) a day.

Age twelve and over :—Some estimate may be made of wind force, either on the Beaufort scale or even more simply. At this age it might be possible to measure rainfall by a rain-gauge; maximum and minimum temperatures may also be taken daily.

Age thirteen and over :—Cloud amount and the height and kind of cloud may be observed; visibility may be noted; wet and dry bulb readings may be made and, if thought desirable, the barometer may be read.

Note.—It is often desirable for the observations to be made by pairs of pupils, one who is familiar with the observation and the other a tyro.

(2) *Work with observations*.—The following are merely suggestions. It is not to be supposed that the subjects named come only under the headings given :—

(a) Weather study for its own sake and in connection with geography.

Wind direction and weather; a wind rose showing weather.

Note.—It requires at least a year's observations to obtain reliable results.

Relation of cloud types and weather.

Collection of weather sayings.

Construction of temperature chart for a year to show seasonal variation; this might include maximum and minimum observations.

Note.—This will probably be related to the mid-day height of the sun.

Rain chart.

Comparison of charts and observations with those of places nearby, those farther away, and those in distant lands.

Weather maps.

Weather forecasting.

(b) Gardening and nature study.

Effect of cold, warm, dry, wet periods on the germination of different kinds of seeds, the growth of plants, the flowering of plants, the ripening of seed.

Effect of rain (including thunderstorm rain), wind (strong and light), snow, drought, frost, sunshine,

on the texture of the soil, on plant life, on insect life, on bird life.

Effect of fogs on vegetation.

Effect of weather of different kinds on the "breathing" of the soil.

Order in which plants are killed by frost in autumn.

Effect of frost on fruit trees in April and May.

Testing of weather proverbs, local and otherwise.

Effect of slope, cultivation, drainage, protection on temperature and humidity.

Indication of change of weather in the sky, on the weather map, on the barometer.

B.B.C. forecasts.

Hints.—Weekly talks about the weather have been found useful. Records and local forecasts may be placed in cases outside the school for the general public. Records may be sent to the local press. Records may be exchanged with other schools.

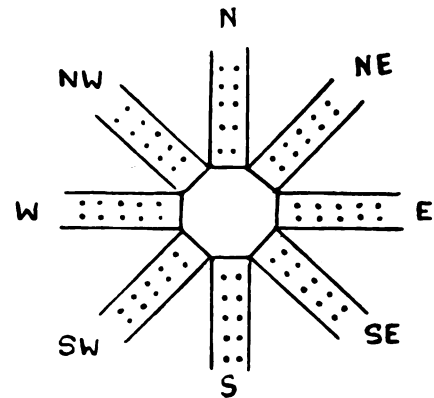


FIG I.

Simple observations of wind direction and weather may be represented on a wind rose made in the form given in Fig. I. A square is filled in for each observation in the appropriate position and coloured according to the weather at the time: e.g., if the for small children probably three grades of weather wind was from the west and rain was falling, a square on the "west" arm would be marked black; are sufficient—rain, cloudy, and sunny.

The People's League of Health.

The Eleventh Annual Travelling Scholarship in connection with the Sims Woodhead Memorial Lectures has been awarded to Mr. Alfred Charles Hamblin, an elementary school teacher. The following also competed for the scholarship and will receive diplomas with distinction :—Miss L. M. Martin, Miss Kathleen D. Muir, and Miss A. M. H. Flower.

THE VILLAGE SCHOOL.

BY WILLIAM CLAYTON, M.B.E. (Appleton Roebuck School).

VIII. The Farm as an Aid to Teaching.



More than twenty years ago our school was one of a number selected by the Local Authority to "try-out" a course of education with an agricultural bias.

Suggestions drawn up by the Authority's officers, in consultation with teachers, were issued to the schools concerned, but there was no element of compulsion. The staffs of each school were left to work out their own ideas.

Seventy-five per cent. of the schools failed to continue the experiment beyond three years. Nearly all the rest continue to make full use of the freedom offered to them, and are to-day encouraged both by the Board of Education and the Authority to carry on their work. It will readily be seen that to make these schemes successful the sympathy and ready help of the farmers in the school district were essential. In our school area we were fortunate to secure the keen interest of the majority of the farmers and landowners. They gave us permission to visit their farms and gardens, and they gave also practical help in the shape of extracts from their records, with personal demonstrations and explanations of farm practice, both cultural and mechanical.

Our first work was to take from the ordnance sheets of the village the map of a particular farm, occupied by the parent of several of our pupils. The son gave us information about the distribution of the fields, and from this we marked the permanent pastures, meadow, and arable lands.

The class and teacher paid a visit to the farm and checked the information given. Then another and more carefully prepared set of plans was completed in four colours—pink for woodlands, yellow for the arable fields, and light green and dark green for the pasture and meadow lands. Permanent roads were shaded brown, and field roads and paths marked with dotted lines. The results varied according to the age and capacity of the pupils, but the whole was distinctly pleasing. We went many times to that farm with our surveying instruments until we had measured every field and compared our work with

the ordnance records. During these visits we not only got highly valuable technical practice, but furnished an endless variety of exercises for classroom work. In our note-books we had a complete record of the crops grown that year and many delightful local field names. The farmer afterwards gave us from his records the crops grown in each field for the three preceding years. These were all



A SWARM OF BEES

neatly written on each boy's plan, and formed a complete record of the rotation practised on that farm. During handwork lessons each plan was made to form a leaf in a book, which was strongly bound, thus forming a permanent record of much patient work. This book was not only the source of many inquiries from the boys who did the work, but has served as a work of reference over a period of years for later generations of pupils.

Though our school is situated on the flat lands of

the plain of York we managed to put in enough contour lines to explain visually why the streams in our township take the course they do. Ground plans of the farmhouse and buildings were drawn to scale after the boys had taken measurements of every building and shed. How much more valuable such activities are than the mere copying, enlarging, or reducing of plans from a drawing card brought out of the school cupboard every true teacher will understand.

As we wandered round we learnt the names of grasses and wildflowers. Specimens were collected and brought back to school for preservation and future use.

Out of this grew a desire for further information about our local plants, and now the school has a very good ecological map of the township, which members of naturalist and other learned societies have consulted with profit. We learned lots of simple facts about the likes and dislikes of individual plants, plant families, and fungi. The knowledge thus gained is now applied in the hobbies of some of our adults and adolescents.

Our pupils have seen the cows milked and their yields recorded often enough to prove to them the value of these records in selecting the cattle to be eliminated from the herd. They have watched the milling of the corn and the mixing of the rations for the stock in both foldyard and on the pastures, and



from such observations have learnt what an amount of knowledge and intelligent management is required of the farm worker of to-day.

They have tested in their well-planned germinating cupboard several hundred samples of seeds from farm or garden. They have learnt the habit of methodical and regular attention to the baby plants, and the care needed to work out the results as percentages or graphs. What is more important, I believe that the majority of them have *enjoyed* all the operations connected with this somewhat intricate work.

We have tabulated the weeds found on the farm, have noted the methods the farmer uses for their limitation or destruction, and have seen how certain weeds seem to be definitely associated with certain crops. From these observations we have deduced some reasons for rotation in cropping.

We have carried out a farm census in the winter season and again in the summer, and have thereby gained some simple facts about the biology of farm animals and birds which will make it easier for both pupil and teacher when our children pass on to more intensive study in the secondary schools.

These are but a few of the links we have forged between school and farm in the life of our village children. Taken separately they are trivial, in the aggregate they are an important element in the successful working of our village school.

French.

TRANSLATION FROM FRENCH: by L. E. Kastner and J. Marks. (2s. Dent.)

This is certainly one of the most useful books of the kind which we have seen. The hundred pieces for translation are of about School Certificate and Matriculation standard: they are followed by thirty-six pieces reprinted from actual examination papers. The foot-notes to each piece are chiefly provocative of thought, though the English rendering is given in cases of real difficulty. There is a full vocabulary. An important feature is the extremely well written introduction, which gives many useful hints on translation into English, excellent lists of homonyms, and notes on the chief difficulties arising from imperfect grammatical knowledge. This will make a worthy companion volume to the best

manuals of French composition for fourth or fifth year work. A. B. G.

MODERN FRENCH COURSE: by Marc Ceppi. Vol. I, 2s.; Vol. II, 2s. 4d. (Bell.)

To satisfy the needs of central schools is the chief aim of this new course; but it will be found almost equally useful for secondary school pupils, or even for adult beginners. Volume I (first year) starts with a brief, sufficient explanation of the phonetic symbols, which are used throughout the course. The reading matter, at first necessarily simple and therefore rather dull (though children will probably not find it so), quickly becomes most interesting. The illustrations to Book II (second year) consist of some remarkably good photographs of Paris, on which is based a continuous narrative in the text. On the whole we thoroughly recommend. A. B. G.

NEWS OF THE MONTH.

Women and Salaries.

The National Union of Women Teachers declares that the suggestion to reduce the salaries of teachers in no way helps to solve the economic problems of the day. The Central Council holds that the country is suffering chiefly from under-consumption and the resultant depression of the home markets, and that the remedy lies not in the direction of "cuts," with their inevitable reaction on other workers or business concerns, but in the maintenance or improvement of present standards, and a consequent stimulation of home industries.

Daleroze School.

The following have passed the examination for the Teaching Certificate in Dalcroze Eurhythmics, held on June 17 and July 9:—Isolde Gerdener, Olivia Daphne Glennie, Ruth Bedford Kenrick-Smith, Irène Sabina Luxemburg, Agnes Morag Fulton Martin.

Women Students in Germany.

Of the 132,000 students in German colleges and universities, about 18,500 are women, according to the latest available data. Seven girl students in every twenty are working for doctorates in philosophy.

A Tripos Record.

Mr. J. G. Jagger, who was at Manchester University before he went up to St. John's College, Cambridge, with a Whitworth Scholarship, is the first man to gain four distinctions in the Mechanical Sciences Tripos. Older than the average undergraduate, he took his inter-collegiate examinations at the end of his first year, anticipating the usual time by a year, and he was placed top, so that his brilliant success in the Tripos was not unexpected. His Tripos distinctions were in applied mechanics, heat and heat engines, the theory of structures, and electric power.

A Graduate Profession.

In his presidential address to the Educational Institute of Scotland, Dr. George Morrison, of Robert Gordon's College, Aberdeen, said:—"The number of graduates coming forward is now almost equal to the total number of teachers required, including teachers of infant work and of domestic science, realms which the mere man does not aspire to enter. It is gratifying to know that the Institute's policy of graduation for all has quickly come so near fulfilment."

Appointments.

The next Rector of Edinburgh Academy is to be Mr. A. Lionel Smith, M.A., the only son of the late

A. L. Smith, who was Master of Balliol from 1916 to 1924, having been connected with the college for over fifty years. Mr. Lionel Smith had a distinguished academic career, and won fame also on the hockey field. Following service in the war he administered educational affairs in Iraq for a time.

The Governors of Bishop's Stortford College have appointed Mr. H. L. Price to succeed Mr. F. S. Young as head master in January next. Mr. Price, who is thirty-two years of age, was educated at Bishop's Stortford College and at Corpus Christi College, Oxford. He represented Oxford University at Rugby football, hockey, and water polo, and has represented England at Rugby football and hockey.

The new Head Master at King's School, Grantham, is Mr. J. W. Bispham, Senior Science Master at Berkhamsted School. Mr. Bispham distinguished himself in chemistry, and worked for a time in the industrial branch before taking up teaching. He is an excellent cricketer and musician.

British Institute in Paris—The Esmond Scholarship.

The Educational Committee of the British Institute in Paris, at a meeting at the Board of Education presided over by Mr. E. H. Pelham, Permanent Secretary of the Board, selected Mr. L. Clarke as the Esmond Scholar for 1931-32. Mr. Clarke has been a student at the Guild of the British Institute since last October. Twenty years ago he won a scholarship to Huish's Grammar School, Taunton, and served during the War in France. From 1924 to 1929 he was French master at Cambridge Central School, and succeeded at the same time in obtaining in 1927 first class honours in the French Section of the Modern Language Tripos at Cambridge University. He was a scholar of Christ's College, and in 1929 gained first class honours in the English Tripos. He is now at work on a thesis under Professor Baldenspengler. His record shows that it is possible to combine a distinguished academic career with a full day's work as a teacher.

New Schools in Spain.

The Madrid correspondent of *The Times* says that the Madrid Municipality has decided to create 200 schools in the city and suburbs, since, although education is legally compulsory, there are many thousand children—some say 70,000—unable to obtain admittance for lack of space.

In three months Don Marcelino Domingo, the Minister of Education, himself the son of a school-master, has taken measures for the creation of nearly 5,000 new schools.

LITERARY SECTION.

BOOKS AND THE MAN.

Aphorisms.

We owe much to Logan Pearsall Smith for that invaluable book "Words and Idioms," which I hold to be by far the best and most charming book ever written on the use of words. I have found enjoyment, too, in "Trivia," "More Trivia," and the "Treasury of English Aphorisms," all from the same skilful hand. Somewhat belatedly I have been reading lately a little volume entitled "Afterthoughts," and published by Constable at 3s. 6d. net. Reading is perhaps the wrong word, for one does not read a book like this. The "thoughts" are brought together under such headings as "Life and Human Nature," "Age and Death," "Other People," "Myself," and "Art and Letters." On each of them there are crisp sayings, all justifying the preliminary note which tells us that "Little fish are sweet." The proper thing is not to attempt to read the book straight through, but rather to take one of the sayings and ruminate. Consider this, for example: "There are two things to aim at in life: first, to get what you want; and after that, to enjoy it. Only the wisest of mankind achieve the second." I earnestly commend this saying to those of my readers who are on the way to becoming millionaires.

Here is a note for teachers—and others: "The test of a vocation is the love of the drudgery it involves." In one saying we are asked: "What pursuit is more elegant than that of collecting the ignominies of our nature and transfixing them for show, each on the bright pin of a polished phrase?" Presently we have a neat example, to be taken to heart by after-dinner orators: "I rather like singing for my supper; what grates on my ears is the song of the other singers." Here is a neat paraphrase of Bacon's saying: "There is a superstition in avoiding superstition." As an "afterthought" it reads: "He who goes against the fashion is himself its slave."

It is a refreshing thing to find a writer who can smile at the world and impale its weaknesses without scorn or cruelty. Logan Pearsall Smith does this to perfection, telling us that aphorisms are salted and not sugared almonds at Reason's feast. It is held by the faculty that salted almonds are better than the sugared variety for dietetic purposes, and a salty saying is more wholesome for the mind than honeyed phrases. Therefore I recommend this little book as holiday fare.

SELIM MILES.

REVIEWS.

Education.

AN INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY OF EDUCATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES: a Handbook for students. (6d. The New Education Fellowship.)

A handy booklet, packed with information, succinct yet accurate, on education in England and Wales, specially useful for the visitor from overseas, who is further assisted by lists of books, periodicals, libraries, associations, and even with advice as to accommodation. A useful piece of work. W.

Geography.

PENINSULAR EUROPE: by Professor L. W. Lyde. (10s. 6d. Longmans.)

This is an inspiring book, written with all Professor Lyde's usual vigour, full of suggestions, and provocative enough to rouse much profitable discussion. It is something more than a text-book, and contains some very frank and alarming criticisms of happenings during the Great War, of politics, and of politicians. Only a man with a wide knowledge of history and literature, as well as of geography, could have written it, and no teacher can afford to neglect it. Many of the statements would form suitable subjects for discussion amongst such teachers, e.g., "The double-tongued are seldom single-minded," a reference to bilingual people.

The introductory chapter lays emphasis on a fact that is often forgotten in the construction of a school syllabus, viz., that "there is only one real unit in geography—the Globe; and that is why all geographical teaching which is not based primarily and organically on the Globe is relatively futile, or at least infertile." The succeeding chapters take each of the peninsular areas of Europe and show how, during the ages, natural forces, features, and phenomena have interacted to produce the conditions as we know them to-day. Incidentally, the chapter on France has something to say that has not previously been said by anyone on the nature of the contrasts between Englishmen and Frenchmen, and the sources from which those contrasts have been derived. We can wish no teacher of geography more stimulating hours than he will derive from the perusal of this work, even though he may not be able to accept all the conclusions at which Professor Lyde arrives.

E. Y.

Science.

SCIENCE PROGRESS, No. 101, July, 1931. (7s. 6d. net. Murray.)

It is scarcely necessary to say that this admirable "quarterly review of scientific thought, work, and affairs" makes its appeal mainly to specialists and serious students rather than to the general reader. For the latter, however, this particular number con-

tains articles dealing with the rocket as a means of locomotion, and the agricultural development of the British Empire. More technical are articles dealing with photo-sensitive crystalline aggregates and the evolution of physical concepts. There are the usual notes embodying recent advances in the various sciences, and very informative reviews of recent publications, chiefly scientific.

Civics and Biology.

ECONOMIC BIOLOGY FOR STUDENTS OF SOCIAL SCIENCE: by Philippa C. Esdaile, D.Sc. Manchester. Part I, 7s. 6d.; Part II, 10s. 6d. (University of London Press.)

These two volumes obviously embody the results of much research, and set out clearly and concisely many facts concerning living things and their products which are of practical interest, Volume I being concerned with the living creatures themselves, and Volume II with a number of plant and animal products. Since the work is confessedly intended for students of social science, the scope is specifically limited. The "harmful and useful animals" dealt with are such lowly creatures as sponges, tape-worms, lice, fleas, cockroaches, silk-moths, house-flies, blow-flies, bees, and spiders. It will be obvious, therefore, that not only the student of social science but also the nature student will find much of interest in Volume I. And similarly with Volume II, which deals with plant and animal products, including leather, fur, wool, ivory, fats and oils, dyes, fibres, milk, sugar, spices, and timber. Dr. Esdaile has done her work exceedingly well. These two volumes will be found a mine of useful and interesting information, and of permanent value in the school library. We venture to point out, however, that nectar is *not* honey, but merely the raw material from which honey is produced by bees.

English.

PARADISE LOST. Arranged and edited by G. M. Davis, B.A. (1s. 6d. Bell.)

This is a shortened form of Milton's work. The more difficult and allusive passages are replaced by prose paraphrases, and the story is thus given in entirety. The editor is of opinion that Milton is not too difficult for schools, and designs the book for children of fifteen plus years of age. Notes and exercises are appended. We think it will prove useful and suitable for scholars in the upper forms in secondary schools.

FOUNDATIONS OF ENGLISH: by Richard Wilson. Book I, 1s. Book II, 1s. 3d. (Nelson.)

These excellent books, which should prove very useful for individual work, do really—by interesting pictures, games, and use of children's general knowledge—lay a sound foundation for good composition

and formal grammar lessons. Formal grammar is introduced in Book II. We can recommend them without reserve.

SIR GAWAIN AND THE GREEN KNIGHT (School Edition): by S. O. Andrew. (2s. 6d. Dent.)

Mr. Andrew has preserved the alliterative metre of this delightful old poem—with certain simplifications—and as much of the language as was possible without being obscure.

He has provided an interesting introduction which includes an account of the metre and explanatory notes and a glossary.

We hope and trust that this book will be welcomed by English teachers in secondary and high schools, and by the general reader. We are assured that it will be popular.

History.

HISTORY OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE: by C. S. S. Higham, M.A. Fourth Edition. (5s. Longmans.)

We can confidently commend this scholarly, interesting, and up-to-date history of the British Empire to all secondary schools, teachers, general readers, and even—to certain M.P.'s, who may not be too well informed in this subject!

ENGLISH PEOPLE OF THE PAST: an introduction to Social History: by M. J. Whicher, B.A. Oxon., and R. J. Mitchell, M.A., B.Litt. Oxon. Vol. I: From Roman Times to 1399. (2s. 6d. Longmans.)

Each book is designed to cover one year's work, and aims at presenting broad outlines and picturesque detail. In Book I the characters are, in most cases, taken from life—from the contemporary authorities, of which an excellent bibliography is given in the appendix. This is a capital idea, and it is well carried out, thus giving an air of reality to the narrative. This is the most interesting and original school book on Social History that we have seen for some time, and we recommend its adoption for central and secondary schools. A.

ENGLISH HISTORY IN A NEW SETTING. B.C. 55 to A.D. 1485. **ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL AS WELL AS POLITICAL AND MILITARY:** by Vernon Simms. (2s. 6d. Dent.)

This is quite an attractive little volume. It has an index, a glossary, some tables, questions, lists of books for reading, maps, and illustrations. But the author is scarcely justified in thinking, as the preface seems to suggest, that there are no school histories where the economic and social story is given alongside the political and military. Their number, however, is not so great, and additions like this are to be welcomed. Moreover, Mr. Simms does what he sets out to do. The kings, the gilds, the longbowmen, the villeins, the Marcher Lords, the manor houses, come duly into the story. The

book has been carefully compiled, and it will suit the needs of a large number of teachers. R. J.

BY-ROADS IN HISTORY: by R. B. Morgan, M.A., M.Litt. (2s. 9d. Cambridge Univ. Press.)

These readings in English Social History are taken from original sources and should serve as an excellent supplement to the ordinary school textbook. To induce his readers to explore further, the extracts are chosen, as far as possible, from such editions of contemporary authorities as can be found in any well equipped reference library. The book contains thirty-two excellent illustrations drawn from contemporary sources.

French.

ARSÈNE LUPIN: by Maurice Leblanc. Edited by W. G. Hartog. Book I. (1s. 6d. Dent.)

There may be boys who do not enjoy reading of the French Raffles: they are to be pitied; there are no doubt many who do not know him and this should be remedied with the utmost speed. The present edition gives four of his most exciting adventures, with a vocabulary and the briefest foot-notes for rapid reading. They should be read at the age of thirteen-fourteen, but will also provide excellent diversion for any adult students of French who can still enjoy an unpretentious thriller.

A. B. G.

RENARD ET SES CONFRÈRES: by Léopold Chauveau. Edited by I. A. Clarke. (1s. 9d. Dent.)

M. Chauveau's modern prose version of the "Roman de Renart" serves the double purpose of providing a simple yet entertaining story for children (who may already be familiar with the American version of "Uncle Remus") and at the same time presenting one of the most important works of the middle ages in a condensed and digestible form. The language is quite simple, yet not too far removed from that of the old epic: an occasional archaism gives the proper medieval flavour without raising any serious difficulties. The volume is most attractively bound and printed. The black and white illustrations by the editor are particularly good; they avoid any modern sprightliness and successfully convey something of the gloom which underlies all the art of the later middle ages.

A. B. G.

"Treasuries of French Literature Series."—**TROIS CONTES FACILES; CONTES DU XIX SIECLE:** edited by P. Vridaghs and W. Ripman. (1s. 9d. each. Dent.)

Two more good middle-school readers. The three *contes* are definitely children's stories, by Marie Robert-Halt and Ch. Normand, and should be read in the third year or earlier. The six stories in the other volume are by Vigny, "Erckmann-Chatrion," Paul Arène, and other nineteenth century authors: good, stirring stuff, suitable for boys

of fourteen. Both volumes have complete vocabularies, and foot-notes in French, but no exercises.

A. B. G.

TRENTE PETITS DIALOGUES: by Marc Ceppi. (1s. 6d. Bell.)

These little scenes by the author of "Petits Contes" and so many other popular French readers are eminently suitable for either acting or reading during the second year. They are amusing enough to make an instant appeal, but do not present any great linguistic difficulties. The fact that they are all but one reprinted from *La France* should be sufficient recommendation as to their attractiveness. The black and white illustrations are delightful.

A. B. G.

SCÈNES PARISIENNES: by G. L'Honoré. (1s. 6d. Dent.)

A welcome addition to the "Treasuries of French Literature." There are five short playlets, each dealing with a typical scene of Paris life, with a few good full-page illustrations. The language is simple but very idiomatic, and therefore not so easy as it seems at first. There is plenty of scope for vigorous action, which should make these plays very popular in the classroom. The notes and vocabulary, reduced to the barest minimum, can be detached altogether if not required.

A. B. G.

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BOOKS OF THE MONTH.

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EDWARD ARNOLD AND CO.

School Certificate Biology: by E. W. Shann, B.Sc., and Alex. S. Gillespie, B.Sc. 4s. 6d.

She Stoops to Conquer, or the Mistakes of a Night: a comedy by Oliver Goldsmith: edited by Guy Boas. 1s. 3d.

A Short History of the British Empire: by R. A. F. Mears, M.A. 2s. 6d.

English Literature Series: The Black Arrow: by Robert L. Stevenson. 2s. 6d.

Progressive Exercises in Practical Geography: by C. B. Thurston, B.Sc. Book 1, Elementary Map-Work and the British Isles. 1s.

G. BELL AND SONS, LTD.

English Grammar and Composition: by A. M. Webb, M.A. Parts 1 and 2. 2s. 3d. each.

A Junior Arithmetic: by R. C. Fawdry, M.A. 2s.; with answers, 2s. 6d.

Modern French Course: by Marc Ceppi. Third year. 2s. 4d.

A Manual of French Practice: in Comprehension, Reproduction, Conversation, Free Composition, and Translation from English: by Frank A. Hedgcock. 2s. 6d.

Tristan Derème: Patachou Petit Garçon: edited and abridged by E. Casati, L. ès L. 1s. 4d.

Simplified Geometry: by C. V. Durell, M.A., and C. O. Tuckey, M.A. 4s.; or in three parts, 1s. 6d. each.

Stage A Trigonometry: by C. V. Durell, M.A. With four-figure tables, 1s. 6d.; with twenty-four-page supplement of four-figure tables, 1s. 9d.; answers only, 6d. net.

Mr. Poopeckle and Other Stories for Children: by Rodney Bennett, M.A. 1s. 3d.

A. AND C. BLACK, LTD.

Deductive Geometry: by R. W. M. Gibbs, Stages B and C (to School Certificate Standard). 4s. 6d. Teachers' edition, 7s. 6d.

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A Companion to Elementary Geometry: by G. H. Hamilton, B.A. 2s. 6d.

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS.

A Form Room Fellowship: edited by J. Howard Whitehead. This volume contains the literary work by members of Bembridge School, Isle of Wight, and includes stories, poems, and essays grouped under various subjects, such as art, literature, travel, &c. 6s. net.

The Craftsman Series: The Bell Rock Lighthouse: by Robert Stevenson. Passages selected from "An Account of the Bell Rock Lighthouse," and edited by A. F. Collins, B.Sc. 3s. 6d.

NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP.

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Deutsches Leben: Zweiter Teil: by A. S. Macpherson, M.A., and Studienrat Paul Stromer. Illustrated by Adrian Hill, R.I. 3s.

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New Spanish Reader for Beginners: by L. A. Watkins. With Exercises designed to test comprehension and build vocabulary. 3s. 6d.

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Post-Intermediate Tests in French Composition and Grammar: by J. Mathewson Milne, M.A. 9d.

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Junior Modern English Series: Dampier's Voyages: edited by A. E. M. Bayliss, M.A. 2s.

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One Touch of Nature: a literary nature study reader for boys and girls: arranged by F. W. Tickner, D.Lit. 2s. 6d.

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- The History of Rivington and Blackrod Grammar School: by Margaret M. Kay, B.A. 7s. 6d.

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- A School Latin Course: by George A. Morrison, M.A. Part 2. 3s.
 Science Progress. July, 1931. A quarterly Review of Scientific Thought, Work, and Affairs. 7s. 6d. net.
 City and Guilds of London Institute: Department of Technology Programme for the Sessions 1931-1932. Contains general regulations and syllabuses for examinations in technological subjects and for teachers' certificates. 3s. 6d. net.

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Teachers in comfortable positions may ask what use is to be found in a Register such as the one maintained by the Council. It is unfortunate that corporate memories are so short and that teachers of one generation are apt to forget the efforts of their predecessors. During the latter half of the nineteenth century no fewer than twelve Bills were introduced into Parliament, with the object of securing a professional register for teachers. Several of these efforts were misdirected, since they would have had the result of dividing teachers into different classes, such as elementary, secondary, &c. But unity is essential in a true profession, and that is why the present Register is arranged in alphabetical order and in one column. A profession must be independent also, and that is why a fee is required for admission to the Register. This is a single and final payment, at present amounting to Two Pounds, but after June 30, 1931, it will be raised to Three Pounds.

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THE EDUCATION · OUTLOOK

SEPTEMBER, 1931.

THE MAY REPORT.

Parliaments in England were summoned originally to vote supplies for the Crown and this is still their most important function, although its place is threatened by the tendency of modern Governments to cast about for legislative devices which will hamper the freedom of the citizenry in the name of progress. The function has been evaded also to some extent by the appointment of Economy Committees. These bodies, whether presided over by Sir Eric Geddes or Sir George May, have been created for the purpose of furnishing the Government of the day with reasons for curtailing supplies. The device is born of fear, for the modern politician dare not risk any action likely to offend voters. To woo an ignorant electorate by bribes is easy enough, but to cut down the bribes is perilous to the party which attempts it. So the party man seeks cover in the form of economy reports compiled by men who do not fear the electorate, as they are not seeking votes.

The latest example of this unconstitutional and timorous method is to be found in the Report of the Committee presided over by Sir George May. We may admit at once that the document is extremely valuable as a vigorous reminder of the nation's financial position. Nobody who reads it can fail to be impressed by the urgent necessity for drastic measures of economy. The ailment is thoroughly diagnosed, and it would have been well if the Report had ended there.

Unfortunately the Committee went further and tried to prescribe remedies. In this they seem to have worked on the simple plan of comparing pre-war expenditure on social services with our present outlay. Thus they point out that in elementary schools the average salary of teachers in 1914 was £97, whereas it is now £245. The difference is striking until we remember that the former figure was admitted to be far too low. The average salary in secondary schools was, for graduates £194, for non-graduates £139, whereas the figures now are £436 and £278. These averages take into account the salaries of head teachers, elementary and secondary, and it is evident that many teachers of good qualification are receiving less. Yet the Committee recommend a reduction of 20 per cent., and the minority recommend 12½ per cent. Such reductions will make it extremely difficult to obtain recruits for the teaching service, and they are to be imposed

on men and women who entered the work on a definite understanding that the salaries offered would be permanent and not affected by reductions in the cost of living as indicated by the Board of Trade index figures.

The Committee seem to be aware of the effect on recruiting, for they quote the Anderson Report as saying that the employer should pay what is necessary to recruit and to retain an efficient staff. They add, however: "If in one class the cost of living is taken into account and a substantial cut in pay brought about automatically as the cost of living falls, it cannot be equitable if another class suffers no reduction if at the outset the pay of both classes was fixed on a 'fair wages' basis, having regard to then existing conditions." Applied to the position of teachers, this view can be accepted only on the assumption that "at the outset"—that is in 1914—teachers were paid at rates likely to recruit and retain an efficient staff. The truth was that we were not attracting young people of the right type in numbers sufficient for our needs. Throughout the war teachers received little or nothing in the shape of "war bonus," and when the Burnham Scales were fixed it was expressly stated that they were not to be affected by any future reduction in the cost of living.

Now we find Sir George May and his colleagues declaring that they must be so affected, on the plea of national necessity. Such a plea must apply all round. There is no case for reducing the salaries of the teachers until it is proved that they are now being overpaid, and that the salaries offered are bringing more recruits than we need. No proof is adduced by the Committee, and the teachers ought not to be asked to accept further reductions unless a sacrifice is demanded of every citizen. Who can say that the present salaries are too high when the best paid head master in an elementary school receives less than £12 a week?

It would be well for teachers themselves to take up the attitude of a professional body and fix a basic scale of remuneration, with additions for work of special responsibility. Until this is done we shall not be free from these recurrent attempts to enforce "economies" at the expense of those engaged in education, for each Economy Committee in turn reveals a marked inability to understand the value of schools to the community.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS.

FROM A CORRESPONDENT.

Progress of Registration.

Although the past month was the height of the holiday season the flow of applicants for registration and of instalment payments continued, and up to the present the total number of full applications received is about 89,000, while, in addition, 4,280 prospective applicants are paying the fee by instalments. It is expected that there will be a further accession as a result of the circular which is being despatched to all young teachers entering upon their duties in September. There is now a prospect that before very long the total number of applications for registration will reach 100,000. This number, however, will not be the number of teachers actually on the Register, since there must be deducted the rejected applications, which number nearly 3,000, and also the withdrawals due to death and to the removal of names from the Register on the recommendation of the Special Inquiry Committee, under the chairmanship of Lord Darling.

Having regard to the fact that teachers approaching the age of retirement are often reluctant to become registered, and also to the fact that the Council does not admit teachers to full registration until a period of experience covering at least one year has been undertaken, it is unlikely that the Register will include more than 120,000 names on the present basis. It may be affirmed that teachers as a body have already demonstrated their desire to become a registered profession, inasmuch as 75 per cent. of their number have applied voluntarily for admission. It now remains for the authorities, central and local, to take note of the circumstance, and, especially, to refrain from appointing to posts of responsibility teachers who have not been admitted to registration.

The Salaries Problem.

The statutory duty of the Council is that of forming and maintaining a Register of Teachers, and the Council has never had any share in determining the remuneration of teachers. It is not represented on any of the Teachers' Panels of the Burnham Committee, nor was its opinion invited by those bodies. Nevertheless it is clear that when teachers have succeeded in establishing their professional status, the salaries question will take on a new aspect. At present there appears to be a tendency to compare the salaries of teachers with those in certain grades of the Civil Service, or, worse still, to treat teachers as if they were members of a Trade Union whose wages are to rise and fall at the behest of industrial magnates.

The Uncertificated Teacher.

Of late there have been many inquiries as to whether uncertificated teachers working in public elementary schools are eligible for registration. The reply is that such teachers cannot be admitted unless they hold one of the attainments other than the Government certificate which is recognised by the Council for registration purposes. It must be remembered that the uncertificated teacher may hold an academic qualification no higher than University Matriculation, or even a university local examination. Such teachers should be encouraged to obtain higher attainments during the early years of their service. As it is, there are many uncertificated teachers working in the schools in posts of considerable responsibility, and carrying out their duties with zeal and efficiency. It is now several years since the Council suggested to the Board of Education that uncertificated teachers of long experience and proved ability might be graded as certificated teachers, provided that arrangements were made at the same time to prevent young teachers in future from remaining permanently in the uncertificated grade. It is the Council's aim to prevent the formation of what may be described as "stagnant pools" of unqualified or semi-qualified teachers. The fact that some are found to be satisfactory in the classroom gives no ground for assuming that all will be satisfactory.

The Unification of Teaching.

It can hardly be emphasised too strongly that many of the greatest obstacles to the establishment of teaching on a professional basis are made by teachers themselves. Instead of treating all forms of efficient teaching as equally worthy of regard, we find some teachers disposed to assume superior airs, because they happen to be working in schools which receive only pupils over thirteen years of age. Others take pride because they teach in universities. The master in a public school will hold slightly aloof from the master in a grammar school, and both will feel themselves more or less removed from their colleagues in public elementary schools. It is not yet fully perceived that in every form of teaching there is a common element of professional skill to be demanded. In its application this skill may present variety, but it does not differ essentially in different institutions. We need a body of accepted professional doctrine, based on research in psychology and on garnered experience. At present our methods are far too empirical, even allowing for the fact that teaching can never be governed by rigid precepts. Some of those who profess to scorn all attempts to train teachers are themselves in close bondage to traditional methods.

THE MONTH'S CAUSERIE.

By THE DOMINIE.

Economy.

I was not surprised to find that the latest Committee on Economy propose to make severe reductions in our expenditure on education. Long ago I learned from experience on education committees that our business men are singularly blind to the true value of the work of our schools and universities. Some of them are not free from a mean kind of class jealousy, a feeling which finds expression in the present Report where we are told that "the standard of education, elementary and secondary, that is being given to the child of poor parents is in very many cases superior to that which the middle class parent is providing for his own child." We are not told that there is nothing to prevent any middle class parent from making use of State schools for his children. Instead, it is suggested that the expansion of educational opportunity should cease for a time, although it is well known that our chief commercial rivals are striving to improve their educational systems. The Committee remark that educational progress has been a popular plank in election platforms since the War, and they express a fear that expenditure on education has come to be regarded as good in itself, without much consideration of the results to be obtained and the limits to which it can be carried without danger.

Relative Values.

It is clear that no individual or community can afford education if there is no regard to other forms of expenditure. The Report of the Economy Committee shows that our public funds are being wasted in many directions. Thus we find that State assistance to the beet sugar industry works out at nearly £300 per man employed during 1930-31. Our expenditure on armaments is higher by thirty-three millions than it was in 1913, and our attempts to settle ex-service men on the land involve an average capital outlay per man of £953, or an annual loss of about £53 per man. These are but a few examples of leakage of public funds, due to bad administration and a failure to consider national expenditure as a whole. Before we curtail expenditure on education or on any other specific branch we ought to survey the whole field. The great defect of the present Report is an ill-balanced attention to a few social services, leaving other forms of expenditure to continue much as at present. Such a Report cannot be adopted as it stands. The Government must needs consider the whole field and impose sacrifices all round. We cannot accept the view that education is a luxury to be given up even in days of stress. It is a necessity at all times.

Salesmanship.

The final report of the Committee on Salesmanship, appointed in 1928 by Lord Eustace Percy, was issued last month. There have been interim reports on British Marketing Overseas and on Modern Languages. The final volume is extremely interesting, and all teachers should read it with care. In view of the Economy Report they may find some comfort in learning that Sir Francis Goodenough and his colleagues declare that education, if intelligently planned and given, will contribute to the efficiency of commerce. They add that, although few would formally deny this proposition, many of our countrymen are still fundamentally sceptical as to the practical value of education. The Committee hold that our survival as an industrial nation depends on the employment in commerce and industry of first-class personnel, soundly educated for the scientific as well as for the vigorous conduct of business. It is urged that there should be a closer contact between business men and educationists. We are told that employers often know little of what is being done or of what might be done in the schools, and that, whereas schools and universities are fast losing their prejudice against commerce, employers need still to be persuaded that it is to their advantage to employ educated men and women, to train them properly, and to pay them all that they are worth.

Education for Commerce.

I note with satisfaction that the Committee on Salesmanship does not take a narrow view of education or suggest that schools should become portals to offices. Thus we learn that instruction in shorthand and typewriting should not be given to pupils under fourteen or form part of advanced courses in secondary schools. The Committee seem to ask for teaching which will have regard to the needs of commerce and industry without demanding specific instruction. They declare that the association of the First School Examination with matriculation is objectionable, and say that the former should be such a test as may be taken by intelligent pupils in their stride, no distinctions or credits being awarded. They suggest the establishment of Junior Commercial Schools, which are apparently to be conducted on the lines of Junior Technical Schools, giving a two-year course in preparation for office or shop work. The selection of recruits for business is to be aided by a system of standardised school records. It is pointed out that the modern methods of classification in public elementary schools are so varied that the employer finds it difficult to know what stage an applicant has reached.

Subsidies for Teachers.

Sir George May's Committee quote their predecessors on the Geddes Committee to the effect that the majority of teachers have acquired their qualifications largely at the expense of the public at an average cost to the State of £70 a year for either two or four years. This is apparently to be taken as an argument in favour of salary reductions, but we must remember that everybody who attends a grant-aided institution or one that is endowed is also acquiring qualifications by the aid of subsidies. Teachers themselves have often deplored the practice of giving special subsidies in their calling, knowing that it provides the kind of argument used by Economy Committees and marks them off as a separate class in universities. This bounty-feeding for teachers is a cheap device to bring recruits. We now find that the man who has received even the maximum of £280 during four years of study and professional training is held to merit a reduction in salary which will be almost equivalent to the annual subsidy. In five years at most his obligation will be wiped out, but the reduction may go on for another thirty years or more. At this rate the subsidy is a form of State usury which seems to merit a prosecution under the Moneylenders Act. It would be a good thing to abolish these special subsidies altogether.

The Young Teacher.

This month will see the entry of some thousands of young teachers upon their professional work. Some will have passed through a course of training; others will enter on the strength of a degree, or, it may be, some form of athletic prowess. All will have much to learn, and it is to be feared that those who have had no training will proceed to obtain it at the expense of their pupils. Some day those in authority will see the wisdom of assigning beginners in teaching to carefully chosen schools, where they may start under skilled direction and be encouraged to make a study of principles and methods while trying their prentice hands in classrooms. A year or more spent in this way would furnish a real training in teaching, far more valuable than a course of lectures on psychology and theory supplemented by small spells of the kind of school practice now available in most of our training colleges. Until a few years ago the training colleges were admitting students who had at least some practical experience in the classroom. To-day they admit students straight from secondary schools, and no training college can give that real experience of school conditions which is needed to give reality and meaning to lectures on educational theory. Every teacher must be a "pupil teacher" at some stage.

The Cost of Living.

Among the more otiose features of the May Report are the references to the cost of living. Apparently these are based on the index figures issued periodically by the Board of Trade. These have very little bearing on the expenses of a teacher's household. A correspondent who signs himself "A Young Elementary School Teacher," writes to *The Schoolmaster* describing his own position. He works in a Scale III area, and has been teaching for nearly three years. His nominal salary is £192, but the deduction for superannuation brings it down to about £3. 10s. a week. He says that in about twenty years he may be receiving £7 a week. He holds that this is the minimum on which he can afford to marry and bring up a family. Most people will agree that he is taking a prudent view, but what are we to think of a calling in which celibacy until the age of forty-three is demanded? Such prospects are hardly likely to attract a steady flow of eager and well-qualified recruits. Yet we thrust upon the schools more and more duties of a most responsible kind, calling for the highest qualities of mind and heart in the teacher. Business men criticise the products of our schools, and demand greater knowledge and efficiency from the pupils, but some of them wish to pay the teachers even less than at present.

The Boring Teacher.

Among the major social offences is that of being a bore. In ordinary society the offence brings its own penalty, and the persistent bore finds himself avoided. But in the society of school the pupils cannot avoid the teacher who bores them. They must endure the ordeal day after day, even though they are acquiring a distaste for learning and a permanent mistrust towards the kind of knowledge which is presented to them so unattractively. The quality of boredom has several elements. First comes the speaker's voice, which may be monotonous and devoid of colour and personality. Worse still is the voice which is strident or harsh in quality, producing a physical pain in the auditor. Next comes the element of dullness. There are some teachers who cannot assume any vivid interest in the subject of the moment. Yet without some such interest, real or convincingly assumed, no teacher can evoke the interest of pupils. Even a costermonger will describe the wares on his barrow in a manner which suggests that he believes them to be the best on the market. Yet teachers will sometimes describe momentous doings in history, or handle magnificent passages of English, as if they were detailing a wearisome catalogue. Good teaching is not only informing but stimulating, and children may be infected with enthusiasm for knowledge.

THE LAST YEAR OF A GIRL'S SCHOOL LIFE.

BY MARION L. SMITH.

Even in these enlightened days many parents are amazingly callous with regard to their daughters' education. For years they placidly accept an inferior school, and then, at the eleventh hour, rouse themselves and have recourse to one of higher type for a year's "finishing." It is a little difficult to finish what has never been properly begun, but we can aim at arousing the girl to a sense of her deficiencies, and try to interest and encourage her in her elementary work. If by the end of the year she has progressed so far as to see that education is desirable, our labour has not been in vain.

But it is not of these children of misguided parents that I want to speak. It is rather of the normal girl who has worked her way up through a good school, and who, like Jean Ingelow's heroine, is looking forward to the time when it may be said of her :

"The child is a woman, the books are closed over,
For all the lessons are said."

Although of good general education and intelligence, she has no particular bent which makes specialisation advisable. She is, moreover, the child of well-to-do parents who, not unreasonably, look forward to the enjoyment of her companionship at home, and do not take kindly to the idea of a university training. Having had ten or twelve years of well-regulated school life, she will, at the age of seventeen or eighteen, presumably be well grounded in ordinary English subjects, have a good acquaintance with the French language, and a fair knowledge of either Latin or German. Various branches of science and mathematics will be more or less familiar; she will have learnt to appreciate good music, and will have been trained, let us hope, in the virtues of self-control, neatness, accuracy, method, and concentration. Now this last year of school life is an epoch-making year, one that will remain green in her memory long after others have faded. How may it most profitably be spent?

Most of us are acquainted with an unpleasant form of high school product who leaves school bristling with science and mathematics perhaps, but lacking in any sort of general culture. For her the fairy realm of literature and art is without allure; she may, indeed, be numbered among those who travel from Dan to Beersheba and cry "'tis all barren."

"There is no surer sign," says Professor Jebb, "of an uncultivated mind—which may, of course, go along with special knowledge and with natural

ability—than an incapacity for the higher order of pleasures." Unpoetic natures are those which specially require poetic cultivation, and a year given to humanistic studies would entirely change the outlook of the type of damsel in question. The words of Professor Henry Sidgwick, in his essay on the theory of a classical education, might also apply to girls. "Let us demand," he says, "that all boys, whatever be their special bent and destination, be really taught literature, so that, as far as is possible, they may learn to enjoy intelligently poetry and eloquence; that their interest in history may be awakened, stimulated, guided; that their views and sympathies may be enlarged and expanded by apprehending noble, subtle, and profound thoughts, refined and lofty feelings."

It is noticeable that a girl's attitude towards learning often undergoes a distinct change during her last year at school, and she passes from a phase of comparative stolidity to one of reciprocity. The average girl leaves school brimful of good resolutions. She will give so much time every day to solid reading, and so on. But, alas, these excellent resolves are too often swamped by the tide of circumstance. The desire for self-improvement is rarely strong enough to survive the atmosphere of pleasure-seeking which generally envelops the maiden just "come out."

Not that we want to turn our girls into mere bookworms, "deep versed in books and shallow in themselves." No, but we want them to grow into women of far-reaching interests, with minds open to a perception of "the beautiful in form and the ideal in thought and action," prepared for the thoughtful and intelligent performance of their duties in life. We want to cultivate their judgment, their imagination, and that faculty of admiration which, "more than any other," says Mrs. Blackie, "elevates one almost to a level with the object admired."

It is generally conceded that the study of humane letters is the means best suited to bring about this end. If the choice has to be made between literature and science as a means of culture, the palm must be given to literature. "Letters will call out their being at more points—will make them live more" (Prof. Jebb).

To come to practical matters. As far as possible, ordinary school subjects, such as arithmetic, grammar, &c., should be given up or reduced to a minimum, for the time at our disposal is limited. Geography of a certain kind must be taken, mainly with a view to foreign travel. Special attention should be given to Europe. Italy, of course, is a host in itself, and with these geography lessons should be combined a course of elementary lessons on Italian

art. In even one hour a week acquaintance may be made with the chief works of the Italian Renaissance. This is almost sure to arouse a desire for further knowledge, and an acquaintance with the Italian language.

The study of geography should be supplemented by the reading of good books of travel. Reading aloud is a great feature of the ideal last year. It may be employed in conjunction with needlework, mistress and girls taking turns to read. Thus once more will this art, now almost abandoned, flourish in our midst. The ideal maiden who spends hours in reading to weary fathers and aged grandmothers is nowadays far to seek. The average girl of to-day would, indeed, in attempting to exercise her art in this direction, succeed only in irritating and unnerving the halest and heartiest of her relations, much more the weary and aged among them. In the domain of history, Italy and France should have special attention. One term may be given to acquiring a bird's-eye view of the whole, and the other two to a more detailed study of some special period. At this stage the most humanising method of studying is by a series of biographies. It is well to take a central figure, and group round him the events and people of his day—*e.g.*, Lorenzo de Medici makes a productive subject. One neglected branch of history that may well be studied is civics. This makes a good foundation for the study of politics, and helps to prepare a girl for the intelligent exercise of her voting privileges.

French should have an important place in the curriculum. It is well to keep two books in hand, one to be accurately prepared in small portions, with due attention to construction and idiom, and the other to be read more rapidly with less attention to detail. By this means the pupils will make acquaintance with different types of authors, and their vocabularies and their powers of expression will be much enlarged. Many of the books set for examinations are not of a kind to appeal to girls, and the substitution of "Mon Oncle et mon Curé," or "Le Petit Chose," for some of these will have a remarkably exhilarating effect on a flagging class. Details about fishing-tackle and shipping, or terms of strategy and warfare, may remain in the background until the student is thoroughly familiar with the language of everyday life. At the same time, the literary appreciation of the language must not be neglected. Girls at this stage are quite capable of realising beauties of style, even in a foreign tongue.

A good elementary knowledge of either German or Latin should already have been gained. Reading should be continued in the more familiar of these languages, and the elements of the unknown begun. A year's grounding in either will make an excellent foundation for further study.

The history of French and German literature must also be read. Quite an appreciable knowledge may be gained in an hour a week. Poems and pieces of prose should be learned by heart. This latter process is too much neglected in English schools, but it is a most valuable help in gaining a grasp of a foreign language.

The claims of English literature cannot be too strongly urged. To appreciate "the highest thought of highest men" ought, indeed, to be one of the chief aims of education. During the last year of school life the critical and appreciative faculties develop rapidly, and attention should be concentrated upon the analysis of thought and the artistic qualities of style in the works studied.

In science, physiology and hygiene are of importance. They are always popular with girls, and of great practical value in after life.

Another subject which more than repays teaching is logic, and at this stage of a girl's career it may replace the study of mathematics. A most entertaining and fascinating text-book is to be found in Swinburne's "Picture Logic." It abounds in witty illustrations, and a girl will not only get excellent mental training from its study, but will also learn much which may be found to bear upon the common problems of everyday life.

Many objections may be raised to the views set forth in this paper. In many schools the scheme in its completeness would not be feasible, but in a modified form it might often be adopted with advantage. The teaching staff may not be large enough to allow any marked departure from the orthodox time-table. Much, however, may be done in the way of planning and supervising certain studies without any actual teaching. This method has the most desirable effect of making the student independent—of teaching her to do without a teacher. An occasional examination is all that is needed in the way of supervision, and only absolutely necessary explanations should be given. Many girls of the present day suffer from being over-taught, and they not unnaturally get into the habit of expecting their teachers to do the lion's share of the work, while they sit more or less idly by. The tendency of modern education is to smooth away all the briars from the thorny way of learning, and turn it into a primrose path of dalliance. This method, however, is not calculated to produce a type of character braced to grapple with the serious problems of life. If teachers would spend more time in teaching themselves and less in teaching their pupils they would ultimately get better results. That great school-mistress, Miss Pipe of Laleham, felt this keenly:—"Everything, everything," she writes, "including my own intellectual life, is sacrificed to girls, girls, girls, and perhaps the girls suffer for it more than anyone else."

FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS.

By CLARENCE A. SHERIDAN.

The beginnings of folk schools are to be found in Denmark, yet the folk school is not the outcome of a scientific theory on education but rather a spontaneous growth. Like a tree, the folk school movement is well rooted in the soil. After the Napoleonic War, Denmark was in a state of absolute depression, and national stagnation was the result. Then came the mighty scholar, N. F. S. Gruntvig, who affected by his work as a teacher, a prophet, and a clergyman, the whole of the people of Denmark. Born in Jutland, Gruntvig studied philosophy, Norse literature, and the Bible, at the Copenhagen University. A poet who has written many of Denmark's finest hymns, he was inspired by the Romantic Revival.

In 1844 the first folk high school was established in Jutland as the direct outcome of Gruntvig's influence: then seven years later a man called Kristian Kold established another folk school on similar lines. Gruntvig had always been against examinations, and he said the greatest power lay in "the living word."

These folk schools accept students from the age of eighteen upwards, because that is the period when the most important formation of character takes place. The school must not be led by a learned man, but by a practical man of culture who is an artisan with profound common sense. University men are not always successful as heads of folk high schools, although many leaders of the schools are university men. The folk school does not exist to increase the learning of its students, but to teach them to live "good and well."

There is State supervision of folk schools in Denmark, but there is no interference in the working of them. The annual grant is made to each school if it is attracting a sufficient number of students. History, literature, languages, and physical culture are the main features of the curriculum, and the method is all by lectures, which commence and end by the students singing a folk song or hymn in unison. The students must make their own beds and clean their own rooms, while the growing of fruit and vegetables on the college farm has to be done by the students. Thus the dignity of labour is preserved and a student feels part of a large family.

There are sixty folk high schools in Denmark, and 3 per cent. of the students are town dwellers; the rest are farmers' sons, small-holders' sons, and farm labourers' sons. Many of the lectures at the high schools are open to the public, and often an evening lecture is crowded with older folk from the village or town.

The State will assist, up to 50 per cent. of the fees, any intending student to attend a folk school, and the unemployed are encouraged to attend. Over one-fourth of the population have attended a folk high school for a longer or shorter period. This period of study at a folk high school has a profound effect on the growing young man and young woman, and helps them in the adolescent period to realise themselves.

Of these sixty schools, two are owned and controlled by the trade union movement, and the curriculum is so arranged as to create an interest in trade union work. Then there are a few purely Christian Mission high schools. The most important high school is at Askov, in Jutland, and is called the "Oxford of Denmark," and is looked upon as the peoples' university. The Principal of this school is generally an outstanding man in Danish cultural affairs, great care being taken when appointing him to find a suitable man.

Norway, Sweden, and Germany have been affected by the folk school movement, and have established several folk high schools in their respective countries. England has only one college which is moulded on folk high school lines, that is Fircroft College, in Bournville Garden City. At Fircroft the traditions of the folk school are preserved, and it is a very interesting experiment in adult education. While resident in Denmark I met some keen Irish students who had studied at a folk high school and had attempted to establish a folk high school in Ireland, but, owing to a series of adverse circumstances, were unsuccessful. Wales has recently established a folk high school called "Harlech College," but the college is an old castle and is hardly suitable for miners. Many of the miner students are sent there under the Miners' Welfare Scheme, from which they obtain scholarships, and many are assisted by educational committees in the Welsh counties.

So it can be seen that the folk high school movement, which grew in Denmark and forms the cultural background of Denmark, is now spreading over Europe with very interesting results. The folk high school influence has also spread to America.

Scotland has not yet established one, but some day a band of enthusiastic educationists will do so, and bring Scotland into line with the Continent.

A SCHOLASTIC OCCASION IN NIGERIA.

By W. W. T.

Eight a.m. on the day of the annual "Junior Clerical Service Examination." A motley throng of candidates, all chattering excitedly, cluster round the doors of the various schoolrooms in Lagos, set apart for the day for this important purpose. It is a great occasion, since on the results of this examination depend the coveted admission to the Government Clerical Service, and the confirmation of various probationary jobs in all sections of the community. For that reason, vigilance has to be exerted with the entries; half an hour before the time the door is partially opened, and the credentials of each candidate scrutinised as he passes through. Cases have been known where a candidate has been so dubious of his own success, unaided, as to hire a more learned friend's labours for the day!

At ten minutes before the hour, my batch of 200 candidates are safely seated and fairly quiet, and we have time to weigh one another up. I can see them studying me to see whether I shall be strict and watchful, and I study them amazed, not for the first time, at the Nigerian's extraordinary taste in clothes. There are not many native clothes here, for this is a Europeanised class, but there are one or two dignified, if uncomfortable, Moslem gowns. Most, however, wear the various products of Manchester, from gaudily striped pyjamas to very dapper tussore suitings. Some have shirts and no collars, some have collars and sporty ties, but no shoes. Least common of all is the sensible combination of open-neck shirt or jumper, with shorts. This is adopted widely by artisans and mechanics, and is therefore far beneath the dignity of an embryo clerk.

Now we're in amongst it. Ink is sprawled across innumerable pages, in anxious haste. One of the most "bush" looking candidates in the front row is evidently having a bad fit of nerves; his hand trembles, and he keeps on knocking over his ink-well and appealing pathetically for more ink. Pages are filled, hands are raised for more paper, rulers are hastily dried, not on the blotting-paper provided by a paternal Government, but invariably by rubbing them through the black wool on top of the candidate's head.

And of what quality is the product of these hectic endeavours? Having just read several hundreds of their worked papers on "English composition," I could say much on the subject. "The white man's burden" is a phrase coined by a quite departed generation, but I saw a new significance in it as I ploughed through the task of adjudicating the merits of several hundreds of these African "essays." Here is one which I did, however, find

refreshing. I submit that it has the veritable touch—individual and intimate—of the true "essay." I give it word for word, complete.

"A DESCRIPTION OF A DAY OF MY LIFE."

"I feel first of all to hit on the day I left school. In fact, I was overwhelmed with joy on that day, thinking that would be the end of my education. Not till after six months, I detected that it was time I should be learning more by private studies, &c. From that time up to the present, I have found no rest at all in my life eventuate. To start with, I do not know that after my thirteenth year or so of leaving school, I will be required to-day to sit for this examination. If not for stomach's sake, nothing will convince me to sit for this examination. After marriage, I thought that was all, and that I only have to look after my families and domestic affairs; but then, where am I to-day? All I had wanted to say is there is no rest at all with me in life, and I am inclined to think that only the wealthy enjoys a bit of not a day's but every-day's life; for the simple reason that he possess all comforts at his home. Anyway, where there is life there is also hope for me, one day to rejoice before my voice is lost in death.

"I do not know that of my examiner, but this is my personal experience in my own case."

The second is more concise, and throws an interesting sidelight on the attraction our mechanical inventions have for the native mind.

"TRANSPORT IN NIGERIA."

"Motor Car is a most important and is a useful thing in Lagos Motor Car has four wheel—it generally as four lights it cannot walk without petrol and some use to work with engine oil kerosene Acid it has so many Engine it generally work with keking start it is a most important and useful thing in Nigeria."

Not many pass this examination—as the latter specimen of composition may suggest—but for those who do there are high possibilities. Salaries of £400 a year (and 5s. a week is a living wage for an African) and O.B.E.'s have already been won by natives in the service of the Government. Few, alas, have ambitions so lofty, all too many are content with security, pension, and an underling or two to order about.

NOTES ON AMERICAN EDUCATION.

BY KATHLEEN D. MACRAE, B.A., B.Sc. (Econ.).

We print below the first of three articles written by a Research Student who has recently visited U.S.A.

I. The Large School.

The English visitor to an American school is at first somewhat baffled by its size. The first school that I visited on the other side of the Atlantic was the Washington Irving High School for Girls in New York, and I had the misfortune to arrive at the very moment when the bell went for morning interval. There are five thousand odd girls in the school, so they told me, but to my bewildered senses there were five million at least thronging past me on the staircase and in the corridors. I had in my hand a visitor's pass, upon which the advice was written that I should go to Room 601; but to find any particular destination among that moving crowd seemed impossible, and when the bell went for work to begin again I was glad to drift into the nearest classroom with those immediately around me. Then in almost incredibly short time the noise ceased; the seemingly chaotic mob had settled down to work in classes of thirty or less, and order reigned everywhere.

The large school has come in America to meet the demand which has grown rapidly since the war for more education, particularly of a post-primary nature. During the war the system of intelligence tests was employed in the American army, and to the dismay of the general public the average mental age of the American soldier proved to be thirteen and a-half years. In their determination to remedy this a free education has been provided from the elementary schools through the university, for all who wish to profit by it. It is not easy to obtain precise figures, but higher education has certainly trebled since the war. Education has become almost a fetish, a panacea for all ills. To meet this sudden demand have come the enormous schools with colossal buildings, which are matters of civic pride, and justly so, in every township and city. As one travels by railroad or coach these great blocks of buildings seem to dominate the country. I often heard it said that the next generation are being mortgaged to build schools for this. Whether the expenditure has been overdone or not is hardly for a foreigner to say, but we have nothing in our system of public education comparable to these magnificent buildings.

The average size of an American High School is from three to five thousand, and I have been in many larger. A comparison with our numbers would show generally that every American school is ten times the size of its corresponding school in England. These are the normal numbers, but there are some which are much larger.

The disadvantages of the very large school are obvious; but on the other hand there are distinct

advantages, for, with thousands to cater for, it is possible to have equipment such as we cannot dream of. Apart from the fact that they are spacious and imposing buildings, which in itself has no small psychological effect upon the students and the surrounding district, they are replete with cafeterias, enormous gymnasia, swimming pools and shower baths, and branches of a public library, all of which make teaching and education in the wider sense much easier.

I comforted myself with the thought that, however great the advantages of such immeasurably better equipment, they are more than offset by the loss of personal contact such as we claim with our smaller numbers. As I saw more of American schools I came to doubt whether we know as much about our hundreds as they know about their thousands, for while we rely upon chance conversations into which may filter details of the home life of our students, the American makes use of all the most up-to-date business methods in the school.

For instance, we may call upon the principal of a school of maybe six thousand to ask how a certain John Smith is progressing. The principal will pull out a drawer of his tabulated file, and in a few minutes he will be able to give you a complete picture of that pupil's social environment and school attainments. He can tell you his age, chronological and mental (all American children have their intelligence quotients taken), his medical history, whether he is gaining in weight as he should be for his age. Then will come his home conditions, whether there is a father and mother, what the father's profession is, and how much he earns, whether there are younger and older brothers and sisters, and how they are employed, whether the boy goes to Church or Sunday School, and what other social agencies he comes in contact with. Then come his school attainments in every subject, probably brought up to date every month, or perhaps every fortnight, and also the teachers' summing up of his social adaptability and qualities of leadership. Can we in England say that we know as much about our pupils? Furthermore, do we not often wish we had some way of finding out, perhaps without the knowledge of the boys or girls, something of their home conditions?

One sees this slickness of business organisation in every branch of their school life. Staff conferences have their allotted place upon the time-table, and they often seem to get more unity of purpose than we can achieve with our small numbers and more haphazard methods

Again, I never ceased to marvel at the cafeterias in these large schools, where sometimes in the space of an hour and a-quarter three shifts of maybe six hundred or more are fed. This is only to be accomplished with the strictest of routine. Each student gathers her tray, knife, fork, and spoon, passes in a long file before the serving bar, picks up the particular dishes that appeal to her, and more often than not has to face a scrutiny as to whether she has chosen a properly-balanced meal from the diet standpoint. She is given a pink or blue ticket accordingly. After the meal the plate, knife, and spoon are returned to their proper place, washed by machinery, and ready for the next shift almost in a few seconds. The food is excellently cooked and served at a rate cheaper than we can do it, and every school cafeteria seems to pay its way. A very wide selection of food is served; usually there are about six choices of meat dishes, six different vegetables, a variety of salads and sandwiches, and three or four beverages, not to mention, of course, ice cream of all hues and flavours!

A school of five thousand odd is overwhelming at first, but even that is dwarfed by some of the others. There is, for instance, a new technical school for boys in Pittsburgh so large that it has been found necessary to put an automobile driveway inside the building. The East Side Continuation School in New York numbers twelve thousand, while the Vocational School in Milwaukee claims to be the largest educational building in the States, and is said to have a day register of twenty thousand and another ten thousand evening students. Attendance at continuation school is compulsory in the State of Wisconsin until the age of eighteen, and as Milwaukee ranked last year as the sixth largest city in the States, and the vocational school has to cater for all those of continuation school age, it is not surprising that their numbers are large. I forget how many acres of land the building occupies, but I know it takes a very long while to walk round, and I was bewildered with the multiplicity of activities. It is not a school, but a township in itself, equipped with hospital, dentist's surgery, where the visitor is taken to see the work in progress, and a printing press which produces a weekly paper. It is reckoned that three thousand stay to lunch each day, and all this food is prepared on the premises by the students.

The Milwaukee Vocational School has a staff or faculty of three hundred and sixty, and a very interesting piece of work is being done in what is really a teachers' training college for the staff. New technical teachers are given courses of instruction in teaching methods and psychology, and lectures are given in developments in the various trades. Here is an example showing how large numbers can create and supply their own needs.

GLEANINGS.

A Note on Cricket.

At the Epsom College Speech Day Dr. Raymond Crawford said that cricket was very much over-rated as an instrument of education. Perhaps that was largely due to the cult of centuries and the cult of averages.

A Function of a Profession.

Dr. Percy Buck said recently: "Whatever your profession, it should make of you something that is a good advertisement of it. Too often it is the Apostle that kills the Creed."

Royalties.

"There are English ladies and gentlemen in China and India who habitually try to perform plays without paying for them, although they probably occupy large portions of each day in yammering about the dear old school where they learned to play the game."—(St. John Irvine in "The Observer.")

Our Naughty Home Secretary.

On August 14 the placards of the *Evening News* announced in London:

"DOUBTFUL FILMS. MR. CLYNES ACTS."

It is sad to think that our Cabinet Ministers are outstripping the ladies of Hollywood.

Revised Version.

Constable at Marylebone Police Court: "I requested him to desist from his conduct."

Magistrate's Clerk: "Did you really speak to him like that?"

Constable: "Well, no, sir; I just told him to shut up."

The Teacher's Peril.

"My business is to teach history. But how can I teach an art? What do my pupils learn? Teaching is one of the dangerous trades. Repetition may bring deadness; authority may be used too easily; initiative and independence may seem no more than a pupil's caprice and self-will. Familiarity with the routine of my work may bring another danger. I may treat my pupils as historical material. In a sense I am bound to make this experiment. For the moment I must become the person I am teaching, see the subject-matter of my work as he sees it, know as little as he knows."—("The Twelve Winded Sky," by E. L. Woodward. Published by Constable.)

MODERN SCHOOLING

THE VILLAGE SCHOOL.

BY WILLIAM CLAYTON, M.B.E. (Appleton Roebuck School).

IX. How we use our School Journeys.

Readers will have observed from previous notes of our school activities that frequent use is made of outdoor lessons. It will be useful, therefore, to consider how these breaks affect the work of the teacher and the school. Those of us who have practised this method of teaching will agree that outdoor lessons demand much more preparation, forethought, and supervision than work conducted indoors. If we consider our own comfort rather than our pupils' benefit, we shall not undertake outdoor lessons except under compulsion. The vast majority of the members of our profession are, however, not concerned with personal comfort half so much as the welfare of the children, hence we may assume that this extra trouble will not weigh heavily upon the modern teacher. We ought never to set out on a school journey without having a definite object in view, and making careful and orderly preparation for it. It will be generally necessary, however familiar the teacher may be with the district, to go thoroughly over the route chosen a day or two before the actual visit. It is essential that each member of the class should prepare a sketch map to scale from the ordnance sheets of the school district, and mark on these the salient features which are likely to come under their notice during the journey. This preparation will impress upon the scholars' minds that they are to look upon the journey as a serious business and not an aimless ramble. Experience has shown that it is a wise plan to forbid the indiscriminate plucking of wild flowers, fruits, and grasses, or the uprooting of plants. We cannot learn too early that such things can be best studied in their fresh and growing state. If our children are taught only to gather such things as are required for special examination in the classroom, we shall have done something for the preservation of the beauty of the countryside. It is a sad reflection on the teacher if persons can trace the course of our journey by wilting flowers cast aside by aimless gatherers.

We have made it an invariable practice in all our school journeys to ensure, by careful preparation, that the maximum benefit, both to child and teacher, will accrue from our walks. In addition to the map, each of our pupils is supplied with a stiff strawboard, to which the map and two or three sheets of plain paper are securely fastened. A lead pencil is, of course, a necessity, and where such things are available, a pair of field-glasses, a tele-

scope, a 2-ft. rule, a 66-ft. tape measure, and a camera should always be part of the equipment.

Before leaving the school, a general outline of the journey and the reasons for it should be given to the class. The pupils should understand that they are at liberty and are expected to use their sheets of paper for notes and sketches of anything they may deem worthy of record. They must be allowed to discuss freely among themselves points of interest as they arise. The teacher's work should consist more in giving encouragement and help to the slower ones than in directing the class as a whole what they should look for. It will generally be found that his time is fully occupied in answering the multitude of questions with which the pupils will ply him. Questions are sure to be asked to which the teacher cannot at the time give a correct and full answer. The wise teacher will never be ashamed to confess that he cannot answer. He will promise to look the matter up on return to school. This will deepen the respect which the child has for its teacher, and be infinitely more satisfactory than trying to bluff the child with a false or flippant reply.

Frequent "halts" will be necessary for the children to compare and contrast their notes, for it must never be forgotten that the enterprise is a *team* one, and not an individual adventure. I do not know of any activity where the team spirit is so well developed as in a well organised school journey.

We may have set out from school intent on visiting an old manor house, a moated castle, a ruined abbey, or a thousand-year-old oak. When we arrive at our objective is the time when the lesson proper should be given by the teacher. Ample time should be given for scholars to question the teacher, discuss among themselves, and make copious notes and sketches of the lesson and object.

During the return to school the same keenness and attention should be encouraged or demanded as marked the outward journey. If on arrival any portion of the session is left, it could be most profitably occupied in finishing the sketches and notes, or by groups of children talking over among themselves the incidents which particularly interested them.

Whilst the impressions are fresh on their minds, an opportunity should be found for each child to expand the notes by writing a full description of the journey, illustrated by the aid of rough sketches.

When the slowest worker has finished—it may possibly be a week later—the next reading lesson may well be occupied by each scholar in turn reading aloud their written efforts. When our children have done this they are allowed to ask questions, through me, of any particular child. These questions, answers, and explanations are a wonderful help to the class in clear thinking and correct speaking, and do much to make the written work of the class really worth reading.

In subsequent English lessons we endeavour to eliminate the irrelevant matter and collect the most concise and useful information from the batch of papers. Then scholars and teacher combine in producing a composite description of our journey. Every child makes a copy of this record and takes it home for parents to read, criticise, and sign. The papers are brought back for the teacher's inspection. When the "marks" have been duly assigned and entered into the register, the best two or three papers are filed for future comparison and reference, and the others are returned to the scholars. Several lesson periods are, of course, taken in the completion of the work; but we began knowing that we were entering upon a serious undertaking, and not much that is worth while is done in a hurry.

Village Education in India.

Readers who are following political developments in India will find much of value and interest in a volume issued by the Student Christian Movement, 32 Russell Square, London, W.C.1. It is entitled "Fourteen Experiments in Rural Education," and is edited by Mr. A. B. van Doren. The experiments are described by various writers, and reveal a new outlook on education. In an introductory chapter written by Mr. K. T. Paul, a member of the Fraser Commission on Village Education in India, we are told that until some ten years ago there was nowhere in India any thought that there could be more than one system of education, namely, the one with which Britain had familiarised Indians for a century. Today, attempts are being made to develop systems in different districts according to local needs and conditions. The work is slow and extremely difficult, but it is sought to obtain for young Indians suitable alternatives to the present system, which looks towards the university as the only goal. "Middle schools" for boys are being established, some with departments for training teachers. The book gives a survey of a village in the Central Provinces, from which we learn that there is a population of 714, with 294 families. In each family an average of 2½ children have died under five years of age, the most frequent cause of death being malnutrition. The average school life of a boy in the village is 2½ years; and of a girl 1½ years. Only 7 per cent. of the pupils complete the school course.

"TIPS FOR THE CLASSROOM."

By L. R.

History.

The "time chart" method of directing and co-ordinating history lessons with normal eleven-plus scholars is very popular. Frequently, however, the actual chart is one compiled by the teacher, displayed as a wall decoration, to which the young student refers as occasion arises. Why not give each scholar the opportunity of having his own private edition?

The average objections of the harassed class-teacher are usually based on reasonable grounds of the awkwardness of size, difficulty of fitting in an ordinary note-book, time taken, &c. Try this.

(a) A roll of rough-surfaced brown paper, of the pastel lesson type. Cut into fifteen-inch strips; a strip fifteen inches wide and three to four feet long serves very well.

(b) Mark out the divisions in pencil. With these as guides insert in coloured chalk, or pastel, the particulars required. As each vertical section is completed, roll the chart—work can then be accommodated on the ordinary classroom tables or locker desks.

(c) To prevent the chalk or pastel, as the case may be, from smudging, have a small palette containing a mixture of gum and water. Dip the chalk into this mixture before using it on the paper. This mixture then acts as a fixative, and if allowed to dry thoroughly, gives a good result, which will wear well.

(d) A well prepared colour scheme will add to the value of the finished chart.

As a guide to individual work with seniors, a time chart compiled at the beginning of the term acts as a strong incentive, and certainly does prevent aimless wandering and wasting of time over non-essentials, or at least, of research work in details not necessary for the course of study outlined.

The Note-Book.

Plain paper exercise books are very useful. If the younger scholars find difficulty in keeping their work neat, "in straight lines" for example, take a page of the ordinary writing exercise book used and ink in the blue lines, heavily. Allow this to dry (blotting paper spoils the result), and use this under the plain page in the note-book. The objection will then disappear. The plain page then facilitates notes, sketches, and illustrations to be pasted in at will.

Important.

Next month we shall have an important supplement on "The Choice of Text-Books," with special reference to problems of reorganisation.

HANDWRITING AND COMMON SENSE.

By D. M. ASLING.

“A sentence should be the shortest distance between two points.”

REBECCA WEST.

Modern handwriting, like modern composition, must come to the point as quickly as possible. Elaborate curves delaying the writer in his progress along the sentence are as much behind the times as the lengthy periods of the old-fashioned essayist. We admire but find it impossible to imitate the “copper-plate” hand, traced with meticulous care by little great-grandmother in her teens—now only to be seen on visiting cards.

But custom dies hard, and an inferior rendering of this elegant hand is still described as “Civil Service”—though whether it continues to have any connection with that sphere of life I do not know. Old-established educational publishers produce these copybooks, in covers of tasteful grey. They are bought and used, I believe, for the lowest forms in boys’ schools. With their aid a boy can learn to write like this :—

Little things on
little wings

provided he has a fine steel pen, and presses well on it for the up and down strokes, breathing heavily the while.

About “script.” This is the result of what may be termed the “Arts and Crafts” movement in handwriting, which seeks to unite it with lettering. “Script” has been taken up by girls’ secondary schools, and by many elementary schools, but most men will have none of it, perhaps because it has been condemned by employers and business men generally. They consider it a reversion to something primitive and inferior.

Truth to say, the first modern script hands designed by artists were beautiful but unpractical. They were too elaborate. Only a child with a real flair could achieve success. To fail was to produce something neither sightly nor readable. By taking infinite pains you might achieve writing like this :—

Manners maketh Man .

but an ugly backward slope was often the result of trying to copy an elaborate medieval hand without the time the medieval scribe had at his disposal.

Manners maketh Man

Then a more practical form was evolved by those who saw the value of a “script” not rendered too difficult by the addition of “serifs” and other finishes. The essential forms of the letters were emphasised—ornamental detail was suppressed. The average child could probably write better than this :—

The Life so short , the Art
so long to learn .

But the weak writer, through not being taught to link up his letters, tended to scatter them farther and farther apart, with the result that script sank to its lowest ebb in such specimens as this :—

James Smith

When employers and Post Office officials refused to accept James Smith’s signature, on the grounds that it was not “writing,” something had to be done.

Accordingly, it is now generally agreed that what James Smith needs is a cursive writing based on a foundation of script. Individual letter forms are practised first, to gain that proportion and legibility which is the chief necessity. Then, as soon as possible, the letters are connected by short, space-saving up-and-down strokes, not by curving, spread-out lines, forming “pudding basins” between the letters. (The latter method results in a tendency to exaggerate the linking up, and obscuring the letter forms.)

A foundation “script” is, moreover, very useful to those who want to execute clear maps, posters, &c., and to young people entering shops, who wish to specialise in the writing of show cards. It shortens the time of technical training.

Such seems to me the way of common sense in the formation of a modern handwriting. But so far I have found no copybook which exactly fulfils our needs. I should welcome

A copybook like this .

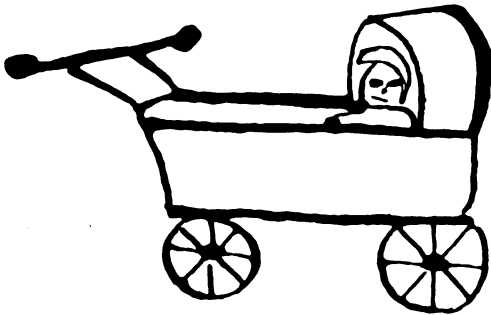
NOVEL HINT FOR THE DRAWING LESSON.

By K. LAVERTY.

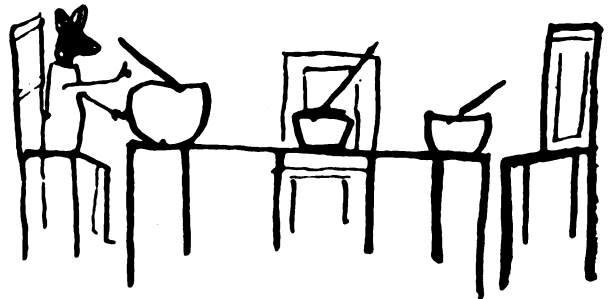
Time or speed drawing is an amusing and interesting change from the ordinary or routine drawing lesson: it delights young children, never fails to arouse their interest and attention, trains them in making quick decisions, and has brought about a marked improvement in free expression and the illustration of fairy stories, &c.

Two minutes are allowed for consideration and

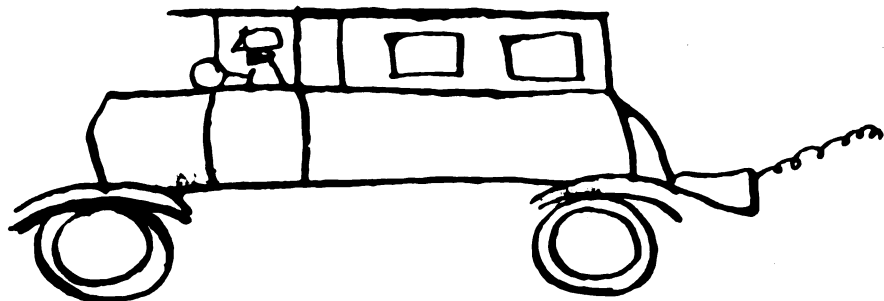
choice of a subject, then each member of the class, whilst ten is slowly counted by the other children (about three seconds allowed between each count), draws on B.B. or frieze a simple sketch in outline. At a first attempt with children of five to seven years the results were surprising. Some are given here, not the slightest alteration or addition having been made.



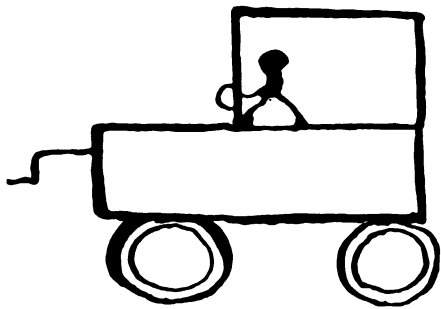
CHILD OF 7. COUNT OF 10.



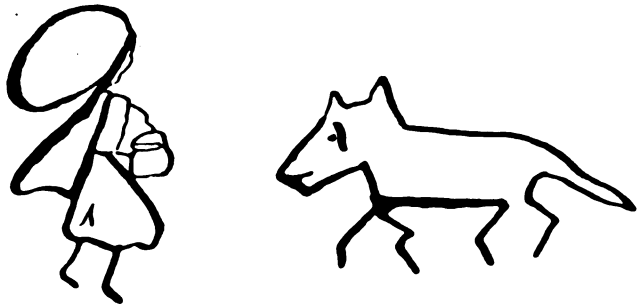
THREE BEARS. CHILD OF 5. COUNT OF 10.



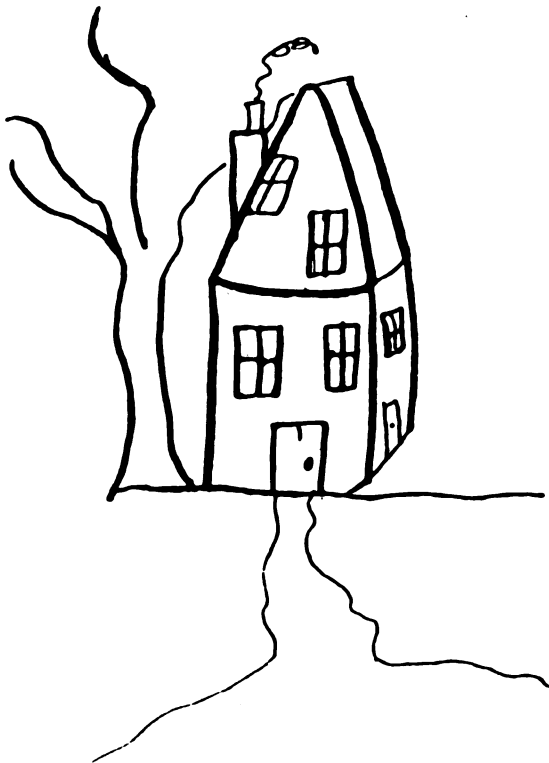
CHILD OF 6. COUNT OF 9.



CHILD OF 5. COUNT OF 8.



RED RIDING HOOD AND WOLF. CHILD OF 7.
COUNT OF 10.
(Note ingenious use of figure 9 for hood.)



WITCH'S HOUSE (HANS AND GRETHEL). CHILD OF 6.
COUNT OF 10.



SIMPLE SIMON. CHILD OF 6. COUNT OF 10.



OUR BABY. CHILD OF 7. COUNT OF 10.

LETTERS.

BY A HOUSE MASTER.

"Dear Mother,—I am very bad in the sanatorium. I have a pain in my back, and I have got a headache. The doctor is coming to see me to-morrow. Will you tell dad that I have run out of pocket money.—Your loving son,
"BILL."

"P.S.—The sanatorium is full up."

I suppose that I need hardly explain that Bill's mother never received the above epistle. Instead of forwarding the letter I took it along to the sanatorium and gave it back to Bill.

For more years than I care to remember now I have been censoring scholars' letters, and I know of no better way of getting an insight into a boy's character than by his letters.

It is obvious that some censorship is necessary in boarding schools when one peruses the above letter.

Imagine for one moment the feeling of poor Bill's mother on receiving such a letter as the above. I have not the least doubt but that she would have descended on the school by the first available train, expecting to find Bill next door to death. Instead of which Bill was in a perfect state of health, with the exception of a slight cold, which had given him a headache. Parents have no need to worry that they will be kept in the dark should there be a case of serious illness to one of their offspring. If such a case does occur it is the rule in all well-conducted schools to inform the parent officially. The child, however, always exaggerates an illness, and will consider himself next door to death if he has a violent headache or has some unpleasant feeling inside.

This censoring of letters certainly gives me a better understanding of the boy.

For instance, Smith minor never forgets to ask about his dog Peter. He'll forget the time to get up, forget to wash his neck, forget whether the Pyrénées are in Spain or California; but forget Peter—never!

And then there is Jenkins. I forget how many times I have received a despairing letter from Jenkins's mother asking whether the delinquent is ill, as she has received no letter from him for at least a month. Jenkins hates writing letters, and when he does they are the most perfunctory affairs. Something like this:—

"Dear Mother,—I am quite well. We whacked the Town last Saturday by 234 runs. Sam Blotts still owes me half-a-crown.—Yours truly,

"HERBERT A. JENKINS."

Not much for any mother to enthuse about in that, but apparently Mrs. Jenkins is quite satisfied despite its brevity.

I suppose that quite 75 per cent. of the letters

I censor contain some reference to hard-upness. The older boys, with the subtlety of age, prefer to veil their requests with lengthy verbiage, or perhaps a gentle hint. This latter is usually resorted to when a relation—often quite distant—receives perhaps a yearly letter from his nephew whom he has probably never seen. I have to smile when I read such a letter as the following:—

"Dear Uncle,—I'm sorry I haven't written to you for a whole year, but I have been very busy. I am getting quite grown up now. In fact, I shall be fifteen next Tuesday. I still wear the watch you gave me on my last birthday," &c., &c.

I fully expect that Dear Uncle also allows a smile to cross his face as he reads the letter, and recalls the time when he wrote such hints to his uncles.

Then there is the very conscientious type of boy. He inquires faithfully and weekly after the health of the whole of the family, naming each in turn. He also gives the number of days remaining in the term, and sends his love to innumerable uncles and aunts, his grandfather and grandmother, and a whole host of cousins. I think that this boy suffers from a family complex.

It is a sad but nevertheless true fact that very few of the boys ever ask after the health of their sisters. Apparently sisters are never ill, and if by chance they should be—well, it is their own fault, and certainly nothing much to bother about.

Occasionally I have to read a letter in which the writer eulogises myself. These are always suspect and get no farther than the school post box. After reading such a one I keep an extra eye on the writer, for knowing boys as I do I can imagine that writer up to no good. No healthy schoolboy was ever in love with his schoolmaster, despite the idealists.

Usually boys' letters are noted for their brevity, but there is one boy who insists on writing as many as eight sheets of notepaper. He will write on the most trivial events that take place in the life of the school. Should one of the bathroom taps go wrong, Simpkins faithfully records it. Should the matron have a cold in the nose, Simpkins thinks it is his bounden duty to inform his parents of the fact. Should the curate stumble over one of the Collects on Sunday, then Simpkins's parents learn of this lapse within a week.

Simpkins has a passion for detail, and I rather suspect him of writing a best seller one of these days.

Letters—letters—letters. Each one a human document. Boys come and boys go; but it seems to me that letters go on for ever.

And yet I'd hate to have to give up the job. There would certainly be something missing in life if that ever came about.

THE RURAL SCHOOL—SOME HANDICAPS.

BY BUMPKIN.

In the following article a schoolmaster in a rural school describes some of the handicaps which are unfairly imposed on village children and their teachers.—EDITOR.

The "rural" school to-day is mixed up with a general inferiority complex. As soon as the phrase is uttered there is a tendency to think of a part of the educational machine which is out of date, somewhat rusty, and badly in need of overhauling. Schools in rural areas are considered to be handicapped in matters such as lighting, heating, ventilation, sanitation, and staffing.

What are the facts? How very much worse off in these respects are "rural" schools as compared with schools in more populous areas? Does the town teacher realise to what degree his country cousin is handicapped? Here is an effort, based on a few years' teaching experience in one of our most remote rural areas, to throw some light on these questions.

Let it first be recognised that there is much dissatisfaction prevailing amongst teachers engaged in rural areas. It is not merely a salary grievance, although it is felt that there is something absurd in a system which allows a head teacher in a small village school, who works under one educational authority, to receive a maximum salary which is £60 less than a head teacher working in a similar school under a neighbouring authority. There are ridiculous, irritating anomalies under present salary conditions. It would not be difficult to demonstrate that living in the country is as expensive as living in the town; but that is not the purport of this article. Even so, one is tempted to urge that, in a reconsideration of salary scales, Scale I ought to be abolished.

The mere fact that many teachers are on the lowest of four variable scales brings to them not only a sense of financial loss but—what matters even more to many of them—it implies an inferiority of status. The whole thing is topsy-turvy. Scale I areas are truly rural, with schools surviving under truly rural conditions, and the salary scales as a compensating factor ought to be such as would attract rather than repel our best teachers.

But what are these "rural" schools? One has in mind schools with a narrow, long, main room, with windows high up on the north wall. In such schools the direct light (and never the sun!) is far above the pupils' level, and the back of the class is continually in bad light. In these old buildings thick stone pillars serve as window divisions, and greatly minimise the value of window space. The lower panes consist of opaque glass, and even they are placed so high that it seems as if the designers purposely meant to prevent the children from looking out. Such window conditions can be seen in one

of our most beautiful counties. On the walls of the classroom are old scrappy pictures, but the real picture which would bring joy to the youngsters, the picture of real trees, and fields, and hills, is denied them. To make matters worse, the windows are rarely cleaned. I am told that one head teacher, appointed to a school where such lighting prevailed, was struck at first with the number of children wearing spectacles, or obviously in need of them. He soon discovered a reason. It seems absurd that we should engage our skilled medical and optical officials to detect and cure eye defects and not deal with much of the cause. Is it not time that we began to do something at the other end, and spent money on altering these old window conditions, and paid our caretakers more in wages and ensured that they cleaned the windows more frequently?

This "caretaker" problem is an acute one in rural areas. Rural school caretakers are often difficult to get. They are never paid for their time, and in consequence the very rural caretaker comes once a day, and the sweeping is done before the morning assembly. The dust hardly has time to settle before the children appear, to breathe a dust-laden atmosphere.

Many such caretakers are widows or elderly ladies, who wish to supplement their income by the few shillings per week offered, and naturally are unequal to the job of climbing ladders to clean windows and dust rafters. The problem of rural school cleanliness is very largely bound up with the problem of obtaining a suitable caretaker, and until more adequate remuneration is offered for the important job of school caretaking, matters will remain unsatisfactory.

The cause of the "bottom dog" of school life ought to be the concern of every teacher.

Our school medical officers have to do their important work under very difficult conditions. Their visit inevitably means dislocation of school work in those schools where no special room can be provided.

Medical inspection and class teaching have to be carried out in the same classroom. Dental treatment has to be given in small porches, which also have to be adapted to serve as "dark" rooms for optical treatment.

School medical officers are constantly drawing attention to the need for improvement in school hygiene, and though defects are remedied year by year here and there by some of our authorities, their attempts do not by a long way meet the general needs.

We pass on to the heating of our rural schools. Many of them rely on the old "slow but sure" combustion type of stove. Often there is no relation between heating and ventilating. The chimneys of such stoves are badly placed, and there are schools where the stove must be allowed to go out when the wind blows from some directions, otherwise the room would be filled with smoke. Some schools have open fireplaces in isolated corners, and these give only "local" heat. Children sitting near are overheated and become drowsy; those a far way off receive very little benefit. Such heating conditions are a distinct handicap in severe winters. Here again the efficiency of the underpaid caretakers counts for much. In very isolated districts the caretaker's daily visit is before school assemblies, and not sufficiently early to ensure a thorough warming of the classrooms; in fact teachers are frequently greeted on their arrival with a room full of smoke. Although great improvements have taken place in recent years in the domestic fireplace, many schools still retain their original fireplaces of fifty years ago, which allow half of the heat to go up the chimney.

One calls to mind an old school with two outside doors, from porches which enter the main room. The porch outside doors are on a line with the room doors. The floor is of sandstone, and the step well worn away. The draughts are appalling. There are old buildings in this area where draughts actually come up between floor boards, and between the panels of the doors.

One of the most glaring defects in rural school buildings is the lack of provision for drying wet clothes. Questions in late years have been frequently asked in Parliament, and N.U.T. resolutions have been passed annually to draw attention to this need. Can teachers in well-equipped town schools, with the school population very near to the schools, realise what it means to teach youngsters who have come two or three miles through heavy rain, and who have to pass the day in wet clothes? In these districts children possess only one outdoor coat, and as rainproofs would not always be warm enough, it is usually the thick, heavy type of coat which soon becomes saturated. There is no heat in the porches, and any effort to dry such clothes must take place in the classroom. It will be realised that the atmosphere is not sweetened thereby. In one school, which is large enough to possess a hot water pipe system of heating, the boys whose shoes and stockings and other clothing are wet are sent into the dark boiler house to dry themselves and their clothes as well as they can. The girls take off their shoes and stockings in front of an open fire in an infants' room. This is a morning diversion which may easily occupy the first hour. There is a school nearby where feet may become wet in walking the last 250 yards of the journey to school,

owing to torrents rushing down a hill over a road, for remedying which no one will take responsibility. A dispute between school managers and the Parish Council has gone on for years. When the question of draining and surfacing arises, the parties disown the road, but when the right of usage is at stake both parties lay their claims. Meanwhile the children suffer. And so does the school, for when the rain is over, and the water ceases to flow, the amount of mud taken into the school is enormous.

When sanitation is considered it must be realised that many rural schools are still victims of the midden system, and as this prevails in the homes of the district, this defect is treated lightly.

In far too many cases the offices are too near the building. There are yet schools with "dry" offices, without any screens, and within a few yards of the school door and the classroom windows. It must be stated in fairness, however, that the trouble ceases in time, when a water supply develops. There are no drastic regulations regarding dry earth inspection and regular attention.

A speaker at an educational conference, two years ago, pointedly remarked that however much we would envisage the school beautiful, we will be content meantime if only we can get the school decent. Still are there schools without a water supply. Boys have to take a pail and go half a mile to get water for hot drinks at dinner time in winter. In a dry summer there is neither washing nor drinking water.

That children should need a space to play upon has not been considered in some districts, and it is not easy to bring the parochial mind to realise the need. One knows of at least one school without a playground, where physical exercises and play have to be undertaken on a roadway. The interruptions—especially during the agricultural seasons—can be realised. Many of the playgrounds are without asphalt surfaces and sheds. The teacher, keen on taking physical exercises, is heavily handicapped, especially when the unsuitable playgrounds accompany schools where the conditions for classroom work are poor (for instance, when two or more classes occupy one room). As for playing grounds it seems as if a parody on "The Ancient Mariner" best sums up the situation—land, land everywhere, but not a piece to play upon. The city child with his parks is, in most cases, relatively better off.

The liability of the rural school to be used for concerts, meetings, and social functions is a drawback. However careful folk may be, there is inevitably some damage to material, and meritorious work cannot be displayed as freely as it otherwise would be. Managers still prefer the old long desks, as being more suitable for "social" functions, and this prejudice accounts in some instances for the lack of modern seats. The appointment of school

managers of Council schools is far too often on the old traditional lines of trying to harmonise the claims of Conservatives and Liberals, Conformists and Nonconformists. New educational interests like the Trade Unions, Labour Party, Women's Institutions, are not directly considered. New "ideas" are not particularly welcomed. Their way of looking at school life is peculiarly theirs, and not based on educational grounds. In appointing an assistant, one body of managers found a few girls amongst the applicants who were native to the district, but who had left for their college training and had served under other authorities. Because already the staff had two or three such persons, it was resolved that before considering the applications all "local" girls should be struck out straightway. The head teacher was consulted, and advised that the matter ought not to be a question of local *versus* imported teachers, but which of them all was the best teacher. A good local person was much to be preferred to an inferior outsider. In the long run a local girl was appointed. At times an inferior local applicant is appointed instead of a better outsider. Obviously a Scale I area does not attract the best type of teacher unless special circumstances prevail (*e.g.*, a desire to live at home), and the range of choice is limited.

School managers in some areas fix the holidays, and cases are known where teachers have made plans for their summer holidays, and booked rooms, and have had to cancel arrangements (at some expense) because the harvest was specially early. Many rural teachers do not know to within a few days just when the holidays will begin. Arrangements fluctuate according to weather conditions; managers fix holidays so as to ensure the maximum use of schoolboy labour during the season. At last authorities are realising the desirability of stabilising holiday periods, and "centralisation" will tend to bring an improvement. Too often local managers judge their schools on scholarship returns. Schools are odiously compared: if a lean year appears, then criticism is very rife.

The pupil teacher system still exists in some parts. These young people, if it can be arranged, attend a secondary school or a "centre" for one day per week. They teach during the other four days, and over and above this have to spend five hours weekly under the tuition of the head teacher, who is granted £5 per annum. £5 for about 200 hours' work! Then their evenings and week-ends are devoted to study. Naturally their examination results are not very high. They may just pass a qualifying examination, but not sufficiently highly to compete favourably with the secondary school student who applies for entrance into college. As a result many of these pupil teachers become uncertificated teachers, who ultimately get placed within

the area. Some become very good practical teachers, but with no travelled experience. In our rural areas are to be found supplementary teachers. It is remarkable how the layman fails to differentiate between the different kinds of teachers. Pupil teachers, supplementaries, uncertificated and certificated, are all the same to him. Each is a "teacher."

May one plea be made for some of our "supplementary" and uncertificated colleagues? One knows of some who entered school life during the War period, and their job was looked upon then as of national worth. Let us not too severely judge it now. As a matter of fact some are splendid teachers, worthy of a higher status. By all means let us prevent the creation of any more, but common justice demands that we should obtain for those of them who are efficient, and have had long service, adequate salary and pension conditions.

Here then are a few of the special difficulties to be met with in our rural schools. In trying to expose these defects there has been no desire to apportion blame; in the long run "public opinion" is to blame. In the case of my own authority, there are men on the Education Committee and administrative officials who are not only aware of the needs but who are striving to remedy them. They already have many improvements to their credit. But we have a long way to travel before the replacement of unsuitable, insanitary, and out-of-date school buildings is thoroughly undertaken. Here is one of our most pressing educational problems. May the minds of determined enthusiasts be applied to its solution!

ENGLISH TRADE IN THE MIDDLE AGES: by L. F. Salzman, M.A., F.S.A. (12s. 6d. net. Oxford Clarendon Press.)

The book on "English Industries of the Middle Ages," published in 1923, has won for Mr. Salzman well-deserved praise, and in the present volume we have an excellent sequel, marked by the good qualities of its forerunner. These include an interesting and vivid style, careful fidelity to historic truth, and a most interesting selection of illustrations from contemporary sources. There is a full and clear account of the coming into use of money, credit, and weights and measures. Then follow descriptions of towns as centres of trade, with a section on the parts played by outsiders and aliens in relation to the close and jealous corporations of guilds and burgesses. The development of markets, fairs, and transport is shown, together with the growth of foreign trade. This book will be a valuable addition to a school library, and a useful help in the work of a tutorial class in economic history.

R.

NEWS OF THE MONTH.

The President's View.

In an address to the members of the City of London Vacation Course Mr. H. B. Lees-Smith said that schools are one of the best tests of the civilisation of a race, and we have attained for the mass of the ordinary working population a higher standard of civilisation than has been attained by any country before.

An Exception.

The President of the Board is doubtless justified in the view quoted above, but down at Mordiford, in Herefordshire, there is a village school with an average attendance of 160 pupils. For their convenience four bucket closets are provided, and the method of disposal is to dump the contents in a corner of the playground. The school is a Church school, and the managers say that they cannot afford to pay for the disposal of the sewage. All this is recorded by *The Carpenter and Builder*, which asks pointedly whether we have a Ministry of Health.

The May Report and Rates.

Sir George Lunn pointed out to the Newcastle Education Committee that if the salaries bill is reduced by 20 per cent. and the Exchequer contribution thereto is reduced to 50 per cent., as recommended in the May Report, there will be no relief to rates. A teacher now receiving £200 a year would receive only £160, but the L.E.A. receives now £120 towards the £200, leaving £80 from rates, whereas towards £160 it would still receive only £80, leaving the same amount to be paid from local funds.

Secondary Schools in Wales.

The Board of Education have just issued through the Stationery Office a new edition of the List of Secondary and Preparatory Schools in Wales, recognised as efficient, 1930-1. It gives the names of some 170 secondary schools, showing in each case the responsible body, the head master or head mistress, fees charged, number of pupils on October 1 last, classified according to age, number of boarders, percentage of free places, number of pupils pursuing a course beyond the stage of the first examination, and examinations taken. (List 60. Stationery Office. 6d. net; post free 7d.)

Cumberland's Assistant Secretary.

Mr. J. F. Mason, M.A., M.Ed., has been appointed Assistant Secretary to the Cumberland Committee. He is senior English master of Burnley Grammar School, and was formerly hostel tutor and lecturer at City of Leeds Training College.

Education in Russia.

According to the latest report of the Soviet Government the percentage of children attending school is now 97 in the towns and 87 in the villages. The figures last year were 71 and 68 respectively. The number of pupils in elementary schools is nearly 7½ millions, and nearly 1½ millions more are attending school between the ages of eleven and fifteen. During the past year 45,000 new schools were established, and over 60,000 teachers were sent to rural areas.

School Broadcasting.

The B.B.C. announces that the new programme of broadcasts to schools for the academic year 1931-32 will be published on September 7, and full details of the first term of the year are given in the syllabus, which can be obtained free on application to the B.B.C., Savoy Hill, London, W.C.2. or 1d. by post. A detachable time-table is included. Each course has been planned by the appropriate subject committee of the Central Council for School Broadcasting, on which serve specialists in the subject and in the teaching of the subject, together with teachers who are following the broadcasts in their schools.

Not Cricket.

Two small boys were lately summoned before Mr. Barrington Ward, the Old Street magistrate, on a charge of playing cricket in the street. They submitted in defence that they had no bat. It was held that they could not have been playing cricket, and the case was dismissed. Was it "cricket" to summon these lads when we have not troubled to provide them with playing fields outside the streets?

In Vino Meritum.

The French Minister of Education has ordered that the pupils in State schools shall be encouraged to drink good wine every day. It is suggested that this edict is made for the benefit of the wine industry of France, but we have not heard that British brewers and distillers are sending a deputation to the President of our Board of Education to urge that a similar edict shall be issued by him.

The Wrong Text.

From *The Observer* of Sunday, August 23:—
"One cannot but feel that an opportunity was lost when Mr. Lees-Smith failed to catch the intruder whom he overheard in his house at Golders Green. It would have been an imposing spectacle to see the Minister of Education educating a burglar in the Seventh Commandment."

But why the Seventh Commandment, Mr. Garvin?

LITERARY SECTION.

BOOKS AND THE MAN.

The Teaching of Mathematics.

Educational literature, like ancient Gaul, is divided into three parts. First in number, though not in value, come the treatises on what is called educational philosophy, in which the writers attempt to lay down abstract principles, and sometimes produce nothing better than a mist of vague theories. Then we have expositions of "systems," "methods," "plans," or what not, in which the writers seem to be groping after some panacea for all classroom ills and difficulties, in bland forgetfulness of the plain truth that teaching is an intensely personal relationship between two human spirits, and therefore infinitely diversified in its means and procedure. It is true that in some books of each of the types I have mentioned there are valuable precepts and much that is worth learning, for teaching must have a background of philosophy or general principle, and in systems or methods we may discover elements that we can adapt to our own needs and circumstances without swallowing the whole prescription in blind faith.

But the books which make the strongest appeal to me are those of the third part. These are written by men and women who are themselves skilled in teaching, and who have the power of conveying to others something of their own zest for the work. Among some books are Arthur Sidgwick's little volume on "Stimulus," Dr. P. B. Ballard's book on "Teaching the Essentials of Arithmetic," Sir John Adams on "Exposition and Illustration in Teaching," Miss C. B. Firth's book on "The Teaching of History," and Mr. F. W. Westaway's "Science Teaching." There are others; but if every young teacher would read these with care, whatever his own special subject might be, he would gather a great amount of good counsel, applicable to every form of teaching.

Mr. Westaway has now added to our debt to him by issuing, through Messrs. Blackie & Son, a volume bearing the title "Craftsmanship in the Teaching of Elementary Mathematics." The book costs 15s., or the price of three boxes of cheap cigarettes. At the risk of incurring the displeasure of the all-powerful tobacco combine, I urge all teachers to interrupt their smoking, if necessary, and procure

this book. It is full of wise counsel, and mingles good sense with good humour in the happiest fashion. Mr. Westaway quotes a head master as saying of one of his men: "He can take the lower form mathematics all right; he is one of my *useful* men: he took a Third in History." On this our author says that if he had his own way he would debar any teacher from taking even elementary mathematics who had not taken a strong dose of the calculus and covered a fairly extensive field of advanced work generally. In this he is surely right, for one of the most common faults in our teaching is that the teacher does know the whole route, but is content to lead pupils along part of it. We hear some complaints concerning specialist teachers, but the real trouble is not that the teacher is a specialist but that he is nothing more. Sometimes the specialist in schools is inclined to forget that his subject is not the sole preoccupation of pupils. He fails to put himself into proper perspective, and tries to create men in his own image, forgetting that a school should be for the most part a place in which there is provided an unspecialised training at the hands of specialists. The whole is greater than the part, and education is a bigger thing than teaching, just as teaching is a bigger thing than the imparting of facts.

Space does not permit of the detailed review and commendation which Mr. Westaway's book deserves, but some features must be mentioned. The early chapters on "Teachers and Methods," "Which Method," and "Suggestions to Teachers" are extremely valuable, and I am glad to note a reference to the importance of treating the first year of the teacher's practice as a kind of apprentice year. "The commonest fault of the young mathematical teacher is that he talks too much; he lectures, and, if he is teaching the Sixth form, he often uses his university notes. It takes some young teachers a long time to learn the great lesson that the thing that matters most is not what they give out but what the boys take in; that their work is teaching, not preaching." This is a passage which might be taken to heart by all young teachers—and some old ones—whatever their subject may be.

From Chapter IV onwards we have a fairly detailed and comprehensive treatment of mathematical topics as material for instruction, each chapter packed with valuable hints on teaching. Finally there is a most stimulating appendix, with three dozen acute questions for young teachers. Nobody should miss this book. SELIM MILES.

REVIEWS.

English.

ONE-ACT PLAYS OF TO-DAY (fifth series): edited by J. W. Marriott. (2s. 6d. Harrap.)

SIX MODERN PLAYS: edited by John Hampden. (1s. 3d. Nelson.)

THE WRITING OF PROSE AND VERSE IN SCHOOLS: by C. J. Brown. (2s. 6d. Macmillan.)

Mr. Marriott seems to be able to go on indefinitely with his admirable selections of one-act plays. Having already given us four volumes, he now adds a fifth, and we shall be ready to welcome as many more as he chooses to provide, for he invariably offers us excellent fare. Originally designed to meet the demand for dramatic work in schools, these volumes quickly commended themselves to the general public. The present volume is as good as any of its predecessors, and we have particularly enjoyed the contributions of F. Sladin Smith and A. J. Talbot.

In "Six Modern Plays" Mr. Hampden has made his selection with an eye to the needs of more youthful players, and his book should speedily become a favourite in the classroom.

Mr. Brown bases his teaching of English composition on literary models, and in this book he gives us a number of those which have been tested and found useful in practice. At the end of the book are a number of exercises based on these models, and in a short introduction Mr. Brown gives some useful hints on teaching methods.

Although it is for each teacher to choose his own models and prescribe his own exercises, we feel that he will be greatly helped in this by a careful study of Mr. Brown's book. He has not overloaded it with suggestions, but the few he has ventured to offer are very valuable. Mr. J. H. Fowler, himself a famous teacher of English, contributes an interesting foreword.

P. M. G.

PERSONAL NARRATIVES: edited by A. J. Merson, M.A. (2s. Harrap.)

A capital reader for schools, dealing with such subjects as early recollections, schooldays, youthful escapades, adventures, eye-witness accounts, and letters. Not one of these narratives should fail to interest the average boy. Some useful exercises on each section—and supplementary general exercises—are appended.

Well, of the making of school readers there is (apparently) no end, but this is certainly a good one.

J. W. B. A.

CAMBRIDGE READINGS IN LITERATURE: edited by George Sampson. (2s. 3d. Cambridge University Press.)

BALLADS AND BALLAD PLAYS: edited by John Hampden. (1s. 9d. Nelson.)

SHE STOOPS TO CONQUER: by Oliver Goldsmith. Edited by Guy Boas. (1s. 3d. Arnold.)

ENGLISH GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION: Parts I and II: by A. M. Webb. (2s. 3d. each part. Bell.)

"The Cambridge Readings in Literature," first published some twelve or thirteen years ago, are already widely known, and need no further notice by way of introduction. There are, however, one or two points in connection with the new edition on which a word may be said.

Each book is now issued in two parts. This allows a bolder type, while still reducing the size of the volume. While it may be true that one cannot have too much of a good thing, it is doubtless wise to serve it up in small portions. The main innovation in the new edition, however, is the introduction of notes and questions, thus bringing the books into line with school texts.

Apparently teachers cannot let well alone, for we gather from the editor's preface that the notes have been supplied in response to innumerable requests from teachers. We note with some satisfaction that the editor appears to have given way somewhat reluctantly, for he expresses a hope that the old editions, unspoiled by the lumber of the classroom, will continue to be used by those who read because they love to read.

Not only do notes and questions detract from that delight which is to be sought in reading, but to furnish them is to do for both teacher and pupil just the very things which they should do for themselves. If we really wish to find out something, we should surely be willing to take some trouble in the search. To have it meekly handed out to us deadens our curiosity and enfeebles the mind.

We share, therefore, the editor's partiality for the old volumes, and hope that they will find more and more readers, for they are probably the best collections of prose and verse which have been issued for use in schools.

"Ballads and Ballad Plays" is a collection of old rhymes and ballads, together with some suggestions for their expression as ballad mimes and plays. The suggestions for miming should prove very useful, for this is an art specially suited to children.

Mr. Boas has given us a very acceptable edition of Goldsmith's comedy, and Mr. Webb's text-books of grammar and composition provide many useful exercises.

P. M. G.

French.

FOUR CONTEMPORARY ONE-ACT FRENCH PLAYS: edited by A. F. Fite. (2s. 6d. Harrap.)

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(Continued on page 304.)

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I.—AIRCRAFT APPRENTICES.

(a) The main trades for aircraft apprentices are rigger (metal), fitter (aero-engine), wireless operator mechanic. Candidates must be between the ages of 15 and 17 years, and entry is normally by competitive examination—the subjects being English and General Knowledge, Mathematics, and Science. Two examinations are held every half-year, viz.:

OPEN COMPETITION.—Conducted by the Civil Service Commission at certain fixed centres. (Information regarding the dates, &c., of the Open Competitions may be obtained from the Secretary, Civil Service Commission, Burlington Gardens, London, W.1.)

LIMITED COMPETITION.—Conducted by the Air Ministry at local centres all over the country for candidates specially nominated by Local Education Authorities and other approved bodies. (Date of next examination, November 3, 1931.)

NOTE.—Nominated candidates in possession of an approved School Certificate, with a pass in Mathematics and a Science subject, may be accepted without further educational examination.

(b) Special regulations exist in regard to the sons of those who are or have been officers or senior N.C.O.'s in His Majesty's Forces.

(c) At the end of the apprenticeship period (three years) a few apprentices of special promise proceed to the Royal Air Force College for training as Commissioned Officers.

(d) For others, opportunities arise later to qualify in flying and become airman pilots. From amongst airman pilots a certain number with very exceptional qualifications are periodically selected for commissioned rank.

(e) The remainder have opportunities of advancement to the highest non-commissioned rank.

(f) Approximately 200 aircraft apprentices will be required for entry into the service in January, 1932.

II.—APPRENTICE CLERKS.

(a) The majority of apprentice clerks are trained as general duties clerks, but a small number specialise in pay accounting and store accounting. Thirty apprentice clerks are required quarterly in October, January, April, and July. Candidates must be between the ages of 15½ and 17 years, and may enter either by:—

DIRECT ENTRY (by interview without examination), if in possession of an approved School Certificate. Candidates will be entered by this method quarterly, in October, January, April, and July.

Or

OPEN COMPETITION, on successfully passing an examination in English and General Knowledge, and in Mathematics, conducted by the Civil Service Commission at fixed centres. (Information regarding the dates, &c., of the Open Competitions may be obtained from the Secretary, Civil Service Commission, Burlington Gardens, London, W.1.)

(b) The course of training, though mainly concerned with Service requirements, is drawn up on liberal lines, and includes instruction in shorthand, typewriting, and general office work and procedure. Throughout the apprenticeship period of two years, apprentice clerks attend school to continue their general education.

(c) After passing out, upon the completion of training, apprentice clerks have opportunities of advancement to the highest non-commissioned ranks, and paragraph 1 (d) above, relating to aircraft apprentices' prospects of selection for airman pilot (and in exceptional cases for commissioned rank), applies equally to apprentice clerks.

Full particulars are given in A.M. Pamphlet 15 (Aircraft Apprentices) and A.M. Pamphlet 9 (Apprentice Clerks), which may be had on application to the Secretary, Air Ministry (A.E.), Gwydyr House, Whitehall, S.W.1.

vincial life. They are suitably edited for school reading, and furnished with a neat and competent introduction on contemporary French drama, and the usual notes, exercises, and vocabulary. A pleasant little volume from America, to add to the growing number of school editions of modern authors.

A. B. G.

INTRODUCTION TO FRENCH CLASSICISM: by H. Caudwell. (6s. net. Macmillan.)

The author has set out to explain to the entirely uninitiated the aims and mental attitude of the French classical authors. In this he has succeeded in a very fair measure. A certain amount of repetition and over-emphasis of obvious axioms (e.g., "Human nature and human emotions are constant") is not out of place in a school text-book. Some important omissions are more disturbing. Mme de La Fayette is not mentioned in the otherwise excellent essay on the Salons and the Novel; no reference is made to the extraordinary influence of Cartesian philosophy; Pascal, the greatest mind of the age, and one of the greatest artists, is only casually mentioned; and the Classical Age appears to end with La Bruyère, the eighteenth century being dismissed with a contemptuous phrase ("following the letter of the laws, but unable to attain the spirit") which does not read like a personal judgment, and is certainly only justified when applied to the poetical drama—*et encore*. A more important weakness is the absence of any apparent appreciation of the *language*, apart from the ideas expressed. "Britannicus" is surely more than a masterpiece of psychological analysis and a well-constructed play; it is, before all, a *poem*, and if the music of the words means nothing, let us cease to learn French, and read Racine and La Fontaine in translation: but we shall certainly find them "colossally dull."

In spite of these reserves, however, the book contains many excellent things. It is really a collection of essays on most of the outstanding authors, and makes a sincere and often successful attempt to clear away preconceived notions about the age of Louis XIV, and to show what these writers really stood for. There is plenty of room for spade work of this sort in English schools, where taste is so often vitiated by a too exclusive "Bardolatry."

A. B. G.

A MANUAL OF FRENCH PRACTICE: by Frank A. Hedgcock. (2s. 6d. Bell.)

The full title is "A Manual of French Practice in Comprehension, Reproduction, Conversation, Free Composition, and Translation into English." By giving all one's time to the study of this book, all these necessary branches of French study would be covered in a most business-like way. The preface outlines the method, which is, briefly, to take a short piece of prose, read, discuss, reproduce first

with the aid of a skeleton key, and finally memorise it and use it as a basis for free composition on a similar subject. Thirty suitable pieces are given, with questions, notes, and skeletons. Pieces for translation into French are also given for examination practice. An excellent book, especially for people with plenty of time. Others will get the best out of it by attempting less than the whole overwhelming programme.

A. B. G.

ANDRÉ MAUROIS: MORCEAUX CHOISIS: edited by E. G. Le Grand. (3s. 6d. Cambridge University Press.)

André Maurois is undoubtedly one of the few French authors who appeal both to the many and to the few. The present volume gives selections from most of his works, except the "Colonel Bramble" series, parts of which have already appeared in English school editions. M. Maurois himself has contributed a brief preface, in which he discusses his aims and methods. The pieces are short, and will undoubtedly encourage pupils to seek complete editions of such works as "Disraeli," "Ariel," and "Byron." The introduction gives a few biographical facts and criticisms of the works chosen. The notes rather tend to explain the obvious. It might be more useful to tell students the meaning of *professeur de rhétorique*, for instance, and assume that they know Kitchener, Allah, Ruskin, and even Whistler and Debussy. *Cependant*, in the note on Montaigne, page 134, is surely a misprint.

A. B. G.

FRENCH WITH A SMILE: by Phyllis J. B. Neilson. (1s. 6d. Nelson.)

Intended as a preliminary to "Nelson's First French Reader" in the same series, this pleasant little book will be found equally suitable for the nursery or the preparatory schoolroom. To say that it justifies the comparison hinted at in the title is sufficient recommendation. The present tense only is used. The illustrations, by Marcel Jeanjean, give the book quite the appropriate air of cheerfulness.

A. B. G.

History.

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THE EDUCATION OUTLOOK

OCTOBER, 1931.

THE NEW CRISIS.

The Report of Sir George May's Committee, on which we offered comments last month, has borne speedy and unwelcome fruit. With much hurrying to and fro and many signs of panic, our rulers and governors were replaced by a National Cabinet, representing all parties and formed for the avowed purpose of balancing a Budget which threatened to fall down on the expenditure side. We were warned in grave tones that the country was sliding rapidly to the edge of a precipice, that instant and drastic measures were called for, and, above all, that the gold standard must be maintained. This last requirement was not met, but the warnings served the purpose of enabling the new Cabinet to carry through a number of economy proposals based for the most part on the May Report, and involving severe cuts in social services, including education. Apart from reductions in unemployment payments, the heaviest single item of economy is educational expenditure, from which 10·7 millions is deducted, over six millions being taken from the salaries bill. It has been stated that an addition of one penny per pint to the proposed tax on beer would have secured the ten millions to be taken from education.

The threat to the schools is serious from every point of view. The salaries of teachers are to be reduced as from October 1st, without regard to existing contracts of service, and on the false pretext that teachers are overpaid, having regard to living costs. The May Committee affirmed this, ignoring the plain truth that the original Burnham Scales were drawn up with deliberate and agreed disregard to the cost of living index. They were designed to be standard rates, replacing the admittedly inadequate pre-war rates which were failing to attract recruits. These standard rates were never paid in full and the nominal amounts have been reduced by some 12 per cent. during the past nine years. It is now held that they must be reduced still further. This means that with an increased income tax and the all-round increase in living costs the teacher's salary may be little better in purchasing power than it was in 1914.

It should be known that the teachers have no desire to evade any rightful national demand. What they resented was the original proposal that their salaries should be reduced by 15 per cent., a figure going beyond "equality of sacrifice." They are gravely disturbed by the wanton attack on every form of educational work from primary school to university. Apart from any question of personal hardship they feel that the country's future prosperity depends on the provision of better educational facilities. How otherwise can we hope to rival the nations which are striving to compete with us in foreign trade? The many committees that have drawn up reports on our industrial and commercial needs have stressed the importance of education, but apparently our Governments prefer to pay unemployment funds to adults and to let children work when they should be under instruction. It would have been far wiser to have enforced the Fisher scheme of day continuation schools, and to have carried through the more recent plans of the Hadow Report.

These methods of attacking the unemployment problem would have cost money, but they would have brought an immediate saving in the "dole" and an ultimate return far outweighing their cost. Instead of taking the long view we are now attacking education in a vital spot by discouraging teachers now at work and by discouraging future entrants. The improvement in salaries has been accompanied by a great advance in efficiency, and for a brief period our teachers have been able to carry on their work without being unduly harassed by private cares. They have responded to the new demands made upon the schools, and everybody who knows the facts is ready to admit the great improvement that has resulted from the new spirit. We are now in danger of being thrust back to the old conditions, and a fresh start will be impossible for years to come if we are compelled to lower the standard of recruiting among teachers and to arrest the progress in school building and equipment.

What we need is a systematic and energetic crusade on behalf of education, aimed at convincing our people in general and our governments in particular that schools and universities are the first line of defence in a modern community, and that education is not a luxury to be curtailed in times of financial peril, but an instrument for national restoration.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS.

FROM A CORRESPONDENT.

The Tax on Education.

The proposal to reduce expenditure on education by upwards of £10,000,000, involving a severe reduction in the Salaries Bill, came at the worst possible time from the point of view of those who are concerned to defend the schools and their work. Universities have not yet assembled for the Autumn Term, and the public and secondary schools were still on vacation when the blow fell.

All this has made it difficult to organise any expression of opinion on a general basis, but different organisations of teachers went to work in their several ways with the object of bringing home to the Government and to the public the nature and probable result of the economy proposals. These appear to have been framed in close harmony with the terms of the May Report, a document which was ill-informed in regard to education, and seemed to be inspired by the determination to limit the service as far as possible. The protests made by the teachers have for the most part recognised that they, as a body, cannot expect to be sheltered at a time when a special demand is being made on all citizens, but it has been pointed out that the demand made on teachers is contrary to the principle of "equality of sacrifice" enunciated by the Prime Minister and his colleagues.

As for the attitude of the Registration Council, acting as the Executive of the Royal Society of Teachers, it is hardly necessary to say that they are opposed entirely to the recurrent attacks on education which have been made from time to time in the name of economy. They cannot, however, usurp the function of associations of teachers which have to safeguard the financial interests of their members. The place of the Council is not that of a sectional organisation, but of a body which must find the highest common measure of opinion among all qualified teachers, and set forth their views in the most convincing manner possible. Behind this economy campaign is the widespread public ignorance of modern education and its possibilities. During the Geddes campaign some years ago the Council carried out a sustained and successful effort by means of letters and articles in the press with the aim of bringing home to the public the importance of treating schools as a principal factor in building up national life and prosperity. This effort will have to be resumed, and it is possible that a special conference of representatives of the universities and of the associations of teachers will be summoned to discuss the lines of action.

Salaries and Status.

In all ranks of English life there are many people who regard teachers as fortunate because they are thought to have short hours of work, long holidays, assured salaries, and little or no risk of being thrown out of employment. Yet it is to be noted that in normal times the Board of Education and the Local Authorities have not always found it easy to obtain recruits despite the attractions of teaching. These attractions are not, of course, so great as is supposed. Few teachers find it possible to confine their work to school hours, and many spent a part of their holidays in attending courses of study. It is true that there is little risk of unemployment, and that the salaries, however meagre in amount, are paid regularly. What is difficult to understand is the low esteem in which the ordinary man seems to hold teachers as a body. He appears to regard the calling as one which calls for few of the qualities demanded, say, in business or industry. Perhaps the chief drawback is to be found in the absence of any great number of positions in the teaching service such as are known colloquially as "plums." We are told that the stipends of the clergy are lamentably low, but every curate may dream of becoming a bishop or even an archbishop. Similarly, of the barristers it has been said that many are called but few chosen, but every young barrister can think of himself as a possible occupant of the Bench. A young teacher, on the other hand, who begins work in a public elementary school has to learn that the highest point of his professional achievement will be a head mastership, bringing less than £12 a week. The newly qualified member of a secondary school staff may look forward to somewhat higher remuneration, but he has also to remember that headships are few and difficult to obtain. As a public service, teaching has always suffered from this absence of outstanding and well-paid positions.

Another cause is to be found in the old practice of recruiting teachers for public elementary schools directly from the pupils of those schools, thereby placing them in a special category, and making of them almost a separate body, instead of making them part of one teaching profession. We have never sought to train a corps of panel doctors, limiting their preparation to the supposed needs of working class patients, but for many years we were engaged in recruiting and training elementary school teachers on the assumption that the children of working people required a special kind of instruction more limited than that provided for children of the middle and upper classes.

THE MONTH'S CAUSERIE.

By THE DOMINIE.

The Crisis.

Teachers returned from their holidays to find themselves involved in yet another "crisis" on salaries. It is true that this latest upheaval concerns not only teachers but the whole population. Teachers were especially concerned because the Government displayed a most disquieting alacrity in placing exceptional burdens on the educational service. Grants are to be reduced in almost every department, and it was proposed to reduce the salaries bill by 15 per cent. as from October 1. No regard was paid to existing contracts of service, or to the fact that large numbers of teachers are deeply committed to forms of expenditure which cannot possibly be curtailed without notice. Many have been compelled to buy their houses, as there were none to be had on rental. Many have placed their children at schools from which they cannot be withdrawn without a term's notice. The proposed "cut" of 15 per cent. compared ill with that of 10 per cent. in the salary of a Member of Parliament. These circumstances, added to the fact that the original Burnham Scales have already been whittled down by nearly 12 per cent., brought about a widespread feeling of resentment.

The Cabinet Mised.

It was evident that the Government had accepted the misleading statements and conclusions of the May Committee. This body showed in their Report an almost complete failure to grasp the truth concerning salaries. They were evidently obsessed with the false notion that the Burnham Scales were drawn up with regard to the cost of living, whereas it is on record that they were intended to indicate the rates of remuneration appropriate in normal times. Had it been otherwise, the original scales would have been higher than they were. It is impossible to believe that the Burnham Committees were accepting as basic the meagre salaries paid before and during the war. What they did was to find a new and more adequate basis, to be adopted and applied without reference to the cost of living, save that there were to be increases if this cost went up. The position differed entirely from that of the Civil Service, for it was assumed, rightly or wrongly, that their pre-war basis was adequate, and, moreover, they had been receiving a war bonus for years. In spite of these facts the Government seemed to think that the salaries of teachers must come down because living costs had decreased.

Cost of Living.

Outside the Cabinet everybody knows that the Board of Trade index of the cost of living has little bearing on the household expenses of those who earn more than £3 a week. The index was drawn up more than twenty years ago, and it assumes that 60 per cent. of the salary will be spent on food. There is no allowance for mortgage payments, for insurance premiums, for school fees, or for many other of the forms of expenditure which are common in middle-class households. It was thus unfair for the May Committee and the Chancellor of the Exchequer to suggest that the salaries of teachers should be related to the Board of Trade index. They ought properly to be governed by our need for well-qualified recruits, and for ensuring that teachers are able to live in modest comfort with reasonable facilities for intellectual and social experiences, such as will help them in their work. The teacher who expects to live on a lavish scale will be disappointed, but it is necessary that teachers should be able to temper frugality by culture, and be free from financial stress, save such as the individual may bring on himself.

Protesting too Much.

The agitation on salaries had some features which I regard as unfortunate. While making every allowance for the natural resentment at finding education the target of a special attack, I regretted the tone of certain demonstrations, and especially the declaration by some teachers that they would refrain from helping their pupils in activities connected with sports, &c., outside school. It would have been wise to remember that everybody was threatened with increased taxation and loss of salary. The hardship was not confined to teachers, and I heard many harsh criticisms of teachers as a body made by ordinary citizens who are not unsympathetic towards education. Their complaint was that the teachers seemed to think themselves the only sufferers, and that it was not showing a professional spirit to visit their grievances upon the boys and girls. I pointed out that this latter course was probably adopted as a means of gaining publicity for the grievances, but I feel convinced that the device alienated sympathy, and I hope that it will not be put to serious use. A profession cannot well adopt the methods of a trade union. A mechanic may "down tools" without doing much permanent harm, but doctors cannot "down scalpels."

Subsidies.

One of the points made by the May Committee had reference to fees paid by middle-class parents. It was suggested that such parents paid for the education of their children. This is true only of those who are sent to private schools. Endowed schools and grant-aided secondary schools provide instruction at less than cost price. The same is true of our universities. Recently Dr. G. Arbour Stephens told a Swansea audience that in the secondary schools of the town every pupil costs £24, and that even those who pay fees for their sons at the Grammar School are not paying half the full cost. Each boy receives aid to the extent of at least £14 a year. In the University of Wales, he said, the students pay a fee of £15 for the session but the cost of tuition is £60, so that every student receives a scholarship or bursary of at least £45 a year. The figures for England are probably smaller, but they are large enough to make absurd the suggestion of the May Committee. They serve also to strengthen the case for abandoning the practice of giving special subsidies to young people who declare their intention of becoming teachers. There is no legal obligation on the recipients, but too often the fact that they receive special grants is made a pretext for regarding them as a kind of pauper element in a university.

Fees in Secondary Schools.

One of our newspapers prints a letter from "Paterfamilias" who urges that the fees in preparatory and public schools should be reduced. He says that depression in trade, with reduced income and heavier taxation, make it difficult for parents to find the money. He suggests that as the cost of living has fallen the fees ought to come down. It is probable that the cost of living will rise again ere long now that we have left the Gold Standard, but even if it does not the parents should remember that the cost of food is only one item in the expense of running a school. Salaries are about to be reduced and school proprietors and housemasters have to meet the new tax demands. Trade depression hits all preparatory and public schools to some extent, since it tends to reduce the number of pupils. In grant-aided secondary schools the fees cannot be reduced in view of the economies imposed by the Board. In one such school the grant falls by £400 or more, apart from the salary reductions. If this school is to maintain its standard of efficiency the fees will be raised and not lowered. Possibly some boys will be removed if fees are raised, but the overhead charges cannot be reduced in proportion, and the difficulties of the school will be further increased. Uneconomical practice will be enforced for reasons of economy.

Michael Faraday.

The centenary celebrations in memory of Faraday's greatest achievement have been marked by a failure to remind the public that his genius might never have found release if his mother had not been resolved to give him a better education than was usually received in those days by sons of working people. She might have yielded to the temptation to set him to wage-earning as a child. As it was she had him taught to read, write, and cipher, and when he became a bookbinder's apprentice he was able to begin the reading of scientific books and so fit himself to become an assistant to Sir Humphry Davy. It may well be that if Faraday's mother had been bent on economising in education we should have waited for years before finding another genius to discover the principle of the dynamo and so make possible the vast electrical enterprises of today. The capital value of these undertakings throughout the world exceeds by many times the world's outlay on education since Adam. Somewhere in our schools there may be other Faradays, coming from humble homes, but having in them the spark of genius. But the May Committee will reproach us if the education given to the child of poor parents is superior to that which the middle-class parent provides for his own child.

Graham of Leeds.

Death and retirement are removing the first line of our local education officials—those who had the difficult task of putting into operation the Education Act of 1902. Among them were such men as Blair of London, Bolton King of Warwickshire, Graham Balfour of Staffordshire, Brockington of Leicestershire, Salter Davies of Kent, Gott of Middlesex, and Snape of Lancashire. Some of these are still at work. In the cities we still have Percival Sharp, now of Sheffield, but Spurley Hey, of Manchester, died last year. Now comes the news of the sudden death of Dr. Graham, of Leeds, one of the most forceful and shrewd of the pioneers, a man who vexed some people greatly but won the regard of those most closely associated with him in his work. Nobody had a better knowledge of educational finance or a stronger determination to maintain the freedom of local authorities. He was a great figure in the Association of Education Committees and in the Association of Municipal Corporations. In Leeds his monument will be found in Beckett Park, where he established one of the largest training colleges in the country. But it was not in Leeds alone that his influence was felt. He took an active part in national questions, and at the time of his death he was engaged in pressing for a revision of the Burnham Scales with the object of levelling out inequalities between different areas.

NOTES ON AMERICAN EDUCATION.

BY KATHLEEN D. MACRAE, B.A., B.Sc. (Econ.).

II. Continuation Schools.

Just at the time when the Day Continuation Schools of the Fisher Act were coming to a somewhat inglorious end in England, the American States were making part-time attendance at school compulsory for boys and girls in industry, and from that time continuation schools have been an accepted part of the American educational system. Industrial problems in America are very like our own, and it is therefore interesting to see how difficulties which appeared to us insurmountable have been overcome there, apparently with so much success.

There is no one federal policy for education in America, and every State has complete autonomy to make its own provisions. The age for compulsory attendance at continuation school differs in various States: in New York and Massachusetts attendance is required till seventeen, while Wisconsin makes eighteen the leaving age. Similarly some States require four hours or half a day a week, while others demand the full eight-hour day. Whether the day or half day is the rule, the time is equally apportioned between some kind of manual or vocational training and cultural subjects.

The great asset of American education is the national gift for organisation, and nowhere is this better shown than in the enormous institutions which provide this continuative education. Outstanding examples in size are the East Side Continuation School in New York, numbering some 12,000, and the Milwaukee Vocational School, with 20,000 day students, and another 10,000 on the evening registers.

Apart from numbers, one has to remember that many of our own difficulties are greater in America. There is the racial question. I found that a class of thirty-six commonly included as many as ten or even fifteen nationalities, and to many English is a foreign language which they never hear spoken at home. And this cosmopolitan population is constantly shifting, for the immigrant from Southern Europe will naturally think little of drifting from city to city to try his luck. Above all is the colour question, and the growing demand of the coloured population for instruction in skilled trades, while the tendency of the white races and the demand of industry would restrict them to menial types of work. So with the inestimable advantage of having money to spend on educational experiments, America has great difficulties to overcome.

The arrangement of work in an American continuation school provides that the allotted time shall be equally divided between practical and academic subjects. So far as the general cultural work goes,

it seems to the English visitor that they do not attain a very high level. But as English to many of them is a foreign language with which they are none too familiar, the Americans as a nation are not great readers. Indeed, I was often told that few American boys and girls will ever read a book except under compulsion. Now the main function of non-vocational work in a continuation school should be to foster a wise choice in private reading, and it makes things difficult when what should be enjoyable recreation recalls such unpleasant memories as some of us may have of Latin prose!

But if incentive is lacking in cultural subjects, there is no lack of incentive to practical work. The normal continuation school is marvellously equipped, and has facilities for teaching all the leading trades for boys and girls in the city, comprising at least printing, plumbing, electricity, machine work, and cabinet making for boys, and dressmaking, millinery, salesmanship, machining, housewifery, and cafeteria training for girls, with a commercial course for both sexes.

The purpose of the vocational work differs in different schools. Sometimes, as in the Winchell School in Chicago, the girls are encouraged to take some occupation at school other than the one they follow during the rest of the week. The school day is thus regarded as a relaxation, and in this particular instance I was struck with the regard felt by the girls for their school. They pay a cent a week club money, which is spent upon pictures, curtains, and flowers, and the result is a very delightful home atmosphere.

In other schools there is a more utilitarian atmosphere, and the practical work is regarded as a means of learning a new trade for some who are not happy in their present work, or as giving a chance of definite training to those who have had to leave school early. Critics of the continuation school system maintain that very little of use can be learnt in two or even four hours a week. On the other hand, the school statistics show that a large number of boys and girls are placed in work for which the school has trained them.

What really matters is not so much the knowledge gained as the close hold of the school over these young people in industry during the critical years of adolescence. The Boston Continuation School provides an admirable example. Boston claims to be the originator of the continuation school system in America. It is past the experimental stage, and is building up a tradition in continuative education. Their present continuation school is a new building

accommodating some 4,000 boys and girls between the ages of fourteen and sixteen, who attend for four hours a week. Unemployed young people between these ages are in full-time attendance. Practical training for boys is given in electricity, printing, automotives, cabinet making, and office work, and for girls in dressmaking, machining, millinery, and commercial work. I do not think that their practical results are anything out of the ordinary, but what did impress me is the hold of the school over its pupils. Every boy and girl is visited at home and at work by the class teacher, and every effort is made to see that they are in congenial employment. At intervals forms are sent out to the employer asking whether he considers the school training is helping the boy, while the student himself similarly reports as to how he finds his school work helpful, and whether he has any difficulties in his job he would like the school to help with. In this way the school is kept constantly up to date with the demands of industry. I asked whether the employers ever resented this interference, and if they did actually fill in the forms sent, but was told most emphatically that in almost every case they were willing to co-operate, and acknowledged their indebtedness to the school. Nearly every school has its own employment bureau, where efforts are made to fit the job to the boy, and these bureaus will continue to cater for past pupils up to the age of twenty-one.

Whatever the strictly educational value of the continuation schools, the advantages of forging this link between school and industry cannot be over-estimated. When one thinks of the number of children in our own country who drift into some employment, perhaps through answering a newspaper advertisement, with only their own ill-formed judgments to tell them whether they are doing suitable work under suitable conditions, the mere fact that continuation schools could at least exercise a wise control should be enough to justify their reintroduction, apart from any educational grounds.

It remains to get the confidence of the employers, and to make them realise that the continuation school is the best way to reduce their colossal waste of labour turnover, and that such confidence is possible on the part of the employers and not betrayed by the schools, the American continuation schools abundantly show.

School Lectures.

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SINIM WRANGLERS.

By P. J. DOHERTY.

The Professor who denounced "a Chinese system of examinations" was doubtless thinking of the traditional method of education in the Yellow Kingdom, when the passing of examinations was a life-work, and each student devoted his days and nights to memorising thousands of characters. That system was abolished in 1905, and modern Chinese universities are as abreast of scientific education as any Western contemporary.

The old style derived from Confucius, who was a great editor and teacher as well as sage. Since it remained in force for two thousand years it is not surprising that it became proverbial. Men devoted themselves to passing from one grade to another. The example is commended of one scholar who attained the prime rank at the ripe age of eighty-two! Sometimes grandfather, son, and grandson all sat for the same examination.

The industry was worth while, for these examinations were not unlike our Civil Service examinations in that high officials of the State were recruited from the successful candidates. They were free also from class bar; "civil and military offices are not hereditary," as one of the text-books says. Another couplet encourages the aspirant:

"In the morning I was a humble cottager;
In the evening I entered the court of the Son
of Heaven" (the Emperor).

The way was long. After qualifying, the student sat for his first degree examination. Penned into a small bare cell, he was set to write essays in prose and verse on subjects from the famous four books. One slip of the brush over a character during this ordeal of eighteen to twenty-four hours and he lost his chance. If he was among the successful five in a hundred entrants, his name was enrolled among the Flower of Talent, and he earned the right to erect a flagstaff before his door. More important, he became eligible for the second degree.

The subjects for this were the still more famous Five Classics. Again the competitor wrote essay after essay, pouring into each a wealth of commentary and thought. He sat, one of 30,000 graduates, in the examination cells of the provincial capital, hoping to get among the 300 Exalted Men. The rewards were the right to a gilded button on the cap, two flagstuffs, and an official banquet. Only when he had passed the still higher examination held at Peking, the capital, did he become a Finished Scholar. Then followed an introduction to the Emperor, and an appointment as a mandarin.

To attain this, scholars tied their books to the plough while they worked, or studied by the light of glow-worms if they were too poor to buy a lamp.

THE CHOICE OF TEXT-BOOKS

With Special Reference to School Reorganization

BY R. D. MORSS

By kind permission of the author, who directs a well-known firm of educational publishers, we print the following paper which was read before the Lindsey County Teachers' Association at a Refresher Course held in July. We believe that, although addressed to elementary school teachers, the views expressed deserve careful consideration from all teachers and others concerned with education.—(EDITOR, "Education Outlook.")

Reorganization Problems

There are few elementary school teachers who are not more or less actively concerned with the problems of teaching and curriculum making, arising out of the school reorganization which has come about as a result of the Hadow Report. In an increasing number of areas there are now schools wherein are gathered pupils between seven and eleven years of age, and other schools containing pupils of eleven to fourteen. It is commonly remarked that in such areas the schools have been "reorganized." But reorganization, as the active teacher responsible for the work of a school or a class is only too well aware, goes far deeper than these outward evidences of rearrangement within age limits. The real work of reorganization has only begun. That work falls on the teachers. All over the country, therefore, every activity in the schools is now being weighed and revalued. The relative merits of one subject as against another are being reconsidered. The actual matter we have taught is being examined, its organization for teaching purposes—and particularly the methods and techniques by means of which subject matter may be made real to the child—are being scrutinized.

Closely associated with these curriculum problems, and, in fact, an integral part of them, is the question of text-books that will meet what are conceived to be the conditions after the schools have been reorganized in fact as well as in form. The question of the text-book and the question of reorganization are inseparable. Regardless, therefore, of whether one is primarily concerned with the reorganization of the curriculum, or with the writing or publishing of text-books, it is essential to consider the conditions which

have given rise to this general reorganization movement.

There has been a growing body of opinion, especially since the war, that the objects, aims and practices of elementary school education needed reconsideration in the light of changing social conditions. This opinion found expression in the three reports of the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education: (1) *The Education of the Adolescent* (familiarily spoken of as the Hadow Report); (2) The report on *Books in Public Elementary Schools*; and (3) The report issued a few months ago on *The Primary School*.

It may reasonably be assumed that these reports reflect intelligent opinion as to the present and future needs of the elementary school.

New Conditions demand New Text-books

To the teacher, and to the student of educational method, the recommendations put forward in these reports are a distinct challenge, and an invitation to bring the child's experiences into fuller harmony with his life during and after his school career.

Before considering these recommendations, it may be well to define the function of the text-book. It should be clearly understood in what follows that the text-book is regarded as a tool—an important tool, to be sure, but a tool which depends for its efficient handling entirely on the teacher. True, the mature student may go direct to his text-book; but the present discussion is concerned with the adolescent, and although one may be in full agreement with much that is recommended by the advocates of individual methods, one must yet realize that self-learning is not

wholly practicable for children in the habit-forming stage, and that text-books can never take the place of the efficient and enthusiastic teacher. Let us turn back to the main problem, and in the light of the recommendations of the Consultative Committee, consider what these new text-books should be like.

Three points essential for the curriculum maker and the text-book maker are suggested in the terms of reference submitted by the Board of Education to its Consultative Committee which brought forth the Hadow Report. These terms of reference urge that thought be given: (1) To the requirements of a good general education; (2) To the needs of children of varying tastes and abilities (in so far as is practicable); and (3) To the probable occupations of the pupils in commerce, industry and agriculture. To these three points a fourth must be added. It is at the very basis of the new problem, for on it the consideration of the three previous points depends. New text-books, like new curricula, must take full cognisance of the break at "eleven plus" years of age.

With regard to the first point—the requirements of a good general education—it may be argued with truth that for years the chief aim of elementary education has been to give a good general education. The fact, however, that this point is made and is much discussed in the Hadow Report suggests that the commonly accepted view as to what constitutes a good general education may need modification.

The second point—the needs of children of varying tastes and abilities—draws attention to a lack in the present school organization. Not only inelastic syllabuses and limited vision are to blame. Large classes, insufficient accommodation, and poverty of equipment have combined to render the teacher's task well-nigh impossible in this respect.

The third point—that education should consider the probable occupations of the pupils in commerce, industry and agriculture—suggests a great possibility and a great danger. It is frankly a utilitarian suggestion. It could be interpreted as meaning that our schools should assume something of the function of the old apprenticeship system. If, however, it is interpreted in that light, it may come into conflict with the first point—the requirements of a good general education. What the authors of this suggestion intended to imply was, no doubt, that education should be related to the workaday world, and not to the more abstract world of the academic specialist.

Then for the fourth point—new books must, like new curricula, take full cognisance of the break at eleven plus years of age. In other words, instead of being continuous courses running from the old Standard One to Standard Ex-Seven or Eight, they must be

organized to meet the requirements of a four years' course in the junior (or primary) school, followed by a three years' course—let us hope it will soon be a four years' course—in the senior or modern school.

The New Objective

Bearing on these four points, the remarks of the Consultative Committee on the question of the curriculum and text-books are highly important. In their report on the Primary School, they suggest that "the curriculum of that school be considered in terms of activity and experience and not merely in terms of knowledge to be acquired and facts to be stored." If the word "text-book" is substituted for "curriculum," this comment seems to suggest that something different from current books will be needed in the new schools if the teacher is to have all the help possible in quickening the curriculum with the new life and spirit envisaged in the Report.

Again, it is suggested that the junior period be regarded as a preliminary period—a unit in itself. It is to be a period for the gaining of experiences, and for the laying down of broad, human foundations; a period for activity, for *doing* things and not merely learning about them. Furthermore, it must be a time for the formation of right habits and attitudes towards learning, for without such attitudes and habits as foundations, the senior school superstructure will come tumbling to the ground.

Now if the junior school is considered on these broad lines, it is obvious that present series of books in arithmetic, geography, history and so forth, are not the ideal instruments for dealing with the new situation. These books—even the best of them—tend, as a rule, to unfold a gradually and logically developed course extending over a period of seven or eight years. They meet the requirements of courses organized more or less from the point of view of what savants in any one subject think all boys and girls ought to know about that particular subject.

The Primary School Report urges a broader standpoint—one which regards the acquisition of experiences, and the consequent opportunities for thought and action in combination, as the goal towards which the primary school should set its face. The difference between the old Standards One to Four in the elementary system, and the new Standards One to Four in the primary school, is to be essentially one of *function*. While the emphasis in the past has been placed largely on learning facts as a preliminary foundation for later work, the emphasis in the future will be directed towards the building up of experiences through which knowledge of facts is acquired and the manifold uses of this knowledge come to be appreciated. Here is

a new problem for the makers of curricula and text-books.

Again, as regards the senior school, there are repeated recommendations in the Hadow Report that the treatment of subjects should be "practical in the broadest sense, and directly and obviously brought into relation with the facts of everyday experience," that the senior school should "aim at linking up the school work with the social and industrial environment of the pupils." And so current opinion could be quoted at length, tending to the view that in future both the junior and senior school should be regarded less as places where academic knowledge is dispensed, and more as communities wherein each member is given a preparation for life.

Recommendations such as these need not—as some people fear—imply, or result in, a letting-down of standards. Standards may eventually be raised. For if the angle of approach to subject matter is consistently governed by considerations of the child's real interests and experiences, a greater acquisition of knowledge may well follow. Facts and informational material gained in this way will be thoroughly assimilated, and will thus become an integral part of the child's experience. In the last analysis, new curricula and new books will not in themselves be sufficient to bring about the new, bigger and broader conception of education for life which is aimed at. The crux of the matter will be the teacher and the skill with which he selects and develops his new material, so that the child acquires it in a useful and usable form—for only by using it will he know it thoroughly and make it his own. It would seem, therefore, that not only are new types of text-books required to meet the broader outlook of the reorganized curricula, but that new techniques and practices on the part of the teacher will be necessary if these books are to be fully effective. Now, what are these new books to be like; and how are we and our pupils to use them?

It should be remembered that these new text-books must satisfy the following conditions. They must—

1. Contribute towards a good general education, which shall aim primarily at fitting the child to take his place as an intelligent member of the community, rather than at preparing him for further academic experience;
2. Be adaptable for use with children of varying tastes and abilities, i.e., in so far as possible;
3. Serve the function less of dispensers of knowledge and emphasize more the training of pupils in the use of mind and hands; and
4. Meet the requirements of pupils grouped on the age basis (N.B.—not intellectual basis) of seven to eleven, and eleven to fourteen or fifteen.

Function of the Text-book

It is more or less obvious that most current text-books, in common with present courses of study, hardly meet the new objectives. Teachers who are already experiencing the difficulties of planning new courses of study are realizing that progress will take time. Just as teachers must devise and experiment with new curricula, so must writers of text-books devise new techniques and methods of presentation. While in the past it may have been sufficient for the writer to know his subject and present it logically, in the future that will not be enough. As well as his subject, he must know children, their interests and capacities at various stages of development.

Before going further in the matter, it is necessary to define what is meant by the word "text-book." It is a loosely used term. Its formal dictionary meaning is "manual of instruction," and "standard book in a branch of study." There will be little place for such books in the junior and senior school. For the purpose of the present argument the word "text-book" is intended to imply any book or series of books designed as "an introduction to a subject or field of experience," wherein the attempt is made to provide a gradual development of subject matter so organized that the reader for whose use it is intended can gradually acquire new experiences and further knowledge from it. Logical in development many of the older books may have been, but for the new books that will not be enough; there must also be a sound psychological element in their make-up.

The word "introduction" is used in connection with the new text-books because, as the new objective is to prepare the pupil for life itself, the limit of his interests is the limit of the problem. Any series of books can obviously make only a beginning or, as the Hadow Report puts it, "sound teaching, it is recognized, must be based upon the pupil's interests, and these, though they may in time reach out to the ends of the world, begin at home in the attraction and challenge of things around him." In other words, the present discussion of the text-book is confined to those books which gradually unfold a subject for the pupil, and which reflect in their construction the combined skill of the scholar who knows his subject thoroughly, and of the expert wise in the workings of the child mind, and familiar, from practical experience, with his interests and capacities.

If this basis is accepted as a starting-point, it is obvious that no text-book can be written so that in all respects it begins "at home" for every child in our complex civilization, with its wide variety of conditions. Followed to its logical conclusion, this would

imply a different text-book for every community, even for every child. As far as the text-book is concerned, such an idea is impracticable. Here is a situation which only the teacher can handle. He must be the connecting-link. He must develop, and if necessary arouse, interest in the pupil's immediate environment, and from this starting-point lead him on to the wider, less immediate, but no less interesting aspects of the subjects with which the text-book deals. As a recent writer on the teaching of history in school puts it, "It is not possible in a general series to make full use of local conditions; to the teacher belongs the pleasure of saying, 'and they built the bridge in the village.'" Immediately—supposing it is the Romans who are being discussed—they become *real* people, and as real people their activities can be followed further afield with an interest and understanding that would never have been possible had the beginning been made, as some of us used to make it, at the other end.

The teacher, then, must make the contact between the child's experiences and the text-book. How, under these conditions, can the text-books be of the greatest assistance at the beginning stages? The answer is probably to be found in a text-book which introduces its subject by means of a limited amount of carefully considered material which experience has shown is likely to come within the knowledge and interests of most children. Teachers using the book will then be able to select, from the storehouse of the child's immediate interests, those which best serve the purpose of connecting-links between him and the new interests and experiences which the text-book is going to help him to acquire. The extent to which the teacher can make these connecting-links will depend, in no small measure, upon the skill of that other teacher who has written the book.

With "the world so full of a number of things" we cannot encompass them all—not even all those things which a child at any given stage is capable of understanding and appreciating. Next, then, to the skill with which the text-book writer makes it possible for the teacher to establish initial contacts between the child and the text-book, will come the question of his selection and organization of matter. Answers must be sought to questions such as the following:—

1. Does the selection provide a fair, well-balanced introduction to the subject?
2. Is the development logical and well graded?
3. Can the material in the text-book be linked at every stage with the child's growing capacities and interests?

If so, it will probably satisfy a fourth qualification, that of providing the child with opportunities for using his new knowledge at each stage in its progress, and

thus making it his own. The text-book which in future fails to provide plenty of opportunity for practical intellectual activity will fail in its purpose.

How to choose Text-books

Now, how is the teacher going to know these more or less ideal books when he sees them, and how is he going to know whether or not they will do the work for which they are intended? The answer to the second part of the question is that probably there is no sure way of knowing definitely until the books have been tried in the classroom and teachers have developed new methods and techniques for handling them. The answer to the first part of the question is far easier. Let the author or editor answer it. He has usually written a preface or introduction for that express purpose. It is his justification or apology for inflicting another book on a public groaning under the weight of those already published. In the introduction one should be able to discover on what principles the author has relied, and if he has an exact conception of the probable reaction of the pupil to his book. The introduction should indicate, clearly and fully, the point of view behind the book. Authors who have sound constructive points of view are usually not averse from stating them. Even though a text-book contains attractive features, it will in all probability fail to do its work if there be not a well-considered plan behind it. Unless in one way or another the teacher discovers that plan and uses the book in harmony with it, he and the book may be working at cross-purposes. Then the book may be a hindrance rather than a help. Text-books should fit reasonably well even though they cannot be made to order for every user.

To urge so strongly the reading of the front matter may be thought frivolous. Years of experience, however, have borne evidence that hardly one teacher in a hundred does so. Read the front matter, and if it is evident that the author has no constructive principles behind his work; if, in other words, his book is nothing more than a compendium of facts and information strung together without any educational principles behind it, the teacher will not be misled as to the value of the book as a whole because there are "spots" here and there in the text which may stand out brilliantly. Here is an extreme example of what can happen in the case of a teacher who does not know his book. An inspector found a young teacher using one of those freak history books which begin at the present day and work backwards. Questioned how it worked, the teacher confessed she hadn't realized the book was arranged in a reverse chronological order. "But it makes no difference," she remarked, "because, you

see, I just pick the stories here and there as I want them." But imagine the confusion in the children's minds, for they were also reading that book in their individual study periods.

And what if the author does confess to certain principles behind his work? How is one to know, it may be asked, whether he has carried them out in his text? Consult the table of contents. From it one should be able to see at a glance and as a whole the author's selection of material, and to judge quickly whether he has selected and organized it in accordance with his principles.

A close student of text-book problems cannot fail to be impressed by the scarcity of really well-considered text-books among the welter of stuff that is annually produced. The reason is not far to seek. Authors who can write such books are as rare and as hard to find as are authors of "best sellers" in the vast field of fiction. But it is becoming more and more evident that these arbitrary compendiums passed off in the name of text-books, which have no constructive pedagogical or psychological principles behind them to give them unity and continuity, are, in reality, just as unsatisfactory from the publisher's point of view as from that of the teacher who tries them and finds them wanting. Such books do not bring repeating sales, and repeating sales are the very life breath of the educational publishing business. Here, then, is a situation where the best interests of the school and the best interests of the publisher are at one, and an increasing number of publishers appreciate the fact.

Let potential authors and publishers realize that to be a success a book must have constructive ideas behind it. Provided that the ideas are not unsound—that is, that so far they have not failed to stand the acid test of experience—a publisher may with equity and advantage to the schools accept and publish different books, between which there is a conflict of ideas and opinions, provided that each is a constructive example of its type. It then rests with the schools to ascertain which, if either, is the better book, for that is a matter which can only be decided by their experience. And all concerned must remember that there is no "best" book or method.

But if a book and method do their work well, teachers continue to use them. The man who then comes along with merely another book cannot influence them. He must prove that his new book is built on a better method.

Given a book with constructive ideas behind it, it is necessary to consider next what opportunities the author offers in the selection and presentation of his material for linking up the main stages of progress with the child's interests and experiences. Again,

there is the problem of children of varying abilities—A, B and C divisions, we call them.

Books for A, B, and C Divisions

Time was when the attempt was made to put A, B and C children through much the same course, and the only satisfaction the bright pupil often had was that he had climbed the ladder in a couple of years less time than his slower neighbour. But his experience was frequently neither richer nor wider.

Under the reorganized situation with children in the junior school from seven to eleven in actual age, but in mental age more nearly three to fifteen (and in the senior school equally wide divergences in mental age), publishers are being asked to produce separate courses for these various A, B and C divisions, the inference being that the C's must have a watered-down version of the A course. There is danger here. In the first place, the junior school, as part of its function, must lay the foundation for the senior school, and be it remembered that the breadth of the new courses will be of as great, if not greater, importance than their length. The senior school will not thank the junior school if, with a bright boy or girl, it carries on and "does" part of the senior course as well as its own. Nor will it be fair to the bright boy or girl. Will the junior school not be doing him a better service if, instead of pushing him on as fast as he can go, it gives him at each successive stage of his progress a wider and richer experience, a broader foundation for his later work and for life than can, unfortunately, be the lot of his slower neighbour?

Here is a further burden on the teacher, for he must go out and find the material for these horizontal adventures of the bright child. No text-book can contain more than a limited amount of it. The text-book must perforce be the highway. But as the bright children are usually those who are best able to work profitably by themselves, here is the chance and the place to give them that broader experience which, although it "begins at home, may in time reach the ends of the earth." Here is the place for supplementary material, and here is a place where the author of the text-book could and should offer the teacher considerable help. As previously suggested, when he writes his text-book he can put in it only a very limited amount of the material which the child is capable of understanding and appreciating at the various stages of his progress. He has selected those topics which at each stage seem to him likely to serve best the needs of the *majority* of children. If he has done his work honestly and efficiently, he cannot have picked the particular matter for his book at random. He must

have sifted it from a large amount of material at each stage. What could be more helpful to the teacher than to give him the opportunity of using some of this unused but equally valuable material? It is just the sort of stuff that his brighter pupils could and should enjoy. This material may conveniently be placed in a teacher's book, which will run side by side with the text-book. At each stage the teacher will refer to it and extract at discretion just as much additional matter as the conditions and abilities of his particular groups require. In other words, such teachers' books (and there are grounds for believing that they will come to be regarded as an essential accompaniment to every well-conceived series of text-books) will be far more than manuals instructing the teacher, "now do so-and-so and then this-and-that." They will take on more the character of reference books; and while closely following the course of the text, not only offer additional matter, but suggest books for the pupil's own reading, at every stage, and thus provide a wider and richer experience for those children who are mentally able to profit by it. Such teachers' books will be, in effect, small, carefully selected reference books—the skimmings made by an expert from a first-class reference library—making available for the teacher material which, even given access to such a library, would take him weeks of labour to dig out for himself.

So much for the A's. Now what about the C's, and the B's who come part way between them. It has been suggested that these less fortunate folk must by necessity of their limitations stick closer to the highway and browse less in the open fields. They may even be unable to make as extended a journey as their more active-minded fellows. But the suggestion frequently made that the C's must be given a simplified and vitiated version of what is given to the A's is a suggestion fraught with the utmost danger. Lesser abilities cannot digest as much mental food as greater abilities, but the greatest care must be exercised so to devise the work that once a C will not of necessity mean always a C. The C's must have some meat, and they need just as great a variety of diet as the A's. Should we not be on safer ground here if, instead of looking for the feeble type of book some teachers seem to think necessary, we contented ourselves with progressing more slowly, with extending the use of a given book over two years, perhaps, instead of one; with seeking a greater variety of simple interest contacts at each stage (and here a well-conceived teacher's book should again be able to help); and with making certain that the so-called "practical" work done by slower pupils does not involve mechanical manipulation alone, but in every instance carries with its performance the

necessity of some practical intellectual activity, no matter how simple? It is these slower pupils who require the greatest reserves of teaching technique, and no text-book can successfully do that part of the work for the teacher.

The Right Kind of Question

There is again the all-important matter of questions—whether in the text-book or the teacher's book. Here should come into play the whole scale of the author's skill and ingenuity as a practical teacher. On his questions he can be judged again. It is easy enough to compile regular series of questions calling for answers of fact from a given portion of text. Such questions test but one thing—whether the pupil can remember (and that does not necessarily imply *understand*) what he has read sufficiently long to give it back puppet fashion. By far the majority of questions in older text-books were of this type; this is not surprising for, after all, in much of the former school work it was the massing of facts that was the objective. But there is a different kind of question, a kind that will challenge the child to action, will impel him to do something, and to *use* what he has read for one purpose or another, and thereby demonstrate that he has understood it.

The new objectives require a new type of question. They may be described as *doing* questions. For example:—

Pupils may be asked to read a lesson and then to write down briefly what, in their opinion, are the one, two or three main points in what they have read, as a preliminary to a general discussion.

Certain topics may be suggested and the pupils instructed to find the paragraphs or sections which deal with those topics.

They may be asked to summarize a paragraph in the form of a question.

An important point mentioned in a lesson may be suggested, and the pupils told to use the index to see what else they can find out about the point in question.

Questions may be framed which call for a simple deduction from two or more simple facts, etc.

Children who have difficulty in remembering facts will sometimes demonstrate an unsuspected "common-sense" ability for tackling questions of this type.

These and a dozen different elements may come into questions when their purpose is not merely to test but to act as *guide posts* in helping the child to acquire, little by little, the habit of reading critically with an active alert mind. There is nothing new about this type of question, for many teachers have recognized the need of them, and have been framing them themselves. But they have not found their way into text-books as

much as they should, and time and circumstances have perforce obliged the teacher to lean heavily on the mere questions of fact. In this matter of questions, however, there is one point that cannot be too frequently emphasized. When dealing with literary material or with poetry, this analytical type of question should be avoided like the plague. Literary readers have done far too much destroying of the flower by tearing off the petals. With literary selections, questions should aim primarily at appreciation of the beauty and subtlety of the blossom as a whole, not at its dissection.

But in a text-book the more the questions call for the *doing* of things, the more the teacher may be assured that he has a skilled and competent teacher for his ally. No more than the teacher should the text-book be a dispenser of facts. The function of both is to train pupils to use their minds, and to discover from the power which it confers, what learning means. The mere acquisition of facts is not learning at all. A child may know all the letters of the alphabet and yet not be able to read. They do not represent power until he learns how to use them. There is a great truth in Rousseau's remark, "The misuse of books kills knowledge. Believing that we know what we have read, we think ourselves excused from learning it."

Style and Language

There are many other aspects of the text-book which could be dealt with at length. Is a particular text-book attractive and inviting in appearance, inside and out? If a book *looks* difficult, it will usually take a long time to convince a child to the contrary. Do the illustrations really illustrate, or are they merely such that they break up the text and give a false idea of interest? If so, one pays a high price for the space they occupy. What about the style and language in which the book is written? Is it vigorous, straightforward and interesting?

This question of style is a vital one, for, be it remembered, the spirit of the reorganized schools will require that the child read his text-books himself; not that the teacher shall teach them. The teacher will have other things to do, such as pave the way for the various lessons in the book, anticipate their difficulties, heighten their interest, broaden and supplement those interests, etc. But the child is to learn by *doing*. Is the book such, therefore, that he can read it himself? Is the language suitable in word difficulty? Are sentences and paragraphs of reasonable length? Are successive statements cleanly and clearly made, or is there a jumble of ideas in the paragraphs? These are all vital questions the teacher must consider and answer himself.

For example, there was published not so long ago, a history story book intended for seven-year-olds, in which sentences of four and five lines were the average, and there were even eight- and ten-line sentences. What would a seven-year-old child—unless he was a double A plus—get from reading such a book?

Without raising other factors concerning the new teaching and text-book problems, the ground covered thus far may be summarized briefly and in general terms as follows:—

1. New text-books and new teaching techniques must place less emphasis on facts as facts or as a preliminary foundation for later work, and direct more attention than in the past to the building up of those experiences common to mankind through which facts are acquired and their full significance as useful knowledge is appreciated. In other words, facts are not unimportant, but their *understanding use* is of equal or greater importance.

2. Text-books can at best provide only the highway, but it must be a highway that gets somewhere and does not wander aimlessly up hill and down dale. On the teacher depends the all-important task of setting the child on the way, of encouraging those that lag, and of providing plenty of healthy activities for those capable of appreciating a broad view along the route. The breadth of the child's pathway is no less important than its length.

3. The test of the effectiveness of both book and teacher will depend not so much on what they do as on how they do it; for on the manner in which the ground is covered will depend in large measure our success in preparing pupils to meet life as they will find it.

4. And all through the school course great emphasis must be placed on *doing* things—not merely mechanical activities, but on doing things with an active, open mind. In all that has been said, *doing* includes understanding as one of its aspects; the word *doing* does not connote mechanical activity and that only. Particularly will this activity apply to the use of books, for from books will come, if at all, most knowledge in the pupil's life after school. And in this day and age when there is still far too much sanctity about the printed word, no better service can be rendered to the rising generation than to train them to view critically all they read.

In conclusion: there is a saying among publishers that when they publish a book they lose control of it. There is no human means of ensuring that a book, once published, will always be used intelligently and in the way its author and publisher intended. A listless, indifferent teacher will spoil the best book ever

written. After the author and publisher have done their work, there remains the all-important task for the teacher to perform. The text-book provides the scrip which outlines the course for the play. The teacher must set the stage, rich with interest drawn from his pupils' experience. He must fan the flame of successive interests ignited by the text-book, must constantly bring local fuel to sustain it, and must range

widely through human interests to keep it burning brightly. With skill and with the full force of his personality he must continually bring together the best in his pupils, the best in his text-book, and the best which life has to offer, for, be it remembered, we are training citizens of the world. Publishers and teachers are necessary to one another, but to the teacher falls the greater part.

EDITOR'S POSTSCRIPT

The foregoing Supplement was in type before the latest economy campaign was launched. The stringent conditions which are now imposed on administrators and teachers will compel the exercise of special care in the choice of text-books. Mr. Morss raises some important issues apart from this. He says that a new type of text-book is needed to fulfil the requirements of the reorganized schools and he suggests that such books will be "practical" rather than literary in their scope. The old-fashioned "readers," with few exceptions, aimed at what their name implied, that is, the ability to read a printed page. The method of examination led to over-emphasis on ability to read aloud, with comparatively little attention to power of grasping subject matter or apprehending merits of style. Mr. Morss pictures a co-operative effort between writers and publishers on the one hand, and teachers on the other, in order to ensure that reading books become text-books or vehicles of suitable information. Some may feel that he has overlooked the literary purpose in favour of the purely instructional. Or it may be held that he places the teacher in subjection to the author. Correspondence on these points or on the general topic of the choice of text-books will be welcome.

SCHOOLS FOR THE POOR.

BY ADMINISTRATOR.

Recent events have made us painfully aware that national education finds little favour in certain influential quarters. The recommendations of the May Committee, following, after a long interval, the somewhat similar recommendations in the Geddes Report, are an index of the value which commercial magnates, business men, and many of the professional classes set upon the education of the poor and lower middle class.

These recommendations do not, as is sometimes stated, indicate antagonism to education or a lack of belief in its value. They are directed rather against the education, except of a very limited kind, of a certain section of the community. It is true this section includes the great majority of the nation's children, but this does not justify the charge of antagonism to all and every kind of education. The men responsible for these reports would probably deny any such hostility, and assert with some vigour their belief in its value and in their respect for its traditions.

They value education for themselves and for their own kind. They know and appreciate its power, not only as a material asset, but as a means of moulding the character and manners of a people, and most of them see to it that their own children go to good schools.

But, for the children of parents too poor to pay school fees, any kind of school and any sort of teacher are good enough. Not only do these children miss the education which a cultured home supplies, but they are to be further handicapped by cheap schools. At this early age it is impressed upon them that they belong to a class for which special provision of an inferior kind is made on every possible occasion from the cradle to the grave. Only by accumulating wealth can they hope to qualify for admission to less depressing surroundings and ensure better opportunities for their children. Little wonder that the pursuit of material wealth seems to many the only one worth while.

There is perhaps no country in Europe in which the line of cleavage between the education of the rich and the poor is more clearly marked than in England. Perhaps the reason is that we have always looked upon State education as something provided only for those who could not afford anything better; our State schools have been and still are class schools—schools for the poor. To attend them is to be branded with the mark of inferiority. But the stigma is not confined to the pupils; it is extended to the teachers, those who are styled, often with something akin to contempt, "elementary teachers."

Now a sound system of education can be built up only by an expert body of teachers. In this

business of education the crux of the whole matter lies in the quality, not the qualifications, of the teacher. The education of the poor as a class apart is bad enough, but the education of the poor by the poor is fatal to progress. Education can flourish only when in the hands of educated people; people whose school education has been reinforced by a cultured atmosphere in the home.

Since the war something has been done towards raising the standard of the teachers in State schools both in the way of more liberal training and better remuneration, with the result that better recruits have been attracted. The cuts in salaries ordered by the Government constitute a serious setback, and will make it more difficult to bridge the gap between those who teach in schools provided by the State and the rest of the profession. Those teachers who constitute a branch of the public service have received a blow which is likely to do grievous harm.

The financial loss to the teacher, serious though it is, is not so damaging as the implied low estimate of the value of the teacher's work.

Culture and wealth are not necessarily allied, but culture cannot flourish in an atmosphere of poverty, and he who is meanly paid is meanly esteemed. It is the attitude towards elementary school teachers as a body which deters recruits with a more liberal social outlook from coming forward.

For some time we have been asking for better salaries in our elementary schools so that our national system of education might be worthy of a great nation, and cater not for one but for all classes of the community, and we had reason to think that the outlook was not without promise. The Hadow Report, the university training in which more and more teachers were sharing, the growing interest in matters of education among all classes of the people, gave reason for some show of optimism. Now the Government, by their attack on the status of the teacher—an attack the severity of which even the present economic crisis can scarcely justify—have changed the whole outlook, and our State schools, instead of providing the liberal education to which we were looking forward, and in which all classes might share with profit, are likely to remain merely places for the limited instruction of the poor. And this to restore our credit in the eyes of other nations!

A Symptom.

Twickenham Education Committee have decided to postpone a £50,000 scheme for a new school and special subjects centre in view of the economic situation.

THE STUDENTS OF PRAGUE.

BY DORIS ESTCOURT.

The pursuit of learning has for long been cheaper on the Continent than with us, and in the ancient University of Prague the traditional "poor student" of the Middle Ages is still a characteristic figure. The bright young man who goes up to Oxford with a two-seater and £300 a year is almost a different species from the Prague students, who live by hundreds on about £3 or £4 a month. This is made possible partly by the numerous little cheap coffee houses, dairies, and smoked meat shops in which Prague abounds, but chiefly by institutions such as the Student Colonies.

There are several of these colonies, with varying standards of living. One, the Studenska Kolonie Na Letna, is a group of about a dozen two-storey wooden houses built by the students themselves just after the war. Each building accommodates about one hundred, two to a room, at an approximate cost of 9s. to 16s. each per month. The accommodation is austere and primitive in the extreme, though with time, and the convention by which each student leaves his room a little better furnished than he found it, the colonies tend to become less spartan than they were at the beginning. This colony is for Czechs and Slovaks only, and there is always a waiting list.

The Yugoslav students have a dormitory of their own, in which they do most of the housework themselves. The Slovak students run the Stefanikuv Kolej, which is a rather better building than the wooden houses of the Na Letna and a little more expensive. The Masarykuv Kolej, an international settlement, is a fine modern building, in which the charges are about £3. 10s. a month for board and room. The Budec Kolej for women is a modern building, housing students of all nationalities for an average of £4 a month for board and room. There are two students to a room here also. By an arrangement expiring this year, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs has been maintaining free at Budec foreign women students who had no fellowship aid.

The dormitories house altogether about 3,000 students. The rest live at home or with private families. A very few have "diggings," but these are hard to get. The rent of one room in a private house, including breakfast, a certain amount of service, and one bath a week, is about £2 a month. Usually the rooms are shared to reduce expenses.

Students whose terms do not include board mostly patronise the "Student Houses," where a good meal can be obtained for about 9d. Even cheaper are the *mensas* at 6d. Though they give no choice of

menu, the food is good and unlimited. For these meals, served only at midday, it is necessary to obtain a ticket at one of the Student Houses. Thousands are fed every day by these concerns.

For the evening meal, habitually a slender one, many students resort to the dairies, and consume *moucnik*, rolls, and cocoa or milk, at a total cost of about 2½d. Others go to the smoked meat shops, where it is possible to obtain soup, rolls, and some kind of sausage for about 4½d. Many of the cheap restaurants of the city serve a set meal for 9d. Even the foreign students, who are by comparison affluent and self-indulgent, find it possible to eat comfortably for about 2s. a day.

The Government does everything possible to facilitate attendance at the university, and to make it unnecessary for students to attempt to work for a living during their university course. The Student Section of the Ministry of Social Works secures for the student of Prague reduced rates at bookshops, theatres, museums, swimming baths, and certain outfitting shops. Special student tickets are issued for the very efficient tramways which serve the whole city and its outskirts. Students' camps are arranged in the country for those who have nowhere to go in the summer vacation. Under certain circumstances students who come from a distance can travel home free on the railways at the end of the university term.

In spite of spartan living, the traditional gaiety of Continental student life runs high in Prague—which, incidentally, boasts the world's best and cheapest beer. In the coffee houses and basement wine shops the students dance lightheartedly, continuously, and cheaply for the price of a few drinks—the more cheaply, since it is the custom for the girls to pay their own way. The girls, indeed, pay rather dearly for their social life. At the balls given by various organisations, a girl's ticket may cost from 3s. to 8s., while a man's costs only 6d. to 1s. 6d. At a recent dance given by the Yugoslav colony, the men paid 5 kc. (about 8d.), while the girls paid 60 kc. for themselves and 40 kc. for their chaperons—a total of about 12s. 6d. The theory seems to be that the men students are poorer than the women (possibly only well-to-do families attempt to send daughters to the university), and that the uneven charges eliminate the depressing "wallflower" problem.

Besides dancing, swimming, sun-bathing, gymnasium work, rowing, skiing, and tramping are enormously popular. On Sundays there is a general exodus from Prague to the surrounding countryside, and in summer groups of men students often spend their whole vacation tramping through the hills, sleeping in tourist huts at a charge of 3d. a night.

A GLIMPSE OF LIFE IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

By D. A. STEPNEY.

Long before dawn on a winter's morning a certain young lady in Northamptonshire awoke. Yawning vigorously, and pushing the long black hair from her eyes, she drew aside her bed tapestries, and stepped out gingerly on the draughty rush-strewn floor.

Beyond the window of stained glass the farm buildings lie black beneath the frosty stars, as Elizabeth Woodville shivers into her *cotte* and surcoat, and the hooded cape which she draws close about her ears. Having tied clogs beneath her thick felt shoes, she clacks her way, lantern in hand, down the oaken stairs and across the yard. In the words of her own diary: "Mon. March 9. Rose at four o'clock, and helped Catherine to milk the cows, Rachel . . . having scalded her hand in so bad a manner the night before. Made a poultice for Rachel, and gave Robin a penny to get her something comfortable from the Apothecary's."

Lady Woodville, the mother, is still living, but of all her large family of three sons and six daughters Elizabeth is evidently the domestic mainstay. After her dairy work and the first aid for Rachel she breakfasts, at six a.m., on buttock of beef and beer! Think of it, all ye who take an early cup in bed! ("The buttock of beef too much boiled and the beer a little of the stalest. Memorandum: to talk to cook about the first fault, and to mend the second myself by tapping a fresh barrel directly.")

Energetic Elizabeth's next duty is to attend "the lady my mother" in the courtyard, and there feed twenty-five men and women. Charity was dispensed in those days literally into the hands of the poor, who gathered at the door of the great house, and it was winter time. Incidentally, "Chided Roger severely for expressing some ill-will at attending us with broken meat."

Perhaps it was snowing, and Roger had not yet had his own breakfast beer. He is probably relieved when his bright young mistress takes her maid Dorothy to help catch the pony (name of Thump), and sets out for a six-mile ride, "without saddle or bridle," the young Amazon! With what a glowing colour beneath the jet-black hair she must have returned to dine, in the mid-morning, with an eligible *parti* as guest!

"John Grey a comely youth, but what is that to me?" (Oh, Elizabeth!) "A virtuous maid should be entirely under the direction of her parents." Agreed! But we fear Miss Woodville confided this discreet observation to her diary, tongue in cheek, if one may use so vulgar an expression of a lady who was destined later to be Queen of England. The writer continues: "John ate but little; stole a great many tender looks at me, and said, 'Women never could be

handsome, in his opinion, who were not good-tempered.' I hope my temper is not intolerable: nobody finds fault with it but Roger, and he is the most disorderly serving-man in our family."

We are not told of what this fifteenth-century dinner consisted; but the company do not seem to have sat overlong at table, for by noon they are all walking in the fields. "John Grey would lift me over every stile, and twice he squeezed my hand with great vehemence. I cannot say I should have any objection to John Grey; he plays at prison bars (i.e. prisoner's base) as well as any country gentleman, and he never misses church on Sunday."

A later entry tells of a poor farmer whose house was burnt down. John Grey, naturally generous, no doubt, but particularly anxious to cut a good figure now, "gave no less than £4 himself. Memorandum: Never saw him look so handsome as at that moment." (Dear Elizabeth!) "Four o'clock. Went to prayers. Six o'clock. Fed the hogs and poultry." Then comes supper . . . of goose-pie and roasted pork! . . . and so to bed. Perchance to dream? Yes, indeed! The diarist ends her record of a busy day with this very human entry: "Nine o'clock. The company fast asleep; these late hours very disagreeable. Said my prayers a second time, John Grey distracting my thoughts too much the first time. Fell asleep and dreamed of John Grey." But little dreamed, poor child, of all the tragedy to come!

By 1461 Elizabeth is already a widow, "remarkable for the grace and beauty of her person, as well as for her accomplishments," so Hume tells us. Sir John Grey has died fighting for his Lancastrian King, on Barnard's Heath, in the second battle of St. Albans, leaving his young widow with two baby boys. She returns to her father's house at Grafton, her troubles even now only just begun.

One day there is a hunting party in the neighbourhood, and by accident a visitor drops in. A royal visitor this time, the dissolute young King, Edward IV. He is so charmed with the lovely widow that he offers to make her his Queen. They are married at her father's house; but Edward fears Warwick the King-maker and his ambitious plans for marriage with a French princess. The wedding with our Elizabeth is therefore not proclaimed until 1464. Warwick is furious; Elizabeth dislikes him, and proceeds to fill the court with her own family and friends, till the nobility in general are irritated and aggrieved. They see how great an ascendancy this capable lady has over her royal husband, in spite of his infatuation for Jane Shore. Energetic as in the

days when she rated Roger and fed the hogs, Elizabeth sees to it that her three brothers and five sisters are married into the greatest families, and adds five daughters and two sons of her own and the King's to the anti-Warwick faction. What could a woman do more?

But the sinister figure of Richard Duke of Gloucester casts its mis-shapen shadow over the picture. The Queen's brother Anthony, Earl of Rivers, "the most accomplished nobleman in England," has his head chopped off while imprisoned in Pontefract by Richard's orders. Her young son Edward Prince of Wales is taken prisoner, and she, her five daughters, and the little Duke of York, run to take sanctuary in Westminster.

There Archbishop Rotherham finds her, widowed again, in the thick of a crowd of turbulent people, getting her possessions into safety. "No man unoccupied: some lading, some going, some unloading, some going for more, some breaking down the wall to bring in the nearest way. The Queen herself sate alone, low on the rushes, all desolated and dismaied." Poor tired-out Elizabeth, her spirit is broken at last. The Archbishop takes her second son from her, promising that he shall join his brother, and they two shall be in safety together. But her mother-heart tells her otherwise: she bids her little boy "eternal adieu, in presage of ill, with many tears." It is but a little while ere these two boy princes are smothered in the Tower, as every school-child knows.

Sorrow is heaped on sorrow throughout malignant Richard's reign. But Elizabeth's daughter marries the Earl of Richmond, who is afterwards Henry VII, and so unites the Houses of York and Lancaster. Elizabeth herself, *née* Woodville, ends her strenuous days in the nunnery at Bermondsey, and is buried at Windsor. "One man in his time plays many parts," but few have appeared in more varied scenes than this young country lady who milked the cows, and fed the poor, and dreamed of John Grey at Grafton.

The Crisis.

During the hours which preceded the resignation of the late Government the political correspondent of the *News Chronicle* was on duty in Downing Street. He told the following story: "Two Civil Servants, having worked the clock round, stroll up Downing Street in animated discussion. In their hands they carry loaded despatch-cases. As they pass, one hears the graver of the two say: 'China tea, I always think, is so tasteless.'"

From this we must not gather that the crisis was a storm in a teapot.

GLEANINGS.

Lord Hugh Cecil's View.

"I feel that the teachers ought to be able to suggest economies which might take the place, in whole or in part, of the proposed reduction of salaries. In the present emergency it seems unreasonable, especially from highly educated men, that there should be merely a claim to escape loss without any alternative plan for necessary economies." This is excellent advice, no doubt, but teachers as a body are never consulted on matters of educational administration.

Not Unusual.

"The writer reveals himself as a shrewd but cautious war-time observer, with more prescience than that possessed by many of his military superiors." This note, taken from a review in the *News Chronicle*, may be applied to almost all our soldiers' comments on the War.

An Example.

"In a time of crisis in a Christian land, what a travesty upon the teaching profession and what a bad example to the rising generation is the Manifesto of the National Union of Schoolmasters (*sic*). Surely the greatest teacher of all the ages went a little further than duty and that without pay." Thus writes the Rev. James T. Garratt. But the Teacher to whom he refers was not called Reverend, nor did he receive a stipend for preaching in a pulpit, or send canting letters to newspapers.

Words of Comfort.

Speaking on the financial crisis, Dame Madge Kendal said: "There is no blessing in the world like a little poverty. This taxation of Mr. Snowden's is providential."

Refreshment.

"The expert in a profession does not want to spend his time in taking courses of instruction. But if he is to remain expert he must be careful to keep himself familiar with the best thought on his own subjects."—H. C. BAILEY.

Home Treatment.

Magistrate at Tottenham: What punishment has your boy received?

Mother: I gave him a good hiding and his father gave him a good talking to.

Quadrumania.

"Will you allow me to support with both hands and both feet the protest of my friend, Professor Holland Rose, against the outrage so often inflicted on us by the use of the word *Britisher*?"—Sir Alexander Harris, in a letter to "*The Times*."

MODERN SCHOOLING

AN EXPERIMENT IN SCHOOL SOCIETIES.

By F. C. GUBBIN.

School societies rightly occupy a prominent place in what are vaguely described as "out-of-school activities," and they confer a benefit which is hard to estimate, but which is none the less real.

Unfortunately, no place can be found in an already overcrowded time-table for cultural pursuits that appear to lack a direct "examination value," with the result that, in most schools, the society or club is usually identified with some member of the staff who has pronounced tastes in some direction, and who has the time and enthusiasm to encourage these pursuits among members of the school.

Many schools can boast societies or clubs devoted to the interests of philately, literature, photography, natural history, or the drama, but behind them all will be found some master who is both guiding spirit and *raison d'être*; let him be transferred to another school, and the society will slowly fall into decay unless an equally enthusiastic successor is happily forthcoming.

A number of important disadvantages arise from the close identification of a school society with a master, and these disadvantages do much to neutralise the benefits that should be derived from its activities.

In the first place inspiration comes from without, hindering the development of a corporate will and purpose.

Secondly, although some of the officers of the club may be chosen from among its members, there will be a strong tendency to follow the advice and policy of the master-president rather than break new ground at the risk of making mistakes.

Thirdly, with this close identification of a representative of authority it is difficult to escape from the atmosphere of the classroom. Discussions are stilted and confined to subjects which are considered to be "safe," and the wild and heady questions of eager youth are left to be discussed in private far removed from anybody that can put extravagant theories to the test of searching criticism.

It is now some five years since I set out to organise a school society that should attempt to avoid as far as possible the difficulties I have outlined, and as the experiment has been successfully carried out in two very different types of secondary schools a few notes on the subject may prove of some interest to others having similar interests.

A beginning was made by setting out the objects it was hoped to attain.

First, a society which should be self-supporting once firmly established, and which, moreover, should have a corporate and quasi-independent existence. It would therefore have to supply a demand, and also to be established on a very broad basis.

Secondly, original thinking was to be encouraged, so that speech must be unfettered and as free as is consistent with good taste.

Thirdly, an interest was sought for that by no means negligible class of boy who does not fit into the normal run of school activities.

Fourthly, it was hoped to accustom boys to expressing their ideas or criticism in public without that pitiful hesitation and awkwardness so characteristic of our self-conscious youth.

Lastly, there lurked in the background the idea of the creation of a cultured "aristocracy of worth" that would act as the leaven that "leaveneth the whole lump."

These problems were met in the following way. The society was in each case formed without any avowed object and was called after the founder of the school. Even now it would be difficult to define their activities. This principle has had the advantage of permitting quite a number of different interests to arise, and has, moreover, added the interest of variety to the meetings. Intended originally to be held twice a month, they have now become weekly affairs, which testifies to their popularity. So far as I am concerned I have suggested nothing; the activities of the society result from the ideas or wishes of the members themselves.

The second problem was not so easy of solution. If speech were free, might not advantage be taken of the occasion to exceed the bounds of propriety, and thus bring the society to an untimely end? To overcome this difficulty the following plan was adopted. The nucleus was formed by gathering together a number of boys on whose good sense and loyalty full reliance could be placed. All subsequent members were to be elected only after the reading to the society of a qualifying paper on an approved subject. By stipulating that the paper shall be along original lines and possess some literary merit, it is possible to ensure that prospective candidates will not only regard membership as a privilege but as an introduction to a society that has rather vague but none the less clearly understood standards of taste. After the reading of a paper the candidate is expected to answer questions relating to the subject matter of

his discourse, and on his retirement a vote is taken. Masters wishing to join must follow exactly the same procedure, with the happy result that only those who can sink their dignity in the common interest seek membership, and their presence is invaluable.

This feeling that the society has a tradition to be lived up to has laid its stamp on the tone of the debates. In short, an organism has been brought into existence to facilitate the exchange and development of ideas, and to provide adolescent youth with a medium for the purpose of self-expression.

Experience has shown that the first term or so is a period of considerable difficulty, and on many occasions not a few qualms were felt for the safety of the frail barque almost rudderless on a rather stormy sea, and there is no doubt that at this stage a few tactful suggestions from a master can do much to hold the vessel to its course. Above all, the schoolboy passion for creating rules and regulations must be diverted, and we found that the best results were secured by making a start with a minimum number, to which additional rules were added as experience demonstrated their necessity. In addition a number of conventions were agreed to, such as, that no master should hold the presidency. This helped to render our constitution sufficiently elastic to meet the changing needs of our society.

After a few debates had been held it was found necessary to place a limit on the time occupied in delivering set speeches, and, further, it was agreed that set speeches should not be read. These local conventions have done much to brighten our debates, especially when time is limited. At first the papers read to the society were rather dull; members were feeling their way, but very soon matters took on a different turn, and as soon as boys discovered that they could talk on matters very near the heart without exposing themselves to the ridicule of their contemporaries, some astonishingly interesting papers covering a very wide range of thought, and giving evidence of wide reading, were produced. For my part I have no hesitation in saying that I have gained a most useful insight into the minds of my pupils, and the new sympathy that has sprung up between us as the result of the better understanding of our respective points of view has helped me considerably in my normal work.

In my first school—a day secondary school with a large proportion of free-place pupils—emphasis was early thrown on what I may call the social side. The members took every opportunity to investigate the manners and customs of professional societies. Outside speakers, who generously co-operated, were received by the officers, and proceedings were conducted along formal lines, the master members merely forming a part of the audience. A little later an annual dinner, over which the president for the

time being presided, was held at the end of the Christmas term at a local hotel. Guests were invited from amongst those interested in the school, and the proceedings followed the normal course of similar adult functions. After a time the gathering rapidly expanded as old boy members were added to the number, and this dinner became an important and looked forward to social event.

At my present school interest seems at present to be concentrated mainly on the topics of religion, science, and politics. There is also a strong dramatic section which has already produced a number of plays and has two more in production.

The appeal of the society is by no means limited to the merely intellectual. A glance at the list of members reveals the presence of a number of the school cricket and football teams, of athletes, and of those who have not distinguished themselves in any of the normal activities of the school.

In conclusion, perhaps I may briefly refer to some other benefits that have resulted. Stammering incoherency is giving place to ordered sequence, argument by means of asides has disappeared, criticism is relevant and less personal, and the improvement in manners is very marked.

This experiment has been successful because no attempt has been made to bring external pressure to bear, either to hasten forward the movement, which is in constant process of development, or to dictate the policy and interests of its members.

A Call to Action.

"Throughout the whole nation, we must let every man and woman, instead of looking to their parties and Parliaments and Governments, feel the full strength of the inspiring inducement to do something in their own individual capacities, and to join with others in doing something—the smallest or the greatest thing—better than it has yet been done, and so make their own contribution to the great fund of general good. Only so can the far-reaching powers which lie in human nature, but which, like the talent, are so often wrapped in the napkin, hidden and unused, find their full scope and development. . . . But this healthy reaction cannot be as long as we live under the depressing and dispiriting influence of the great machines that take the work out of our hands, and encourage in us all a sense of personal uselessness. The appeal must be straight and direct to the individuals, to their own self-direction, their own self-sacrifice, to their own efforts." — (From "The Voluntaryist Creed," *Auberon Herbert*.)

the early owners feared either invasion or robbers. The house is built of the thin bricks which were so much in favour in Tudor days. It is roofed with pantiles which project for about two feet over the walls. The splendid state of the brickwork after many hundred years is no doubt due to the protection these overhanging eaves have given to it. The northern wing of the house has disappeared and the neglected state of part of the roof and pointings suggest that other portions will not be long before they are lost. There is something about this old house which compels us to look backwards, and master told us that he never passed by the river front without seeing ladies and gentlemen come down the steps to enter the gaily decorated barge for their journey on the river to York or Cawood to shop, or call upon their friends. The ladies dressed in bright coloured flowing garments with wide open sleeves of King Henry's time, or the high neck ruffles and lace head-dress of Elizabeth's reign. The gentlemen in ruffles, doublet, and long silken hose with bright coloured shoes would hand the ladies down the steps and into the barge with all the courtly grace of that period. Both King Henry VIII and Cardinal Wolsey had no doubt trodden these steps. Growing upon the terrace would be old-fashioned flowers—hollyhocks, lavender, foxgloves, rosemary, and bay—which not only beautified the front of the house, but yielded essences and pomades for the use of the ladies in their toilet and their cookery. We can imagine we see these bygone persons fishing for salmon, which at that time abounded in the river. In the field outside the courtyard was the archery court where young and old of both sexes practised with bow and arrow at varying targets. Further inland were the arable and pasture fields where the retainers of the manor might be seen ploughing with wooden ploughs drawn by oxen, mowing with sickle, or threshing with flail, according to the season of the year.

In the midst of all these memories master looked at his watch and found that the time had flown so quickly that we had only fifteen minutes to walk the two miles back to school. Our reluctance to leave these old-world memories was cheered a bit when he promised to take us one day soon to visit a moated hall and try to make it tell us further stories of the lives of our predecessors in this out-of-the-world village."

The Truth of Christianity.

This book, written by Lieut.-Col. W. H. Turton, D.S.O., has already gone through ten editions, over 50,000 copies having been sold. A new edition is obtainable at 2s. net through any bookseller, or from the publishers, Wells Gardner, Darton and Co.

A NEW DECALOGUE.

The following ten rules of life are exhibited in many of the schools of Czechoslovakia. They might be copied for use in our own schools.

1. Love your schoolmates; they will be your companions for life and work.
2. Love instruction, the food of the spirit. Be thankful to your teachers as to your own parents.
3. Consecrate every day by one good useful deed and kindness.
4. Honour all honest people; esteem men but humble yourself before no man.
5. Suppress all hatred and beware of insulting your neighbour; be not revengeful, but protect your own rights and those of others. Love justice and bear pain and misfortune courageously.
6. Observe carefully and reflect well in order to get at truth. Deceive not yourself or others and beware of lying, for lies destroy the heart, the soul, and the character. Suppress passions and radiate love and peace.
7. Consider that animals also have a right to your sympathy and do not harm or tease them.
8. Think that all good is the result of work; he who enjoys without working is stealing bread from the mouth of the worker.
9. Call no man a patriot who hates or has contempt for other nations, or who wishes and approves wars. War is the remains of barbarism.
10. Love your country and your nation, but be co-workers in the high task that shall make all men live together like brothers in peace and happiness.

A Russian Teacher Honoured.

As an example of the encouragement which the Soviet Government gives to education, it is of interest to learn that the Order of Lenin—the highest Order in the U.S.S.R.—has been awarded to Madam Assia Kalinina for her work in the educational field. For a long time Madam Kalinina has devoted herself to the education of homeless children, and she is now the chief of the "Headquarters for the liquidation of illiteracy"—an organisation which plays the leading part in the campaign for universal compulsory education and the abolition of illiteracy among the adult population.

NEWS OF THE MONTH.

Economy Circulars.

The Board of Education have been compelled to issue a number of memoranda and circulars to give effect to Cabinet decisions on economy. Circulars 1413 to 1416 described the procedure in regard to grants for elementary schools, secondary schools, special schools, and training colleges on the assumption that a deduction of 15 per cent. would be made from the aggregate total of salaries, and that certain grants from the Board would be reduced. Circular 1413 says that "the Board contemplate that existing facilities (including the numbers of teachers employed) should be generally maintained." The President desires the help of the Burnham Committees, and naively suggests that they might submit proposals which would vary the relative share in the reductions to be borne by individuals, while securing to the Exchequer the same aggregate saving. This would mean for the Local Authorities and for the Teachers' Panels a most difficult and ungrateful task. Administrative Memorandum No. 88 modified the circulars mentioned by substituting 10 per cent. for 15 per cent. in regard to salaries, but otherwise the reductions are to be as announced.

Boys in Mines.

The Chief Inspector of Mines reports that nearly 29,000 boys under sixteen years are employed underground in the mines of this country. During 1929 the number of boys under sixteen killed and injured was at the rate of 251 per 1,000 employed; of those who were sixteen and under eighteen at the rate of 230; of those eighteen and under twenty at the rate of 223; and of those twenty and over at the rate of 209. The rate for all ages was 212 per 1,000 employed. The rate at which boys under sixteen are killed and injured is forty-two per 1,000 more than in the case of those twenty years and over! In Germany it is illegal to employ young persons under sixteen below ground in coal mines.

Telephone Instruction.

It is perhaps not generally known that the Post Office welcome visits of parties of school children to telephone exchanges, and take trouble to make the visits instructive and entertaining. Parties should not exceed twenty in number, and should include no children under fourteen years of age. They should be accompanied by a teacher.

Australia's Plight.

The University of Adelaide, South Australia, finds itself unable to provide new professorships or even to replace professors whose posts are left vacant. The shortage of funds is causing the dismissal of lecturers, and the institution is in a state of suspended animation.

A Phonetic Film.

Mr. A. Lloyd James, lecturer in phonetics at the London School of Oriental Studies and Secretary to the B.B.C. Advisory Committee on Spoken English, has made a talking film showing the secrets of English speech and the difficulties which hinder foreigners from mastering it. In this film, the sounds of the jungle, the click of the Kaffir, the lisp of the Indian, and other characteristic sounds of men and animals will be shown in illustration of the principles of speech as they affect the English language. This new film is unique as an attempt to combine amusement and education in a form which should interest the whole world wherever there are students learning our language. The film was shown for the first time at the recent Exhibition of Mechanical Aids to Learning.

A Dangerous Theme.

At Brighton, Pedlar Palmer, a former bantam light-weight boxing champion of the world, was fined for assault. The person attacked is an insurance agent, who stated that while he was talking to a friend about education Palmer came up and intervened. He seemed to object to the conversation, and became very offensive. Instead of a fine, it might have been better to co-opt Mr. Palmer on the Brighton Education Committee, where he could have learned to tolerate discussions on education, if not to enjoy them.

A.M.S.S.

The Annual Exhibition of the Blandford and Wimborne Agricultural Society took place at Bryanston Park, Dorset, on September 16. An interesting feature was a keen contest for the Dauntsey Challenge Cup for the best collection of vegetables grown by the gardening class at any elementary school. The competition has been instigated by the Association for Mutual Service in Schools, to encourage interest in gardening, and at the same time to promote unselfish team spirit. The cup was won for the second time by the Stratfield-Saye School, near Reading, the "runners-up" being four Dorset schools:—Symondsburry C.E., very highly commended; Swanage Council School, highly commended; Sherborne Council School and Evershot School, commended.

Major J. T. Bavin.

It is announced that Major Bavin, the well known lecturer on music, is now free to lecture in schools and institutions, or to advise on the organisation of their musical activities. Inquiries should be sent to him at Frithesden Copse, Berkhamsted, Herts.

LITERARY SECTION.

BOOKS AND THE MAN.

Good Sense.

Professor T. Raymont retired some little time ago from the post of Warden of Goldsmiths' College, New Cross. Previously he had been Professor of Education in the University College of South Wales, Cardiff, and his earlier experience had included work in elementary schools and in a training college. This extensive and varied experience, supplemented by a wide knowledge of educational philosophy, made him well fitted to act as mentor to young teachers. It justifies also the book which Longmans, Green and Co. have recently published for him under the title "Education," and at the price of 7s. 6d.

The chief note of this book, as of its predecessor, "The Principles of Education," by the same writer, is a note of good sense. I find this singularly pleasant and refreshing in contrast with the airs and self-conscious posturings of some modern prophets of pedagogy. Professor Raymont tells us in his preface that he dislikes to have the trees obscuring the wood. He is excellently fitted to be the first president of a Society for the Abatement of Pedagogic Fog, a body which is as necessary as the Smoke Abatement Society. He says roundly that "the arm-chair theorist has too often chosen his own lines of inquiry, and in so doing has become, from the practical man's point of view, lost in a quagmire of more or less irrelevant speculation." "Educational theory," he tells us, "is at its best when it is regarded as a consistent attempt to answer questions raised in actual practice." In support of this we are invited to consider the efforts of Freud, Jung, and Adler, to note their wide differences of opinion, the views of well-informed critics, and, finally, "the rather jejune attempts to base educational theory upon psycho-analysis."

Later it is suggested that at the present stage in the history of psychology we do well to be cautious in accepting and applying the findings of the psychologists. Yet we are advised to be on the watch for any light that psychology can throw upon the problem of economical and effective methods of learning and teaching. This is excellent counsel for the young teacher, who is sometimes led to believe that psychologists will tell him all that he need know about his work. Professor Raymont holds that psychology may be a hindrance rather than a help if it is made the sole basis of curriculum selection.

With these views our author is in no danger of losing himself or befogging his readers in a cloud of phrases. He has some excellent chapters on the conduct of a school, the choice of subjects, and the treatment of pupils. These are all infused by practical sense and real experience. We have also a

succinct account of teachers' organisations and of the system of administration in England.

Altogether an excellent book which should be studied by every teacher, and might with advantage be prescribed in these days for all Cabinet Ministers, M.P.s, and possible members of future "economy" committees.

SELIM MILES.

REVIEWS.

Education.

ON THE EDUCATION OF BOYS: by Thomas E. Dowell. (2s. Stockwell.)

Mr. Dowell tells us that he is a preparatory school-master, and in this little volume he sets down "some candid reflections on public and private schools, with some suggestions." The reflections are for the most part boring in their triteness, and the suggestions include the proposal that all education should be free and "of the highest class," that from three to seventeen or later the pupils should live in public boarding schools near their homes, and, "as far as possible, outside towns." There should be three stages in education, namely, from three to six years, from seven to twelve years, and from thirteen to seventeen or eighteen and a-half. In the first stage schools are not to exceed fifty pupils, with five in a class; in the second, a hundred pupils, with ten in a class; and in the third, two hundred pupils, with fifteen in a class. It will be seen that Mr. Dowell is well ahead of this imperfect age of ours.

R.

Applied Chemistry.

CHEMISTRY IN THE SERVICE OF MAN: by Alexander Findlay. (6s. 6d. Longmans.)

This is the fourth edition of an excellent book first published in 1916; and the revision it has undergone, including the rewriting of several chapters, brings it up to date. As the title indicates, the subject matter is the practical and cultural aspects of modern chemistry; the various chapters dealing with such branches of the science as involve the discussion of radio-activity, fuel and illuminants, explosives, cellulose metals and their alloys, fertilizers, glass and soap, electricity and chemistry, colloids, molecular structure, ferments, and synthetic chemistry. The treatment is semi-popular, being based upon a series of lectures to the students in the United Free Church College, Aberdeen.

The course is an admirable one and admirably treated by Professor Findlay, and constitutes a veritable store of valuable and interesting information, not simply for students of chemistry, but for those teachers whose work includes courses of general science.

Arithmetic.

A JUNIOR ARITHMETIC: by R. C. Fawdrey, M.A., B.Sc. (2s.; with answers, 2s. 6d. Bell.)

This book covers the Junior Local syllabus, and should prove very useful in "senior" and the lower and middle forms of secondary schools. It contains a large number of well-graded and suitable exercises, and we can confidently recommend its adoption.

French.

POST-INTERMEDIATE TESTS IN FRENCH COMPOSITION AND GRAMMAR: by J. M. Milne. (9d. Harrap.)

These tests are intended for fourth-year pupils in Scottish schools, and will be found suitable for English forms preparing for the School Certificate Examination. Each group of tests consists of a passage for translation into French, a few grammar questions, and half a dozen sentences. Some harder sentences are given at the end. A boy who works through the fifty tests cannot fail to improve his grasp of the elements of the language. A. B. G.

Biology.

PLANTS AND ANIMALS: An Introduction to Biology: by W. B. Johnson, F.Z.S. (2s. 9d. Longmans.)

The author of this little book is to be complimented on the excellence of the numerous photographic illustrations and the exceptionally interesting manner with which he has dealt with his subject. It would be difficult to name a book more admirably calculated to develop a real interest in living things, and this not only in young students but also in those whose school days are past. And "interest" is the greatest word in education! Throughout, structure and function are correlated in a fascinating manner, as are also adaptations to life under given conditions; and nowhere are technicalities allowed to detract from the sheer pleasure of following the author's discourse.

It would be pleasant to leave this notice at that; but a protest must be lodged against the use of such terms as "knowing" and "thinking" in connection with plants, and the attribution to them of emotions and deliberate action. The sin of anthropomorphism is fairly common among popular biologists, but Mr. Johnson sins beyond all excuse when he describes potatoes as *thinking*; the leaves of one plant *deliberately* attempting to overshadow those of another; flowers that are attractive because "they *deliberately* lay themselves out to be," and are very *anxious* to be visited by insects." There is no justification for such statements, and absolutely nothing to be gained by making them.

A few inaccuracies call for revision when the opportunity occurs, as it is certain to do. The most curious of these is the general statement (page 33) that "where the flowers rely on the wind to trans-

port the pollen, the stamen and stigmas must be borne fairly close together," the actual fact being that in many cases anemophilous flowers are imperfect and the stamens and stigmas are borne far apart on separate plants. By implication, too, the reader is led to understand that practically all flowers are cross-fertilised (page 32), which is certainly not the case; and that all seeds possess fleshy cotyledons (page 39), which is emphatically not the case. In brief, Mr. Johnson appears to be a distinctly better and more reliable zoologist than botanist. Despite of which his little volume is to be warmly commended.

Geography.

CLIMATOLOGY: by A. Austin Miller, M.Sc. (12s. 6d. Methuen.)

The subject of climatology has seen many changes in the last few years, and teachers who may have found much difficulty in keeping in touch with recent developments will welcome Mr. Miller's lucid and interesting explanations. His book deals with each of the climatic units as a whole, and then with the more important regional peculiarities. There are numerous maps and diagrams, some of which, however, would have been more effective if drawn on a larger scale, and there are lists of temperature and rainfall figures that are of great value.

Particular attention has been paid to climatic control of vegetation, and the various human responses to climatic influences are likewise carefully and abundantly noted. At the ends of a number of the chapters are valuable lists of books and articles for further reading. Mr. Miller has aimed at supplying the advanced student with a book complete enough for such a student's purpose, but he has presented his material in such a manner that it is readable by anyone interested in this branch of geographical teaching. E. Y.

A REGIONAL GEOGRAPHY: Part V, EUROPE AND THE MEDITERRANEAN: by L. Dudley Stamp, D.Sc., B.A. (6s. 6d. Longmans.)

Although confessedly based upon the author's successful "Intermediate Commercial Geography," this volume may be regarded as a new work, and a very excellent one at that. Dr. Stamp is not only an acknowledged authority, but a past master in the presentation of his subject, and it is not too much to say that in this particular volume we have one of the best extant accounts of Europe and the Mediterranean for the use of post matriculation students and those of similar status. It is not without cause that Dr. Stamp emphasises the value and importance of the regional aspect of geography, many students showing a curious and regrettable tendency to overlook the fact that national regions are in many cases not natural regions, and that to

study them as independent and isolated units makes neither for economy of time nor success. Dr. Stamp's established reputation is such that it is scarcely necessary to say that his text is reliable, and the information he gives of the right kind, while his numerous maps and diagrams are exceedingly helpful.

History.

EVERYDAY THINGS IN ARCHAIC GREECE: by M. and C. H. B. Quennell. (7s. 6d. Batsford.)

Mr. and Mrs. Quennell have followed up their first "Everyday" success by a little library on the same general plan. Their books are now well known, and this volume has the same characteristics as the first "Everyday" book. The subject matter is based on houses, tools, clothing, and the making of things. There are line illustrations, many of them very arresting—the chiton as made and worn, vase designs, a house front, temples, columns and capitols, jar forms, chairs and stools, an abacus, a tortoise-shell lyre, a ship, a cart, a race. There is a well produced frontispiece in colour.

The period covered is from Thales to Euripides; from the rise of Milesian science to the battle of Plataea—not much over a century. But it was a very stirring century. The first thirty pages give a synopsis of Herodotus. The rest of the book is in three chapters: The Temple and the House; Life Inside the House; Life Outside the House.

R. J.

Roman History.

A SHORT HISTORY OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE TO THE DEATH OF MARCUS AURELIUS: by the late Dr. J. Wells and R. H. Barrow, M.A., B.Litt. (6s. Methuen.)

The late Dr. Wells began this book as a continuation of his "Short History of Rome to the Death of Augustus," but the greater part of the present volume is from the pen of Mr. Barrow. The plan is simple and chronological, arranged under "Principates." The last chapters deal with Roman Britain, Christianity, Economic Conditions, and Social Life. There are eight maps and six appendices. One of these latter is particularly useful—a table of the chief names in the literary history of the first two centuries.

R. J.

Nature Study.

TOLD BY WOODLAND BROWNIE: by Gordon S. Maxwell. (3d. Brodie.)

This interesting and amusing little book, the subject matter of which is concerned with animal and bird life in the woods, will be found very useful as a supplementary reader for the nature study lessons in junior classes.

BOOKS OF THE MONTH.

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The Royal Society of Teachers is so called by command of His Majesty the King. It is a body of teachers made up of those who have been admitted to Registration by the Teachers Registration Council, a body representative of all types of teaching work, which is elected every five years by the Universities and the Registered Teachers of the country. The Council itself was authorised by Parliament in 1907 and established in 1912 to carry out the duty of forming and keeping a Register of Teachers, arranged in one column with the names in alphabetical order. Although the Council was thus established by Parliament, it receives no Government grant, nor is it controlled by the Board of Education.

It has already admitted 80,000 teachers to Registration, including those who were admitted during the earlier years on relatively easy terms. To-day the Conditions are such as ensure that the Registered Teacher will possess at least reasonable attainments, and have undergone a period of satisfactory experience. A Training in Teaching is also being gradually established as an indispensable requirement.

Teachers in comfortable positions may ask what use is to be found in a Register such as the one maintained by the Council. It is unfortunate that corporate memories are so short and that teachers of one generation are apt to forget the efforts of their predecessors. During the latter half of the nineteenth century no fewer than twelve Bills were introduced into Parliament, with the object of securing a professional register for teachers. Several of these efforts were misdirected, since they would have had the result of dividing teachers into different classes, such as elementary, secondary, &c. But unity is essential in a true profession, and that is why the present Register is arranged in alphabetical order and in one column. A profession must be independent also, and that is why a fee is required for admission to the Register. This is a single and final payment of Three Pounds.

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Although the Register has made good progress so far, there are still many qualified teachers who remain outside, and it is urgently necessary that they should come in at once in order to support a movement which is the outcome of years of effort and is destined to establish the teacher's calling on a definite professional basis. In the earlier stages of all corporate movements, including every association of teachers, there is the difficulty created by people who prefer to hold aloof until the work of the pioneers has begun to bear fruit. It is hardly a meritorious thing to withhold one's help while grasping the benefits which others have secured. Teaching may be raised to the level of a real profession if everybody concerned displays the right spirit of generous support at this stage.

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NOVEMBER 1931

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CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS

THE EDUCATION OUTLOOK

NOVEMBER, 1931.

ASSET AND QUALIFICATION.

It was recently remarked that a public school education is an asset but not a qualification. This dictum might be extended to cover a university degree. In most callings a degree in arts or in pure science is the preliminary to the process of qualification. Even a degree in law will not qualify the holder to practise as a solicitor or barrister. A degree in theology does not entitle a man to hold a benefice, nor will a degree in physiology lead to immediate enrolment on the Medical Register. This does not mean that the degrees mentioned are valueless as part of the equipment for the various callings. It means only that they are a part and not the whole of the preparation of the practitioner.

When we consider the calling of the teacher we find that in some of its most important branches a degree is held to be all that the beginner needs. In some branches, indeed, a measure of attainment of about the level of university matriculation or a good school certificate is considered to be adequate. There is no general demand, even among teachers themselves, that the work of instructing others shall be made a matter of specific preparation. A degree will serve, especially if backed by athletic skill.

While this view prevails in our leading educational institutions there will be little hope of establishing teaching as a profession.

No calling can become a profession until it is known to demand special qualifications, obtainable only by special preparation. What form the special preparation should take is a matter to be determined by teachers themselves. It may be that we shall require different forms for different branches. It is certain that in every branch the form will require to be adapted to the subject matter taught and to the age and other circumstances of the pupils. The teacher of infants must have a technique vastly different from that of a university lecturer, and the master of a school in Poplar will have problems unlike those of a master at Eton. Yet there is a common element in all forms of teaching, and this should be known by all teachers. It may be small at present, but with the advance of time and the progress of research it will grow, just as the scientific basis of medicine or of engineering has been broadened as the result of patient inquiry.

It must not be supposed that every teacher must

be a psychologist in the technical sense of the term or a profound student of the history of educational ideas. The study of "conditioned reflexes" and other manifestations of mental operations will attract some teachers, but it is by no means indispensable for all. There will be many for whom it is enough that they should have such knowledge of educational theory and history as will enable them to understand and apply the conclusions of psychology, and will serve to prevent them from accepting uncritically every new method or system that may be promulgated as a panacea for all teaching ills.

The body of doctrine which should form the foundation of teaching will be best discovered and formulated by systematic research under the auspices of our universities. The proposed Institute advocated by Sir Percy Nunn and others may become the centre of such research. It cannot become the sole place of research, since other universities outside London must take part, and there will be scope also for private work. An Institute connected with the University of London might be accepted as a clearing house of the results of research throughout the British Commonwealth, and, if funds are forthcoming, there might be arrangements for publishing results of practical service to teachers.

It must never be forgotten that the qualifications of a teacher are revealed, not by diplomas in pedagogy but by skill in the classroom. For this reason we ought to provide the beginner with adequate opportunity for the practice of teaching under skilled supervision. At the outset every young teacher has to encounter difficulties which are not to be solved by reference to text-books. Teaching is a craft which includes more than the satisfactory giving of lessons, and it is to be acquired only by experience fortified and illuminated by a knowledge of principles. Our present system of training teachers suffers from the defect that it affords too little chance of gaining experience. We have continued in the main to follow the plan devised in days when the young man or woman who entered a training college had already been a pupil teacher for four years or more. This experience often hampered the acquisition of necessary knowledge, but it gave practice in the elements of the craft of teaching. We are now encouraging young teachers to obtain degrees and diplomas. These are assets, no doubt, but to gain full qualification the teacher must have real experience in the classroom.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS.

FROM A CORRESPONDENT.

Progress of Registration.

At a meeting of the Council held on Friday, October 16, it was reported that the number of applications received during the period June 1 to September 30 was 5,264, bringing the total up to 89,595. During the early part of October further addition was made, so that the total of applications since the Register was opened is now well over 90,000. This may be considered to afford substantial evidence that teachers as a body desire to become a registered profession. Those who have applied include representatives of every type of teaching work, although, as is to be expected, considerably more than half the number are working in public elementary schools. Over 20,000 applications have come from secondary schools, and over 11,000 from teachers of specialist subjects such as technology, art, music, &c. The progress of the Register has been hampered by the course of national and educational events since it was opened in January, 1914. A good start had been made when the war came in August of that year, and this disaster arrested developments not only during the period of hostilities but for years afterwards. In 1920 a fresh start was made and a large number of teachers applied for admission. Then came the first period of "economy," causing another setback to the movement. In turn a recovery was being made when the latest attack on education, with its accompaniment of a reduction in the salaries of teachers, was started. It is to be hoped that teachers everywhere will recognise the importance of establishing their work on a professional footing and will bend their energies to recovering the position which has been lost for the time being. The Council takes the view that the reductions recently imposed should not endure for a day longer than is necessary. It is evident that the reduced salaries may fail to attract recruits in sufficient numbers and of the proper type, and without such recruits the enterprise of national education will be gravely weakened at its most important point.

Redress of Grievances.

It is a mistake to suppose that the function of the Royal Society of Teachers and of its Executive, the Teachers Registration Council, is to work for the redress of individual or sectional grievances. This task must be left to the powerful organisations which undertake the protection of their members. The task of the Council is rather that of safeguarding the position of the profession by building up in the public mind such respect for education as will ensure fair treatment for teachers based on a proper

understanding of the nature of their work. Were the Council to attempt to trespass on the ground already covered by the various organisations of teachers, it would be regarded as a competitive body, and might do harm by adding to the difficulty which even now prevails when different associations express different views on matters of educational policy. A united profession might become a clearing-house for these varieties of policy and statement, and make itself a vehicle for the expression of the highest common factor of teaching opinion—if a common factor could be discovered. The experience of other professions gives no ground for anticipating that all differences of opinion can be eliminated, but it is reasonable to suppose that teachers as a body will agree concerning the standards of attainment, professional training, and experience which ought to be demanded from those who seek to enter the profession. It is the main present business of the Council to secure such agreement, and thereafter to convince educational authorities that the standards prescribed are such as ought to be satisfied by all who hold responsible positions in schools and other educational institutions.

The Instalment Scheme.

The plan approved by the Council by which the fee for Registration and admission to the Royal Society of Teachers may be paid by instalments has been welcomed by many applicants and will probably serve the convenience of many more who are now subject to the reduction in salaries ordered by the National Government. It should be noted that the instalments may be paid either directly to the office of the Council or through an authorised school collector. The former method is widely adopted and is found to work quite smoothly. The instalment may be of any amount convenient to the applicant, and may be paid at any time, but it is desirable that the total payment should be completed within twelve months or thereabouts. By taking advantage of the instalment scheme, young teachers who have recently left training college or university may become entitled to full Registration at the end of the period of experience required by the Conditions. It should be noted that the fee is now raised to £3, an increase which is rendered necessary by the fact that the Council has recently been compelled to undertake considerable outlay in connection with the renewal of the lease of its present premises, and has also to face the prospect of a considerable reduction in the return from its investments. Even £3 is a small fee when compared with those usual in other professions, and it must be remembered that it represents a final payment and not an annual charge.

THE MONTH'S CAUSERIE.

By THE DOMINIE.

Difficult Times.

These are difficult times for everybody, and not least for those concerned with education. I am writing before the election results are known, but there is little hope of anything good emerging from this vaudeville of politicians. The demand for national unity means only that those who make it would like to have a big majority in the House of Commons. The desire is natural enough, but it does not justify the use of hysterical gloom, cajolery, and wilful ambiguity of phrase as devices for deluding the electorate. An educated community would not respond to these verbal tricks, but would look for men and women competent to manage its affairs. As things are, we are invited to support politicians of various hues, all of whom are experienced in misgoverning the country. Their several records are blotted by many blunders, but they come forward with loquacious assurance to ask for another chance. We have passed through all forms of government, from despotism to democracy, and the time is at hand when democratic government will have to work through the agency of expert commissions. We cannot afford to leave our affairs in the hands of versatile amateurs, part-time barristers, and trade union officials. Government is a task for experts.

Policy in Education.

As an example of the need for expert management we may consider our system of education. On this we spend from public funds about ninety millions a year in England and Wales. In addition there is the expenditure from endowments and from fees paid by parents. To obtain an adequate return for this great outlay we ought to have an agreed policy. Parliament might determine broadly the amount to be spent from State funds, and indicate broadly the kind of education required. There should be a permanent Commission to carry out the scheme within the financial limits prescribed. The officials of the present abstract body known as the Board of Education would become responsible to the Commission, which, in turn, would be responsible to Parliament, the Minister of Education being its chairman. By this means we should be able to plan ahead, free from the recurrent uncertainties on policy. In the past twenty-five years we have had ten different Presidents of the Board. Instead of an office we have a corridor, through which aspiring politicians move with celerity to posts of higher emolument, or to outer darkness. The officials are permanent, but are expected to adapt themselves to the policy of the hour. Apart from the Consultative Committee and *ad hoc* committees of inquiry, we have no source of expert opinion.

Justice.

I read in the newspapers that during the legal vacation the gilded figure of Justice above the Central Criminal Court has been renovated. This is gratifying news, but I fear that the eyes of the lady remain closed. Were they open I should expect her to take note of the fact that one of the first Orders in Council propounded under the recent Economy Act lays it down that, notwithstanding any contractual engagement, the salaries of teachers may be reduced by not more than 10 per cent. as from October 1. The teachers must keep their side of the contract, for there is no right given to them to leave without due notice. I cannot recall any such flagrant example of unfair dealing outside the records of slavery. This monstrous injustice was inflicted on teachers and others who are paid wholly or in part from State funds, and the pretext was the urgent necessity of preserving the gold standard and maintaining the credit of the country. I could wish that our panic-stricken legislators had remembered that the word "credit" covers something more than our financial stability abroad. It includes some idea of moral stability in the eyes of our own citizens. No sort of national credit can be founded on dishonourable dealings by the National Government.

Economy Folly.

An example of foolish economy is contained in the report of a recent meeting of the Cheshire Education Committee when it was proposed to appoint a school dentist and a dental nurse. The Rev. B. Slater spoke on the urgent need for national economy, and said that if the appointments were made they would cost £700 a year. He then proposed that the matter be referred to the sub-committee for further consideration. Fortunately the Chairman, Sir William Hodgson, was able to point out that the teeth of children are an important factor in health, and the critic withdrew his objection. Such ill-considered attempts at "economy" are only too common in these days. In this instance, as in many others, I find people forgetting the important truth that disabilities imposed on children are far more serious than any we can impose on their elders. Neglect a child's teeth and you may be impairing his whole future. Similarly if you fall into a panic and deprive children of schooling you inflict on them a handicap which will be permanent. Loss of education cannot be made good. Yet our sapient May Committee and a shivering Government are willing to see education cut down, forgetting that they are thereby doing a lasting harm to the community.

Education "Economy" in Berlin.

The correspondent of the *Observer* reports that in Berlin five hundred young teachers have been dismissed from the elementary schools, and six hundred and fifty older teachers have been retired on pension. Classes have been made larger, and instead of a maximum of thirty-two pupils they may now have fifty. On this we may recall that our Board of Education Report for 1928-29 states that we had in that year 150,932 classes in our public elementary schools, and of these over 60,000 numbered more than forty pupils, and nearly 11,000 had more than fifty. Remembering that in rural areas the classes are often small of necessity, it is clear that we cannot copy Berlin in this particular "economy."

We are told that parents are resisting these reductions in Berlin, and that a strike of 1,200 school children was organised at the beginning of this term. Evidently these citizens differ from our own, for one of the most deplorable accompaniments of our Government's economy effort in education has been the contented acceptance and even approval of public men and the newspaper press. Few people seem to understand the value of education outside their own families. The social work of the schools is not regarded, and shallow-pated critics declare that education is being "overdone."

Physical Training versus Drill.

At the opening of a new sanatorium at Epsom College, Lord Dawson of Penn spoke of the importance of systematic bodily culture for school pupils. He said that it should occupy a definite place in the curriculum instead of a few odd hours grudgingly conceded. The duties of school medical officers should not be confined to cases of sickness. They should include the supervision of physical education and the study of the bodily condition of boys undergoing the training. In this way, he said, the trained eye would detect, at an early stage and without formal examination, defects of frame and function at a time when they could be rectified, for the best indications are given while the pupil is in movement. "This kind of physical training," said Lord Dawson, "ought to replace the old mechanical soul-destroying drill, but in many schools physical education just stumbles along, and there are some head masters who have not even begun to understand what it really means." These remarks by a foremost authority deserve attention. In spite of recent improvements we are still prone to think that school playing fields plus the parade ground of the O.T.C. are enough to ensure physical fitness. What we need is more attention to all-round development of bodily powers. Games and drill—but not military exercises pure and simple—have their place, but they are not enough, especially for non-athletic pupils.

Bounties for Teachers.

It is sometimes said that teachers in elementary schools ought to be content with low salaries because their education and professional training are paid for by the State. The truth is that the State subsidy has to be supplemented by fees, and it is unlikely that any teacher can take even a two-year course in a training college to-day without expending £100 on entrance fee, books, clothes, the cost of railway fares, and of maintenance during vacations. Teachers are not the only people to receive subsidies during their preparation for a profession. Pupils in our endowed schools and students in universities obtain tuition considerably below cost. Many of those who criticise teachers in this regard have themselves received bounties which exceed in sum the grant to a student in a training college. Nevertheless, the system of car-marked grants for intending teachers—as they are called—should be abolished. There is no valid reason for awarding grants wholesale to young men and women who are willing to declare an intention of becoming teachers. Let those who need help receive it on proof of fitness, as is done with other forms of educational scholarships and bursaries. Let us abolish this system of bounty-feeding, and make the work attractive enough to bring recruits. The present plan involves a waste of money, for many recipients of the bounty leave the work after a few years.

A Permanent Loss.

One of the greatest evils attending the economy campaign in education is the fact that opportunities denied during childhood will not recur. It seems to be assumed that we can suspend or curtail features of our school system and resume them later without great harm being done. The mistake in this view is illustrated in the report of the Executive Committee of the National Playing Fields Association, where it is pointed out that the loss of exchequer grants will prevent the acquiring of land. It should be understood that the purchase will not merely be postponed. It will be prevented, because the land will be bought for other purposes. The schools, thus deprived of convenient areas for playing fields, will be compelled to suffer permanent loss and inconvenience such as are now endured by many town schools. Some London secondary schools are separated from their playing fields by miles of streets. The Committee of the N.P.F.A. charitably assume that the advocates of economy in playing fields had considered this aspect of the matter, but the May Report affords no indication that its nominal authors cared a jot about the welfare of the next generation. Rather than ask us to pay a little more for sugar, or accept a little less in dividends on war loan stock, they chose to attack education in a stupid and short-sighted fashion.

CREATING INTELLIGENCE.

By FREDERIC EVANS, M.A. (Cantab.).

The educational press has recently been quoting freely from a speech of the Head Master of Rugby. He is reported to have said, amongst other things, that the world was suffering from a want of intelligence—that the perils of to-day were due to the stupidity of men and to lack of intelligence in guiding the destinies of nations. He then contrasted the intellectual conservatism of Englishmen with the vivacity of interest of Frenchmen, and declared that the English were unsociable because they had never developed intelligence in conversation. The intelligence of England was low, and *something should be done to raise it*. (The italics are mine.) He thought also that as a nation we had too long shunned the duty of thinking about the great problems of life. With this latter view we can agree, though we may place much of the fault to the account of our great public schools, which have hardly included in their tradition an intelligent discussion of the problems of world civilisation.

However much one may agree with Mr. Vaughan's opinion that intelligence must be more and more applied to the complexities of civilisation, if that civilisation is to live, it is less easy to agree with the remedy he suggests—which is that something should be done to raise the intelligence of the people. It was somewhat of a coincidence that the week in which the reports of the Head Master's speech appeared was also the week in which I read that very stimulating book by Mr. Alderton Pink, "A Realist Looks at Democracy." He discusses in the third chapter whether we can create intelligence; whether it is by the cultivation and training of the intelligence of a democracy as a whole that we can achieve world order. He argues that psychology does not say so. Intelligence, as demonstrated by the mental tests of recent years, seems clearly to be an innate thing incapable of being increased by training. In Appendix III of "The Primary School," Dr. Cyril Burt says:—

The mental capacity, which is of supreme importance for intellectual progress, is intelligence. Intelligence in the technical sense may be defined as inborn, general, intellectual ability. (Note the word "inborn.")

Moreover, the results of mental tests have shown us that, like any other natural characteristic,

intelligence varies in its quality amongst human beings over a very wide range. From the low mentality of the idiot it ranges to the high mental quality of the genius. And between these there are innumerable gradations of intelligence arranged symmetrically about an average line. Shown in a curve the distribution gives an outline something like that of a volcano. Half the population are below the vertical average line and, as far as innate intelligence is concerned, will always remain there. On these facts Mr. Alderton Pink bases a powerful criticism of the democratic idea. He says:—

If we honestly accept the evidence of modern psychology it is clear that we must abandon the more extravagant claims made for the power of education. The business of the teacher cannot be to "produce" or to "increase" intelligence. He cannot alter the intellectual endowment of his pupils; he can only make the best of it.

Mr. Vaughan (a schoolmaster) says "raise the standard of intelligence," Mr. Alderton Pink (quoting modern psychology) says it cannot be done. Technically the psychologist seems to be right, but both make the mistake of thinking that intelligence is what matters most both in world affairs and in education. Mr. Vaughan would raise intelligence, and through it organise the world. Mr. Alderton Pink regards the training of intelligence as the only business of education. Both seem to me to miss a very vital element, namely emotion. Even if we could people our world, as Mr. Vaughan would have it, with a race of supermen all with high intelligence quotients, would that alone produce peace and order? It is extremely doubtful. Already there are in the world enough trained intelligences to organise it: as something far different from the competitive chaos wherein, for example, we hear of wheat being burned in Canada while people starve in other regions. The trouble is that there is not enough goodwill and sympathy to direct the intelligences. If we remember the phenomenal progress made in scientific appliances during the war, when there was the one-purpose emotional force of a desire for victory vitalising and uniting in a common purpose the work of every scientist, it is clear that it is not the science that is lacking to-day but the common purpose. And the realisation of this common purpose is more a matter of our emotional selves than of cold reason. Mr. Alderton Pink makes the same mistake when he suggests that education is concerned only with intelligence. His thesis may be true, that only the higher intelligences can understand the problems of a complex civilisation.

tion such as ours, but these intelligences must always require the emotional driving power of a mass idea. The tragedy is that our higher intelligences cannot agree among themselves. That is the weakness in Mr. Vaughan's thesis as well. There is no brain packed in ice. The prejudices of the family, the locality, of the class in society to which we belong, affect silently and unconsciously our intellectual processes. Knowledge may be power, but it affords no guarantee of unbiased judgment. Why is it that you can have three university professors of the same age holding quite different political views? How is it that one highly educated person will believe in the League of Nations and to another it is anathema? The explanation lies in the different emotional backgrounds which people have, this unconscious prejudice interfering with the working of the "coldly intellectual machine." People, even intellectual people, tend to believe only what they wish to believe.

We are driven therefore to the conclusion that, from the point of view of world unity and concord, there is a factor in education—emotion—which is at least equal in importance to intelligence. From a mass point of view it is probably more important. Even if intelligence in the psychological sense cannot be raised—cannot be created—there is no reason to lose heart. There is present in all humans that emotion which controls our destiny even more than intellect. It is a force which probably dominates the "lower" intelligences even more than the higher. Thus a balance is struck, and educationists who aim to train a rational people can take heart. The right atmosphere, the right attitude of mind to the problems of the world, are more important in the mass than mass knowledge of these things, even if this were possible. The voice of the people can speak as the voice of God if their hearts are in the right place and their emotional attitude is tolerant and humane. Given the drive of such a single-purpose emotional force, there must yet be a sufficiency of intellect to be the spearhead of any world movement of great power. It is thus emotional force for good—for world co-operation—which we must cultivate by education, and this is capable of growth and training. It is the hope and the justification of a world democracy, and, given this, the intellects will serve mankind nobly and well just as when in the grip of the anti-social purpose of the war they gave of their best in perfecting engines of destruction.

Popular education must be so organised as to give intelligences of all standards full opportunity to develop to their fullest capacity. As Dr. Ballard says, the "capital" of intelligence must by proper education be trained to yield its fullest "interest" in the form of culture.

IS THE PUBLIC EXAMINATION A TEST?

BY A. M. MOORHEAD.

Examinations are over for the time being, and candidates who have been poring over their desks can now console themselves with the reflection that, whether they pass or fail, the die is cast, and nothing more can be done at present.

"Is the public examination a fair test?" This question is bound to arise in the minds of those interested, while waiting during the holidays to hear the results. A test of what? Education? And what again is education? It would be difficult to find a better answer to the last question than the well-known "It's what remains when everything else has been forgotten." The aim of education is to fit a boy not only for work but for life. It forms a basis for all future training and knowledge he may wish to acquire. Obviously, then, intensive cramming for examinations is valueless, knowledge thus obtained being as fleeting as the effort to acquire it. Success achieved by steady work is the only success that will have lasting results.

The acquisition of a degree, while proof of scholarship, does not ensure that the holder will make a good teacher. I knew a woman with many letters after her name who had not the remotest notion how to impart the knowledge she possessed. From the point of view of the business man, however, public examinations do provide a certain test, not only of education but of other qualities. Success in the business world largely depends on clear-headedness and the ability to work with concentration—faculties acquired while working steadily for an examination. Another factor, essential both in business and at the examination desk, is the ability to rise to an occasion. The candidate may possess the required knowledge, but if he cannot make use of it, of what service will it be to him or to his potential employer? A man who is rattled by a question on paper is likely to be just as unreliable when facing an astute business rival. The ability to think quickly and clearly that stands the successful candidate in such good stead will prove an invaluable asset at every turn to the business man.

Selection by public examination may have its faults, but it does at least provide the fairest and most reliable test possible in this imperfect world.

New Cizek Christmas Cards.

The Austrian Junior Red Cross has issued a new set of ten coloured Christmas cards, made by children of ten to fourteen years of age, pupils of the world-renowned Juvenile Art Class of Prof. Cizek, in Vienna. The price of the set of ten cards is 1s. 2d., postage included. Orders should be addressed to the Austrian Junior Red Cross, 1 Stuhening, Vienna I, Austria.

HIGHER EDUCATION IN CANADA.

By AMY E. MCKOWAN.

The early pioneers in Canada had to deny themselves many things, but no matter how hard the struggle for existence, they were never willing to sacrifice the education of their children. Every settlement had its schoolhouse with the best equipment they could obtain. From earliest days it was felt that the training of the youth of the country was of primary importance, first to the settlement and later to the State. Thus in each province was laid the foundation of the educational system of to-day.

The Federal Government has no control over education, save in the case of Indians and in the Territories. Each Province has its own Department of Education, with minister, deputy minister, and staff, whose duty it is to draw up the educational scheme of the province, and to appoint inspectors who supervise and inspect the schools. Provinces are divided into school districts, and the rate-payers in each district elect annually school trustees who appoint the teachers, and arrange for the equipment and care of the school buildings in accordance with the requirements of the Education Act of the province.

Elementary and secondary education are free, and the money raised for the purpose is provided from three sources—provincial grants, local rates, and income from land set apart by the Dominion for educational purposes.

Some of the provinces place the school-leaving age at fourteen, but in most of them school attendance is compulsory to the age of fifteen or sixteen. In towns and cities schools are divided into two classes—elementary and secondary, or, as they are called in Canada, public and high schools. There are eight grades in the public schools, and the high schools carry the student to matriculation and senior school-leaving standard. In the rural districts all the schools complete at least the eight grades of the public school, and many of them have what is known as a continuation class, which enables the farmer's child to complete the first two or three years of high school work without leaving home.

While great credit is due to the early settlers for the foundation of this system, still greater credit is due for their efforts to provide for the higher education of their sons and daughters. The Dominion of Canada this year celebrated its sixty-fourth birthday, but there are several universities in the Dominion which have already celebrated their hundredth anniversary. At present there are twenty-three universities and ninety-seven colleges, in addition to forty-six teacher training colleges known as normal

schools. The fees at the universities are very low, and many scholarships are offered, so that no one is debarred by lack of money from obtaining the highest education. Men and women are received on equal terms, and from early days a very large number of women have availed themselves of the opportunities offered. The standard of learning at the universities is high, especially at the older established ones, which rank with the European and best American universities.

In 1930 there were 9,640 students training as teachers in the forty-six normal schools, 33,525 students enrolled in the twenty-three universities, and 34,518 in the ninety-seven colleges. The question naturally arises what becomes of them when they graduate. In a country with a population of 10,000,000 there would seem to be a large number of educated men and women annually seeking positions.

Graduates of the normal schools find their work among the 70,000 teachers employed in the Dominion. Graduates of the Faculties of Law, Medicine, Pharmacy, Dental Surgery, Mining, and Engineering seek employment in their special professions. Many of the colleges are specially designed for training in agriculture, and their graduates easily find positions in a country where agriculture is the basic industry. Where do the others find scope for their energies and training?

It is an interesting fact that the greater the percentage of educated people there are in a country the more numerous would seem to be the positions open to them. The Civil Service of the Federal Government alone employed 47,133 persons in 1930. At one time Civil Servants were appointed directly by the Government of the day; but now appointments are made by the Civil Service Commission after open competition, and each year a number of college and university graduates find posts either at Ottawa or in the outside service of the Government. Many, too, are absorbed in the Provincial Civil Service Departments.

The public libraries of the country are under the direction and supervision of the Departments of Education in the various provinces, and their number is steadily growing, offering each year new posts for trained librarians. As the population of the country increases, so does the need for literature, and not only the number of libraries, but the number of newspapers and journals published in the Dominion is rapidly increasing, thus offering an ever-widening field for the journalist.

Many find work in business and finance—in the banks and in insurance companies, not only in the

actuarial department, but also in the sales branches. There are also openings for private secretaries.

The industrial life of Canada is in its infancy, but in the last few years has made gigantic strides, thus making new openings for the educated person with technical and scientific training. University graduates are found as heads of departments and superintendents in manufacturing plants, and in the departmental stores of the great cities.

One might, in fact, sum up the opportunities for the university or college graduates in Canada by saying that in all walks of life, other things being equal, the preference is given to the person with the higher education.

A PIONEER.



The picture reproduced above is a painting by Miss Margaret Saunders, of Perth, Western Australia. It represents a woman of the pioneer type, living in the wilds and working to establish a successful farm. The face is a strong one, with a subtle suggestion of grit and character such as are needed where men and women are fighting a constant battle with nature and the elements. The original picture was exhibited at the Women's Centenary Exhibition in Perth.

GLEANINGS.

What the May Committee Forgot.

"There is a national battle to be fought and our children must take their places in the national ranks before many years have passed. Let them, then, get now all the learning and the wisdom that they can, for education will be one of their surest weapons. We have to equip them for the fight; to teach them that henceforth victory assuredly will go to the intellectually strong."—*Sir Max Pemberton.*

The Claims of Youth.

"At a time when reduction of public expenditure has become a stern necessity the education of youth should take priority, for it is on its youth England will depend for regaining its powers of stable prosperity and happy citizenship."—*Lord Dawson of Penn.*

A Definition.

In a schoolgirl's essay there appeared this definition: "Man is what woman has to marry."

Sunshine—and Moonshine.

Speaking at St. John's, Upper Holloway, the Rev. William Rover said: "No wonder the sun has stopped shining when so many men and women lie about the beach at seaside resorts half-naked."

The reverend moralist should now rebuke the sun for shining so powerfully and shamelessly on those inhabitants of tropical regions who are said to wear nothing at all.

Milk—and Water-colour.

The Bermondsey Borough Council has commissioned a local amateur to paint famous buildings and some of the disappearing landmarks in their district. There is no significant relation between the facts that the artist is by trade a milkman and that the pictures are to be in water-colour.

Our Politicians.

"My principal reason for being a Protectionist is that I may banish from this country the American language."—*Mr. Stanley Baldwin.*

"The present state of affairs cannot be allowed to continue."—*Mr. J. H. Thomas.*

"We want a Government to govern. England will come out on top—and to hell with everybody."—*Rear-Admiral Gordon Campbell, V.C.*

Optimism.

"I intend to vote for sanity at this election, but I must say that I would do so with a better heart and greater confidence if Mr. MacDonald, Mr. Baldwin, and Sir Herbert Samuel were to say, even now, 'I'm sorry, and I promise not to do it again.'" —*From a letter to "The Times," October 16.*

NOTES ON AMERICAN EDUCATION.

BY KATHLEEN D. MACRAE, B.A., B.Sc. (Econ.).

III. America and the Backward Fourteen Year Old.

There is no more difficult problem in education than how to cater for the backward thirteen and fourteen year old boy and girl. Two or three really dull ones in a class, if we are not constantly watchful, can easily have the effect of lowering the whole standard of class work, for the average youngster is not always so exuberantly energetic as youth should be, and if she finds she can easily beat some members of the class, she will be perfectly contented with her own rather poor work. Again, most young people are not above a certain amount of cruelty, and rather delight in it when some very dull person makes unconsciously amusing blunders. Of course it is sometimes possible to segregate these backward people into a class by themselves, but that again is open to objection, for it is hardly an honour to be in a backward class, and there have been instances when the cruelty of youth has dubbed them with uncomplimentary nicknames.

I think America has solved this problem satisfactorily in instituting what are known as prevocational schools. It is the law in many American States that attendance at school is compulsory to the age of sixteen, unless the eighth grade has been reached—or, as we would say, until the boy or girl reaches the average level of seventh standard work. The problem of the dull boy or girl who is thus compelled to stay on at school is therefore a bigger problem than in this country, where we simply turn them adrift. In the process of reorganisation of elementary education many American cities have set up these prevocational schools, as they are called, to cater for the needs of the retarded adolescents. The child of fourteen who is not making good at the elementary school is thus given a complete change of environment, and begins afresh in a new school, the name of which in no way suggests to the pupils that they have been educational failures. It is a new beginning in every sense of the word, and the syllabus is so planned as to give a very large proportion of handwork.

I went to several of these schools in America and was very struck with the kind of work they are doing. To quote one example, the Richards School in Chicago is producing work in weaving, millinery, and dressmaking, which comes up to the standard of many American trade schools. The staff admitted that at first the girls require a great deal of patience, but that as soon as they begin to realise that only accurate work will be accepted it is wonderful how they improve. The training of a prevocational school aims at accuracy above everything, and teaches them to do simple things well. The handwork courses

are not supposed to provide vocational training, but actually, I am told, a very large percentage do go out to work at the kind of thing they have been taught at school. And, most encouraging of all, so beneficial is the complete change of environment and syllabus, that most of the girls manage to reach the required eighth grade standard in general school subjects before they leave. This means much in America, which is a country which thinks in educational terms, for to have graduated from the eighth grade is the minimum requirement of all employers for all except the most menial and monotonous of tasks.

Now the boy and girl for whom the prevocational school caters are not mentally deficient, but only dull and retarded. Indeed a survey of records shows that in 80 per cent. of the cases the inability to work is due to bad home conditions. But they are the type who, had they been left to remain on in the elementary school, would have left school discouraged, dubbed as failures for life, and unable to earn a living.

It is probably an expensive experiment, this setting up of special schools, and hardly within the range of our possibility in these times as yet, but I do think it is worth while. When, in the better days that we hope are coming, the school-leaving age is raised, we must see to it that these backward children are especially catered for, to keep them from the ranks of the unemployables, and put them on their way to being useful members of society.

Leicester University College.

Mr. F. L. Attenborough, M.A., former Fellow of Emmanuel College, Cambridge, and now Principal of Borough Road Training College, has been appointed Principal of the University College, Leicester.

The New Grammar School at Manchester.

On Saturday, October 17, the new buildings of Manchester Grammar School at Rusholme were opened by Lord Derby. The old building was in the heart of the city, on the site of the original school founded by Hugh Oldham, Bishop of Exeter, who was closely connected with Manchester in his youth, and later with Corpus Christi College, Oxford, a foundation which is still linked with Manchester Grammar School, numerically the largest day school in the country.

THE HUMOROUS SIDE.

By "PENSIONER."

We have been treated to rather a "plethora" in the way of books of school howlers and blunders of recent years. These illustrations of the humorous side of school life are really best taken in small doses. To wade through a whole book of these amusing collections is certainly disturbing to one's mental digestion. Many of them bear so obviously the mark of the zealous pedagogic "embellisher," not to say "faker," that they clearly lack those first essentials of "howlers," viz., unconsciousness and spontaneity on the part of the perpetrator.

The author of that delightful book, "Bulls, Blunders, and Howlers," perhaps the best of its kind, tells us that the earliest use of the word "howler" can only be traced back as far as 1890, and probably indicates the howl of laughter of those first hearing some ludicrous or incongruous statement from a student. The difficulty with regard to spoken "howlers" is that too often, when transcribed on paper, they do not strike the casual reader as being half so funny as they really were when uttered.

So very much really depends on the voice, gesture, and personality of the perpetrator and other circumstances. On the other hand a large proportion of written howlers tend to be of too academic a nature, and some appear so far-fetched as to be at least highly improbable. It is really the living voice which gives half the "punch" to a howler.

From out the long years I cull a few examples which at least have the merit of being entirely genuine, and have not, so far as I know, been previously dished up in any form.

At the end of the term the staff were busy setting their examination papers by means of hektographs (cleaner and better in many ways than the more modern cyclostyle). I had two or three tins with their shining gelatine in the room where I was going over some papers with a class. A knock came at the door, and a small boy appeared who asked in faltering tones, "Please, sir, may I have the 'guillotine'! (pronounced)?" Of course I had to tell him I did not want him to end his promising career so young.

I had been going rather fully into the different forms of government with a general knowledge class, with special reference to monarchies and republics. At length I turned to a boy and asked him to explain the difference between a King and a President. The reply came swift: "Please, sir, a King is the son of his father, but a President isn't!"

I had a good illustration once of the humorously literal way in which very young children take expressions. After explaining to the whole school at

prayers that, if a certain breach of domestic regulations continued, even I should get into "hot water," I ascertained that some members of the Kindergarten who were present expressed great disappointment afterwards to their Mistress that they could not "see" the hot water!

Of written answers I think the "palm," as far as my experience goes, must be given to a girl from overseas, in a recent School Certificate examination. Asked to explain the lines in Wordsworth's sonnet,

"The holy time is quiet as a nun

Breathless with adoration,"

she made the astonishing comment, "Nuns very seldom marry, consequently this one was breathless when adored."

Happily school humour is by no means confined to the "howler" type, or the children who make them. Members of the staff, not omitting heads and college servants, have supplied me with many a hearty laugh. A member of the staff, who certainly asked for trouble in the way of practical jokes, on one such occasion wrote me a twelve-page letter accusing me of "jeopardising the reputation of a colleague"! I fear it did not end his troubles.

At one public school where I taught, a certain member of the staff used to entertain me by the hour with stories dealing with what he described as his "rich and varied experience of the seamy side of Welsh Intermediate Education." Those particular stories were scarcely for publication, but this same colleague was also a railway maniac, who looked upon all engines and trains with a fatherly care. On one famous occasion, just as we were all "getting down" for a scrum on the football field, a train passed by. X looked sharply at the clock in the school tower, turned with a black look towards the train, and said, angrily, "Seven minutes late again; that's the third time this week; don't let it occur again!" The referee had to hold the game up for five minutes' convulsive laughter.

My last incident goes back to my own school days. In those times, the old school sergeant, a Crimean veteran, was entrusted with the giving out of books. I once went to him with a Latin dictionary, from which the last fifty pages were missing, and requested a complete one. He turned over the book, gazed at me over his spectacles, and said convincingly, "Get along my boy, you're not going to tell me you've got as far as that in the book already!"

It is hard for the camel to pass through the eye of the needle, but it is assuredly harder to survive thirty-five years of the "common round of teaching" without a goodly endowment of the saving sense of humour.

MODERN SCHOOLING



THE BIRD-BATH.

Photographs Wanted.

By kind permission of the *Manchester Guardian* we are able to print the above charming picture of a bird-bath recently installed in the playground of a school for young children at Withington. Apart from the sculptured figure the arrangement is one which might be repeated or adapted in every school playground. Any kind of large stones of a porous nature might be used and pockets of soil could be placed for the growth of suitable rock plants. Some of these can be found which will thrive even in a town atmosphere. The bath itself may be a shallow earthenware bowl, or one may be fashioned of concrete with a cement lining to make it watertight. The rockery and bath should be placed

in a sunny corner of the playground. It will furnish a source of constant interest to the children and lead them to take pleasure in watching the birds, which will speedily begin to use the bath freely and become remarkably tame.

We shall be glad to receive photographs of bird-baths from schools, and we offer 7s. 6d. for each photograph that is reproduced in our columns. The photographs should be on glossy paper, half-plate or larger, and should be accompanied by the name of the school and of the head teacher. We hope that many pictures will be sent and that all schools will furnish themselves with this pleasant feature of the playground.

"EDUCATING TOO MUCH."

A COMMENT BY MR. P. E. MEADON.

Mr. P. E. Meadon, the Director of Education for Lancashire, recently gave an address on "Co-operation in Technical Education" at the annual meeting of the Union of Lancashire and Cheshire Institutes. In the course of his address he said: "I travel daily in the train with a lot of cotton magnates, who are very frank in their criticism of education. They say, 'You are educating the children too much. You are sending too many children into the secondary schools, and far too many into the universities. You have lost your balance.' When you probe it you find they don't know the facts, and they have not troubled to get at the facts.

"What is the position? In our elementary schools we have some 5,500,000 children; in our State-aided secondary schools less than 400,000. If you take the children between eleven and sixteen in England and Wales, you will find that 55 per cent. are in elementary schools, 6.2 in secondary schools, and a small percentage—somewhere between one and two—in junior technical, art, and domestic schools. Where are the rest? At work—not attending any full-time educational institution, not subject to any educational influence."

Mr. Meadon gave other figures. Between the ages of fourteen and sixteen, he said, only one out of five was in attendance at a full-time educational institution. Every year about 70,000 boys and girls left the secondary schools in England and Wales, of whom only 3,800 entered a university in this country. There were 10,000, he agreed, entered universities in the country as a whole, but the balance of those were not from secondary schools recognised by the Board of Education. That was a very low percentage.

A sound development of technical education was meeting the need indicated by these facts. At the moment there were in the country nearly 1,000,000 part-time students at evening institutes, technical colleges, and art schools. It was an increasing number, and indicated that even at this juncture, when we were trying to economise, we should not take a line of least resistance and cut off technical classes, very often the first line of attack.

Birkbeck College Lectures.

Three public lectures will be given by Professor Oliver Elton, M.A., D.Litt., LL.D., F.B.A., King Alfred Professor Emeritus of English Literature in the University of Liverpool, on Fridays, November 13, 20, and 27, 1931, at 5.30 p.m., in the Theatre of the College, Fetter Lane, E.C.4. Subjects: (1) Elizabethan Lyric, (2) The Poetry of Walter Scott, (3) Robert Bridges and the Testament of Beauty. Admission free, without ticket.

SCHOOL JOURNEYS IN SWITZERLAND.

BY WILFRED H. MUNDAY.

It was on the blue waters of Lake Thun that I first came across a party of Swiss children making a school journey. I thought I had never before seen such a delightful crowd of happy, healthy, and enthusiastic youngsters. As the steamer ploughed its way the teacher pointed out all the interesting features of the landscape, and with the aid of a big map showed the positions of the imposing ice-peaks that were continually coming into view. And then geography gave place to music. The map was rolled up, the teacher began to beat time, the children sang patriotic songs. All, that is, except one or two young gentlemen who found such a fascination in staring into the hold of the ship at the engine and "watching the wheels go round" that they missed both the geographical dissertation and the singing lesson.

School journeys nowadays occupy quite a prominent place in the Swiss educational system, and the value of their mental stimulus cannot be over-estimated. The ordinary routine of school life is often enlivened, particularly during the summer, by train, steamer, and motor-coach trips to places of historical interest, industrial centres, and many of the Alpine beauty spots.

A real "sense of the past" is cultivated by means of visits to feudal strongholds like that of Chillon; by tours through the museums of Lucerne and Thun; by expeditions to quaint out-of-the-way towns such as Gruyere, and by excursions along the historic mountain passes.

The most important excursion of all, however, is regarded as the pilgrimage of the "Rutli," a piece of ground on the banks of the Lake of Uri which belongs to the Swiss Confederation, where, in the dim past, men from three cantons assembled for the purpose of driving their oppressors from Swiss soil. Everything possible is done to imbue the child at an early age with that passionate love of freedom and independence which has been so characteristic of the Swiss throughout the centuries. Many parties of children attend the performances of Schiller's "William Tell" at Altdorf. Sober historians are, of course, very sceptical about the arrow and the apple. They even declare that exhaustive research has failed to produce the slightest evidence that William Tell ever existed. Nevertheless he remains the national hero because he typifies the best qualities of the Swiss nation.

"Hiking" has always been popular in Switzerland, and the older children often accomplish very strenuous tramps. Fairly difficult mountains are climbed at a comparatively early age.

THE VILLAGE SCHOOL.

BY WILLIAM CLAYTON, M.B.E. (Appleton Roebuck School).

XI. How the School Museum Helps.

Every up-to-date village school ought to possess a well-stocked museum cupboard. It should be of ample size to allow of the specimens being adequately spaced and labelled. It should be glass-fronted and placed in such a position in the school that the pupils may gather round it for observation, study, and discussion, with the least possible disturbance of class lessons. Our case is placed in the main corridor and is thus accessible to the pupils at all hours of the day when school is in session. It is kept locked, for it contains many articles which could not be replaced; but the key is easily obtained whenever an object is required for closer study by an individual or a group of pupils. We have found pupils deeply interested in this part of our equipment both before and after school hours, but it is probably more used by the forty pupils who bring their dinners daily than by any others. The younger children can often be found with their eyes glued on the objects beyond the glass, but it is the older ones who display their interest by the use they make of the encyclopædias and other reference books which are always available for their use, and the frequent inquiries of teachers when the books do not satisfy their curiosity.

Though we do, on occasion, enter into a close description of the objects the pupils desire information about, we have made it a practice to refer the child to the special reference books required, so that the habit of research is gained early. It is a great pleasure to the teacher when he is privileged to examine the scholars' private notebooks to find excerpts from the reference books referring to one or other of the specimens included in the school museum.

To keep up the interest of the school generally in the contents of our case we devote at least one full day every year to a general observation and discussion of all the objects we possess. On these days our dual desks are placed in pairs so that the pupils face each other, the lids of the desks forming a table between them. The senior children then empty the museum cupboard and place about a dozen objects on each table. The four children are allowed to discuss among themselves the objects placed for their inspection. Free, though subdued, discussion is permitted between the members of each group of four, and at intervals of a quarter of an hour all

the pupils give their attention to the master whilst he describes in turn selected objects from any of the tables.

The whole of the pupils then move up to fresh places, and by this arrangement every child has an opportunity to handle and examine the full complement of our specimens.

This day is always eagerly looked forward to, and though it is not a "quiet day" in the strict sense, it is, we believe, a very valuable event in the lives of our little ones, and one in which more general and specific information is given than on any other in the course of the school year.

We enter it in the log book as "Museum Day" and state that the time-table will not be strictly adhered to. Nevertheless our objects are so varied that every subject mentioned on the time-table comes in for some share of the day's assignments.

There are pupils who are bored stiff with our museum day, and no doubt think that the master is more or less of a crank when they see him examining with reverent care a prehistoric stone axe-head which had been dug up within the parish boundary, or listen to his description of the ancient wooden nails—hard and firm as iron—which he with his elder pupils secured many years ago from the old ship's beams which for the past five or six hundred years had formed the pan, roof, and ridge timbers of the oldest cottage in the village—now, alas, fallen into decay. There are others who listen to the master's tale with rapt attention.

Museum day is strenuous, somewhat noisy, and altogether unorthodox; yet we have often proved it to be a thoroughly educational day.

Towards the close of the day the objects are returned to the shelves, new labels are attached where necessary, and when our pupils next pause to observe the specimens they will find that those belonging to the animal kingdom are this year placed on the shelf where the objects of the mineral kingdom were staged, and those of the vegetable kingdom have changed places with the implements of bygone days, the ancient parish records, or flotsam from the seas.

Our museum has been furnished by the combined efforts of a long line of past and present pupils and teachers—*e.g.*, the Cretan dagger was presented by a former pupil who, as a midshipman, took part in the naval landing at Crete during the disturbances of the middle nineties; whilst the latest acquisition—the fossilised tooth of a horse—was brought in this October by an observant youngster who was watching a post office linesman's labourer dig deep holes just outside our school for the telephone poles.

HINTS FOR TEACHERS OF MUSIC.

At the important Anglo-American Music Education Conference, organised by Mr. Percy Scholes, Mus. Bac., and held at Lausanne during the summer, there were drawn up valuable hints on the teaching of music, some of which we are able to print below.—EDITOR.

I. Harmony.

We stress the importance of thorough preliminary ear training for harmony students. No student should be allowed to embark on a course in harmony without the ability to recognise intervals, simple chords, and rhythms, and to take down easy passages in not more than two parts from dictation.

Exercises in ear-training should be continued during harmony study, with a view to enabling students at all stages to hear mentally what they write.

A certain amount of keyboard work is valuable, first as keeping the pupil alive to the musical effect of what he writes; secondly as enabling performers on keyboard instruments to find their way about the keyboard easily; thirdly as leading ultimately to improvisation.

An effort should be made to teach students from the beginning to write something original, however simple. The writing of original melodies, or exercises continuing incomplete melodies, should be associated with the study of the more usual forms of cadences, leading to practical knowledge of elementary form. Fundamental principles once grasped may be applied to the study of harmony and composition at all stages.

II. Counterpoint.

In the study of counterpoint the melodic aspect is of extreme importance. It is of value for students to be taught at an early stage to compose single parts, general melodic principles of sixteenth-century music being carefully observed. The singing of contrapuntal exercises (strict or free) in class, or the playing of them on some instrument other than the piano, is of value in this connection.

The study of counterpoint should be commenced at as early a stage as possible, and should not be too sharply dissociated in the student's mind from the study of harmony.

III. History of Music.

The study of the history of music should be based on music rather than on text-books. Names and dates may be regarded as useful framework, but automatic memorisation of facts without an understanding of their significance is of little practical value.

Some distinction should be made between the study of music of the past with a view to its practical application to composition, study as performers, and

study as listeners. Differences of aim should be considered in adopting various methods.

An alternative to the usual chronological approach is the plan of proceeding from the study of music known to the student to lesser known works, but complete reversal of chronological order is liable to become as mechanical as the usual procedure.

The use of gramophone records, usually with scores in the hands of students, is recommended, provided it is associated with discussions. Too much purely passive listening to mechanical music may lead to loss of interest. Above all, the curiosity of the student should be stimulated, so that he may learn to investigate on his own account whatever sources of information he may find.

The student should be guarded against the idea (frequently implied, if not stated, in books) that the music of one age is necessarily an improvement on that which preceded it. It should be made clear that the principle of evolution as popularly understood applies only in part to matters artistic.

Aural Training and Appreciation.

The aims of the study of musical appreciation are (a) the development of a high degree of sensitiveness to the medium of the art, and (b) an intensive and critical study of representative examples of admitted masterpieces.

This implies, first, the ability to hear music in its own terms and not in terms of association with other experiences, and, secondly, an insight into factors which constitute style.

In our opinion, the development of a high degree of sensitiveness to the medium of the art represents the scope of the aural training class, and is primarily the work of the school. Let it be clearly understood, however, that at all points in aural training actual examples of the music most appropriate for the purpose must be presented to the class. In this way aural training and the study of the literature of music are at no time divorced from each other.

The intense and critical study of musical masterpieces follows naturally from this foundational training, and is appropriate to more mature students. It is unsuitable as a subject in elementary education.

The best use of mechanically reproduced music is in recalling actual experiences gained in the concert room, or in preparing for them. The most adequately equipped teacher of appreciation, however, is the one who is himself a competent performer.

All that is here defined as musical appreciation, so far from being in opposition to training in instrumental and vocal performance, is an essential complement of all such training.

PLAYING FIELDS FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

The Effect of Economy.

At a meeting of the Executive Committee of the National Playing Fields Association, held recently under the Chairmanship of Lord Derby, a resolution was moved by Mr. F. A. Hoare, of the National Union of Teachers, placing on record the Association's regret that, in view of the economic situation, the Government has found it necessary temporarily to withdraw Exchequer grants at the rate of 50 per cent. in respect of the provision of playing fields for use in connection with public elementary schools. The resolution also expressed the hope that as soon as the economic and financial circumstances of the country permit these grants will be restored. In moving the resolution, Mr. Hoare said that it should not be regarded as an attack upon the Government. The inevitable effect of drastic financial restrictions in the field of education was already becoming only too apparent. The efficiency of the school system was bound to be impaired, but they could assume that the Government had not taken action of this kind affecting the well-being and efficiency of the future generation without grave thought and without a full understanding of its implications on the future commercial and industrial efficiency of the nation. The responsibility for this action rested with the Government, but the N.P.F.A., which had been largely instrumental in securing increased Exchequer grants for the acquisition of playing fields in connection with public elementary schools, could not do otherwise than express its profound regret that these grants were now withdrawn, because the certain consequence would be that Local Education Authorities would no longer be able to proceed with their building programmes as outlined in the programmes of development, which until recently the Board of Education had insisted upon.

The position now was that in hundreds of cases up and down the country the sites which were to have been acquired for public elementary schools, and which would have included the necessary land for playing fields upon the need of which the Association laid such great stress, would not be acquired. The danger was that the severe setback which Local Authorities had suffered on account of the change in Government policy would entail the loss of these sites for all time for playing field purposes, since in many cases they would be acquired for building. If the financial and economic situation at the moment made this inevitable, they could do nothing but accept

the position. It was imperative, however, that these economies should not go too far, and that at the earliest possible moment there should be a restoration of Exchequer grants at the 50 per cent. rate, so that Local Authorities could take up again their programmes of development. The resolution was not allocating blame to any quarter for the present situation, or for the particular kind of economies which the Government have found it necessary to impose. It was, however, an earnest plea that the impairment of the physical education of children and young people should not be prolonged more than was made necessary by the need for economy. He believed that, quite irrespective of their political attachments, the Executive Committee would see the wisdom of the policy enunciated in the resolution, and would unanimously support it.

Mr. Hoare also referred to suggestions which have been made in some quarters that teachers should abstain from participation in voluntary activities connected with children's games and athletics. Speaking as the representative of the National Union of Teachers on the Executive of the N.P.F.A., he wished it to be understood that the Union, representing 140,000 teachers, had not been a party to these suggestions. They recognised that in many cases teachers might be forced by financial stress to seek remunerative employment in their spare time, but the Union had not asked members to refrain from the various voluntary activities in which as teachers they were engaged. On the contrary, they had taken the view that the best interests of the profession would be served by the continuance of normal forms of voluntary activity. This policy had been unanimously approved by a representative meeting of teachers from all parts of the country, which included members of the English Schools Football Association, the Schools Athletic Association, the Welsh Schools Rugby Union, and the various national organisations which control cricket, swimming, netball, and hockey.

In putting the resolution to the meeting, Lord Derby said that we all recognised the value of this 50 per cent. grant, and realised that, owing to the financial crisis, it was perforce suspended, but that we did feel that as soon as the time is ripe the grant should be restored. He added that the Association was very glad to hear what Mr. Hoare had said about the teachers as a whole, not desiring in any way to "take it out of the children," as it had given it a great shock to learn of the way in which some of the teachers proposed to act. The meeting was relieved to hear that the vast majority of the profession had no sympathy with such action.

NEWS OF THE MONTH.

Latin Alphabets in Russia.

There are 151 national languages in the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics. If the Russians, Ukrainians, and White Russians be excluded, these languages are spoken by 32,000,000 people. Of these, 30,000,000 speak languages which, before the revolution, had no written characters. Since 1926 the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics has been introducing a single Latin alphabet to meet the needs of this entire population of 32,000,000. It is a single alphabet not only in form (the Latin outline of the letters) but in content (the sound significance of each letter being identical for all nationalities). At the present time 19,000,000 persons are using this alphabet. The new alphabet has played a great part in raising the standard of literacy. During the last three years there has been fourfold increase in the number of literates in the new alphabet.

Museums and the Blind.

A number of provincial museums have arranged to follow the example of the British Museum and others in London by permitting blind visitors to handle exhibits, and thereby study them in the only way possible for them. The difficulty of developing imagination in blind children was illustrated recently when some were asked to indicate the size of a cow. They knew that their model was one-fortieth of the size of the real animal, but they stooped down and indicated a creature about the size of a kitten.

American Medical Students Barred.

It is stated that universities in U.S.A. have been restricting the entries to their medical schools, with the result that American medical students have been seeking admission to Scottish universities. At Aberdeen no less than 200 applications from U.S.A. have been refused, and at Edinburgh out of 240 applications more than 200 were refused. The reason given is that American students ought not to be allowed to derive benefits from our State grants to universities, but it would be possible to meet this difficulty by charging extra fees. It seems unwise and somewhat churlish to refuse hospitality to students from abroad.

A Good Example.

In his Head Master's Report at Buxton College Speech Day, Mr. A. D. C. Mason said that they did not allow music and art to be crowded out by utilitarian subjects. They started before prayers every morning by listening to a work of one of the great masters played on the gramophone.

A Novel Strike.

Sixty-five pupils at a school in Lens recently went on strike because the school had only one teacher, and the youngsters declared that one was not enough for their proper education.

Royal Air Force Economy.

The Air Ministry announces that, as from October 1, 1931, certain of the conditions of entry for candidates for short service commissions in the Royal Air Force have been revised. In future candidates must be unmarried, and have attained their eighteenth birthday, but not their twenty-second birthday, at the date of receipt of the application in the Air Ministry. The previous regulations provided for acceptance between the ages of eighteen and twenty-five. This reduction of the age limit will allow of all accepted candidates being eligible to compete for permanent commissions, of which a limited number are offered annually to short service officers who are recommended, and qualify for specialist training by competitive examination among themselves. The entry of Aircraft apprentices is to be reduced from 180 to 120.

L.T.A. Dinner Cancelled.

Owing to existing circumstances, the London Teachers' Association has cancelled the arrangements for its Annual Dinner on November 28. Among the Association's guests in recent years have been His Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury and Mr. Stanley Baldwin when Prime Minister. The offices of the Association are now at 110-11 Fleet Street, E.C.4.

Not Resigned.

Professor H. J. Hutchens, Heath Professor of Comparative Pathology and Bacteriology in Durham University, recently issued a writ against the Registrar and the Council of the University College of Medicine, Newcastle, following the decision to terminate his engagement.

An Asset.

"A public school education may be an asset, but it is not a qualification."—*H. L. Kenward.*

Garvin Gasps.

"The world cannot draw a deep breath until the result of the British elections is declared."—*Mr. J. L. Garvin, "The Observer," October 18.*

LITERARY SECTION.

BOOKS AND THE MAN.

"A Tenement in Soho."

Under this title Mr. Jonathan Cape has published a most remarkable book written by George Thomas, with an introduction by Mr. John Oxenham. Mr. Thomas is one of a family of seven, of whom four, including himself, are the victims of progressive muscular atrophy, a fell disease which imposes a progressive restriction of bodily movement, and condemns its victims to a life of physical inaction. When this book was written, the author and his family were living in rooms overlooking Berwick Market, a district lying to the north of Shaftesbury Avenue and forming part of Soho. To many Londoners the neighbourhood will be well known as one made up for the most part of houses which were once "genteel," being inhabited a century or more ago by the kind of people who now reside in Kensington or even Mayfair. To-day the houses are worn out, and the one in which Mr. Thomas lived was condemned as unfit for human occupation. The floors were sagging and the walls cracking. But no other suitable place could be found, for the head of the family was an L.C.C. dustman, whose work began at midnight and ended after the normal breakfast hour. One of the brothers was the driver of a motor-car, and these two were the only members of the family bringing in weekly wages. It is not difficult to picture the results which might have followed from living in conditions like these; but Mr. George Thomas, at the age of twenty-seven, set himself to overcome what seemed to be insuperable difficulties, and with the aid of a wireless set and valiant struggles on an old piano he gained a remarkable knowledge of music. He also followed a course of reading in philosophy and kindred subjects, and finally was impelled to write this book, which I regard as one of the most interesting and powerful that I have encountered for a long time past.

It may be thought strange that this work should be reviewed in an educational magazine, but education, rightly regarded, is a social activity, and thousands of teachers are made aware, day by day, of the influence of home surroundings on their pupils. That the surroundings of many children are so utterly bad is a standing reproach to our civilisation, and that our educational system has so far taken little heed of the handicaps which social conditions impose on the schools is a reproach of our common sense. We have fondly supposed that by teaching youngsters the "three R's" and a few trimmings in the way of history and geography we are fulfilling the gospel of education, but in truth we are not. Mr. Thomas expresses his own view in the following words:—

"I belong, I suppose, to the first generation of compulsory schooling, and yet, instead of being glad that I went to school, even an elementary one, I get furious with the whole system that could allow human beings to grow up almost entirely un-schooled. A rotten, thoroughly rotten, system, but what a loss to humanity! Those 'mute, inglorious Miltons' trouble me not at all, but it shocks me terribly to think of the lost opportunities of generations of illiterate humanity. It is a *spiritual* stunting, but that passes almost unnoticed in the hurly-burly of the business of the world. Mental development restricted, consequently warped and immature characters.

"Slum dwelling is sordid, I know full well, and slums will vanish not mainly by the enthusiasm of local authorities, but by the broadening outlook of the coming generations outgrowing the stagnancy and apathy of the older generations."

This passage is one of the very few which might be regarded as expressing complaint or even impatience. For the rest we have a picture of beautiful serenity of soul, indomitable patience, and cheerful good humour. I surmise that there are many wealthy men and women who have failed completely to find the peace of mind which prevailed in this tenement in Soho. Perhaps if they read this book they will learn how small is the part which material wealth plays in bringing true happiness.

SELIM MILES.

REVIEWS.

Education.

A PLEASANT SCHOOL STORY.

EARLY CLOSING: by D. Wynne Wilson. (7s. 6d. Constable.)

After the spate of school stories which seem to be written by distorted pens, directed by tortured minds, it is pleasant to have a book which gives a series of pleasing and life-like vignettes of school life, wherein we find masters and their wives, school-boys and their sisters, parents, a matron, and a fox terrier, not one of whom is a subject for the mental specialist, or a victim of the psycho-analyst. The doings of these agreeable and normal folk are set forth in excellent fashion with some passages of unusual beauty. The sub-acid flavour of the comments of the housemaster are a joy to read, and even the precocious observations of Master Gray become plausible if not wholly credible. There is an excellent hint for those who are condemned to explain to non-mathematical pupils the mysteries of plus and minus signs, and a noteworthy piece of good sense uttered by William the Housemaster in reply to a damsel who says she must have active self-expression:—

"At the word 'self-expression' William drew in his mouth as if he were eating a sloe.

"'My good child,' he said, 'if you have any grit or genius it will out. Otherwise the desire for what you call "self-expression" is a brand of vanity-cum-laziness; a short cut to notoriety without hard work, and an inability to perceive that you may be nothing out of the ordinary after all.'"

F. R.

A Broad Survey.

AN OUTLINE OF MODERN KNOWLEDGE: edited by William Rose, M.A., Ph.D. (8s. 6d. Gollancz.)

We believe it was Matthew Arnold who complained that Englishmen were lacking in that "curiosity" which was so characteristic a quality of the Athenians and for which, among modern nations, the French are still distinguished. In our own language, indeed, the word has degenerated in meaning; instead of indicating a healthy activity of mind, it has become in some measure a term of reproach. Since the war, however, in spite of all the noise, bustle, and apparent thoughtlessness of modern life, there have been signs of an awakening interest in all branches of knowledge; and this interest is not confined to a section of the people; it is widespread and permeates all classes.

This is, perhaps, a natural consequence of the marked progress of scientific study and experiment in the present century. Old and seemingly well established theories in the field of physical science have been exploded; the whole outlook is changed and is changing. This movement has spread in all directions and has invaded the domain of philosophy, religion, and art, as well as of economics, political science, and psychology.

The publishers have, therefore, chosen an opportune time for the launching of this somewhat compendious volume. "An Outline of Modern Knowledge" is not an abridged encyclopædia. The interdependence and close relationship which are found among all branches of knowledge have been studiously kept in view, and the twenty-two eminent contributors have worked together as a team under the captaincy of the general editor, who, in his introduction, states that the purpose of the book is "in so far as it is possible, to construct a clear picture, which must necessarily be in the nature of a mosaic, of the present achievements of human thought and knowledge, and to summarise the evidence which may point to a directive or purposive agency in the universe."

It would be impossible for any one person adequately to assess the value of a book covering so wide a field, but, from what we have read, we feel that the contributors have been at pains to present their subjects in as clear and simple a manner as is consistent with scientific accuracy, so that ordinary educated folk, possessing no special knowledge, may

yet read with interest and understanding. The magnitude of the conception of the book is in itself something to marvel at. Natural science, philosophy, and psychology; economics, political science, and history; the principles of literature and art; all these subjects find a place in the one volume.

Although intended primarily for the general reader, the book should make a special appeal to teachers, and we hope it will speedily find a place on their bookshelves. In these days of specialisation teachers are sometimes prone to confine their reading to the particular subject with which they are concerned, and even to limit it to the narrow field needed for the purpose of some general school certificate examination. The influence of the classroom may quite easily tend to contract rather than expand one's knowledge. This tendency to contraction needs to be countered by wide reading in a variety of subjects, and the teacher of mathematics will gain in power if he has more than a nodding acquaintance with literature and art.

The price of the present volume is modest enough, even in these days of economy, to be within the ordinary man's purse. In purchasing it he will certainly get good value for his money, for here is both quantity and quality.

P. M. G.

French.

NOUVEAU LEXIQUE (English-French): by H. N. Adair. (6s. Sidgwick and Jackson.)

For the price, this is a remarkably handsome volume, well-bound, and printed in type large enough to make its use a pleasure free from eye-strain. There is no attempt to give a list of all the words in the English language, together with an approximate French equivalent for each. That sort of dictionary has its uses; its chief virtue being its completeness. But this one is different. Here you may seek in vain for rare or dialect words, or strange technical terms; on the other hand you will find what few ordinary dictionaries provide—a clear and full explanation of French usage corresponding with the many peculiarities of English idiom. Look up such words as *must*, *ought*, *would*, *should*, *may*, *can*, *might*, *will*, *shall*, and you will find, logically arranged, examples of all their uses, and some excellent hints on how to use them. The examples are so numerous, well chosen and well translated, that a beginner, armed with the essentials of grammar and a table of French verbs, could with the help of this book translate almost any ordinary passage into correct idiomatic French. Much of the colloquial language is included, perhaps too much; for instance, five alternative renderings are given for "to go to pot," an expression we habitually avoid as rather vulgar—we prefer to say "go to blazes." (Incidentally may we suggest two more renderings: *tomber dans l'eau* and *dans les choux*.) The Ap-

pendices give most proper names, the numbers and how to use them, and suggestions for beginning and ending letters.

On the whole we thoroughly recommend this *Lexique* for use in the upper forms of schools, or for any private student whose attainments are below a definitely "advanced" stage. Others will still find here many things to learn. A few hours spent in turning over the pages with increasing delight leave one full of admiration for the author's taste in choosing, his skill in arranging, and above all his remarkably intimate knowledge of the two languages.

A. B. G.

English.

AN ENGLISH SYLLABUS: by E. E. Reynolds. (3s. 6d. Cambridge University Press.)

The purpose of this book is to offer detailed suggestions for the planning of the English work in schools. The author first sets out some general principles to be observed in the teaching of speaking, reading, and writing, and then proceeds to map out a course of instruction for pupils from nine to eighteen years of age. This course is arranged in seven stages, five of which are concerned with pupils in the secondary school, and cover the ground needed for the School Certificate Examination.

At the end of the book Mr. Reynolds devotes a section to those school activities which are closely related to the teaching of English, and which can be made especially helpful. Such activities include class and school magazines, school societies, and libraries. On these and other topics Mr. Reynolds makes many useful suggestions.

P. M. G.

Drama.

"The Village Drama Society Plays."—THE YEAR BOOK PRESS SERIES OF PLAYS. (Deane.)

We have received a number of one-act plays published by the Year Book Press, and recommended by the Village Drama Society. They are, for the most part, amusing little comedies, well adapted for performance by amateurs. Many of them are dialect plays and are very suitable for village clubs. The plays are published at a uniform price of one shilling.

General.

MORE ESSAYS OF LOVE AND VIRTUE: By Havelock Ellis. (7s. 6d. Constable.)

It is now nine years since Mr. Havelock Ellis published his first series of "Essays of Love and Virtue." They were designed to help young readers to find their way through the difficult tangle of problems which accompany early maturity. The present series will serve to help those who are no longer young. We are reminded that "it should be among the precious gifts of age that it releases us from the solemnity of youth." These essays will

help to foster this gift. They have the great merit of reminding parents and other elders of to-day that the younger generation cannot possibly be a mere repetition of yesterday. Conventions change, and Mr. Ellis is one of the rare spirits that can view the change with discerning and untroubled eyes. For this reason his comments are extremely valuable. He writes in a charming fashion, with a pleasant and almost playful detachment, well aware, no doubt, that his views will startle some readers, but convinced that before long they will come to be regarded as obvious. All who are old enough to feel themselves entitled to admonish youth should read this book before beginning to say "Don't."

R.

German.

DEUTSCHES LEBEN: by A. S. MacPherson. Vol. I, 2s. 6d.; Vol. II, 3s. (Ginn.)

This is a thoroughly practical two-year course, based on the assumption that German is almost exclusively spoken in the classroom, but laying all the necessary emphasis on exact and careful grammatical work. An introduction in English gives some good hints on the pronunciation difficulties. The thirty-five lessons in the first volume, with many small illustrations, are models of clear exposition. Confusion is avoided by giving at the end a summary of the grammar in English, and by frequent revision lessons. There is a plentiful supply of "direct method exercises."

Volume II, which has been prepared with the help of Studienrat Paul Stromer, continues the good work. The reading matter is suitably varied and interesting. This is a Course which we can thoroughly recommend: it is thorough and business-like, but does not sacrifice any of the cheerful humanity which has come to be associated with modern methods of language teaching.

A. B. G.
DIE KAPITALISTINNEN: by Marie von Ebner-Eschenbach; edited by Clifford Gates. (2s. 6d. Bell.)

A good American edition of three short stories by the Austrian authoress, the Baroness von Ebner-Eschenbach, with a eulogistic introduction on her life and works, and a full supply of questions and exercises. Suitable for third-year pupils.

A. B. G.

DAS NEUE DEUTSCHLAND: by P. Meyer and G. Nanck. (3s. Bell.)

The authors have aimed at producing a reader for third-year forms which shall not only present them with attractive and interesting information, but shall give English boys a sympathetic view of that post-war Germany which is so little known in this country. The eight chapters, illustrated with photographs of typically German excellence, deal respectively with School Life, the Youth Movement,

Sport, Aviation, the Countryside, Industry, Intellectual Life, and Great Men of the Day. Many of the articles were written by German schoolboys, and so should make a special appeal to their English fellows. There are no notes or exercises, as the book is intended for rapid reading. A most interesting book, both for schoolboys and for adult learners.

A. B. G.

GERMAN DIALOGUES: by August Closs and R. J. McClean. (1s. 6d. Methuen.)

A useful little book for the traveller, printed in Latin type. Each dialogue is provided with a few notes and explanations. Almost every situation is provided with suitable conversation material, and a few letters and continuous prose passages dealing with various aspects of German life are also included. A vocabulary would have been a welcome addition.

A. B. G.

Geography.

"The Columbus Regional Geographies."—Senior Series, Book III, THE BRITISH ISLES AND EUROPE: by Leonard Brooks, M.A., and Robert Finch. (3s. 3d. Univ. of London Press.)

We have previously had occasion to commend this excellent series. Here is a school geography book *de luxe*, with no less than 150 first-rate illustrations in black and white, and five coloured plates! The subject matter is adequate, and very well and simply set out, and there are excellent and appropriate exercises appended to each chapter. Any scholar who masters this book should have a sound elementary knowledge of the countries dealt with. There are many excellent geographies on modern lines now on the market, but we have not seen a better one than this.

Nature Study.

NATURE STUDY. A First Course in Elementary Biology: by N. M. Johnson, B.Sc. (2s. Oliver and Boyd.)

In twenty-seven chapters the author deals in a very simple elementary way with a number of typical plants and animals, each chapter being followed by a set of helpful questions and suggestions for practical work. Four useful appendices are given, dealing with Nature Records, Migration of Birds, the Aquarium, and sources of supply of specimens, and useful information. The illustrations are numerous, but many of them have a curiously antiquated appearance, and a few of the line drawings, such as that of the daffodil, are quite distressingly inept. We venture to suggest that Mr. Johnson is not justified in repeating Southey's oft-quoted verse as representing an actual fact, there being so many hollies that are exceptions to the alleged rule concerning spininess that the rule is best ignored.

Speech Training.

ENGLISH PHONETICS: by Walter Ripman. (5s. Dent.)

Books on phonetics, with their mysterious signs and symbols, and their somewhat forbidding appearance, do not as a rule make what can be described as popular or attractive reading. Many of these books, except to the technical expert, are dull and uninteresting.

Mr. Ripman, however, proves that even phonetics provide material which, if skilfully handled, may appeal to a wider public. In this excellent book, which is really a revised version of the author's "Sounds of Spoken English," he treats his subject in a light and breezy manner, and succeeds first in arousing attention and then in carrying conviction. All who are interested in spoken English, or who are in any doubt about their own pronunciation, will find the book invaluable.

P. M. G.

SPEECH TRAINING AND PRACTICE: by A. McR. Chapman. (1s. 2d. Oliver and Boyd.)

Miss Chapman has compiled a useful little book on this important branch of school work. The book contains a series of forty lessons, each dealing with a particular sound, and accompanied by exercises and illustrative passages. There are, in addition, useful notes for the teacher.

We fully recognise the usefulness of the mirror in helping us towards a correct position of the tongue, lips, teeth in the production of the sounds of speech; but the vision of a class of youngsters, each with meticulous care examining by means of a mirror the workings of his vocal organs, is somewhat appalling. We feel the mirror already plays something too large a part in modern life, and some of our young folk already seem to find an over-weening interest in the appearance of their lips.

P. M. G.

Economics.

AN OUTLINE OF THE ECONOMIC HISTORY OF ENGLAND: by D. W. Roberts, B.Sc. (Econ.). (4s. Longmans.)

In the main this is a student's text-book, and there are good lists of reference books, with a satisfactory index. The periods are divided at the years 1485 and 1660, about two-thirds of the book being given to the last or third period, 1660 to the present day. There are some useful maps and diagrams. The diagram of the Mercantile System is a distinctive feature, and a very good one; and the graph of wheat prices, 1770 to 1920, is useful in itself, and is made significant by the "tablet" notes marking the periods of enclosures, Corn Law Repeal (followed not by depression, but by "high farming and agricultural prosperity for about thirty years"), the "steamer age," the railways, and so on, up to and after the Great War.

R. J.

Biology.

BIOLOGY AND MANKIND: by S. A. McDowall, B.D. (6s. Cambridge University Press.)

The author of this interesting and appealing volume combines the offices of Chaplain and Senior Science Master at Winchester College, and his confessed object is to give a "summary of the development and present position of the studies of Evolution and Heredity, suitable for the general reader as well as for the biological student who needs a foundation on which to build." In this he achieves a noteworthy success, making use of a portion of what must be an extremely valuable and stimulating course of biology given at Winchester. Throwing a much-needed light upon evolution and heredity, and the biological aspects of social and political conditions, the book is eminently readable throughout, despite the inevitable fact that the chapter dealing with the mechanism of Mendelian Inheritance demands careful, thoughtful reading. But even to those who, unfamiliar with this subject, find this section at first reading a little confusing, the result of their study will be quite and even painfully clear—namely a conviction that to an appalling degree the human race is now breeding from bad stock; so much so indeed that, unless checked, serious harm if not disaster must result therefrom in the not distant future. Such facts should be the common property of every one who cares for humanity in general, and his own people in particular; for only by an educated people, seeing and appreciating facts as they are, will measures be taken to stave off otherwise inevitable racial deterioration, and all that that implies. F. H. S.

PLANT AND ANIMAL LIFE: An Introduction to the Study of Biology: by R. F. Shove, M.A., F.L.S. (5s. 6d. Methuen.)

It should be axiomatic that every child should receive some instruction in simple biology, should learn something of how plants and animals live and have their being, and this not only because such knowledge develops an abiding interest in the world in which we live, but also forms an admirable if not essential introduction to the study of how *we* live and have *our* being. Of published courses in biology there is no lack, but among the very best of them must be placed this new volume, which deals throughout with subjects and aspects that should appeal to all, and this in such manner as to develop an intelligent knowledge and appreciation of life and the essential factors conditioning it. The work is well up to date, and the text well illustrated and very reliable. Among the few statements that call for some revision is that (page seven) in which the male gamete of the pollen grain is described as a "motile mass," the fact being that such motile

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gametes in flowering plants are extremely rare, those of Gingko and Cycas being the most famous. Nor is the author quite justified in using the term lymph (page 118) as synonymous with chyle; and still less in suggesting (page 9) that successful self-pollination is very unusual in the plant world, the fact being that many successful wildflowers and a number of our most important field and garden plants are regularly self-fertilised. F. H. S.

Handicraft.

A HANDBOOK OF CELTIC ORNAMENT: by J. G. Merne. (7s. 6d. Pitman.)

This collection of plates illustrates various phases of the spirit of Celtic decoration. The author derives all forms from a few simple symbols, notably the swastika, and relates all these to a common origin, the Tau cross. To doubt whether this is true (or the attempt to establish it worth while) is not to deny the value of the book, which is full of information for the student. The forty-nine plates contain upwards of seven hundred examples for study, many of which lend themselves to modification by the student, whilst others suggest fairly obvious fields for extension, and all retain a characteristic Celtic flavour. C. R. L.

THE ROMANCE OF CRAFT SERIES: by N. A. Poole.
(1s. 6d. Nelson.)

This supplementary book of the "Romance of Craft" series deals with simple pattern making and some applications of such patterns. It is intended as an introduction to design teaching in schools, and shows various types of simple decorative schemes. No scholar, working from the book, would feel that the work was difficult to understand, and a good foundation would be laid for more individual work subsequently.

Book decoration by stick printing and linoleum-block printing is dealt with in a simple way in the second half of the book. C. R. L.

History.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY ENGLAND: A short History of English Politics and Society from the Revolution to Waterloo (1688 to 1815): by Simon Maccoby, M.A. (7s. 6d. Longmans.)

In writing a text-book, one does not attempt to break new ground. Mr. Maccoby has an oft-told story to tell, and he has to tell it in a form reproducible at examinations. In the main he keeps to political history. But four of his forty-two chapters deal with the industrial and agricultural revolutions of the century (and here Dr. Slater's map of enclosures is reproduced). There is a chapter on Finance, one on the Religious Revival, one dealing with Trade and the Colonies, another on the Dissenters. The last book, the seventh of the volume, is called "Growth," and deals with the Empire, India, Science, and the Humanitarian Movement.

There is here some balance between affairs political and affairs economic. There is in one long paragraph, with the title "Criticisms of Pitt," a summary of the financial proposals of Thomas Paine—a progressive income tax, an inheritance tax, old age pensions, free education, maternity benefits. Time has shown these things to belong, not to the eighteenth century, but to the twentieth. R. J.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY ENGLAND: Being a Short History of English Politics and Society from the Revolution to Waterloo (1688 to 1815): by Simon Maccoby, M.A. (7s. 6d. Longmans.)

The needs of students reading for the Higher Certificate or the International B.A. Examinations have been considered in planning this book. It is well packed. Its forty-two chapters are all followed by three or four subjects for discussion. There are fourteen maps and a good index. There is also a light touch in the extracts, in verse or prose, set

at the heads of the chapters. Further, every chapter is well subdivided into titled paragraphs.

R. J.

ENGLAND IN EARLY AND MEDIEVAL TIMES (TO 1485):
by Robert M. Rayner, B.A. (4s. Longmans.)

This is the last issued, but it is chronologically the first of three volumes, giving a school history of England from the prehistoric ages to 1914. The volume is well printed on good paper, with maps, date charts, genealogical trees, questions, index. Its plan, as the author explains, is between the straight line of chronology and the parallel lines method of subjects and movements. The twenty-seven chapters are grouped into three books, whose titles are indicative—I, The Foundations of England (to 1066); II, The Submergence of the English (1066 to 1272); III, The Emergence of the English (1272 to 1485). There are distinct efforts after interest: "Feudalism, Limited," "A Crowned Monk," and this of *Magna Carta*: "No new principles are enunciated. . . . What then are the claims of *Magna Carta* to be regarded as a sacred palladium of our national liberties? Mainly for two indirect consequences, neither of which was foreseen or intended by the men who framed it." These are (1) setting the law above the king, (2) rendering the *libertas* of barons and bishops, which were truly privileges, into the modern idea of general "liberty." The date charts are ingeniously constructed, especially that entitled "The Heptarchy."

R. J.

A HISTORY OF EUROPE, 1494 TO 1610: by A. J. Grant. (16s. Methuen.)

This volume is one of eight, the whole series giving a history of Europe from 476 to 1923. As Professor Grant points out in his preface, there is some danger in a work of this kind of concentrating overmuch upon Western Europe, and this danger he has deliberately set out to avoid, widening the theatre of the story so as to include Russia. But for all that, European history in the sixteenth century cannot but be, in the main, the story of Western European civilisation, its intense and narrow policies, its transoceanic extensions, its fierce religious quarrels. That is a necessity only, of course, where history is viewed as first political, secondly social, thirdly economic. Such, in fact, is the underlying assumption in most of our text-books and histories of the type here considered. The order, of course, might be reversed. In that case the dominance of Western Europe would be less marked, but it would still remain, for life and movement were more significant in the West.

Professor Grant has tried to placate Catholics, Protestants, Lutherans, Calvinists, Anglicans—but do they really want to be placated? There are a dozen maps, and there is a very full index. R. J.

BOOKS OF THE MONTH.

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It has already admitted 80,000 teachers to Registration, including those who were admitted during the earlier years on relatively easy terms. To-day the Conditions are such as ensure that the Registered Teacher will possess at least reasonable attainments, and have undergone a period of satisfactory experience. A Training in Teaching is also being gradually established as an indispensable requirement.

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Those admitted to the Register become Members of the Royal Society of Teachers without any further payment or any annual subscription. They are entitled to use the letters M.R.S.T., and these, it may be expected, will in due time gain the significance of such letters as F.R.I.B.A. or M.I.M.E., indicating not merely Membership of a Society but the possession of definite professional knowledge and status. The Teachers Registration Council aims to secure that none save Registered Teachers (M.R.S.T.) shall exercise professional supervision over the work of other teachers. It is clear that men and women who have been at pains to fit themselves for the work of teaching and to have their fitness duly tested by their own representative body should not be required to work under the direction of persons who have not thus established their professional standing.

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DECEMBER, 1931.

HEALTH IN SCHOOL.

The annual reports of the Chief Medical Officer of the Board of Education are always interesting, and of late years they have been extremely encouraging as marking a definite progress in the physical well-being of the pupils attending elementary schools. The latest of these reports covers the year 1930 and may be obtained from the Government Stationery Office, at 2s. net. It is now nearly twenty-five years since the Board of Education declared that the physical improvement, and, as a natural corollary, the mental and moral improvement, of coming generations was a matter of primary importance. This statement applies not only to the children of the wealthy, but even more to those who are born in surroundings which form a grievous handicap to physical development. It must never be forgotten that the State in its wisdom has enacted that every child between the ages of five and fourteen shall receive efficient elementary instruction. In practice this means that the vast majority of children between these ages are attending public elementary schools, and it is sheer cruelty to compel them to do this unless at the same time we take full and adequate steps to prevent them from suffering physical harm, and provide such a measure of remedial and preventive treatment as will help the weakling to become strong. Sir George Newman tells us that, since the School Medical Service was established in 1907, hundreds of thousands of defective or ailing children have been effectually treated and their physical disabilities remedied. There has been a steady improvement in the average physical condition of the normal child—an increase in height and weight, in personal cleanliness, and in power of resistance to disease. Tuberculosis and rickets are steadily declining, and even defects of vision, diseases of the skin, enlarged tonsils, and adenoids are less severe than they were a generation ago. This business of protection and repair continues to be hampered by bad home conditions, but much improvement follows from inviting parents to be present at special inspections, and it is interesting to note that in London the inspection of infants entering school was attended by 89 per cent. of the parents.

Some recent remarks by Lord Dawson of Penn led to an interesting discussion concerning the physical welfare of boys in public schools. Too

often this has been left to chance, and even now it is not too much to say that our care for the bodily welfare of children in general leaves much to be desired. The routine inspections are not frequent enough, and we need to establish a comprehensive scheme providing for the systematic recording of a child's physical condition at intervals of not more than one year throughout school life. The information thus obtained would be of immense help in determining the kind of games that boys and girls should play, and the kind of treatment necessary during illness. The co-operation of parents should be secured throughout, for it is not enough to rely upon maternal instinct, and still less upon paternal interest. Such elementary factors as personal cleanliness and right feeding have still to be emphasised, although on the former point a great improvement is to be noted by even the most casual observer who remembers the conditions even ten years ago. Right feeding is not merely a question of sufficiency of food, but rather one of suitability. The poor child suffers from deficiencies of diet which are found to be remedied by daily supplies of milk and cod liver oil. One medical authority takes the view that all the milk produced in this country could properly be utilised in the feeding of children. Another important factor is fresh air. This is too often a rare commodity in our classrooms, and no school should be built in future which cannot readily be turned into an open-air school. The teaching of hygiene is relatively unimportant as compared with the practice of hygienic living by the pupils. There are schools in which the children listen to carefully-devised lessons on the importance of cleanliness, but find their opportunities for washing their hands limited to the use of perhaps one lavatory basin for some scores of boys or girls, with towels which are used in common and changed far too seldom. Speaking generally, the standard of cleanliness in our schools is far too low. Floors are swept daily, but scrubbed seldom. The dust caused by the sweeping lingers on the walls and in every crevice, and forms a danger to health.

We may expect to hear that complete care for the physical welfare of children is too expensive in these days. The truth is that our indifference in past years is now costing us many times the amount which would have provided for us a far more healthy and vigorous population than we have to-day.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS.

FROM A CORRESPONDENT.

Progress of Registration.

During the month of October the number of applications for Registration and Membership of the Royal Society of Teachers was 757, bringing the total since the Register was opened to 90,352. In addition there are 4,326 qualified teachers who are paying the fee by instalments, and thus the total mentioned will presently be increased to 95,000 or more. Of this number not all are to be reckoned as members of the Royal Society of Teachers. Some 3,000 applicants have been rejected after a scrutiny of their qualifications. Some of those admitted have been removed from the Register on the recommendation of the Special Inquiry Committee, of which Lord Darling is Chairman. Also the names of Registered Teachers who are known to have died have been removed from the Register, and after these various deductions from the total applications the present membership of the Royal Society of Teachers is about 87,000. It is unlikely that the total membership will ever exceed 120,000, at any rate so long as there are employed in schools the present proportion of unqualified and semi-qualified persons.

The Value of Registration.

When the establishment of a Register of Teachers was authorised by Parliament in 1907, there was some doubt as to the utility of the scheme. It took five years to discover an acceptable plan for the establishment of a "Council representative of the Teaching Profession," as described in the Act. The enterprise was regarded with some indifference by the Board of Education, by Local Authorities, and by Governing Bodies of every type. This attitude was unfortunately justified to some extent by the apparent indifference of some teachers, who failed to perceive the importance of securing for their own representatives the right to determine the standards of admission to their calling. The Register of Teachers is the symbol by which people may know that the right exists and is being exercised. To the individual the value of registration can never offer terms of improved salary or such personal benefits as are offered by sectional organisations. The value comes indirectly, and becomes more and more manifest as the Register is known by the public to be the hall-mark of a real profession. Teachers who hold aloof from the movement are putting off the day when their work will receive proper recognition. This day will come when it is generally accepted that none save Registered Teachers should hold posts of responsibility involving the supervision of the work of teachers. This is no more than an elementary requirement, the least that is consistent with professional self-respect.

Professional Costume.

It has been suggested by some Registered Teachers that membership of the Royal Society of Teachers might properly carry the right to wear a special robe similar to the barrister's gown. Many teachers are already entitled to wear what is called academic dress, and some are expected to don a gown before appearing in a classroom or taking part in the daily routine of school away from the playing fields. Teachers have the same historic justification as parsons, lawyers, and doctors for wearing professional gowns, since they derive from the same clerical fraternity and are doing work which was formerly in the hands of members of religious orders. The gown of the barrister, or clergyman, or doctor, in common with those worn by students or graduates of university, is a relic of monastic garb, originally intended to serve not only as raiment, but also as an indication of equality within the order. It may be doubted whether teachers as a body have any great desire to wear gowns, even on ceremonial occasions. At prize distributions and such functions members of the staff who are graduates of universities often appear in all the splendour of hoods and gowns. It may be supposed that they would not replace these by a professional gown even if one were authorised for the use of members of the Royal Society of Teachers. Such a gown might thus become a mark of inferior academic standing, used only by those who are not university graduates.

Applicants from Overseas.

Among those applying to become members of the Royal Society of Teachers there are many who are working in overseas parts of the British Commonwealth. It is the practice of the Council to admit such applicants where they are found to satisfy the Conditions of Registration. Thus the Society may become at least a small factor in promoting a widespread spirit of kinship. In some parts of the Commonwealth, notably in South Africa, the teachers are desirous of establishing a Register of their own, but it is possible for a qualified teacher to be enrolled on two Registers. It may be possible to devise a scheme by which enrolment on one Register is held to warrant enrolment on another, but this may be difficult to bring about so long as the value of State certificates or licences to teach varies so greatly as at present. In some Colonies, for example, the certificates are not valid for admission to the Royal Society of Teachers. The standards are too low. This does not hold in all the self-governing Dominions, however, for in some of these the level of a teacher's qualification is no lower than at home.

THE MONTH'S CAUSERIE.

By THE DOMINIE.

Negotiations Again.

I am glad to learn that the Burnham Committees have resumed their work. I still regard it as unfortunate that the Authorities' Panel should have demanded from the teacher representatives a preliminary undertaking to accept reductions, but subsequent happenings have made that incident hardly worth recalling. To-day both Authorities and teachers are wondering how to make ends meet after the severe reductions imposed by the Government. I cannot believe that the Authorities will try to balance their local budgets by reducing the salaries still further. We may expect that before very long the purchasing power of a Treasury note will fall here as it has done abroad, though perhaps not to the same extent. Nobody can foretell the effect of such economic changes as the abandonment of the gold standard and the extension of tariffs on imports. It may be that the real wages of teachers will fall by considerably more than the 10 per cent. now in force. In these circumstances the Burnham Committees ought not to waste time and energy in discussing reductions. Their aim should be to discover what adjustments are needed to make the salary scales more equitable in their working.

A New Approach.

The trend of educational policy may be taken as indicating a new line of approach to the salary problem. We are leaving behind our old notions of education being graded according to social levels. In their indirect effects the home and social environments of children will always count for much in their schooling. But the qualified man or woman who is teaching boys or girls from working class homes is doing work which is not less important than that of teachers dealing with pupils of the same age in a secondary or public school. We have done wrong in the past by thinking that we must have a special type of teacher for each social grade. This has led us to create especially a type for the public elementary schools in the false belief that the work in such schools demanded it. We are now witnessing a constant and increasing flow of elementary school pupils into secondary schools and universities. The old social barriers are breaking down among the pupils, and it is time that they were broken down among teachers. Experience in a slum parish is not held to debar a curate from the chance of becoming a bishop, if he is found to be fitted for the higher post. Why should experience in a public elementary school be regarded as a positive handicap to a fully-qualified teacher who seeks a post in one of our great public schools?

A Unified Profession.

The principle I have outlined in the foregoing paragraph calls for a reconsideration of our present method of recruiting and training teachers. In some branches the recruiting is wholly haphazard. The young graduate who cannot afford the expensive preparation for the Bar or for other recognised professions may hope to obtain a post as a teacher. In specialist branches the trained workman, or a musician who cannot obtain concert engagements, may turn to teaching as a means of obtaining either extra money or a livelihood. It is only in the public elementary school field that professional training is demanded as a condition of appointment to a headship, and even there we have some forty thousand unqualified or semi-qualified persons engaged in looking after children. Yet there must be some body of attributes or qualifications which all teachers should possess. How are these to be acquired? Perhaps the best way would be found in a system of apprenticeship following the acquirement of the knowledge needed for teaching and of the intellectual background which membership of any profession should imply. Nobody should be recognised as a teacher until the end of a year or more of experience.

The Staff College.

The method of preliminary training by regulated apprenticeship would free our University Education Departments and our existing training colleges from the obligation to provide elementary lectures and school practice in teaching. These exercises are often regarded by students as an interruption to their intellectual progress, and there is a growing feeling outside that the "trained teacher" of to-day is often lacking in power to deal with pupils in the classroom. Would it not be better to leave our universities and colleges to carry on their work of furnishing the minds of those who intend to become teachers, leaving the first stages of professional preparation to be accomplished in the schools? There would still be required some opportunity for further study of principles, and this might be given by constituting University Education Departments as staff colleges to which teachers might return after a period of practical experience. This experience would fit them to receive and to profit by the advanced instruction in theory which universities could provide. We could gradually form a special corps of teachers from which might be chosen our official administrators, inspectors, and heads of educational institutions.

Limitations of Science Teaching.

Professor Irvine Masson, in the course of his Alexander Pedler lecture at Newcastle, spoke of the problems connected with the teaching of science in the schools and universities of to-day. After a brief review of existing practice, he said that the growth of knowledge in all branches has made it impossible for any student to cover the groundwork properly in three years. Five years are now expected before a young scientist can obtain a post in industry. On the other hand, he suggested, we are overdoing science with pupils who do not intend to become scientific workers. We take them over too wide a field, and then engage them in specialist study too soon. Honours degrees in science were often sought by students who intended to become teachers. This he held to be unfortunate, because the teachers thus equipped tended to encourage specialisation in the schools instead of aiming at a well-balanced course of study. Such a course would be facilitated if the universities would remodel their requirements for pass degrees, and if the Burnham Scales were reviewed so as to avoid the encouragement of honours degrees. He urged that the aims and range of the School Certificate examinations should also be reconsidered.

Maintaining the Salaries Standard.

The Education Committee which controls the schools at Heston and Isleworth, an urban district of Middlesex, has taken a strong line by refusing to reduce the salaries of teachers. There can be no doubt that the committee is acting legally, however much distress it may be causing in the minds of members of other educational authorities. The real reckoning will be with the local rate-payers, who will be called upon to meet the deficiency caused by the reduction in the Board's grants for salaries. It will be remembered that Sir George Lunn, the Chairman of the Authorities' Panel of the Burnham Committee, recently resigned from the Board of Governors of a secondary school in Newcastle as a protest against the reduction of the cut in the teachers' salaries from 10 per cent. to 5 per cent. He stated that there ought to be equality of sacrifice, and that no teachers should receive more favourable treatment than the rest. This may be a reasonable view, but the fact remains that the Government have left it within the power of any Local Authority or body of governors to supplement if they can the new and reduced grants, and thus to avoid the full hardship which would otherwise be inflicted on teachers. Perhaps the strongest objection to the Heston-Isleworth policy is that it runs counter to the principle of national bargaining.

The Teaching of Economics.

Recent events have forced us all to think about economics. Many have been trying for the first time to understand what is meant by "going off gold," or by such terms as the "balance of trade." Now comes the suggestion that economics should be taught in schools. One advocate urges that we might begin at the age of fourteen with a study of elementary descriptive economics, brought into relation with history and geography. Unfortunately for his case, the same advocate has to say that "economic theory is, to some extent, in a continual state of transition." He says that this uncertainty does not rob the subject of its value, but I think it adds enormously to the difficulty of teaching it in schools. It is well-nigh impossible to separate economic theory from party politics. There is the question of tariffs, for example, or the part played by labour in production and the rewards due to labour. A teacher may present these topics in a detached way and without bias, but his teaching will be held suspect by parents who hold extreme views on either side. It may be possible to devise courses on descriptive economics, showing how trade is carried on between nations, what capital is and what it does, the functions of money, the nature of credit, &c. Such instruction would be extremely useful, for it is only too evident that the ordinary citizen knows nothing about matters on which he was recently asked to vote.

The Private Schools Inquiry.

Recent political events have submerged the Departmental Committee on Private Schools. The Chairman, Mr. Chuter Ede, is no longer a member of Parliament, but that does not preclude him from continuing to preside over the committee. I hope that the work will be resumed without delay, and that a full report will be issued with all speed. The matter is not less important than it was when the late Government agreed to the establishment of the committee. Efficient independent schools continue to suffer from the competition of cheap and poor schools conducted by persons who have no sort of claim to be described as teachers. Even some of the more expensive schools require supervision. No school should be allowed to go on unless it is inspected by competent authorities and conducted by a Registered Teacher, or by one whose past record is satisfactory. There should be stringent rules concerning the establishment of new schools. Here is a reform which calls for little expenditure. The need for reform is now generally admitted and many parents are ready to welcome an assurance that their children are under proper supervision at school.

EDUCATIONAL HOBBY-HORSES.

By G. D. MARTINEAU.

I have been listening to people talking about education. All schoolmasters have to listen to people talking about education, just as, I suppose, all doctors have to listen to people talking about the treatment of disease, actors to people talking about the stage; and people of every profession have to listen to others explaining their profession to them. It is natural. We all do it.

I have often explained how this country should be governed, adding, with conscious pride, that I am not a politician. There are several obvious reasons. One is that, to those engaged in the discussion, it is a relaxation, an amusement. They do not earn their living by it, and it is therefore a pleasant diversion, which they pursue with all the eagerness of the amateur.

This eagerness I have often observed in my cousin Arabella. Arabella lives in a small but comfortable and well-arranged house at the other end of the town, and there is one thing that she really can do. She can cook. Need I say that she does not do it? Being comfortably off, she lives by herself, keeps a cook (who, under supervision, certainly does produce a tolerable imitation of Arabella's art), and devotes a considerable leisure to the discussion of new ideas. Her latest interests are educational.

You might suppose from this that her theories are new, up to date, and original. Nothing of the kind. They are nothing more than the time-honoured bleatings about "repression," "crushing of individuality," and "moulding to type." They are reinforced, of course, by one or two modern clichés like "inhibitions" and "subordination to the herd complex," but they all amount to the same thing.

"How you schoolmasters can go on blindly following the same dogma," exclaimed Arabella the other evening, "is one of the eternal wonders of the world." I protested, with humility, that, much as these things were to be regretted, I was awkwardly placed, being only an assistant master in a preparatory school, which had to minister to the tyrannical demands of a public school. This was an endeavour to disclaim responsibility, and, by placing the onus of the outrage on our educational system at large, to avoid becoming the target of Arabella's attack. It was a vain effort.

"In your hands," she pursued accusingly, "is the training of a part of the new race. That new race will not tolerate for long the old concepts, the old brutalising methods, the lack of ability to discriminate between one human soul and another which you go on applying to this training."

Feebly I repeated my disclaimer. I was beaten

back into my chair, and a good deal more in the same vein was poured out with evident relish.

"You masters treat all boys the same," she declared.

I did not tell her that no master who treated all boys the same could possibly keep his job at the present time for one school term. I did not try to describe to her the endless discussions of a boy's character, and of ways and means to bring out the best in him that are as familiar to a common room as the smell of bat-oil. I did not tell her that never, in the history of teaching, had the effort to develop separate personality and independent thought (as opposed to the "herd complex") been so thoroughly insisted on throughout the country. I did not tell Arabella these things, because she would not have believed them if I had; but I did muse on them as I walked back to the school. And, as I mused on these heroic strivings of which my cousin was so magnificently ignorant, I came, not for the first time, to an infinitely humorous and infinitely sad conclusion. We had failed.

Yes, we had failed in this grand assault upon drab uniformity and herd psychology, and, on the evidence of their eyes, the Arabellas of society had perhaps some reason for their conclusions concerning our methods.

The disciplined, birch-brandishing Victorian, with his "Little boys should be seen and not heard," has gone his way, and what do we remember of his age?

We remember, at any rate, individuals. And they are not merely names; we picture them. Still more did the people of their age picture them. Lord Roberts, Irving, Gladstone, W. G. Grace—these and many others were familiar figures to the man in the street.

That is the jest of it. Those soul-killing days were rich in their production of personality.

Now we go in search of original minds; we give free rein to every human instinct in order to encourage independent thought; we scour the classrooms for creative brains. We withhold our disciplinary powers for fear of checking their development. And what do we produce? Standardisation, a dead level of uniformity, a genial mob of happy mediums.

Arabella invited me to lunch on Sunday, because she said she had another schoolmaster coming to lunch, and we could have a nice long talk together. Why she should imagine that I wanted to converse with yet another schoolmaster, in addition to my present colleagues and the various ushers I meet when there are football matches, furnishes yet another of life's eternal mysteries.

Many people are like that. They always think they are being tactful if they invite men of the same profession to meet each other. They see nothing illogical in it, and they would be surprised and hurt if anyone told them that they were conniving at homicide. In any case I could not go, so she asked me to tea. Some day I shall invite Arabella to the kind of school lunch that we generally have about Thursday, and I shall then explain cooking to her.

At tea she introduced me to a retired Indian policeman.

"This is Mr. Grant," she said, adding, with a twinkle, "he is very interested in education, and has some ideas to which you and your moth-eaten crowd might give your attention."

Oh, Lord! I thought. It might have been better to meet the schoolmaster. Here, I supposed, would be more of this eternal truck about crushing individuality. Was I to listen to more flogging of a dead horse for a whole afternoon? Should I turn and rend him? Was it worth while, after all, showing Arabella and her friends just where they got off? Or would it be waste of time?

But Mr. Grant was speaking, and before I could come to a decision he was giving me his ideas of what was lacking in education at the present time. To be accurate he had one idea, and one only, bearing on the development of our glorious youth, and, as it really was an original idea for once, I will here disclose it and offer it without charge to any member of the teaching profession to whom it may appeal.

It was this: had we considered the inestimable comfort that would be afforded to the distant outposts of our great Empire if only we insisted upon every boy being taught to play the banjo?

Conference of Educational Associations.

The Twentieth Conference of Educational Associations will be held at University College, London, from Monday, January 4, to Monday, January 11, 1932. The President for 1931-1932 is Sir William Rothenstein, Principal of the Royal College of Art.

A Talking Picture Lesson.

Recently some boys from the Kingston Grammar School attended a demonstration of educational talking pictures in the Western Electric private theatre at Bush House. Music and physics were two subjects treated by the programme of pictures, whilst one film intended as a guide in vocational selection was also demonstrated.

THE TEACHER'S "PERSONALITY."

By J. R. ILLINGWORTH.

An acquaintance of mine who has two young children recently drew my attention to quite a serious problem in the teaching profession.

"Why are teachers such second-rate specimens?" he asked me indignantly.

"They are not second-rate," I replied, on the defensive, "they are specially trained; and, generally speaking, they are a very competent set."

"Competent no doubt—and trained. Too much trained, I should think, by the look of them. You can always spot them out—they're 'marked'—all alike and all hang-dog looking. Fine specimens to entrust with the welfare of our children!" he said with some bitterness.

Of course, that was a superficial view; but still I was aware that it indicated something wrong beneath the surface; and it struck me that it was a difficulty which could be removed by a little common sense and tolerance.

During their tutelage our young teachers undoubtedly receive a full and efficient training; and some of them even widen this by enthusiastic study of the thought of great contemporary educationists. They are aglow with ideals and eager to put them into practice. With a few years' experience they should become excellent teachers.

Why, then, do they develop the "second-rate" personalities against which my friend so bitterly complained? The reason, it seems to me, is that when they take up their first posts as junior teachers they have no personal freedom in their work. They become subordinate to the heads of their departments, who are themselves but inconsiderable units in a complex system. Usually they conform through sheer necessity, but little by little their enterprise is starved and their ideals become meaningless to them.

Often through disillusionment a teacher will abandon his profession and divert his energies into some other activity; or he becomes a theorist with no power to translate his thought into action. But most frequently he remains, and so helps to swell the number of "second-rates."

A measure of sympathy from heads of departments would remedy most of this trouble. If experience would but lower its dignity to walk hand in hand with modernity instead of altogether refusing its companionship, both would reap advantage. No system is so perfect that it cannot profit by a wholesome blast of outdoor air; and even if this were not so, more surely would be gained by sacrificing a little "system" to enterprise and experiment than by remaining solid and static—especially if by so doing we could keep alive the spirit of youth and enthusiasm in the personalities of our teachers.

DENMARK'S EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

BY HOWARD HENSMAN.

Denmark may claim to be the first country in Europe to introduce a system of compulsory education, since a system was founded as long ago as 1739, though it was not until the striking Education Act of 1814 that the foundations of the present system were laid. This served to put Denmark well in the forefront of the nations of Europe so far as elementary education went, and it may be said with justice that it has retained this prominence ever since.

To-day the Danish system is thoroughly democratic in every respect. From the *Folkesskoler*, or elementary school, the child passes forward in turn through the *Mellemskoler* (secondary school) and the gymnasium to the university. The progress is admirably graded, and so arranged that every boy and girl of average intelligence has an equal opportunity to carve out a career.

At the elementary schools everything is free, not only the teaching, but all necessary books, stationery, materials, and accessories as well. Education commences in Denmark rather later than is the case in this country, attendance becoming compulsory from the beginning of the first term after the child has attained the age of seven, and continues until the age of fourteen is reached. Afterwards attendance is optional.

There is an excellent plan for dealing with non-attendance that is worthy of consideration by our own educational authorities. Absence from school without a duly approved reason incurs a fine upon the parents or guardians at the rate of approximately 1½d. per day for the first thirty days, 3½d. a day for the next thirty days, 7d. a day for a further similar period, and after that 1s. 2d. per day. These fines are legally recoverable, automatically and without summons or other process being issued, production of the school attendance book before a court of summary jurisdiction being all that is necessary.

How admirably and effectively this system works is indicated by the fact that statistics show that in the urban districts the children miss on an average only one day's attendance a year from avoidable causes, while in the country areas the average is two days a year. In the latter case, it should be added, due allowance is made for weather conditions and the distance that each child lives from the school.

Classes in the Danish elementary schools rule commendably small, the maximum being fixed at thirty-five. As has been indicated, the curriculum is much more simple and upon entirely less ambitious lines than is the case in this country. The principal subjects taught are Danish grammar, literature and

history (to which a minimum of seven hours a week has to be devoted), religion, arithmetic, handwriting, drawing, and singing. In addition, the boys are taught gymnasium and a variety of handicrafts, while the girls are instructed in gymnastics and domestic economy. There are also several optional subjects for boys, such as mathematics, physics, and modern languages, subjects which are now open to girls as well.

It is compulsory that all schools in urban areas should be open for forty-one weeks every year, and the average number of hours worked a week must not fall below twenty-one, exclusive of the time devoted to gymnastics, drawing, handicrafts, and optional subjects. In the country districts the number of weeks upon which a school must be open remains the same, but the average hours per week are reduced to eighteen because of the longer distances that most of the children have to travel and the comparatively small amount of daylight that is available during the winter months.

Most of the schools are composed of six or seven classes, and it is expected that a pupil of normal intelligence shall pass from one class to the next every year. The hours worked vary considerably from ours, the senior classes starting in some cases as early as eight o'clock in the morning. Before promotion to a higher class takes place, an examination has to be passed on the work of the year. These examinations are nearly entirely oral, and are held in the presence of relatives and friends, who are thus afforded an opportunity to compare the intelligence and progress of their children as compared with their neighbours'. This again is something that might be worthy of the consideration of our Board of Education.

The secondary schools of Denmark are extremely efficient and remarkably well equipped in every direction. They take diverse forms, such as high schools of the customary type, technical schools, evening continuation classes, reading circles, &c. The secondary schools have a very comprehensive curriculum, which embraces ancient and modern languages and literature, handicrafts, and a very wide sweep of scientific and commercial subjects.

It is necessary for all who seek employment in any of the Government Departments to pass the preliminary examination of these schools before they reach the age of sixteen, and these examinations are of a very searching character indeed, and well calculated to test the all-round intelligence and general resource of every boy and girl sitting.

In the case of those who desire to proceed to the university, they must first of all pass through a

classical school after having passed the final examination of a secondary school. They remain at this classical school until the age of eighteen, when they are permitted to sit for the examination that gives them entrance to the university. This examination is divided into three forms, and the student is permitted to make his choice which he will take. The alternatives are: (a) History and classical languages, with either English or German as an optional subject; (b) modern languages, with Latin as an additional subject; and (c) mathematics and physics, with one modern language in addition.

Copenhagen University is one of the oldest in Europe, being founded in the latter half of the fifteenth century. It comprises six faculties, and at the present day has a staff of upwards of a hundred professors and teachers. Every undergraduate is called upon to pass an examination on the principles of philosophy within a year of his entrance, but this is by no means a difficult task. Degrees may then be taken in either theology, medicine, literature, law, natural science, physics or economics, and civics. Of these, the legal degree is by far the most greatly favoured, and is taken year by year by many who have no intention of following a legal career. This course is divided into two parts, the first, mainly theoretical, comprising the history of law, Roman law, and the fundamental principles of economics. The second part is the practical side, and deals with commercial, international, criminal, and general law. Between five and six years is, apparently, the average time taken to obtain this degree.

Fees at the University of Copenhagen are quite nominal; but, on the other hand, scholarships, though numerous, are not of any great amount.

An interesting feature here is when a student seeks to obtain his doctor's degree, he is called upon to prepare an original thesis, and to submit it to the university authorities with an application for permission to argue it. This is then attacked by two experts selected for the purpose, and in the presence of the public, and its author is called upon to defend it and generally substantiate his argument and conclusions.

The manner in which funds for education in Denmark are provided is of at least passing interest. Each county possesses a general education fund for the provision of teachers and their maintenance, the granting of pensions to these teachers, and the assistance of schools in poor districts.

The general cost of education is provided as to one-half by the Government and the other by the municipality or parish in which the school is situated. Salaries of teachers, it may be added, are far from high, but the calling is one that is increasingly popular with both men and women.

TEACHERS IN CHICAGO.

No Salaries for Months Past.

It used to be the proud boast of Chicago that the average wealth of its citizens exceeded that of the citizens of any other place on earth. This may be true even to-day, but apparently the teachers are not sharing any wealth. The Chicago correspondent of the *Los Angeles Times* recently reported as follows, after an interview with the Principal of one of the Chicago High Schools:—

"The teachers have not been paid since last April. Many of them do not have enough to eat, they need new clothes, they can't pay their rent. Walking miles to school each day and miles back after hours of teaching is not unusual," the Principal said. "I know of many who are doing that and going without lunch. They simply haven't the cash, and I believe that in two weeks there will be enough others in the same straits to necessitate closing the schools. Of course, the children will run the streets, but what can we do?"

"I tell you, the teachers are desperate. They don't know where to turn. They have gone through four stages in this thing. When the first payless pay days came they were annoyed. Then they were angry. Next they were distressed. Now they are terrified, and that is no exaggeration. They are absolutely fearful of what the future holds.

"What if they or one of their dependents should fall ill? There's a long waiting list at the County Hospital. They couldn't get in there. It's a frightening prospect for anyone.

"A man who had had long teaching experience in the East came to us last April. He had to wait some time before he was placed and was without funds when he arrived. He hasn't received a penny of salary. For a while the teachers here fed him, but now each has all he can do to look after himself.

"Another of our teachers has seven children to support, the youngest an infant in arms. He told me the other day he was down to his last seven dollars. He had borrowed to the limit on his insurance. There is no resource he can turn to. That man looks grim. Goodness knows what he will do.

"Others are dragging to school, half sick, without the funds for medical attention. An elderly woman, semi-invalid, has heavy doctor bills to pay. She was even cheated out of her April salary when her name was left off the pay roll by mistake."

"One teacher in the school has died from want of proper medical care."

Comment on this grim picture is hardly needed, but it is painful to remember that we have been accustomed to regard the United States of America as a leader in educational development. We can only hope that the millionaires of Chicago will rescue the credit of their city.

THE CHILD'S ANNUAL.

By E. M. WILKIE.

Though by the calendar it was mid-November, Christmas was already upon us there could be no doubt. In what is usually the most sober windowed of bookshops gay covers were beginning to show themselves, "Joy Streets" and "Wonder Books" had displaced learned works on heraldry and numismatics—the children's annuals had just arrived from the publishers.

By a strange chance, on that very first bright day of the "Annuals" season, I was in search of some book in a quiet corner of the University Library when I caught sight of a stumpy little calf-covered volume with a red label on which were the golden words, "The Child's Own Annual." I took it from its shelf. A little puff of leather-scented dust rose as I did so. But I was blind to the omens, and continued quite cheerfully to investigate this six-inch by four-inch book that had found its way to me from an age more serious than ours, certainly, but one which evidently remembered the needs of children and knew how they love books of their very own.

The title-page was rather chilling it must be admitted:—

THE CHILD'S OWN ANNUAL.
An
Illustrated Present
For
Young Persons.

" 'Tis education forms the common mind;
Just as the twig is bent, the bough's inclined."
1843.

But one has to allow for a certain stiffness in one's ancestors, and I was not discouraged.

The "Address" was like most other prefaces, better skipped. "In this little work," it said, "we intend to present you annually with things more valuable than either toys or sweetmeats. You will here find those seeds of knowledge which, as you grow older, will ensure you the love and respect of all those whose esteem you should be desirous of possessing." I comforted myself with the thought that children never bother about introductions and, hurrying past the Table of Contents, I arrived gladly at "A Merry Christmas."

"Little children come home for the holidays then; many coaches come rattling through the streets; many boys exchange many pence for many pea-shooters and many peas to fire at the people as they pass; but when they arrive home, the coach stops, a loud knocking is heard at the door; out run four or five of the family, all so happy, and little George or little Robert is soon in the arms of his mother. What a happy home awaits him! . . . The walls

of each parlour are all bedecked with red berries, nor is the ceiling forgotten, for there hangs a fine branch of mistletoe for George or Robert to kiss his little sister under. Mavor and Walkingame are soon forgotten, and snapdragon and hunt-the-slipper reign triumphant. Little girls, too, spend long hours in telling their mothers how many nice walks they have had, how many marks for good spelling and reading, keeping awake in church while governess fell asleep, remembering the texts, and so forth."

But the cheery note was not to last long. A page or so further on was a little line drawing of Abraham about to sacrifice Isaac, called Scripture Illustration, No. 1—the depressing opening to a truly gloomy series. Scattered through the book, too, were "London Sights," "Talks on Botany," "Letters from Sister Jane on her Travels," scraps of information on astronomy, theology, and "Natural History Illustrated." This last set sounded a little more promising than some of the others. I had certainly no hope of finding a "Tigger" or a "Pooh" lurking among these neat pages, but I was not prepared for the real ingenuity and labour the writer had expended on making beasts dull. When there are so many jolly things to be said of whales, why should anyone choose to say this: "The principal means of locomotion is by the tail, which is broad and semi-lunar and moves in the water in a similar manner to the motion of the oar in skulling"?

I stumbled on just two more bright patches in the miserable collection. One, a tiny one, was the unconscious mention of the second of the Lewis Carroll twins:—

"Pretty Robin, come to me,
Come and sing sweet tweedle-dee."

The other was Charles Lamb's Susan Yates, taken, without her author's permission, since it could no longer be asked, from among her companions of Mrs. Leicester's School, and telling, as she had first done some thirty years before, the quaint childish fancies she had had about church and church-going when she had listened to the sound of bells coming on the wind to her lovely home in the Lincolnshire fens. It was pleasant and heartening to meet her again even in this poor company.

I turned back to the Table of Contents and read with growing dismay: The Tragic History of Mary, Queen of Scots; On Embalming; An Elegy; The Passionate Child—I knew the sort of thing to expect now, and there it was, a moral murder story—On Death. What a ghoulish lot they were, those grown-ups of ninety odd years ago. What harm had not these joyless creatures done in thrusting their loathsome concoctions before the eyes of children?

EXAMINING JONES MINOR.

By OLIVE ARMSTRONG.

Childhood is impregnable. I may belabour Jones minor in any way I will, he takes in what he chooses. I have succeeded in teaching him, after a term of French history, that Napoleon III was "a mild gentleman of low statue." I suspect that he has a lurking hope that I may take the hint and emulate the manners of Napoleon, though he would not hurt my feelings by saying so more directly. I think he is really fond of me, certainly I know he tries to please me. He has endowed me with an enthusiasm for the Church, and whips up his own to match. Is it the monastic age I want? Why not? He takes a breath. "During the seventh century Ireland was looked on as the island of saints and scholars"—his generous soul rebels, that is no way to treat another fellow's hobby. "From that time on the country went on in leaps and bounds as the country for producing saints and scholars." There! The warmth of that magnanimity makes him lavish. He has an ear for an odd phrase. "The tenant enjoyed the protection of his lord." "Mohammedanism was embraced by the people there." These have caught his fancy, but in his exuberance he goes one better: "The tenant enjoyed immensely the protection of his lord." "Mohammedanism was tightly embraced by the people there."

With all my ecclesiastical leanings I do not seem to have given him sound religious values, for I read that "about the end of the sixteenth century the Church had declined so much that it was now only a means of getting to heaven"—an object of scorn, in fact. But though his judgment may be at fault, his imagination never fails him. The very sound of a word opens a world of romance to him. The word Huguenot makes him a new Defoe. "The Huguenots were a race of people on one of the islands Columbus discovered. They were extremely gentle, and gave the saint a good reception."

It is a shattering experience to read his examination papers, and yet in the midst of it I am amazed at the brightness of my dull thoughts as given back to me. I have laboured the relative culpability of Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette for the French Revolution, and he tells me with happy conclusiveness that "Louis XVI would have been all right but for the gay partner sitting beside him on the throne." When I read that I take heart of grace for another term.

GLEANINGS.

A Problem.

At a recent Civil Service examination the following problem was set as a test of intelligence. Ten minutes were given for solving it: "A train is controlled by an engine-driver, a fireman, and a guard, whose names are Brown, Jones, and Robinson, *not* respectively.

"On the train are three passengers, Mr. Jones, Mr. Robinson, and Mr. Brown.

"Mr. Robinson lives at Leeds.

"The guard lives halfway between Leeds and London.

"Mr. Jones's income is £400. 2s. 1d. per annum.

"The guard earns in a year exactly one-third of the income of his nearest neighbour who is a passenger.

"The guard's namesake lives in London.

"Brown beat the fireman at billiards.

"What is the name of the engine-driver?"

The Case for Football.

"Football is now firmly established as the right education for boys. . . . It has become a recognised moral and patriotic discipline, teaching not only practical virtues like fortitude and decision but team spirit and a willingness to be hacked on the shin for the good of the school, which makes brave and cheerful tax-payers later on."—*The Times*.

Swamped by Tombstones.

Many thousands of ready-made tombstones are imported into this country, whilst more than 200,000 building trade employees are walking about. When the time arrives for the review of protected industries, it would be of material assistance to this trade if we could have your valued support. At the moment, the depreciated currency has partly stopped the Italian competition, but we hear that Carrara, which is the centre of this trade, is preparing to meet these adverse conditions, and it will not be long before we find ourselves again swamped by their ready-made tombstones.—*From a letter to "The Times."*

Blessed be Anarchy.

"No two of us are alike in brain power or character; no two of us ever develop exactly on the same lines, and it is only when children are saved from the constant but well-meaning interference of their devoted parents or teachers that they have a real chance to develop on the lines that Nature intended for them."—*Mr. Paul Griffith in a letter to "The Times."*

MODERN SCHOOLING

THE VILLAGE SCHOOL.

By WILLIAM CLAYTON, M.B.E. (Appleton Roebuck School).

XII. "The Captain of the Ship."

Realising, as I do, my many faults, my lack of scholarship, my wasted hours which should have been spent in deep reading, close study, and book lore, I hardly dare make suggestions as to the type of teacher best suited to conduct our village school.

In the passing of the years I have, however, seen so many comings and goings of teachers to and from our villages, that there are a few points which possibly may be of service if I pass them on. I have known the town assistant, after a few years' experience there, apply for and obtain the headship of a village school for the sole purpose of making it the jumping off ground for a headship in a town centre. I am not sure that the village school is the best place from which to secure a headship in a large school; but I am quite sure that teachers who put their own promotion before the welfare of the pupils are not the best persons to conduct village schools.

Another quite unsuitable teacher for country work is the assistant who, after long years of waiting in the city has despaired of receiving a headship there, decides to apply for a village school, where he can settle down to a quiet and easy life for the remainder of his days. There is no such thing as an easy life in a two or three teacher school, and the last person to make a success of our job is the one who has spent many years—possibly of most valuable work—in teaching one standard in a large school.

It is almost a superhuman task to keep thirty or forty pupils, who are spread over all the standards from two to seven, constantly and progressively employed. Though many teachers "settle down" to it, even the successful ones never find it easy. There is nothing easy about the conducting of a village school. If there were, life would not be worth while. All the joys of life come from hard work—setting out each day on a new adventure, where our powers of courage, perseverance, determination, skill, and judgment are required to make the adventure end happily and successfully. Each and every day of our lives brings its own joys and difficulties. Most of them are quite unexpected, and it is only those who adventure forth with a

fresh outlook daily who can expect to share in the "joys of life."

That such joys are more abundant and more lasting in the villages than in our towns I believe to be a fact; but equally so are the sorrows, the disappointments, the spyings, and the slanderings. It is only those teachers who, by steadfast devotion to duty, broad outlook, deep culture, and kindly disposition, can lift themselves right above the petty tyrannies of village life, who will find each day that the joys outweigh the sorrows.

What the village needs is the enlightened enthusiasm of a guiding spirit. The community cannot live its proper tribal life without this guide, and it behoves the teacher to use every endeavour to see that this guide is forthcoming. A sensible teacher can utilise to the full the organising ability and knowledge which he or she possesses, and confer a lasting boon upon the community if only he or she dares to adventure.

But many more qualities are needed to carry on a village school. It is essential that the teacher should have a deep love for all phases of country life. Over and over again opportunities will occur of utilising some feature—possibly a quite unexpected one—of country life in the actual school work. These should always be seized upon with enthusiasm. The rocks around the time table and other adverse currents can be successfully avoided by the skilful captain. I do not think it is possible for a teacher to live and work successfully in our remote villages unless he or she is a great lover of books. Not only is deep reading necessary for the dissemination of knowledge; but for the fruitful occupation of the many hours when the sun rises late and sets early, when life in the village is more or less recuperating for its spring awakening.

Our village ship is only perhaps a hundred-tonner, but her captain must be fully and completely trained and qualified like his brother who guides the town leviathan. They are both entrusted with the same valuable cargoes, and no lowering of qualification or status can be allowed for the chief of the smaller vessel. But the man or woman who is to work happily in our out-of-the-way places must have, in addition to all his paper qualifications, a more than ordinary love for hill and vale, wood and meadow, river and stream, and the people, animals, birds, insect and plant life found therein.

AN END-OF-TERM RECITAL.

By ELSIE R. NORTH.

It is usual in most schools to have some kind of concert at the end of the year, if not at the end of each term. At these entertainments, to which parents and friends are invited, only the "show pupils" are allowed to figure. Less gifted children have to watch the more brilliant perform their part, and receive the applause often so generously given.

Now all little children desire to display their gifts, however small.

"See me, mummy, watch me climb on the chair."

An audience is always in demand; it is only after the age of fourteen or fifteen that self-consciousness creeps in. It need not creep in if the child is sensibly brought up to give of her best, and if that best is kindly and generously appreciated.

I have introduced a plan which not only has afforded my pupils a great deal of pleasure, but has formed a link between school and home of very real value. At the end of each term I ask each pupil to give me a private recital during the last music period.

She has, first of all, to draw up her programme, which need not be restricted to the actual "pieces" she has learnt in her lessons. Hymn tunes and marches are often introduced; more ambitious children learn a piece "all by themselves" to add variety to the programme, and I have even known one original child who, half-way through her programme, wrote:—

"Interval, during which there will be a recitation."

These programmes are veritable works of art, for each child vies with her companions to make them as attractive and decorative as possible, and I always have a show in my music room during the last week of term—a show of programmes which is open to all before school and during "recess."

During the recital I sit well back in the room and never interrupt the performance, but merely make an appreciative remark at the end of each item, and a little speech of thanks, or perhaps of special commendation at the end. Then the programme is returned to the pupil, who takes it home, and she is able to give a second performance for her parents and friends.

I have had pupils who would play at the school concert with the greatest assurance, but refused to perform in any way at the request of their parents. I have found that taking home a set programme has lessened this difficulty, and where the parents give the child a suitable opportunity, seeing that she is not interrupted or teased by other members of the family, and that her efforts are warmly appreciated, the child grows up quietly assured and unself-conscious, ready to add her quota to the entertainment of others whenever required.

LIVING HISTORY.

At a recent meeting of the Manchester Branch of the Historical Association, as reported by the *Manchester Guardian*, Miss E. Gorst described the method of teaching history to children between eight and eleven, as applied at the elementary school at which she is head mistress. In a junior school as now understood the children would be from seven years old to eleven years old, she said, and she would begin with stories of personal prowess, adventure, and discovery from the very earliest times, taken chronologically. At eight years old the method as applied in her Standard II would follow. Here they had a scheme of stories telling of the life of the children throughout the ages, from the tree-dwellers, interspersed with the stories she would have told to the seven-year-olds, but retold and amplified.

Standards III and IV traced the development of man, his gradual evolution from tree-dwelling and hunting to the great civilisations, and then on with special attention to British development. Always the chronological plan was kept, and stories were used almost entirely.

Telling of the various aids to capture the interest of young children, Miss Gorst said that they were encouraged to make their own picture books, finding their own pictures, and writing beneath them their own little description of what the picture meant. Teaching by pictures was very effective, but the pictures were difficult to find and expensive to buy. Making maps was another effective aid, for even the youngest children could mark events and places on a graphed map. If the teacher were really keen and knew her subject, dramatisation was excellent. The collecting of paper cuttings, sticking them in a frieze round the classroom, could be used to illustrate historical facts. Finally, model-making also served to a similar end by tracing, for example, the evolution of dwellings, of land transport, or of sea transport. She felt that the aim was to make the children see how the people looked and lived and dressed and worked.

History.

ANCIENT ENGLAND: by Donald Mackenzie. (1s. 3d. Blackie.)

This book deals with the history of England from the earliest times to the end of the Roman rule and the coming of the Saxons. The subject-matter is very well selected and arranged, and is set forth in a simple and interesting way. We can confidently recommend it as an historical reader for junior forms.

NEWS OF THE MONTH.

The Salaries Question.

The Burnham Committees on the Salaries of Teachers in Elementary, Secondary, and Technical Schools met on November 20 and decided not to submit for the consideration of the Board of Education any scheme of salary adjustments as suggested in paragraph 15 of Circular 1413.

It was resolved that the provisions of Lord Burnham's Awards of 1925, as set out in the 1927 Burnham Reports, should continue in operation for a further period of one year ending on March 31, 1933. Notice to terminate the Awards in March, 1932, was given some time ago. In accordance with the Order in Council of October 1, the Scales are subject to a deduction of 10 per cent. It was understood that the continuance of the Scales is subject to the Grant Regulations of the Board of Education not being further altered to the financial disadvantage of the Local Education Authorities.

The New Parliamentary Secretary.

Mr. Herwald Ramsbotham, M.C., has been appointed to succeed Sir Kingsley Wood as Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education. He has been M.P. for Lancaster since 1929, and was educated at Uppingham and University College, Oxford. His interest in education was shown by an amendment designed to postpone the raising of the school age until the passing of an Act to authorise financial aid towards the building of voluntary schools. A similar amendment, moved by Mr. Scurr, was carried later.

New Schools in Spain.

Nearly 40 per cent. of the people of Spain are illiterate. The new Minister of Education, Don Marcelono Domingo, who is a former schoolmaster, is aiming to provide 7,000 new schools, mainly in rural areas. The schools are to be equipped with libraries and wireless sets. Eminent artists are being employed to make copies of famous pictures, which are to replace the religious pictures and emblems formerly used in schools.

Excitement in Belgrade.

The hostel of the students of Belgrade University was recently surrounded by police, and all who tried to leave were beaten as punishment for their demonstration when a meeting, which was to have been addressed by the Minister of Education, was broken up. Hoses were subsequently used to clear the hostel. The trouble began when a demonstration was organised by the students against the unpopular elections. The students maintained a continual uproar all day in the hostel after several unsuccessful

attempts to make a sortie with banners bearing the words "Do not vote." They crowded the windows, shouting in chorus "Do not vote for the dictatorship." Whenever the police approached they were pelted with stones. Finally a truce was arranged, and it was agreed that the students arrested should be released. The university was closed for three days, and peace now reigns.

Fewer L.C.C. Schoolchildren.

The steady decrease since 1915 of the number of children attending London elementary schools was continued last year, when the total of 685,004 was 32,913 fewer than in 1929.

Health in Finsbury.

During the past three years the Finsbury Borough Council has carried on a health campaign, which has had the remarkable results shown in the following table:—

		Death-Rate.	Infantile Mortality.
1929	...	15.1	85 per 1,000
1930	...	13.1	63 per 1,000
1931	...	13.2	56 per 1,000

The Head Master of Silcoates Honoured.

At the Jubilee of the French Masters' Association, held in London on October 31, the French Ambassador conferred the insignia of an Officier d'Académie on Mr. Sydney H. Moore, Head Master of Silcoates School, Wakefield. M. Fleuriau spoke of Mr. Moore's services to the study of the language, literature, and philology of France.

Staff Inspector for Adult Education.

H.M.I. Mr. H. E. Boothroyd has been promoted to be Staff Inspector for Adult Education in succession to H.M.I. Mr. J. Owen, who retires on December 31, 1931.

Birkbeck College (University of London).

The celebration of the one hundred and eighth anniversary of the foundation of the College will be held in the College Theatre on Wednesday, December 9, 1931, at 8.15 p.m. No tickets are required. The Foundation Oration will be delivered by the Right Hon. William Graham, LL.D.

The College Literary Society will present Thomas Kyd's "The Spanish Tragedie" for three performances in the College Theatre on Friday, December 11, at 7.30 p.m., and Saturday, December 12, at 2.30 and 7.30 p.m. Tickets may be obtained from the Librarian at the College.

THE LONDON SCHOOL OF DALCROZE EURHYTHMICS.

New Constitution and Management.

The London School of Dalcroze Eurhythmics was founded in 1913 by Mr. Percy B. Ingham, and, until his death in September, 1930, the sole responsibility for its government and finance was in his hands.

During its first year, 1913, the school paid its way, but the war so affected it that, from then until his death, Mr. Ingham subsidised it from his own personal income, sometimes to the extent of over £2,000 a year. He spared no expense to make the school a success, spending freely on propaganda, demonstrations, and anything that would further the method and ensure work for those who had trained at the school.

After the death of Mr. Ingham, a small group of people determined to do their utmost to carry on his work. It has taken over a year to make the necessary arrangements. The result is the formation of a Trust constituted by Deed, with a Council for the government of the school.

The members of the Trust and of the first Council are:—Monsieur Emile Jaques-Dalcroze; Mrs. Ethel Ingham; Miss Gertrude Ingham (Chairman); Miss Ethel Driver, L.R.A.M., Dalcroze Diploma; Mrs. Nathalie Tingey, Dalcroze Diploma; Mr. Ernest Read, F.R.A.M.; Miss Cecilia John, L.A.B., Dalcroze Certificate; Miss Mona Swann; Miss Alice Weber (Secretary); Mr. Edward Maufe, M.A. Oxon, F.R.I.B.A.; Mr. F. W. Stephens, F.S.A.A.

An Executive of three, Miss Ingham, Miss John, and Miss Weber, will deal with current business of the school.

The staff for the current year is as follows:—

Training Course:

Miss Ethel Driver, L.R.A.M., Dalcroze Diploma; Mrs. Nathalie Tingey, Dalcroze Diploma; Mr. Ernest Read, F.R.A.M.; Miss Charlotte Blensdorf (Lecturer for the Autumn Term, 1931), Dalcroze Diploma; Miss Nita Henson, Gymnast, Bedford Physical Training College.

Outside work in the London district, and single subject classes at Store Street:

Miss Mary Bennett, A.R.A.M., Dalcroze Certificate; Miss Ena Churchill, Dalcroze Certificate; Miss Valerie Cooper, A.R.C.M., Dalcroze Certificate; Miss Mary Frost, L.R.A.M., Dalcroze Certificate; Miss Cecilia John, L.A.B., Dalcroze Certificate; Miss Phyllis Lees, Dalcroze Certificate; Miss Olga Roncoroni, L.R.A.M., Dalcroze Certificate; Mrs. Constance Willoughby, Dalcroze Certificate; Miss Sheila Macintosh, L.R.A.M., Dalcroze Certificate.

Provincial Centres:

GLASGOW.—Miss Phyllis Crawhall - Wilson, L.R.A.M., Dalcroze Certificate; Miss Constance Hook, L.R.A.M., Dalcroze Diploma; Miss Morag Martin, Dalcroze Certificate.

EDINBURGH.—Miss Beatrice Inglis, L.R.A.M., Dalcroze Certificate.

MANCHESTER.—Miss Gwendoline Holt, L.R.A.M., Dalcroze Certificate; Miss Ethel Mackinlay, L.R.A.M., Dalcroze Certificate; Miss Helen Mee, Dalcroze Certificate.

Secretary.—Miss Alice Weber.

Certificates.

Monsieur Dalcroze has given to the Council of the London School of Dalcroze Eurhythmics the sole right for Great Britain, formerly granted to Mr. Ingham, of conducting professional training courses, and of granting the full teaching certificate to its graduates.

He has also given to the Council the right to grant the new elementary certificate for teachers in elementary schools.

The training course opened for the year 1931-32 with increased numbers, of whom eleven are new first-year students. Classes are held in single subjects on Tuesday afternoons, Saturday mornings, and every evening during the week. Children's classes are held on Saturday mornings. The course for the elementary teaching certificate meets on Tuesday evenings under Miss Ethel Driver, and on Thursday evenings under Mrs. Nathalie Tingey.

The Dalcroze Society has inaugurated the Percy B. Ingham Memorial Fund as a memorial to the founder and as an endowment fund for the school. Through this fund the school hopes to secure a building which will meet the needs of the institution. The three trustees appointed to administer the fund are Mrs. Ethel Ingham, Miss Gertrude Ingham, and Mr. F. W. Stephens, F.S.A.A.

Commonwealth Fund Fellowships.

It is announced that applications for Commonwealth Fund Fellowships may be applied for on or before February 8, 1932. Particulars may be obtained from the office of the Fellowships, 35 Portman Square, London, W.1. Successful applicants are expected to attend an approved American university and to follow an approved scheme of work. Each Fellowship has an annual value of about £600, and is tenable for two years as a rule. In the selection intellectual ability is the chief consideration, but account is also taken of personality, character, health, and initiative.

LITERARY SECTION.

BOOKS AND THE MAN.

The Glad Teacher.

Miss Frances R. Gray, O.B.E., M.A., J.P., was the first High Mistress of St. Paul's School for Girls, an institution which was a sadly belated counterpart to the celebrated school founded by Colet, Dean of St. Paul's. Miss Gray has occupied some of her leisure since her retirement in writing a delightful book of reminiscences, which is published by Sampson Lowe, 10s. 6d. net, under the title "And Gladly wolde He Lerne and Gladly Teche."

In this book Miss Gray gives a record of her own pilgrimage in education, beginning with her schooling in a private school of sixty years ago and her experiences in a high school of fifty years ago. These records are full of interest. At the outset we have a vignette of the high school staff:—"The janitor, black-bearded and sailor-like, opened to us, and a tired-looking lady approached us and bade us follow her. She wore a thick dress of green serge with a closely fitting bodice buttoned to the throat, and a train. Other ladies, all tired-looking and all with tight, high bodices and trains, hurried about the building, carrying trays of inkpots, boxes of chalk, and piles of books. They all gave an impression of extreme dustiness because their trains vigorously brushed the floor."

The ladies here described were the newly-appointed mistresses in the Plymouth High School for Girls, which had been established mainly through the efforts of Frederick Temple, afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury. Miss Gray entered the school after a preparatory training in Dublin in a private school conducted by two elderly sisters whose educational methods were exclusively their own. "Mangnall's Questions" and "The Child's Guide to Knowledge" were learned by heart, together with elegant extracts from the poets, and the "Moral Songs of Isaac Watts." The arithmetic was elementary and strictly respectable. "We never touched vulgar fractions; there was an impression that they were not quite nice."

This imperfect training was fortunately supplemented by the experience of a home where both father and mother were intelligent and well-informed, able, albeit in a somewhat desultory fashion, to direct the minds of their children towards intellectual pursuits. Miss Gray was among the earliest students at Newnham College, and she pays tribute to the work of Miss Clough, Mrs. Sidgwick, and Miss Gladstone. It is a strange but encouraging picture which she gives of pioneer work in the higher education of women, and teachers will be interested in her account of the early lectures on education given by Mr. Arthur Sidgwick and Canon Farrar. Her conclusions are worth noting:—

"The more I heard about training the more my mind turned away from theory and towards practice. Instinctively I shrank from the notion of being told how to do anything. 'Let me see how you do it,' I always wanted to say. This habit of mind does not necessarily lead to slavish imitation; one soon comes to think one can do a little better, or differently, or unexpected problems arise for which one has no convenient example. In short, even before I began to teach I had come to believe in the apprenticeship system as that which promised best for the training of a teacher. I have changed my views about a good many things in fifty years, but I have never changed regarding that. I know what excellent work has been done by the training colleges, but I believe they would do still better if those who are responsible for them would arrange for their students to spend far more time watching the best teachers at work than teaching and being criticised."

On leaving Newnham, Miss Gray continued her pioneer work by joining the staff of Westfield College in the University of London soon after its foundation. She was the lecturer in Classics, and we are told that her pupils were beginners in Greek and all but beginners in Latin. Three only had passed the Matriculation Examination. This was in 1883, less than fifty years ago, and we could have no better reminder of the enormous strides made in the higher education of women during the past half century. The progress owes much to the courage and generosity of individuals, including such women as Miss C. L. Maynard and Miss Dudin Brown.

Following her Westfield experience Miss Gray started the new junior school at St. Katharine's, St. Andrew's, again doing work of great importance. She introduced handwork into the curriculum, including basket-making, carpentry, and bookbinding.

Thus did the first High Mistress of St. Paul's School prepare herself for the most important stage in her career, which began in 1903 and ended in 1927. Her record of these days is full and interesting, containing many expressions of opinion on outstanding problems in education. If space permitted I should like to quote these at length, but I content myself by referring my readers to them and urging them to buy a book which is full of interest and encouragement to everybody engaged in teaching.

SELIM MILES.

REVIEWS.

French.

LES AFFAIRES: by W. Lumb. (2s. Harrap.)

A business-like but thoroughly human commercial course for pupils who have already mastered the elements of the language. The author has

liberally sprinkled the pills of business documents in the jam of a continuous and quite lively account of the fortunes of a French firm of cloth manufacturers. An abundance of exercises is given in the second half of the book. A. B. G.

LE DÉSERTE DE GLACE : by Jules Verne : edited by G. Lloyd-Williams. (1s. 3d. Nelson.)

Jules Verne needs no recommendation to English boys, even in these days of the more specifically homicidal fiction. The present text is fairly short, and easy enough for third-year forms. Necessary notes and a few exercises in French are given at the end of each chapter. The low price combined with its other qualities should make this a popular reader. A. B. G.

FRENCH PLAYS FOR BOYS : edited by R. L. Græme-Ritchie. (2s. Nelson.)

These four short plays, two of which are by Courteline, are all highly entertaining, and will keep things lively in a School Certificate form. English boys will enjoy them all the more because they are not specially written for them, but are French in thought as well as word. The plain text is here presented, with a full vocabulary but no critical apparatus. May we contribute a modest nod of approval for the title, which suggests a reaction against the co-educational religion. A. B. G.

English.

A PRACTICAL COURSE IN ELEMENTARY ENGLISH : by Edward Albert, M.A. (2s. Harrap.)

This book covers a good deal of ground, and should prove very useful both in senior and secondary schools. It is written in simple language, and contains a large number of useful and suggestive exercises.

A NEW ENGLISH COURSE : Book 2 : by Frank Jones, B.A., and Hubert Hothersall, B.A. (2s. Blackie.)

Intended for pupils of twelve to fourteen in central or secondary schools, and should prove very useful. *Inter alia*, functional grammar is competently dealt with, and we agree that the reaction from the old dry-as-dust methods of teaching grammar has gone too far. How indeed is a boy to tackle a foreign language if he does not possess an intelligent knowledge of English grammar?

AN ENGLISH COURSE FOR JUNIORS : by Ernest Kenny. (1s. 3d. Univ. of London Press.)

This book is intended for children in junior schools. It contains a large number of interesting hints and exercises for young scholars, and the subject-matter is very well and simply set out. We can confidently recommend it to teachers in junior schools.

COMMON-SENSE TESTS IN ENGLISH : by Robert Swann, B.A. (1s. 6d. Methuen.)

These tests, originally intended to supplement the normal English work in an English public school, should prove very useful and stimulating to scholars in secondary schools and the top classes of senior schools. The title of the book rather suggests dullness, but this is very far from actually being the case. We advise teachers to look through it, and think they will, on perusal, be inclined to adopt it.

THE MARVELLOUS ADVENTURES OF PERCY PIG : by Rodney Bennett, M.A. Illustrated by E. H. Whydale. (Limp cloth, 1s. 2d. Univ. of London Press.)

An addition to the "Keystone Series" of Supplementary Readers for young children. This little book is very amusing and interesting, and will be sure to prove a favourite with the young children for whom it is intended. Some useful and appropriate exercises are appended.

Geography.

AN ELEMENTARY GEOGRAPHY OF THE GOLD COAST : by W. T. Adams. (3s. Univ. of London Press.)

Mr. Adams is to be congratulated upon attaining a style which will interest all scholars : his treatment of the elements of physical geography is fresh and most interesting, while his detailed comments on the general geography of the Gold Coast are fascinating. The authenticity of the book is vouched for, the author having made journeys over the country by the aid of the Government to ensure that the data and information were up to date. The illustrations have been chosen intelligently, and I have no hesitation in describing the typography and make-up of the book as the best of its kind I have yet handled. British school children will enjoy reading this book in their own time, and teachers will find it of service : the work can be strongly recommended for inclusion in any school library. H. C.

Housecraft.

DOMESTIC SUBJECTS AND THE TEACHER : by G. Plummer, B.A. Lond., and C. M. Hutchinson. (1s. 6d. Sidgwick and Jackson.)

We venture to share in the delight expressed by Miss E. G. Clarke, O.B.E., in a brief preface, that the very capable authors of this little but valuable book give therein no special syllabus, such as can be copied by teachers without using their own intelligence and initiative. Their object is rather to deal with this very important subject in such manner as to develop in the teacher thereof a sane attitude towards it, and a power of so dealing with it as greatly to benefit those under their tuition.

Eminently practical throughout, the work is obviously that of those not only possessed of a wide and sound knowledge of the subject, but of varied and successful experience in teaching it.

Colour Science.

COLOUR SCIENCE: by Wilhelm Ostwald, Sc.D. Authorised translation, with an Introduction and Notes, by J. Scott Taylor, M.A. Part I. (15s. Winsor and Newton.)

It has long been recognised that music depends for its success upon the proper use of well understood laws relating to sound intervals. Where these sound intervals are arranged in strict accordance with laws of mathematical precision harmony results; if the intervals be chosen arbitrarily lack of harmony or discord follows.

It is reasonable to assume that colour may be capable of strict scientific treatment, that colours, including the so-called achromatic colours, *i.e.* those included between the limits of dead black and pure white, may be standardised and classified and rendered subject to fundamental laws, whereby it may become possible for the mere layman, as distinct from the artist, to produce pleasing and harmonious colour schemes merely by the application of definite rules.

This work, written by a world-famous scientist, and translated and annotated with great skill and knowledge, should be of profound interest to students of applied art, and to those engaged in industrial work on colours, dyes, and pigments. The introduction attempts to place colour science in its proper relation to other sciences. The first three chapters deal with the history of colour theory, general properties of light, and the process of vision; they really prepare the reader so that he may understand the author's own theories, which occupy the last five

chapters. It is impossible in a brief space adequately to describe the theories of Ostwald. Briefly, the scheme is this: The achromatic colours, *i.e.* the "greys," are arranged in a series of eight shades which range from white to black. The shades are so chosen that the spaces between them are aesthetically equidistant and also follow a fundamental law. It is suggested that these shades might well serve as standards for commercial products. It is found, as might be expected from the law, that any three adjacent shades in the grey series form a pleasing harmony. In a similar manner colours, as more popularly understood, are arranged in what is termed a chromatic circle, consisting of twenty-four standard hues, so chosen that the intervals between adjacent hues are aesthetically equal. These twenty-four hues, determined in accordance with fundamental laws, might well be used as standards, since their behaviour when mixed one with another, in accordance with principles now understood, can be accurately predicted.

The author, following in great detail the line of reasoning, builds up what is an essentially practical science of colour, which may well have far-reaching results. He explains precisely why it is impossible for any three-colour process for the reproduction of paintings by printing, or for photography in natural colours, to succeed, and why the least number of colours to give satisfactory results must be five.

The book, though highly technical, is essentially readable and free from advanced mathematical treatment. It is well illustrated by diagrams, photographic plates, and coloured plates. Part 2 describes the apparatus invented by Ostwald for fixing his colour standards, and enables the reader to get a practical knowledge of the system, but the part now under consideration gives a thorough and satisfactory understanding of the theoretical aspect of this interesting if somewhat abstruse subject.

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