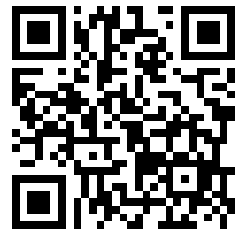
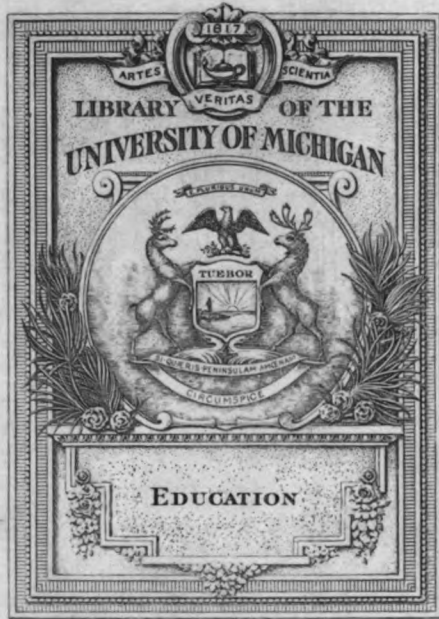

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THE EDUCATION OUTLOOK

Honorary Editor: FRANK ROSCOE



Spring 1934
Volume XI, No. 1

ONE SHILLING

CONTENTS

	PAGE
SALARIES	5
ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS	6
FROM THE OUTLOOK TOWER	7
CAN LITERATURE BE EXAMINED?.. .. .	12
PREFERENCES FOR SCHOOL SUBJECTS	15
CYNICUS LOOKS AT EDUCATION	17
THE STUDY OF LOCAL HISTORY	19
PUBLIC EDUCATION IN SOVIET RUSSIA	20
SUPPLEMENT :—LOOKING BACKWARD :	
PIONEERS OF POPULAR EDUCATION :	
I. " BOBBY WILD GOOSE "	21
II. SARAH TRIMMER	23
III. HANNAH KILHAM	28
EDUCATION SIXTY YEARS AGO : MY FIRST DAME'S SCHOOL	30
CHANGES IN GIRLS' BOARDING SCHOOLS	34
VERSATILITY	35
GLEANINGS	36
PUZZLES AND PROBLEMS	38
SIXTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF MORAL EDUCATION	40
BOOKS AND THE MAN	41
REVIEWS	42
BOOKS RECEIVED	60

THE EDUCATION OUTLOOK

VOL. XI. No. 1.

SPRING 1934

SALARIES

IT is perhaps natural that during the past two and a half years the minds of teachers should have been pre-occupied to some extent with resentment brought about by the reduction in their salaries in the Autumn of 1931, and by fluctuating hopes of a restoration when the period of "equal sacrifice" should terminate. Month by month they have been reminded in their salary cheques of the sudden and unwarranted special income tax imposed upon them. We may grant that the financial position of the country was serious when this tax was imposed, but we may justly question the nature of the remedy. This took the easy form of compelling large bodies of citizens to give up a substantial part of their income. The method was easy because the citizens concerned happened to be paid from the public funds. A more equitable form of remedy might perhaps have been found if the income tax had been raised all round.

The method chosen inflicted grievous hardship, especially on teachers who had planned their domestic affairs on the assumption that their salaries represented a binding contract with their employers and with the State. A careful study of the Burnham Scales made with due regard to the qualifications now expected of teachers affords adequate proof that teachers as a class would not be overpaid, even if they received the full Burnham salary, and since the efficiency of the teacher is the main factor in any successful system of schooling, it is in the highest degree unwise to treat teachers as targets whenever a campaign for national economy is started.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer is confronted by a multitude of counsellors who are ready to advise him as to the disposal of any surplus which he may announce when he opens the Budget. The claims of the unemployed and of those who are condemned to live in slums are pressing, but it may be suggested to him that some restitution is due to those on whom the immediate burden fell so heavily when salary reductions were imposed. The widespread feeling of grievance among teachers should be alleviated without delay. Even if the latest "cut" is abolished, the fair promise of the original Burnham Scales will still be far from fulfilment.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS

Executive : THE TEACHERS REGISTRATION COUNCIL

Readers are asked to note that although the EDUCATION OUTLOOK will contain in every number a record of the Royal Society of Teachers and of the proceedings of its Executive—the Teachers Registration Council—these bodies are not responsible for the views expressed by the Editor or by contributors and correspondents.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS

THE Teachers Registration Council, which now acts as the Executive of the Royal Society of Teachers, was authorized by Act of Parliament in 1907, and constituted by a Privy Council Order in 1912. The statutory duty of the Council is to form and keep a Register of Teachers. One might suppose that in authorizing the establishing of the Council and charging it with this important task, Parliament intended that in due course Registered Teachers should have some personal status and individual consideration arising from the fact that they had submitted their claims to professional recognition to a representative body of their colleagues and had been accepted as members of a registered profession similar to other bodies which are styled "learned professions." It was hardly to be expected that such recognition would be given at the start. The Board and appointing bodies would need to be convinced that a large number of teachers desired for their calling the public recognition we have described. The Register was opened in January, 1914, and despite the fact that the War broke out in the August of that year and has been followed by recurrent difficulties in the organization of our school system, over 96,000 teachers have voluntarily applied to become Registered and 91,324 have been enrolled. It may be claimed that the Council has been able to demonstrate the extent and reality of the desire among teachers that their calling should be recognized as a profession.

This view was expressed in a Conference held in the Autumn, when the Council met the President and Parliamentary Secretary of the Board, accompanied by their chief officers. On behalf of the Council Lord Gorell, the Chairman, Mr. John Bell, High Master of St. Paul's School, Mr. Fred Mander, Secretary of the National Union of Teachers, and Dr. Lowe, a former President of the Headmistresses' Association, urged that the Register should be used in determining the fitness of teachers to hold responsible positions, especially those involving the supervision of the work of other teachers, and that the Council should be taken into consultation on matters affecting teachers as a body and the development of our educational system. The questions discussed are to be further considered at a series of informal conferences.

FROM THE OUTLOOK TOWER

A PATTERN WANTED

THE Hadow Report recognized the need for new forms of post-primary training, and as soon as the financial circumstances of the country permit we shall doubtless have a complete scheme of reorganization, with a raising of the school age and an extension of the meaning now attached to the term "secondary education." In several of his recent public speeches, Mr. Herwald Ramsbotham has shown great foresight by urging the need for a revision of our aims. What we require is a new pattern in our educational system, beginning with an ample supply of day nurseries and infant schools with voluntary attendance, followed by compulsory attendance at primary and secondary schools between the ages of seven and fifteen, with further opportunities for attendance at either whole-time secondary schools or at part-time secondary schools, up to the age of eighteen. Corresponding changes will have to be made in the organization of the teaching profession. Full use should be made of the Register of Teachers now being compiled under the authority of Parliament. It should be impossible for any person to hold a responsible post in the teaching service who has not been Registered. Qualified teachers are entitled to ask that they may be distinguished from those whose attainments and fitness have never been tested or have been found deficient.

THE NEW SECONDARY EDUCATION

FOR years past our school system has been marked by a tendency towards the expansion of the old type of public elementary school into a form of post-primary training. For years prior to 1902, Higher Grade Board Schools were coming into being, and many of these offered a form of secondary education, widely different, it is true, from the grammar school process, but nevertheless to be commended as a form of post-primary training such as the parents wished for and changes in commercial and industrial life demanded. In 1902 secondary education came effectually under the supervision of the Board. The Higher Grade Schools became Secondary Schools, but unfortunately, as some think, their purpose was turned overmuch in the direction of the traditional grammar school. To-day we are witnessing the development of other forms of post-primary schooling in the rise of Central or Modern Schools, Selective or Non-selective. These tend to resemble the Higher Grade Board Schools with a curriculum modified and brought up to date, but they rank for official purposes as Public Elementary Schools. They should be graded as Secondary Schools since they give a post-primary training which resembles in its range, though not in its character, that of the recognized Secondary School.

THE TEACHER'S PREPARATION

THERE are still some who appear to hold that teachers may safely be recruited without any attempt to demand from them a course of professional training. It is even said that such casual labour often produces better results than that of the trained teacher. But people who hold such views do not, in their own affairs, depend upon the attentions of quack doctors, or act upon the legal opinions of laymen. For the extraction of their teeth they seek the help of registered dentists, and those who are members of Education Committees would never assent to the employment of school doctors who had no professional attributes beyond a good bedside manner.

Our present method of training teachers doubtless calls for a close scrutiny, and in some branches it might well be replaced by a period of training service accompanied by a study of the methods and principles of teaching, but some form of training is essential for all who aspire to hold responsible positions. Where untrained persons are employed, they should work only under the direct supervision of qualified members of the profession, as nurses and dressers in hospitals are supervised by doctors. The Board should extend to all teachers the system of licensing implied in recognition as a certified teacher, but the Registration Council should be brought in to help in determining the standards. This is a function appropriate to the representative body of a profession.

BUILDINGS

THE new pattern would also call for a fresh consideration of the type of buildings most suitable for school purposes at the different stages. A recent inquiry carried out by the Institute of Industrial Psychology at the request of the National Union of Teachers points the way to many improvements. School buildings might be less costly if they were made more adaptable. Such essential and permanent elements as the school hall and library should be as seemly and well-proportioned as possible, in order that they may serve as centres round which traditions gather, but classrooms, workshops, and laboratories should be built of comparatively inexpensive material, although in their lay-out and proportions they should be architecturally pleasing. Schools built on this model could be altered and brought up to date with little expense, whereas the buildings erected during the past half-century with the aid of loans extending over sixty years are now often quite out of date, and little can be done to improve them. There are schools built years ago with classrooms for sixty pupils. To reduce the number to forty would involve the addition of a new school for every two of the old ones. This is often impossible as sites are not available. In our new schools we can avoid old mistakes.

TEXTBOOKS

ANOTHER and more difficult question arising in connection with any attempt to create a pattern in our educational system will be concerned with the choice and use of textbooks. On this there is need for a closer co-operation between authors, publishers, and teachers. To-day we suffer if anything from an excessive supply of textbooks, and especially from the great variety of method in presentation which they embody. In the early stages of learning a pupil is not helped but rather hindered if instruction is presented to him in diverse forms, and this handicap becomes serious if for any reason he moves from one school to another and has to gain familiarity with a new and strange set of books. While it is true that the teacher should be able to choose textbooks which serve to supplement his own method, it should be recognized that in the early stages, at any rate, considerable uniformity of method has many advantages. For senior pupils who are well grounded in the elements, a great diversity of books is helpful, especially if these go beyond the elements and help to bring him to the point where "subjects" begin to merge together as knowledge. Our chief need was stated in the Report of the Consultative Committee which demanded "more books and better books." The demand has been ignored so far.

UNDER-NOURISHMENT

ONE of the most painful and disastrous results of the widespread unemployment, especially in the North of England and in South Wales, is manifested in the lack of proper nourishment for growing children. It is true that, owing to the self-sacrifice of countless parents, the Report of the Board's Medical Officer of Health gives some assurance that the sufferings of children are less than we might have expected, but any visitor to the North of England who has the opportunity of seeing school children cannot fail to be impressed by the many pinched faces and weakly frames that he will see in the schools. The effect of this under-feeding will be permanent, and even if times improve it will be impossible to make good the present loss.

In the circumstances it is little wonder that in the House of Commons Members of all parties desire to see the children's allowance for unemployed persons increased. I am glad to note that at the recent mass demonstration in the Albert Hall in support of the restoration of teachers' salaries, the speakers on behalf of the National Union of Teachers urged that if the Budget surplus were so small that a choice had to be made, they would prefer to see increased benefits for the children rather than benefits for themselves. Teachers are better able than even parents to estimate the damaging results of under-feeding and meagre clothing. Civilization is in peril by our failure to deal adequately with this problem.

BIOLOGY—AN INQUIRY

THE Educational Advisory Board of the British Social Hygiene Council is sending round to teachers of biology a letter asking for their co-operation in the forming of a permanent central exhibit of biological teaching material and apparatus. The leaflet may be obtained on application to Mr. Percy F. Lee, Education Officer, Carteret House, Carteret Street, London, S.W.1.

Biology is rapidly coming into prominence as a school subject, but it is to be hoped that it will not be treated too rigidly as a grammar. For most pupils its importance will depend upon its practical applications in their own lives, and the best general outcome of the new movement will be found if all adults in the next generation have a fairly complete knowledge of the structure and mechanism of the human body. It is possible to treat biology as a thing apart from ourselves, an accumulation of facts and a pleasant addition to the interest of a country walk. Our greatest need, however, is that people should understand the relation between their bodily habits and their bodily well-being. To fulfil this need it is important that a boy should, for example, not only learn about the structure and mechanism of the pores of the skin, but also acquire the habit of washing his body thoroughly.

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

THE Teachers Registration Council has recently taken an active part in promoting the establishment of a body to be known as the Educational Research Council. It is intended that this body shall act as a clearing house in connection with educational research. It will not itself undertake research nor seek to control it, but for institutions, groups, or individuals engaged in research the help of the Council will be available in ascertaining whether a proposed research has been carried out or is being carried out elsewhere. It is hoped also that funds may be available to help approved research projects and for the publication of results.

It is intended that these publications shall take two forms, the one being a strictly scientific record and the other a somewhat less detailed record with suggestions as to the bearing of the conclusions on classroom technique. It is important to distinguish between research proper and the less strict modes of inquiry which are found in the collection of opinions or inquiries over a limited field. It is doubtful whether teachers should be expected to become research workers, since their main function is to impart instruction. The farmer who is expected to grow corn should know how to apply the results of research by agricultural chemists, but he need not spend his time in a laboratory. The study of psychology will not by itself make a teacher.

THE "MATRIC." FETISH

WHEN the School Certificate Examination was instituted, it was intended to furnish a test suitable for secondary school pupils of ordinary diligence and aptitude, and to be of such a character that no intensive preparation would be demanded to obtain success. The main purpose was to provide a satisfactory means of assessing a pupil's fitness to enter upon more advanced studies in preparation for the Higher School Certificate, or to embark on a career in one of the professions.

Unfortunately, the School Certificate has become associated in the minds of many employers with the entrance requirements of Universities. Such employers will ask applicants for a post whether they have "passed Matric.," being apparently unaware that in the strict sense Matriculation is not an examination at all, but a formal procedure attending admission to University studies. A secondary school pupil may become qualified for this admission by passing the School Certificate examination with special merit in certain subjects, and hence, in practice, the preparation for the School Certificate has become unduly influenced by University requirements. It is to be noted also that over the seven years 1925-31 an average of only 67·4 per cent of the candidates gained the School Certificate. This seems to indicate that the test asks for more than ordinary aptitude and diligence. It is difficult to believe that so great a proportion of the pupils in secondary schools are below a reasonable pass standard.

THE B.B.C. AND SCHOOLS

AFTER some years of trial and experiment the B.B.C. has succeeded in devising a programme of talks to schools which is acknowledged to have many valuable features. No one would claim that it is perfect or that it satisfies everybody, but an increasing number of schools find the talks useful. The Board of Education have now taken the important step of suggesting to their Inspectors that where talks are used in schools they should be treated as matters for report. This is a welcome development, and it may be expected that the reports will contain many valuable suggestions. In particular it is to be hoped that they will not lack candour in regard to quality of reception.

The difficulty of securing good reception has been one of the chief handicaps hitherto, and it will be overcome only by slow degrees. All teachers who are using the broadcast talks, or who intend to use them, should obtain from Broadcasting House the free copy of the List of Approved Apparatus. This contains a list of wireless receivers, with full particulars and prices. All the instruments included have been tested under classroom conditions by a committee made up of technical experts and practising teachers who use wireless in their schools.

CAN LITERATURE BE EXAMINED?

By P. H. PRIDEAUX, B.A.

A CONTRIBUTOR to one of the daily papers some time ago expressed the view that English literature should not be "tortured into examinability"—a phrase which may do well enough for lay consumption, but which will hardly bear professional inspection. *Why* cannot literature, like any form of art, be examined without "torturing" it? No one claims that examinations in art or music really test the insight of the examinee into the soul of the subject. Yet every soul lives in a body, and it is, if you like, knowledge of the anatomy and functioning of this body that is examined. We may feel or "sense" the existence of this soul, and even catch fleeting glimpses of its form and nature, without knowledge of its framework; but we shall never intellectually *understand* it, nor, perhaps, experience it so fully without such knowledge. Examinations in all artistic subjects, that is, subjects whose appeal is not primarily to the intellect, but to the combined effect of many subconscious impressions of an æsthetic, emotional, and intellectual nature, are not intended to test the whole, but only the *intellectual* factors involved. These, if you will, are the foreground to that rich background of emotion, æsthetic feeling, and association which render that foreground significant, and knowledge of which is essential to the full understanding and enjoyment of that background—or rather of the synthesis of the whole.

This is even more true of literature. It is tenable that poetry is the highest of all forms of artistic expression, in that it is the most complex, the most complete and subtle expression of subjective states. Music appeals through the ear by means of simple or complicated tone and interval series relations; art appeals through the eye by means of form and colour and, perhaps, the "tonal" qualities of these visual relationships. Both appeal primarily to the æsthetic sense, which is largely subconscious, and only *through this* to the intellect. And that appeal is rarely precise and clear-cut. *Perception* of form and colour, tone and sequence are generally, though not always, definite and clear; but the *concept* behind, and even the mental state the artist has sought to express, are generally indefinite, floating, nebulous, depending for their understanding on what amounts to a real affinity between the artist's mind and that of the observer or listener; so that living contact between the two has to be spontaneous, subconscious, and immediate, and is true only in proportion to the degree of that affinity and the activity of its functioning. There is no means of establishing that contact if it does not take place spontaneously. It cannot be reached by reasoning, for the result would be analogous to the "appreciation" of a joke only after it has been explained. That is not the case with literature.

Literature appeals to the mass of subconscious elements mainly through the intellect, though its subconscious appeal through the senses is by no means negligible. Its *medium* is logical, i.e., it makes use of significant words. There is always a logical *sense*, which constitutes the essential foreground of all literary expression. Whether it employs the "plain statement," or speaks in figurative terms, or expresses itself symbolically, its basis is either expressly or by clear implication logical. This sense is set against a background of æsthetic and emotional elements which accompanied or formed part of the thought or mental experience in the writer's mind. His mode of expression, choice of words, figures, and symbols, is determined by the degree to which the combined effect of their sounds, associations, and the images or experiences they call up, tend to reproduce in the reader the complex background in the writer's mind.

These effects are in large measure produced subconsciously, but the sequence of thought is a conscious, rational process, albeit impregnated, vivified, enriched, made into a thing of beauty by the subconscious elements. It is this logical core that primarily constitutes the examinable portion of literature.

If we thus clearly separate in our minds what we may describe on the one hand as "knowledge about," and insight into or feeling for the "artistic" elements in literature on the other, we can begin hopefully to consider what is possible and useful in the way of examination. Let us consider the matter as applied to a poem or play. There is, as before stated, the reasoned thought, the "theme" of the work. One could wish to see this a constant factor in examinations, for it is appalling to realize how few even in our Sixth Forms are capable of tracing clearly this logical thread, separating it from what is illustrative detail, or matter intended to indicate the point of view, to limit the "universe of discourse," or to embellish the thought by a variety of associated elements. The writer recently set an Upper Sixth Form to write a précis of an extract in which the central thesis was expressed at strategic points in different forms, all the rest being illustrations and applications, yet not a single précis gave any indication that the details were understood as clustering round this central idea. Until our pupils can do this, and, one might add, do it automatically, with everything they read, they have not yet learned to read. And it is to be feared that modern impressionist teaching and examining tends directly to prevent the acquisition of this clear-cut comprehension of the logical relations existing between one part of a discourse and another.

Closely allied to this, and, indeed, arising out of it, are other questions of a purely intellectual type :

1. The nature of statements, whether they assert an objective fact, a general principle, an inference, or an opinion. Discussion of the truth or validity of all these. No one can be said to have understood a given

passage unless he has clearly recognized these differences and thought about their validity; and questions to test this are not difficult to frame.

2. Behind every inference and opinion must lie some general assumption, probably unexpressed and often unconsciously assumed, from which the opinion or inference arises. These can be asked for.

3. Another examinable aspect is the relations existing between the parts, their purpose in relation to the whole, and/or to the immediate section, for which any given statement is made.

4. The significance and validity of metaphors, similes, etc., can also be investigated, from the point of view of recognizing the *tertium quid* and the universe of ideas they bring into association with the main theme. Symbolic suggestions, too, and the purpose they serve, may form the basis of other questions which will test the examinee's comprehension of the purpose and value of figurative expression.

But literature is also the expression of a mental state, or of some aspect of life as the writer sees it. In study, therefore, we must inquire into all external facts that may throw light on that state of mind; that is, we must seek in biographical knowledge, where that exists, the circumstances, mental or otherwise, which may have influenced him at the time of writing. That again is knowledge of facts, and is easily examinable. Where, as often happens, there is no knowledge of this kind, we have to seek internal evidence of mood or method of approach to the ideas involved—which again is an intellectual aspect that may be examined.

It cannot, however, be too emphatically reiterated that it is only the intellectual aspects that are examinable or even really teachable. The emotionable and æsthetic aspects cannot properly be examined any more than they can be imparted. The essence of instruction is analysis into components, and feeling is so sensitive that the moment it becomes conscious, i.e., the moment reason observes it, it is dissolved into thin air and disappears. Analysis of the feeling, whether the feeling is æsthetic or purely "emotional," may produce that poetry which is "emotion recollected in tranquillity," but it will not produce examination answers. Keats's sonnet, "On first looking into Chapman's Homer," is fine poetry, but a quite hopeless examination answer: it tells us nothing of the writer's *knowledge* of either Chapman or his work. We may, in our study, if we think anything is to be gained by it—and I would suggest to teachers that they should make clear to themselves what they *do* intend their pupils to gain by it before they embark upon it—analyse the means which a writer employs to produce his effects; but it is undesirable to ask for these in an examination.

But questions on all the other matters mentioned above may be perfectly definite, and need not require answers beyond the powers of expression of the average examinee who has, as he will come to do if proper attention is given to these matters, really learned to read.

PREFERENCES FOR SCHOOL SUBJECTS

By R. W. PAGE

AN appendix (written by Dr. Cyril Burt) to the Primary Report gives the "Order of Preference for the Chief Subjects in the School Curriculum." Fifteen subjects are enumerated, some of them, as he says, rather arbitrarily divided; but counting reading, spelling, grammar, composition, and literature as English, and combining dancing and drill as Physical Training, the order of preference for boys and girls of 7 to 10 and boys and girls of 13 works out as follows:—

<i>Junior Boys</i>	<i>Senior Boys</i>	<i>Junior Girls</i>	<i>Senior Girls</i>
1. Handwork	Handwork	Singing	Handwork
2. Drawing	Nature Study	Drawing	Drawing
3. Singing	Drawing	Handwork	English
4. Nature Study	History	Nature Study	Physical Training
5. Physical Training	Geography	Physical Training	Singing
6. Arithmetic	Singing	History	Nature Study
7. History	Physical Training	English	History
8. Geography	English	Scripture	Scripture
9. English	Arithmetic	Geography	Geography
10. Scripture	Scripture	Arithmetic	Arithmetic

Of course the order of preference may vary in any one class or even, though to a less degree, in any one school, owing to the comparative merit of the teaching, but the order is generally sound and verifiable.

Dr. Burt's main observations are that there are distinct changes from one stage to the next; that girls' preferences diverge increasingly from boys', the boys showing a scientific bias and the girls a literary one; and that the active subjects are easily the favourites. All these conclusions deserve careful consideration in the framing of syllabuses and curricula, in deciding methods of teaching, and in dealing with the problems of co-education. At the same time there are some curious and interesting points that require comment.

Why is it, for instance, that for both junior and senior boys Scripture is at the bottom of the list, and that with girls it takes a very low place? The question is a delicate one, but that is all the more reason why it should be frankly faced.

Handwork, which for girls includes needlework, is the prime favourite subject. It is so popular that it should be made a project, and through handwork such distasteful subjects as English with boys, and Arithmetic with both boys and girls, could be made more significant, more

interesting, and therefore better in quality. The time allowed for Handwork might be doubled, and the time for Arithmetic and English reduced, on the understanding that both these subjects are largely employed in the handwork lessons.

The position of arithmetic in the list merits serious consideration. For too long it has been given the premier place and most time in the curriculum ; and yet it is, and always has been, unsatisfactory. Perhaps boys and girls are sick of the cold mutton of fantastic fractions, bath taps, and 279 suits at £2 19s. 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. each. The whole content of the ordinary arithmetic syllabus needs merciless purging of its imbecilities. Professor Julian Huxley tells us that in Kenya native boys are required to reduce 5,555,555 farthings to pounds, shillings and pence, when farthings are not current in Kenya. In England boys living in a railway town are asked to work sums in the speeds of trains which are given in miles and *furlongs*, and to find the ratio of the speed of sound to the speed of light *as a decimal fraction*. (The answer has five ciphers before the first significant integer and is stupefyingly incomprehensible.) The upshot is that boys can work these grotesque sums but cannot give the correct change for a pound note.

A puzzling problem is why history, largely a literary subject, is so low in the scale for girls when they display a literary bias. Boys like it more the older they grow ; girls like it less. Is it because boys have a more strongly developed political sense than girls, or because history is mainly about men? A significant fact in this connection is the lack of women historians.

Geography, like history, has among boys a respectable place and improves in favour, but both junior and senior girls cordially dislike it. The reason given by a woman teacher is that women do not like geography, and therefore cannot teach girls to like it. It seems to be a native distaste, and yet there are at least two women geographers of high merit.

It is somewhat startling to find physical training well down the boys' order of preference. A partial explanation may be that dancing is included, giving it a high place with girls and a low one with boys. If organized games were included in physical training, most likely with senior boys it would rank much higher. Yet one remembers that in the army physical jerks were detested. Singing, too, with both boys and girls markedly declines in favour, and it is possible that for older children it would sink lower still.

Two general conclusions follow : make projects of the favourite subjects and by means of them teach the unpopular ones, and let teachers specialize in teaching the subjects they themselves are interested in. For to teach or to learn against the grain is merely a waste of time for both teacher and taught.

CYNICUS LOOKS AT EDUCATION

By H. R. CHITTENDEN

CYNICUS and Hermes are discovered engaged in conversation ; they are discussing education.

Hermes : " I perceive, Cynicus, that you take a particular interest in our English educational system, which, I am informed, is one of the finest in the world."

Cynicus : " Indeed, Hermes, I am interested in the study of education—but did I understand you to say ' our English educational SYSTEM '—and ' one of the finest in the world ' ? Now I fail to see any signs of a real system at all."

Hermes (surprised and a little hurt) : " How so, Cynicus ? "

Cynicus : " Well, Hermes, what is a system ? Is it not an orderly arrangement according to some common law, or body of principles ? "

Hermes : " That is certainly how our pedagogues define a system."

Cynicus : " Yet I observe that there is no orderly arrangement in your educational ' system,' and I have failed to discover the common law which governs its working ; have you not public schools which are private ; high schools which are high only in so far as their fees are excessive ; public elementary schools which members of the public seldom enter after their school lives are finished ? Further—does not your ' educational system ' cease to function for most of the children before they begin really to appreciate its value ? "

Hermes : " Indeed, Cynicus, I begin now to perceive that you have some measure of truth in your criticism."

Cynicus : " And where, Hermes, is the common law which ought to regulate your system ? I learn that in times of real or imagined national stress your education is the first of the activities of the country to suffer curtailment ; that vast schemes involving drastic changes are launched in one year and in the next so modified as to be mere shadows of their former selves, and much money and more effort are wasted ; surely a real system would render such waste unnecessary ? Wherein lies the law which should unify and control—and who administers it ? Furthermore, Hermes, my inquiries lead me to ask, Who is really responsible for the working of this which you dignify by the name of System ? I read of a Board of Education which, I learn on closer inquiry, is not a Board at all, but a President. I hear of Education Committees to whom little or no education has been committed, directed by Directors who seem to be almost dictators. Then, I understand, there are in existence persons called Inspectors of Education, some employed by the almost mythical Board and others by the Education Authorities. Who are these Authorities, and what authority have they ? "

B

Hermes : " They are representatives of the ratepayers ; it would appear that their province is to see that the money provided for education is wisely spent."

Cynicus : " Are they, then, the noblest, wisest, and most widely educated of your people ? "

Hermes : " Not necessarily ; they are elected by vote of the populace."

Cynicus : " *Vox populi vox Dei*. Truly a wonderful system ! But let us return to these Inspectors ; what do they inspect—teachers or taught—methods or results—and can education be inspected as one inspects a horse or a chariot ? "

Hermes : " I hardly know, *Cynicus*, and I sometimes wonder whether the Inspectors do."

Cynicus : " But, surely, *Hermes*, these Inspectors are united in what they wish to see in and from the schools ? "

Hermes : " By no means, *Cynicus* ! Some, usually those employed by the Authorities, have been teachers and have some idea of the capabilities of the average child ; most of those employed by the Board are University men—who seldom meet the average child. "

Cynicus : " And who, or what, is this average child of whom you speak ; have you met one of the species ? "

Hermes : " I am not sure ; all children seem alike to me ; but our educational system is devised to meet the needs of the child who will be the citizen of to-morrow and not the genius nor the dunce."

Cynicus : " Truly, a noble ideal ; but by what means, *Hermes*, do your educationists (if that is the correct term) test and find out who are the geniuses, who the dunces, and who the citizens of to-morrow ? "

Hermes : " Some believe in the scholarship system ; some pin their faith to intelligence tests."

Cynicus : " Still the common law is lacking ; why have two methods if one is satisfactory ? And when the method has sorted out the geniuses from the dunces and both from the citizens, where is the average child for whom this system was instituted ? And what happens afterwards—do your geniuses find scope for their talents ? Are your citizens given training in citizenship and your dunces rendered capable of giving useful service to the community ? "

Hermes : " A great deal depends upon what kind of a school they go to in order to finish their education."

Cynicus : " It would appear that education in some cases must finish very early in life, *Hermes*. But let us leave the matter now ; later on, perhaps, we may have an opportunity of returning to the subject, for we have not yet spoken of the teachers' part in this education of which you speak so highly. But tell me, *Hermes*, where, amidst this welter of conflicting ideas and nebulous notions, is the system ? "

Hermes : " Indeed, *Cynicus*, I fear that it does not exist."

THE STUDY OF LOCAL HISTORY

By D. M. NOBBS

NO subject in the school curriculum testifies more to the fact that the "old order changeth" than does history in its presentation and even in the concept of the subject itself.

To-day, facts once regarded as vital in history are background only. The subject lives for the children and even the modern world is better understood when they have traced the conditions that prevailed through the ages, and have watched the progress of civilization.

This enthusiasm reaches its height when their own town or village yields its secrets of the past through the study of local history. The range of its teaching is unlimited.

Suppose we are dealing with a village school. Our first aim is to arouse interest. The rest then follows. A talk on Neolithic and Palæolithic man is followed by excursions to some ploughed field. Flint implements are found sooner or later, and the children's interest is aroused.

Many will be the fruits of the children's labours in their spare time. Mother earth may yield implements of war or peace, pottery, coins, relics of the lives of those past dwellers in our island.

A girl places on her finger the thimble of a Roman child; a boy handles an old musket rest, unearthed near his home, and history really lives for both.

Parish records of course play a large part in the development of the work. A privileged child delights in striving to decipher the musty parchment. Much work can be based on the Parish award. The subject of enclosures takes new life. Old boundaries may be traced, and the study of origins of the names of various closes will yield profit.

Old stories and legends, handed down from father to son, will be brought to light by those whose ancestors have long resided in the village, and similarly information will be gleaned on old festivals, customs, and dress.

The manor house may still stand with its neighbouring dovecote. How much more real become the lessons on land tenure, the position of the labourer, the three field system! The village church, too, plays its part, and its power in bygone days is better understood.

Then comes the class production of a volume containing the results of their labours, and illustrated by the children. Old photos and pictures are added. Their pride of possession is equalled only by their pride in the museum which they have formed.

And let us not forget the benefit derived from learning how to seek for information, and, when found, how to use it.

Local history is indeed worth while.

PUBLIC EDUCATION IN SOVIET RUSSIA

ELEMENTARY education is now generally compulsory throughout the Union. Comparison is made with 1914, when only 7,235,000 children were receiving instruction in the elementary schools, and only 565,000 in the secondary schools. Even at the commencement of the First-Five-Year-Plan the number of children attending the elementary schools was 4 million greater than in 1914, comprising 11,279,000 in 1927-8, the eve of the Plan. In that year the number of children attending the secondary schools was 1,409,000, which is two and a half times as many as in 1914.

The rapid development of the national economy under the Five-Year-Plan gave a great impetus to the growth of public education. Schools began to spring up in all the neglected corners of the Soviet East and the remote North. Peoples at one time the most backward—nomadic, pastoral peoples—have acquired their own schools. Peoples who formerly had no written language of their own have acquired not only their own schools, but now have their own written languages.

In Kazakstan, for instance, in the year 1915 about 89,500 children were receiving elementary education, and out of those only 13,000 were children of Kazak families; secondary schools did not exist at all, and the literates among the population were only 1 or 2 per cent. Kara-Kalpakia before 1917 had only three elementary schools, providing tuition for 390 children, none of whom came from Kara-Kalpakian families; the literates among the population were only a few individuals.

Ingushia, Khakassia, and many other of the present autonomous republics before 1917 had no written language of their own. Now hundreds of thousands of the children of these peoples are being taught in elementary and secondary schools. In Kazakstan 720,000 children are covered by the elementary and secondary school system; in Kara-Kalpakia the number so covered is 300,000; in the Tartar Republic 400,000; in the Bashkir Republic over 411,000, and so on. The elementary and secondary school system of the republics and autonomous regions of the R.S.F.S.R. on January 1, 1933, covered three million children. All tuition in the schools of the national autonomous regions, as well as those of all national minorities, is given in the native tongue. In the schools of the R.S.F.S.R. no less than sixty-eight languages are used.

The quantitative growth of elementary and secondary education has also been followed by a qualitative improvement in school work. The pupils are making greater progress and the technical side of the school work has been strengthened. The number of school workshops has grown considerably, and instruction in them forms a compulsory part of the school curriculum. In September, 1933, 25,000,000 children in the U.S.S.R. returned to school after the Summer holidays.

LOOKING BACKWARD

PIONEERS OF POPULAR EDUCATION

By HISTORICUS

I. "BOBBY WILD GOOSE"

"Mr. Raikes is not a man that, without a previous disposition towards approbation, I should greatly have admired. He is somewhat too flourishing, somewhat too forward, somewhat too voluble."—*Fanny Burney's Diary*.

WHEN, about 1780, Robert Raikes engaged Mary Critchley, late of the Trumpet Inn, and paid her a shilling a Sunday to comb the heads and wash the faces of his "ragged regiment" of Gloucester children, he was not establishing the first Sunday school in this country. The names of those who forestalled him, as well as his own, are recorded on a monument which, originally erected in the fore-court of what is now the Essex Hall, Strand, now stands in the garden of a Unitarian Manse in Notting Hill Gate.

But if Mr. Raikes did not originate Sunday schools, he was certainly the founder of the Sunday School Movement, and that in virtue of the fact that he owned an important organ of the Press, the *Gloucester Journal*, by means of which he so effectively spread the news of his experiment that the number of Sunday school scholars in this country at the beginning of the nineteenth century, when he relinquished control of the paper, was probably about 150,000.

By 1833, the date when government grants first became available for elementary education, the numbers had risen to nearly 500,000, and in 1851 it was estimated that a million and a half children were in attendance at Sunday schools in England and Wales. At the end of the eighteenth, and for a considerable part of the nineteenth, century the accepted place on week-days for poor children of almost any age was the mine, the factory, or the workshop. The man whose labours directly or indirectly resulted in such widespread provision of facilities for elementary instruction deserves a special place amongst the educational pioneers. Well might J. R. Green say: "The Sunday schools established by Mr. Raikes of Gloucester at the close of the century were the beginnings of popular education."

The Raikes family were by no means undistinguished for public service. There was a Thomas Raikes, Mayor of Hull in the seventeenth century, who having discovered the Governor of that city to be plotting its surrender to the Royalists, seized him, had him executed, and stepped into his shoes. Robert's brother Thomas was a Governor of the Bank of England, and his nephew, son of the financier, was Thomas Raikes

the noted dandy and diarist. The more refined of Robert Raikes' contemporaries, confirming Fanny Burney's judgment, found him too much given to style and swagger; and the less refined, because of his somewhat fussy and pompous activities, dubbed him "Bobby Wild Goose."

His father founded the *Gloucester Journal* in 1722, and in 1728, for having disclosed therein the proceedings of the House of Commons, Robert Raikes senior "was brought to the Bar of the House, where upon his knees, having received a reprimand from Mr. Speaker, he was ordered to be discharged, paying his fees." Robert, the younger, upon whom the ownership of the paper devolved in 1757, also fell foul of the powers that were. At the height of his fame, when no doubt his critics were eager to seize upon any departure from public morality, he unwisely accepted for publication an advertisement which offered five guineas reward for the return of a lost Bank Bill. The advertisement ended with the words, "no questions asked." Raikes was promptly prosecuted and penalized to the extent of fifty pounds; the publication of the last three words of the advertisement constituting then, as it does now, the crime of compounding a felony. Unless the prosecution was demonstrably a malicious move to discredit him, his comment on the episode, "the servants of God must expect such treatment from the slaves of Beelzebub," betrays a certain lack of humour.

Some of his cynical acquaintances were pleased to believe that Raikes cleared the streets of wild and cursing children, let loose for one day from the local pin factory, not so much from a concern for their physical or spiritual welfare, but because their incessant din in the street below disturbed him while he was superintending the preparation of his *Journal* for issue on Monday morning. The more pious citizens of Gloucester regretfully charged him with "Sabbath-breaking." But what was poor Robert to do? His ambition was to provide the latest possible news at the earliest possible moment, and as a news letter and the *London Gazette* reached him by coach at an uncertain hour on Saturday evening, when else but on Sunday could he compose and edit Monday's issue?

Raikes may be acquitted of having established his Sunday school from any sordid motive, for this was not his first essay in philanthropy. John Howard bears witness to Raikes' devoted work as a prison reformer, and, if further evidence of his disinterestedness were needed, it could be found in the fact that the *Gloucester Journal* was the first of the provincial papers to advocate the abolition of the Slave Trade.

It would be a mistake to attribute the widespread knowledge of Sunday schools solely to the circulation of the *Gloucester Journal*. "Mr. Urban" did his fair share of propaganda in the *Gentleman's Magazine*, and Mrs. Trimmer, one of Raikes' earliest imitators and admirers, encouraged thereto by Queen Charlotte, published in 1787 *The Economy of Charity*,

or an *Address to Ladies concerning Sunday Schools*. Raikes was grateful for the work of this staunch supporter. He frequently recommended her publication, and when replying to an inquiry from some ladies in Chelsea he wrote: "Go to Brentford and learn of Mrs. Trimmer."

In 1802, having seen his six daughters (whom Fanny Burney found "common sort of country misses") successfully married or betrothed, mostly to budding admirals and generals, Raikes sold the *Gloucester Journal* and retired on an annuity. He died in 1811. Some four years before that, the ubiquitous Joseph Lancaster, the pioneer of our English elementary education system, visited Gloucester during one of his fervent educational tours, and, if Joseph can be relied upon, which he seldom can, the venerable Raikes and he mingled their tears and emotion at the hallowed spot whereon, as the old man recounted, "A voice said, 'Try.' I did try, and see what God hath wrought."

John Wesley, commenting in his Diary on the rapid development of Sunday schools, remarks: "Who knows but that some of these schools may become nurseries for Christians?" and Adam Smith, according to Raikes, said, "No plan has promised to effect a change of manners with equal ease since the days of the apostles."

Whatever may be the value and purpose of Sunday schools to-day, there is no doubt that a hundred and twenty years ago they furnished to countless children the only alternative to complete illiteracy, and in addition, and by no means to be despised, an opportunity for a weekly wash and brush up.

II. SARAH TRIMMER

"... a Reverend Lady, who, without exactly possessing the kind of talents which render Mrs. Hannah More and Miss Edgeworth the envy of their sex, and the ornaments of their country, has unquestionably written as many volumes as both put together."—*Edinburgh Review*, November, 1810.

MRS. TRIMMER is a much maligned woman. Until a few years ago the nameplate on her portrait in the National Portrait Gallery branded her as belonging to Brentwood instead of Brentford, and at least one edition of the *Dictionary of National Biography*, while failing to record her most remarkable achievement, quite erroneously states that none of her twelve children survived her; thus almost suggesting that the devotion which she lavished on other people's offspring resulted in the neglect of her own.

Sarah Kirby, who was born at Ipswich in 1741, died in 1810 in Brentford, where she had lived for nearly fifty years. She was buried in Ealing. Her father was Joshua Kirby, the one-time house painter who became the close friend of Gainsborough, was "the teacher of

perspective" to George III, when Prince of Wales, and subsequently became Clerk of the Works to the Palace at Kew. When a child Sarah accompanied her father to dinner at the house of Sir Joshua Reynolds, and there met Dr. Johnson, who was much impressed with her, because after dinner she produced Milton's *Paradise Lost* from her pocket and thus settled some textual controversy which was engaging the attention of her elders.

It is recorded that when she lived at Kew she made a compact with a friend who lived in a house visible from her own, on the other side of the river, by which, immediately on waking, each agreed to attach a coloured handkerchief to her bedroom window if the other had not already done so—a competition in early rising. As one of her biographers, Clara Lucas Balfour, remarks, "Happy sport, that ended in useful custom!"

At the age of twenty-one Sarah married James Trimmer, whose family built the original St George's Church, Brentford, in connection with which she established her first Sunday school in 1786, and subsequently a school of industry. Encouraged by the success of Mrs. Barbauld's *Easy Lessons for Children*, she published a number of children's books, the most famous of which is *Fabulous Histories* (or the "Story of the Robins"). Like many women pioneers she was not especially advanced in her views about her own sex. She writes to a friend (admittedly soon after the death of her husband): "On the *Rights of Women* I can now say nothing more than that I found so much happiness in having a husband to assist me in forming a proper judgment, and in taking upon him the chief labour of providing for a family, that I never wished for a further degree of liberty or consequence than I enjoyed. Miss Woolstoncroft is a woman of extraordinary abilities, I confess; I cannot help thinking they might be employed to more advantage to society."

Mrs. Trimmer's meditations and prayers are not, humanly speaking, very distinguished. "How rapid is the flight of time! How short the space appears to be betwixt one sabbath and another, and yet the proportion of time allotted by the all-bountiful Creator for our worldly business, is six times greater than that which He has claimed for His own peculiar service. Who that has experienced the delights of a truly Christian sabbath, would not long and earnestly desire to pass every day in the same manner? but it cannot be! Angels alone are capable of a continuation of such divine employment. The human faculties are not equal to a perpetual exercise in it; at least mine are not." And again: "O Lord, I have feared Thee and endeavoured to walk in Thy way; and so I trust has my dear husband. . . . I have been like a fruitful vine; and my children are like the olive branches round about our table."

Fanny Burney records in 1790: "Mrs. Trimmer came to Windsor one morning and had a private audience of Her Majesty. . . . She is so

unaffected, mild, pleasing and placid in her manners and conversation." The Rev. Thomas Tunstall Haverfield, preaching her funeral oration, said that "her thoughts were always in heaven." Wherever her thoughts were lodged, it is clear that her ample bonnet harboured a very provocative bee, for, as Professor Adamson remarks, "Mrs. Trimmer was obsessed by the belief that a deliberate conspiracy, originating in France with Voltaire, existed for the overthrow of Christianity; and the type of religious instruction advocated by Basedow and the Philanthropists appeared to her to prove that the operations of the conspirators were being extended to English schools."

In 1800, in her sixtieth year, she began the stupendous task of issuing, apparently singlehanded, *The Guardian of Education*, a periodical which appeared, at first monthly and then quarterly, up to 1806. Its object was to caution young mothers and others against "the attempts which are making to banish Christianity from the nursery and the school in order to introduce Philosophy (as it is falsely called) in its stead . . ." and among the contents would be found "Memoirs of Infidel Writers . . . selected for the Purpose of showing that a Conspiracy against Christianity has long been formed and is actually in operation at the present Day."

In this periodical she reviewed the first publication of the Quaker, Joseph Lancaster, whose activities resulted in the formation of the British and Foreign School Society, and likewise a pamphlet by Dr. Andrew Bell, who later became Lancaster's bitter opponent. In 1805 she also published a separate work criticizing Lancaster's unsectarian schemes. The labour involved in the production of *The Guardian of Education* broke her down physically; and well it might, for during the last year of its publication she was also engaged in a confidential and exacting correspondence with Bell, then over fifty years of age, which was designed to rouse him to action as the leader of a national system of education on lines acceptable to the established Church.

No samples of this correspondence, or reflections upon it, appear in her published diary and letters (*Life and Writings of Mrs. Trimmer*, 1814), which, save for one or two unimportant documents, take us no further than 1798; and yet we know that she kept a record of her doings and meditations up to the year of her death. Can it be that her family, who selected for publication such documents as they thought suitable, were apprehensive lest the tone of her letters to Bell might be considered not quite consistent with her reputation for simple piety? Whatever the answer to that question may be, her correspondence with Bell, which is published in Southey's life of that worthy but arrogant man, almost suggests that Mr. Haverfield was only approximating when he said, "though so strictly virtuous herself she was never heard to criticize or condemn the frailties of others." The following extracts from that

correspondence, which covered several years, indicate her method of attack. "From the time, sir, that I read Mr. Joseph Lancaster's *Improvements in Education* . . . I conceived an idea that there was something in his plan inimical to the interests of the Established Church; and when I read your *Experiment in Education* to which Mr. L. referred, I plainly perceived he had been building on your foundation. . . . I thought it might answer a good purpose to point out in an incidental way, by means of a review of your work, that Mr. Lancaster was not the original inventor of the plan (the monitorial system). . . . And this is the way I mean to proceed: I will give him all possible credit for the utility of his mode of instruction in reading, writing, etc.; if I mention Dr. Bell, it will probably be *incidentally* only; or I may even say, 'That in some respects J. Lancaster has improved on your plan. . . .' It is a curious fact he was not originally a Quaker, but an Anabaptist. . . . Whether he changed for the love of a pretty Quaker whom he married, or whether the *broad brim* was the best cover for his scheme, I cannot say; but certainly in the Quaker habit (from the too liberal indulgencies of our Church and State to that humbly supercilious sect) he may take liberties, and press forward to notice more than a member of the Establishment could do, even with the same degree of effrontery. . . . The further I have looked into Lancaster's work the worse opinion I have of his views and intentions. . . . He is totally ignorant of every principle of good education, and his plan is a direct perversion of yours. . . . My fear is that the Methodists will make great advantage of the plan. . . . Through the well directed zeal of an excellent friend of mine, the Rev. Mr. Plimley, who is the Rector of Windsor, the arrogant Quaker has been disappointed in his attempt to set up a school there."

It may be noted that when an attempt was made to influence George III against Lancaster, that dogged monarch replied, "The man is a Dissenter, but that has nothing to do with his plans."

At last Bell responded, "You have almost inspired me with a wish again to step forward into more active life than Swanage." And Mrs. Trimmer replies, "I cannot presume to advise you, but I think, were I in your place, I should follow Mr. Lancaster up a little, and bring my own plan still forwarder to public observation as the original one—not from motives which your mind is above, as I trust my own is also—but that the public might at once take up the matter at the right end, by seeing that the experiment might be made in an easier way than by following Lancaster's whimseys."

The part which Mrs. Trimmer played in the educational controversy at the beginning of the nineteenth century is well stated—from the churchman's point of view—by Thomas Faulkner in *The History and Antiquities of Brentford, Ealing, and Chiswick* (1845): "But the system of education advocated by Mrs. Trimmer was not a system of mere

intellectuality, but one based upon religion, and in connection with the Church; and her efforts were successfully directed against the latitudinarian views of Joseph Lancaster, at a time when they were most rapidly spreading, and had received the most powerful support. It was at Mrs. Trimmer's persuasion that Dr. Bell was induced to enter the field, and that the way was paved which eventually led to the ascendancy of sounder views, and the establishment of the National Society."

Mrs. Trimmer did not have it all her own way. She was foolish enough to question the propriety of Lancaster's system of "orders of merit" for his school children, on the ground that it might result in poor children aspiring "to be nobles of the land and to take place of the hereditary nobility." This provoked from Sydney Smith: "For our part, when we saw these ragged and interesting little nobles, shining in their tin stars, we only thought it probable that the spirit of emulation would make them better ushers, tradesmen and mechanics. We did, in truth, imagine we had observed, in some of their faces, a bold project for procuring better breeches for keeping out the blasts of heaven, which howled through those garments in every direction. . . . But for the safety of the titled orders we had no fear; nor did we once dream that the black rod which whipt these dirty little dukes, would one day be borne before them as the emblem of legislative dignity and the sign of noble blood."

Lancaster enjoyed tilting at her, though he did not always mention her by name. In a chapter of one of his later books, dealing with School Circulating Libraries, after commending the works of Priscilla Wakefield, he says, they "present a powerful contrast to the narrowness of soul which distinguishes one of her contemporary writers . . . whose jealousy that her sixpenny sales shall be injured by the excellent publications of others, makes her cry 'the church in danger!' when, in reality, it is only her halfpenny, penny and sixpenny book-making craft that is in danger." At an earlier stage, however, according to the good lady herself, Lancaster "marched his principal monitors down to Brentford, to pay their respects to Sarah Trimmer, and brought his young bride with him."

The "voluminous female," as the *Edinburgh Review* unkindly called her, was the mother of a large family, the instructress of numberless poor children, and the author of some thirty publications. But her most lasting achievement (for is not the dual system always with us?) is concerned not with books and individual scholars so much as with national educational policy.

Her children tell us that Mrs. Trimmer's favourite maxim was, "A Christian should carefully avoid saying anything to the prejudice of others, unless when it was necessary for the honour of God or the good of men." No doubt she permitted herself to stretch a point or two in favour of that "Goliath of Schismatics," Joseph Lancaster.

III. HANNAH KILHAM

1774-1832

SLAVERY in the British Empire was abolished in 1833, and last year witnessed appropriate centenary celebrations. Wilberforce died in the year of achievement, but Hannah Kilham, the devoted and courageous friend of the slave girls of Africa, did not live to see the great day. She feared above all else—the sea; and on March 31, 1832, she succumbed on board a boat which, setting sail from Liberia to Sierra Leone, encountered a violent storm, and, after being struck by lightning, put back to port.

There was nothing in the circumstances of her birth to suggest that Hannah Spurr would die a Quaker and a missionary. She was one of seven children of quiet Sheffield tradespeople who were consistent members of the Established Church. But the family did not escape the influence of Wesley's teaching, with the result that as a mere child she began that troublesome but illuminating habit of keeping a written record of her spiritual condition. "She kept a diary of her good and evil deeds, arranged in separate columns," but unfortunately she became so discouraged by the preponderance of entries in one of the columns that she soon gave it up. Of course, as befits a good evangelical, she resumed the diary habit—though not in separate columns—when she was of maturer years, and many a provocative maxim can be found in her writings: "Let all who would do good to their neighbours secure their own independence by contracting their wants"; and, "It is not, as some suppose, the love of our own country, but rather the want of love towards other countries, that is the excitement to war."

Her mother died when she was twelve, and her father two years later. An orphan at fourteen years of age, she was sent to a boarding school at Chesterfield, where "she conducted herself to much satisfaction, and made so much progress in the study of grammar as to displease her master who . . . thought her overstepping the bounds of the female province." But sin will out—in later life she wrote African grammars for her slave girls.

She became a Wesleyan; but some time after Wesley's death she began to have doubts about certain aspects of Methodist practice and government. In this mood she met Alexander Kilham, who had been expelled from the Methodist Church for trenchantly expressing similar views, and had been one of the founders of the Methodist New Connexion in 1797. Hannah Spurr married Alexander Kilham in 1798. He was a widower with one child, and made of stern stuff. On the day of the funeral of his first wife, whom he had married "after obtaining liberty from Mr. Wesley," he preached three long sermons. These he subsequently published with a long account of the life and death of his spouse, all designed to show that there was no truth in the allegation

of his enemies that his controversial spirit drove his wife to the grave.

In his letters to Hannah Spurr he combines religious zeal with courtship. Commenting on the dangers of lack of faith he writes, "though it is past midnight, the weather exceedingly stormy, my fire low, my poor tottering body oppressed with cold, travelling and other exercises, and I have three times to preach on this dawning day, yet I would gladly write all night upon this delightful subject, if my endeared Hannah could be delivered from this enemy." Their married life was short. Alexander died within the year. A girl born posthumously lived to be three years of age and was then carried off by scarlet fever.

The year 1802 found Hannah still under thirty, deprived of parents, husband, and child, but with a step-daughter, Sarah, thirteen years of age; it also found her in the Society of Friends. For some twenty years she devoted herself to educational and social work in Sheffield, where she founded a "Society for Bettering the Condition of the Poor"; but her passion for grammar was not to be denied. She began to study African languages, and came to London to meet two native African sailors, who so helped her with her studies that before ever going abroad she produced anonymously, *First Lessons in Jaloof*.

Mrs. Kilham and her step-daughter Sarah were as devoted to one another as any true mother and daughter could have been. In 1820 they had to part. In that year Sarah left for Russia, probably under the auspices of the British and Foreign School Society, with a letter of introduction to the Emperor from William Allen. She established a school in St. Petersburg, from which city, as Mrs. Sarah Biller, she wrote the memoirs of her "mother" in 1837.

Hannah, now free from all domestic ties, sailed for Africa in 1823, and there she remained, with short intervals at home, including a period of famine relief work in Ireland, until her death in 1832. Her most sustained effort was during the two last years of her life when, with the consent of the Governor of Sierra Leone, she took charge of girls rescued from slave ships and established a school for them in the Colony. She did not desert her charges even in the rainy season; but on this aspect of her work she remarks, "I would not recommend any who follow me to provide themselves so slightly with either bed or sofa as I have done."

Her writings, which are to be found in the British Museum, suggest the probability that, faced with dire necessity, she worked out some teaching methods and developed an educational philosophy well in advance of much which was current in Europe at the beginning of the nineteenth century. But space does not permit of any detailed account of her labours, nor of any adequate quotation from her pious but shrewd observations on life, religion, and missionaries. One may perhaps sum it all up by saying, "Happy the black girl in search of her God who found Hannah Kilham."

EDUCATION SIXTY YEARS AGO

MY FIRST DAME'S SCHOOL

By CLOUDESLEY BRERETON, D. ÉS L.

WHEN I was nine, I was supposed to have attained boarding school age and was sent to a boarding house in a big town, some of whose boys went to the local grammar school and others, like myself, to a sort of super-dame's school, with a great reputation for "grounding" its pupils. Unfortunately I arrived at the boarding house a day too early, and never shall I forget the awful sense of loneliness I experienced wandering through the empty rooms, coupled with the grim apprehension of what the morrow would be like when the other boys appeared. My forebodings were unluckily realized. There was a good deal of bullying, or at least rough play. The smaller boys were tossed in the blanket or served as ninepins in the frequent pitched battles between the dormitories, and once, indeed, an attempt was made to roast a few of us in imitation, no doubt, of Tom Brown, till some of the elders intervened. I remember one bully in particular. He was only twelve, but he seemed to me the biggest boy I had ever seen. On another occasion the older boys started what they called "The Ignominious Society." It consisted in holding the smaller boys over a table and caning them with the top of a fishing rod. When my turn arrived, I managed to entangle my legs in the top and smashed it. I was well "licked" for my pains, but I didn't mind. I felt I was "one up" on my tormentors. The humorous side was not wanting either. We had a boot boy who would swallow anything for money. We used to make up the most awful decoctions of blacking, knife powder and what not, and then subscribe to tempt him to eat them. But these experiments came to an abrupt end when for half-a-crown, raised from boys who many of them had only a penny a week, he attempted to swallow a whole mustard pot. The effects were so direful, we could never induce him to try any more mixtures. No doubt some people will say we were hopeless barbarians, but it is just what the primitive boy is (*pace* Bertrand Russell) if left to himself.

For the first six weeks I never wrote home because I didn't know how to address a letter and never dared to ask any of the boys. Then an old servant came up and took me out for the day, a red-letter day I have never forgotten, and learning of my difficulty bought some envelopes and addressed them for me. The old system of halves instead of terms was still in full swing, and I well remember returning to school in the last week of a scorching July, and not coming home till Christmas. The half lasted twenty weeks, and when we got within six weeks of the end it seemed comparatively close, and of course we all kept calendars and blocked out the intervening days as they passed. As for getting back

to the school, one made little use of the railway which was then miles away. I was either driven the twenty odd miles in a dog-cart, or the undignified method was adopted of sending me in the local carrier's van, which took an interminable time and was abominably stuffy. I have always noted that one's memory of ancient smells is extraordinarily tenacious, as the French would say.

At the dame-school I found myself a terrible ignoramus—I couldn't even tell the time, and had never learnt the pence table with its twenty pence equals 1s. 8d., but I suddenly made a start and never after looked back. Learning by heart was the keynote of the establishment. We committed to memory whole pages of Mangnall's questions, consisting of summaries of the reigns of all the kings of England and of France, including the Merovingian and Carolingian dynasties, whose uninterrupted iniquities made them worthy rivals of the Kings of Israel; the same procedure was followed with *The Child's Guide to Knowledge*, a most useful olla podrida of common facts, though there seemed little or no sequence about their arrangement. One skipped, so to say, from bread fruit to brick-making. It was, in fact, "interesting but a trifle disconnectit," as the Scotsman remarked when asked why he was learning the dictionary by heart. Similarly we learnt all the principal dates in English history in a sort of rhyming chronicle. It began with "In 43 a Roman host from Gaul assailed our southern coast," and went up to the death of William IV; then for some inscrutable reason the dates of the advent of Victoria, the death of Prince Albert, and the battles of the Crimea were not given, but the jingle ended with the words that these were dates "all British boys should know." So we never knew them! Jingle or not, this doggerel did give one a far better time-sense than I have been able to discover among the great majority of secondary pupils to-day for all their time charts, whose value I fully appreciate. At least I have never been guilty of locating the battle of Trafalgar in the early eighteenth century or other atrocities I have met with in Fifth Form pupils. In geography we learnt all the capes, bays, sounds, inlets, islands great and small, lakes and rivers, and the county capitals of the British Isles, as well as the capitals, chief towns, revenues, and products of the main European countries. Such minutiae as the Great and Little Blasket, Eig and Rum (known for mnemonic purposes as Egg and Rum) still recur to me. This was of course excessive, but here again schools would be well advised to draw up, for definite committal to memory, in each form a carefully considered list of the main rivers, and mountain ranges of Britain and the world, of the very big towns and their whereabouts, and also of the chief products of the globe, agricultural and industrial, with the countries of origin, and to institute an annual revision of the same. The mastery of such a list of what "every pupil ought to know" would go far to meet the criticisms, sometimes well

founded, of the ordinary business man. In this connection I remember being kept in because I did not know how to pronounce the Gulf of Nauplia and called it Na-uplia. This was regarded as sheer "cussedness," and finally the teacher was obliged to ask, "How do you pronounce n-a-u-g-h-t-y?" To her, too, the doctrine of original sin was a very living reality. In fact, having once been wrongly supposed to have told a lie, I was in season and out consistently treated as a liar, and my supposed untruth perpetually flung in my face. Luckily, I did not become a first-class Ananias, but I know of no more certain way of making a boy a liar or a fool than by treating him as such.

Arithmetic was taught by a visiting teacher. I imagine the subject was not a strong point with the dame. We learnt all the tables of weights and measures, even the most outlandish with their firkins, pipes, ells (there are several ells). Tare and tret and aliquot parts were carefully explained, and Practice, which is one of the most unpractical ways of working out costs, was held in high honour. Our teacher spoke of his subject as if he were unfolding the Christian mysteries. His craft was to him really a "mystery," and I see now he was in direct apostolic succession with those seventeenth century professors of dancing, grammar, and the like whose pretensions were so wittily satirized in Molière's *Bourgeois Gentilhomme*.

Curiously enough my memory was almost absolutely perfect in those days. I seemed to remember everything, once I had learnt it, even the very page on which it occurred. But this is a gift I lost fairly early. I wonder if there is any age from nine to twelve at which the power of memorizing reaches its maximum for the ordinary pupil.

I should like to recall here a curious practice which I think dates from the times when I began to be anxious to learn and which I have cultivated ever since. I have always found it of the greatest service. When in reading or listening to people I came across a word or thing I didn't understand, I used to form for myself a sort of imaginary hieroglyph or symbol of it to serve for the time being. Thus if a word like "gules" or a thing like "pemmican" was mentioned, I formed some purely imaginary symbol or picture of it, till I finally came across the true explanation or description. It was something like the method of Mary who treasured things in her heart till at last she found the answers. Curiously enough I have never seen the practice described, but it is certainly a useful one in bridging over the blanks and gaps in one's knowledge till the right solution comes along.

As regards the books one read out of school—incidentally I think a good deal of my education took place out of school—there was Kingston, whose stories concealed a certain amount of information conveyed in a fairly palatable and peptonized form, and Ballantyne, who so crammed his books with chunks of useful knowledge that I was unable to get to

the end of most of them—the powder, in fact, was too thinly coated with jam. But an exception must be made for the *Coral Island* and *The Gorilla Hunters*, which I read several times over. We generally read between school and lunch or tea, and to this day I remember how the descriptions of the roasted bread-fruit and toasted yams and other delicacies, including elephant's foot, made one's mouth water, especially as one's appetite was already sharpened by the prospect of a meal occurring shortly. On the other hand, books of Arctic adventure with their unvaried menu of pemmican and seal's flesh appealed far less strongly. But probably the most exciting books of all were those of Jules Verne, the forerunner of H. G. Wells. No one in my day was able to make so successful a mixed salad of adventure and science, real or imaginary, to suit the schoolboy's palate, as the author of *Twenty Leagues under the Sea* and *The Voyage to the Moon*. Most of these books have had their day, as schoolboy tastes are always changing. I believe, for instance, the books of Henty, and later those of Colonel Brereton, which also enjoyed in their time an immense vogue, are now regarded as back-numbers by the schoolboys of to-day.

Spelling had always been a difficulty to me, but thanks to this private reading which I was also able to carry on in the next school I went to, my spelling sensibly improved, till at the age of sixteen I acquired an almost impeccable spelling, and always regretted that I never entered for any of the numerous spelling bees which were all the rage at that time. Curiously enough, I never remember having had any desire to read the papers. They were, in fact, rather kept from us as the crimes and murders they contained were not supposed to be good for the young. The cinema seems to have changed all this! It was only long afterwards, in 1876, when the Serbian-Turkish war broke out that I first began to read them, when home for the holidays. We took in *The Echo*, which being an evening paper arrived by post every morning at breakfast. It always had a column of war news which, as a pro-Serbian, I followed with the greatest interest, and it was only then that I gradually began to read the other parts of the paper. One grew up more slowly in those days.

The relations of the day-boys to one another were not unkindly, yet only the other day I heard of a well-known general who wanted to meet me because I had been kind to him the first day he came to the school. I had naturally completely forgotten it, and it probably only amounted to my having spoken to him while the others left him in chilly isolation. It is only another indication, though slight indeed, of the overwhelming impression or rather shock that the first day at school produces on the average boy, of which I have already spoken. Personally I believe it is the greatest break that ever occurs in a boy's life. I know of nothing that ever has happened to me since that can be compared with it.

CHANGES IN GIRLS' BOARDING SCHOOLS

By M. STRACHAN

GREAT improvements have been made in diet and accommodation in girls' boarding-schools, especially in the more expensive type of school. But there is room for much improvement in smaller schools where fees are moderate.

Roughing it used to be reckoned part of the school training for sons of the rich, but it is questionable whether it is good for girls. Yet girls from comfortable homes have to endure much hardship in the way of poor food, and lack of privacy and means of cleanliness.

In many schools the diet is still monotonous and lacking in a supply of fruit and well-cooked, appetizing vegetables, and a sufficiency of sweets. Porridge and bacon for breakfast with a choice of either marmalade or butter sounds ample, perhaps, but many girls cannot eat either bacon or porridge. Dinner is often a meal of joints and stodgy puddings or boiled cod and prunes and a milk pudding. The accompanying vegetables are too frequently badly cooked cabbage or turnips. Tea at five may be the last meal for the younger children, and consist of tea, bread-and-butter and jam, while the elder girls have a light meal of bread and cheese at seven.

Many girls of fifteen and sixteen have fastidious appetites and suffer from the lack of variety, the insufficiency of vitamins and a craving for more fruit and sweets. With the modern knowledge of dietetics it is marvellous how many schools adhere to old ideas and are smitten year after year by infectious diseases which find easy victims in under-nourished, not underfed, pupils.

In regard to cleanliness, too, the old idea that a bi-weekly bath is sufficient, still survives to the misery of girls who have never less than a bath a day in their own homes. In these days when it is easy to secure a constant supply of hot water it would surely be possible to arrange that every girl could obtain a daily bath.

Another misery to sensitive girls is the old dormitory system where twelve or more girls are herded together in a large room with curtained cubicles, only allowed to be curtained during dressing and undressing. Pupils whose parents can afford to, and wish to, pay for the privilege of separate rooms for one or two girls can do so. But many parents have forgotten how much it means to some girls to have privacy, and others grudge the money.

Some girls prefer to live in herds. Others feel the strain of continual publicity and the domination of the noisier and more aggressive type. Separate rooms or rooms shared with a friend give a girl a better chance to develop her own individuality without the fear of jeers of the mob.

The mob, too, predominate in the assembly hall or gymnasium, which

is frequently the only sitting-room for those below the standard of the sixth form. The room is used for playing and dancing, and those in search of quiet have no alternative but the classrooms.

There is a need for pleasant sitting-rooms for pupils who wish to read or write or pursue quiet hobbies. These should be provided with comfortable chairs, tables, and suitable lighting arrangements to avoid eyestrain.

As an extra sitting-room for the more studious a serviceable library would be a great asset. It is remarkable how many schools of reputation put up with the poorest apology for what should be one of the most influential instruments of education.

A great deal of the arrested development noticeable in school-girls in this country is due to the fact that they are persistently treated as irresponsible children after the age of fourteen while they are at school, whereas in their own homes they lead a semi-adult life in the society of others of their own age.

Given comfortable surroundings, sufficient leisure to pursue studies and hobbies of their own, and a more invigorating diet, the average school-girl would have a chance to become a more intelligent, companionable and self-reliant human being.

VERSATILITY

By PHYLLIS M. STONE

*"School-teachers have declined to agree to a suggestion made by the Home Office that they should act as traffic controllers outside their schools."—
Daily paper, November 29, 1933.*

WE have learned to be bankers and clerks,
In filling up forms we are skilled ;
As nurses you'd give us full marks,
With medical knowledge we're filled.
We know the stage manager's job,
And producing is nothing to us ;
We can stage what you like, from a mob
To a fairy, without any fuss.
As carpenters long have we worked,
And furniture movers as well.
As traders we never have shirked,
Just any old thing we can sell.
We have given, you'll see, of our best,
But our duties seem never to cease,
For now comes another request—
They want us to join the police !

GLEANINGS

CHEER UP! CHILDREN!

"Perhaps the happiest time of my life was spent in a slum."

The Archbishop of Canterbury.

USELESS!

"It will be useless to mention the dear old school or to exhibit the school tie on the Day of Judgment."

Mr. St. John Ervine.

OUR HOME TROUBLE

"Whitehall is a hotbed of little Hitlers."

Mr. E. O. Fordham.

PRIDE OF BLOOD

"One of the proudest moments of her groom's life, said Lady Kesteven, was when her grandchildren were 'blooded' while out with the Fitzwilliam Hunt."

Evening News, London.

ALTERNATIVE

"Oddenino became a Freemason years ago. Ever since then he had ceased to practise his religion. That was why the Church of England service was read in the Golder's Green Crematorium."

Daily Express.

FLOREAT ETONA

"It is pleasing to note the return to popularity of the Eton suit. A boy in Eton's, with a white shirt with stiff cuffs, black tie and broad Eton collar, is a credit to any parent or school, and looks typical of all that is best in British boyhood."

From a Letter to The News Chronicle.

ANTIDOTE

"I have just had a sidelight on the character of the late Sir Arthur Hardinge. Lover of the classics as he was, he could seldom read the great Greek and Latin authors without soon turning to the Bible for moral inspiration."

"Peterborough" in The Daily Telegraph.

ANCIENT AND MODERN

"Pent round with perils, in the midst you stand
And call for aid in vain; the coachman swears,
And carmen drive unmindful of thy prayers.
Where wilt thou turn? Ah, whither wilt thou fly?
On every side the pressing spokes are nigh."

John Gay, 1716.

LATIN TEACHING

"I lean very much to the opinion that Latin is often begun at too early an age, and that a later start with a more rigid insistence on accuracy would lead to progress at once more rapid and more real."

Dr. Cyril Norwood.

THE LEISURED LIFE

In a volume entitled *The Religion of the Preparatory School Boy*, by R. A. Raven (Athenæum Press) there is quoted a small boy's version of the Fourth Commandment: "Remember that thou keep holy the sabbath day. Six days shalt thy neighbour do all that thou hast to do, and the seventh day thou shalt do no manner of work."

PICTURE

"And these I see, these sparkling eyes,
 These stores of mystic meaning, these young lives,
 Building, equipping like a fleet of ships, immortal ships,
 Soon to sail over the measureless seas
 On the soul's voyage.
 Only a lot of boys and girls,
 Only the tiresome writing, reading, ciphering lesson,
 Only a public school.
 Ah more—infinately more."

Walt Whitman.

THE OBVERSE

"There is some danger of creating an educated proletariat, always a dangerous class." *Dr. Inge on "Education in the Modern State" in Daily Express Encyclopædia.*

VALUES

In 1870 there were committed to prison 8619 boys and 1379 girls under 16. In 1910 the numbers were 48 boys and 3 girls, and 1919, 25 boys and no girls. The numbers of persons over 16 had similarly decreased from 147,000 to 31,000, although the population had increased by 70 per cent. It costs £1111 a year for every person kept at Borstal, and the cost of maintenance at convict and local prisons and similar institutions is proportionately high; while to keep a child at an elementary school costs only about £13 a year.

1790-1934

You say that England is lost!
 Ah! Great God! What unfortunate news!
 But in what latitude has she been lost?
 Or what earthquake, what convulsion of
 Nature has engulfed that famous island,
 that classic land of friends of freedom?
 But you give us heart; you give us hope;
 England is repairing, in a glorious silence,
 the wounds she inflicted upon herself
 in the delirium of a burning fever.
 England flourishes still for the eternal
 instruction of the world.

Mirabeau, 1790.

PUZZLES AND PROBLEMS

By JAMES TRAVERS

NEW PROBLEMS

THE answers to the following will appear in our Summer number :—

1. ABC is an isosceles triangle having the base angles at B and C each 80° . BP is drawn to meet the AC in P and so that the angle ABP is 20° . CY is similarly drawn so that the angle ACY is 30° . Find by a very elementary method the number of degrees in the angle YPB. The use of trigonometry and a protractor is forbidden.

2. A swindler once had a balance the arms of which were unequal. When the weights were placed in one scale and the package in the other the package appeared to weight 9 lb., but when the package was put in the other scale it appeared to weigh 16 lb. How much did the parcel really weigh ?

3. The cube of my money minus the cube of your money comes to the respectable sum of £1,234,567. If the difference of our shares is only £1, how much does each of us possess ?

4. Beyond the fact that the initial letter in every case is different, the missing words denoted by * contain the same letters. Can you find them ? * men at *, Did fear the *, who said he'd *, At end of *, He got a *, And such a *, To prove * was *, He was well * as well as *.

5. In the figure given below there are a number of equilateral triangles arranged in tiers, and the problem is to find the total number of triangles of all sizes in each tier. In tier 1 there is only 1 triangle. In tier 2 there are 5 triangles. In tier 3 there are 13 triangles. Now how many in a 7 tier ? and how many in the n th tier ?

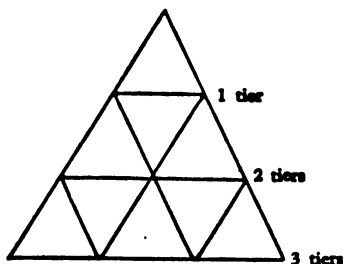


Fig. 1.

ANSWERS

The answers to the Autumn problems are as follows :—

1. Let t = the number of hours spent by the Canadian in walking. Then $2(4-t)$ = the number of hours saved to the carriage on the double journey. Hence $2(4-t) = 2$. Solving this we get $t = 3$. Hence

the man walked 15 miles and the total distance is 45 miles, and speed of carriage 15 miles an hour.

2. The missing words are : safe, sane, sage, sake, save, same, sale.

3. I have spent a considerable time over this class of problem, and the following discoveries made by me are now published for the first time. I may point out that in an odd-sided polygon of n sides there are only four different sums made by the arrangement of the numbers from 1 to $2n$ at the corners and middle points of the sides, but in an even-sided polygon of n sides there are n sums, the lowest being given by $\frac{1}{2}(5n + 4)$, and the sums increase by unity. In our case above the lowest sum is 17, as shown in *Fig. 2*. It is also worthy of note that when

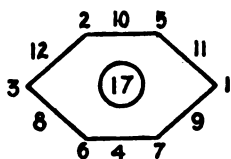


Fig. 2.

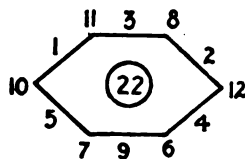


Fig. 3.

half of these sums have been found the remaining half can be written down by taking the numbers away from the number $2n + 1$, as shown in *Fig. 3*, where, by taking the numbers shown in *Fig. 2* from 13, we get the numbers in *Fig. 3*, giving the maximum sum for a six-sided figure, viz., 22.

4. I have to thank Mr. Russell, Headmaster of East Bristol Central School, for his interesting correspondence over this problem. Here is the general method of solution. Taking the numbers as $x^2 - 4x$; $4x$; and $2x + 1$. These numbers satisfy three of the given conditions, and it remains to satisfy the fourth condition by making $6x + 1$ a square. By taking $x = 20$, we get the numbers 320, 80 and 41.

5. The following words answer the conditions of the question : Intestines, Reappear, Horseshoer, Caucasus.

6. $3 \times 864 - 832 = 1760 =$ the distance in yards.

7. The following numbers are the only ones that fulfil the conditions : 13824, 15625, 117649, 132651, 421875, 438976, the cube roots of each being 24, 25, 49, 51, 75, and 76 respectively.

8. The one is in secure, the other is insecure.

9. "The rude forefathers of the HAM, let sleep," was the version quoted by the old lady.

10. There are only five rational triangles that fulfil these conditions : 6, 8, 10; 5, 12, 13; 6, 25, 29; 7, 15, 20; and 9, 10, 17.

11. The words in order are : minaret, undulating, sinecure, mitigating, divulging, inconclusive, zenith, inference, tradition, concentrating, impracticable, inflammatory, omen, simultaneously.

THE SIXTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF MORAL EDUCATION

By FREDERICK J. GOULD

A VERY genuine enthusiasm inspired the crowded assemblies of the Inaugural Congress at London University, S. Kensington, in 1908, when, under the presidency of Sir Michael Sadler (now Master of University College, Oxford), we discussed many aspects of moral education. As a helper I attended the second meeting, at The Hague, 1912; and, as Hon. Secretary, the meetings at Geneva, 1922, Rome, 1926, Paris (Sorbonne), 1930. I have rejoiced in the free interchange of ideas by Roman Catholics, Protestants, Hindus, Muslims, Jews, Confucians, Shinto-ists, Rationalists. We realized our object: "To enlist the active co-operation of all, irrespective of race, nation, and creed, in promoting the work of moral education." A sign of the fertility of the Congress spirit was displayed in the Hague (1932) History-teaching Conference, which unfolded directly from a resolution passed by the Paris Congress. From 1908 to 1930 an International Executive Council organized the programmes from London, Sir Francis Younghusband (following after the Rt. Hon. Sir Frederick Pollock) being our latest chairman. The centre has now shifted to Switzerland, with Mr. D. Christie Tait (94 rue de la Servette, Geneva) as Secretary. Mr. Tait is an official in the International Labour Office, and thus we quite happily link up with the League on a basis of ethical sympathy.

Our sixth Congress is fixed for the city of Cracow, September 11 to 14, 1934, under the patronage of the Republic of Poland. The Secretary of the Polish Organizing Committee is Mme. M. Sokal (Warsaw, Muzeum Oswiatry, Hoza 88). As a master-theme we could not have anything broader or more interesting than this: "Moral Forces common to every Human Being, their origins, and their development through Education." The theme appeals to kindergarteners, to elementary school-teachers, to secondary school-teachers, to university professors, to educational philosophers, to economists, to politicians, to theologians, to Rationalists, to aristocrats, to bourgeoisie, to proletarians, to women, to men, to all nations, to all races.

I wish Ferdinand Buissam, the noble French statesman and educational pioneer, were still alive. He would join with delight in the Congress at Cracow. I so vividly recall how, amid cheers, he strode up and down our platform at The Hague in 1912, and—his face lit as with a humanist Pentecostal fire—glorified the ideals of the True, the Beautiful, the Good. He was an admirable type of civilization's devotion to the service of youth as a potent factor in the service of humanity.

BOOKS AND THE MAN

INFANT AND NURSERY SCHOOLS

THE latest Report of the Consultative Committee completes the threefold series of investigations which began with the study of the education of the adolescent, went on to the primary school, and thence to infants and nurslings. We can now read the three volumes in their proper order, and for all who are interested in education this is a worth-while undertaking.

Especially valuable are the historical sections of the three Reports, and I make bold to suggest that those who control H.M. Stationery Office would do well to issue these sections in a separate volume for the use of students. Together they give an accurate and scholarly account of our school system and its origins.

The Report itself is supplemented by an admirable memorandum on the anatomical and physiological characteristics of children between the ages of two and seven, written by Professor H. A. Harris. There is also a valuable note on the emotional development of children, based on a memorandum by Professor Cyril Burt and Dr. Susan Isaacs.

Since 1870 our general rule has been that children must attend school or begin their elementary instruction at the age of five. In many districts they have begun almost as soon as they could walk, with the result that our infant schools have had "baby-rooms" and "nursery classes" for years past, although grants have not been paid for children under three years of age. The infant schools have become more like well-conducted nurseries and less like the iron-bound primary schools which they used to resemble. To-day we have to decide whether the pre-seven youngster is best treated as a nursling or as a pre-primary school pupil. In a dissenting note Miss Hawtreay seems to plump for the former, but the Committee asks only that the transfers from infant school to primary school, and from nursery to infant school, shall be eased.

There is no need to stress the difference of opinion, provided that we treat organization as less important than education. Let us think of nurseries rather than "nursery-schools" and remember that in a good nursery the child's activities will be so graded that he will be ready, when the time comes, for more systematic effort to learn. But the effort should not be severe in the early stages of the primary school. At every stage of schooling and even in places of higher learning there is to be found the type of pedagogue who complains that pupils come to him ill-prepared. Often he could find a remedy by adjusting the early stages of his instruction to the state of his recruits. It is folly to expect a child of seven to fit immediately into the routine of the "big school."

The Report wisely dwells on the needs of the young child as revealed by the experience of teachers, doctors, and psychologists. Ample fresh air, sleep, play, good food, free activity through games, dance, and song, carefully chosen opportunities for the practice of social conduct—all these are essential in the early stages of education. With them may go an introduction to the formal curriculum, but in the lower grades of the primary school the less formal activities should be continued as long as they are useful.

The Report gives counsel on these activities, and rightly stresses the importance of having them directed by skilled teachers, even though their efforts may be supplemented by “helpers.”

The Committee seem to assume that we must continue to have compulsory attendance from the age of five. Yet they suggest that any provision made by the State for children under five should be designed to supplement the home. Wisely they do not suggest compulsory attendance for these children, although they say medical supervision is desirable.

Would it not be well for us to have in every area a sufficient number of Baby Clinics, Infant Welfare Centres, and Day Nurseries, to provide for all children under seven for whom the home conditions need to be supplemented? I would compel no child under seven to attend *daily*. My aim would be to have facilities, to encourage all parents to make use of them, and even to compel this use by careless or indifferent parents. In practice there would be little need for compulsion. The day nurseries would become popular and the youngsters would benefit by occasional days off, remaining at home with their mothers. This would perhaps derange tidy “schemes of work,” and, if so, we ought to rejoice, for no child under seven should be subjected to a paper scheme. The shades of the prison-house will surround him soon enough.

I commend this Report to the attention of all teachers. Copies may be obtained from H.M. Stationery Office. Price 2s. 6d. net.

SELIM MILES.

REVIEWS

SOME USEFUL PICTURES

FROM the Lutterworth Press, 4, Bouverie Street, E.C.4, come four sets of pictures. The first two are pictures of wild flowers, each containing sixteen coloured plates and sixteen diagrams of excellent quality, the coloured plates being 9 by 7 in., while the accompanying diagrams in black and white give more detail as to growth and structure. Sets III and IV are similar plates of British trees in the various seasons. The flowers are the work of Mr. Louis Johnstone, the trees of Miss Barbara Briggs, and all are likely to be of great service in schools. At the low price of 3s. 6d. per set they represent extremely good value, either for descriptive or for instructional use.

A BOOK OF CRAFTS

101 THINGS FOR A BOY TO MAKE. By A. C. HORTH. Batsford. 5s. net.

THIS is the second and revised edition of an attractive book; giving preliminary hints on the selection, use, and care of tools, and a series of instructions on the making of things in wood. There are also some sections on household repairs. The boy who is interested in making things will welcome this book as a birthday gift. F.

NATURE STUDY

PRACTICAL BOTANY. By F. CAVERS, D.Sc., F.L.S. Pp. 430. University Tutorial Press. 5s. 6d.

THIS is the fourth edition of Professor Cavers's deservedly successful textbook—a book which since its first appearance just over twenty years ago has proved of great value to successive generations of students. This new edition has been revised by Mr. L. C. Fox, M.A., and a number of new diagrams have been added. F. H. S.

MIMICRY. By G. D. H. CARPENTER, M.B.E., D.M., and E. B. FORD, M.A., B.Sc. Pp. 134. Methuen. 3s. 6d.

MIMICRY in nature has been rashly described as the product of the imagination of the armchair philosopher; whereas in reality, the authors declare, the reverse of this is true, and they forthwith proceed to prove their assertion in the most interesting and convincing manner. Professor Carpenter contributes a very useful historical survey of the subject, and a chapter dealing with the most recent evidence in support of the theory, a considerable portion being the result of his own first-hand observation and research; while Mr. Ford is responsible for an excellent chapter dealing with the genetics of mimicry. The whole subject is a very fascinating one, and, being dealt with by experts with a gift of clear exposition, this little book can be warmly commended not only to the serious student but also to the lay reader who has a nodding acquaintance with biology, and especially of heredity. Even those to whom the necessary technicalities will prove somewhat unattractive will find in this "Monograph" much of distinct interest, the stories of the various mimics in the animal world being fascinating in the extreme. F. H. S.

TREES

OUR FRIENDLY TREES. By BARBARA BRIGGS, F.Z.S. Lutterworth Press. 8s. 6d.

THIS handsome volume contains no fewer than sixteen coloured plates, each of large size, together with many line drawings of parts of trees. These are supplemented by descriptions in simple terms such as children can understand. The introduction offers some useful hints on collecting, with timely cautions against causing damage to trees. The work is a marvel of inexpensive but not "cheap" production, and it should find a place in every school library. B. S.

BOTANY HUMANIZED

PLANTS AND HUMAN ECONOMICS. By RONALD GOOD, M.A. (Cantab.). Pp. 202. Cambridge University Press. 5s.

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F. H. S.

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ELEMENTARY GENERAL BIOLOGY. Parts I and II. By F. J. WYETH, M.A. (Cantab.), D.Sc. (Lond.). Bell. Each 3s. 6d. In one volume, 6s.

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ELEMENTARY BIOLOGY FOR SCHOOLS. By N. M. JOHNSON, B.Sc. Pp. 142. Oliver & Boyd. 2s.

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DISSECTION OF THE RABBIT. By R. H. WHITEHOUSE, D.Sc., and A. J. GROVE, D.Sc., M.A. Pp. 196. University Tutorial Press. 3s.

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F. H. S.

APPENDIX TO ELEMENTARY BIOLOGY FOR MATRICULATION AND ALLIED EXAMINATIONS. By M. E. PHILLIPS, B.Sc., and L. E. COX, B.Sc., F.L.S. Pp. 72. University of London Press. 1s.

THERE is nothing to indicate just why this appendix to the author's *Elementary Biology* has been deemed necessary—whether it is intended to compensate for some shortage or defect in that manual, or as a "plus something" designed to increase its value. In any event it is a very useful little manual giving a résumé of the more salient structural features of the crayfish, frog, snake, and such denizens of the pond as the dragon-fly, water beetle, gnat, caddis fly, and fresh-water molluscs, together with notes on common trees. The subject matter is valuable and interesting, and the line illustrations are numerous and excellent.

F. H. S.

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ELEMENTARY GENERAL SCIENCE. Book III. By A. G. HUGHES, B.Sc., Ph.D., M.Ed., and J. H. PANTON, B.A. Pp. 140. Blackie. Limp Cloth, 2s. 3d.; Cloth Board, 2s. 6d.

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F. H. S.

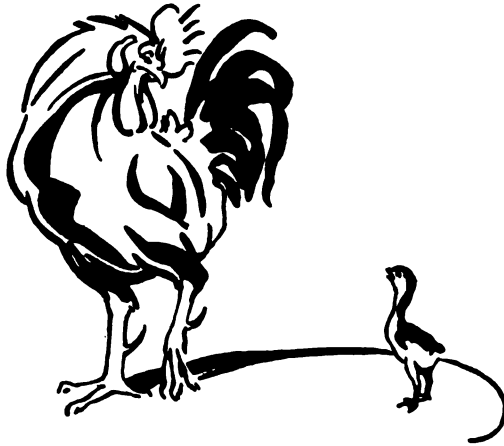
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R. J.

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With these exceptions, the Board will only be prepared to entertain applications for bursaries payable after January 1st, 1936, from persons who can satisfy the Board that their financial circumstances are such that a bursary at a rate not exceeding £30 a year will enable them to enter upon the curriculum for dental students.

Subject to the foregoing modification of the present scheme of awards, bursaries will continue to be awarded to those candidates who, in the opinion of the Board, are the most suitable for the profession of dentistry, and cannot enter it without financial assistance.

Meetings for the selection of candidates will usually be held in March and September of each year.

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January, 1934.

By order of the Senatus.

W. A. FLEMING, Secretary to the University.

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THE EDUCATION OUTLOOK

Honorary Editor: FRANK ROSCOE



Summer 1934
Volume XI, No. 2

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CONTENTS

	PAGE
ON PULLING TOGETHER	69
THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS	70
FROM THE OUTLOOK TOWER	73
CHARLES HADDON SPURGEON	79
LABORATORY DANGERS	81
BRITISH INSTITUTE IN PARIS	82
OLD TULIP	83
RESEARCH IN EDUCATION	85
Mr. T. G. TIBBEY	92
A TEACHER'S WORK IN A SPECIAL SCHOOL	93
CRICKET STORIES IN THE '80's	95
THE RURAL TEACHER—SHOULD HE KEEP A DIARY?	99
UNIVERSITY OF BESANÇON.. .. .	100
ORPHEUS AND THE PEDAGOGUE	101
PUZZLES AND PROBLEMS	102
GLEANINGS	104
BOOKS AND THE MAN	105
REVIEWS	106
BOOKS RECEIVED	126

THE EDUCATION OUTLOOK

VOL. XI. No. 2.

SUMMER 1934

ON PULLING TOGETHER

THE President of the Board recently surprised his many friends by making public his reply to a letter received from an association of teachers. The letter itself was not published, nor were the senders named at first, but the reply was vigorous and admonitory in the extreme. Apparently Lord Halifax had been vexed by what he took to be a charge against the Government of breach of faith. He rebutted the charge with emphasis and incidentally seemed to suggest that those who wrote to him were lacking in courtesy.

After a brief interval, during which the officials of various associations disclaimed all knowledge of the offending epistle, it was revealed that the authors were a body no less important than the Joint Four, a committee representing the four associations of secondary school teachers. They have since assured Lord Halifax that no offence was intended. Meanwhile the President's admonition had the harmful result of strengthening in the public mind the view that teachers are asking too much.

It is difficult to imagine the head of the Admiralty, the War Office, or any other department of state quarrelling openly with its servants. Apart from any question of breach of faith, Lord Halifax might have tried to picture himself in the position of, say, an assistant master who became a teacher on the fair promise of the original Burnham Scales with non-contributory pension and now finds that he must accept a greatly reduced salary and pay towards his pension. In many instances he has been compelled to buy a house, with consequent mortgage payments. He has placed his children at school and must pay fees. These burdens he cannot evade without notice. Yet in 1931 a tenth of his salary was taken off without notice, and he suspects that this was done only because the Government dared not risk an all-round increase of income tax.

The progress of education is hampered by bickering between the Board, the Local Authorities, and the Teachers. All three should be trying to understand their difficulties instead of meeting only to refute each other with cunning argument or eloquent remonstrance. Let Parliament say how much the country can afford to spend on education, and then let the three partners work together to spend it wisely.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS

Executive : THE TEACHERS REGISTRATION COUNCIL

Readers are asked to note that although the EDUCATION OUTLOOK will contain in every number a record of the Royal Society of Teachers and of the proceedings of its Executive—The Teachers Registration Council—these bodies are not responsible for the views expressed by the Editor or by contributors and correspondents.

THE FUTURE OF THE REGISTER

AS was indicated in the Spring Number of the EDUCATION OUTLOOK the position of the Registration movement has now become the subject of joint discussions between representatives of the Board of Education and representatives of the Teachers Registration Council. Briefly the situation is that the Council has secured the support of over 96,000 teachers, who have voluntarily applied for admission to the Register with no immediate prospect of personal advantage. It may be assumed that this widespread support was given because teachers as a body desire to be recognized as a profession.

But in every profession properly so called the members have some share in determining the standards of admission and in maintaining standards of behaviour. They also, and rightly, expect to be consulted on all matters affecting professional practice. These aims are attainable only by a united profession acting through elected representatives. In the Registration Council and in the Royal Society of Teachers we have adequate machinery for obtaining a reasonable amount of self-government, and for exercising influence on educational policy, so far as this affects the whole body and is not concerned with sectional interests. Recently the Council has had under consideration an outline statement of policy submitted by an important association of teachers. This statement was discussed very fully and has been approved by the Council under the following main heads :—

1. There is need for an organization which shall include all qualified teachers as members of a united profession.
2. The Royal Society of Teachers should fill this position.
3. The AIMS of this organization should be to raise the status of teachers as a body by :
 - a. Securing a larger measure of self-government for the profession ;
 - b. Determining the minimum professional qualifications for practising teachers ;
 - c. Promoting measures to ensure that only persons possessing adequate qualifications shall teach in any type of school or institution, public or private. This purpose should not be interpreted in a way likely

to restrict experiments and developments in the technique of teaching, or in the provision of an education directed towards satisfying specific needs of the industrial and commercial life of the nation.

4. In fulfilment of these aims the duties of the Royal Society of Teachers should be :
 - a. To fix the minimum educational attainments of teachers in regard to attainments and professional training ;
 - b. To determine the amount of experience required before a teacher becomes eligible as a fully registered Member ;
 - c. To withdraw the privilege of Membership (and thereby the right to teach) for unprofessional conduct ;
 - d. To encourage educational research ;
 - e. To take action when questions concerning education are before Parliament or the general public.
5. Any steps which would turn, or tend to turn, the Royal Society of Teachers into an examining body are undesirable.
6. The finances should be derived from a Registration Fee.

DISCUSSIONS WITH THE BOARD

MEANWHILE representatives of the Board of Education are meeting representatives of the Teachers Registration Council for the purpose of examining the possibilities of closer co-operation between the two bodies. The chief points to be discussed are the following, all of which are contained or implied in the statement of policy given above :—

1. The possibility of taking steps towards securing that none save Registered Teachers shall exercise professional supervision over the work of other teachers.
2. The possibility of using the Council as a nominating body to appoint representative teachers on the Consultative Committee and on other committees formed by the Board and including teachers, save such committees as deal with salary questions.
3. The possibility of taking the opinion of the Council on all new developments of educational policy.
4. The possibility of referring to the Council in the first instance all charges of professional misconduct on the part of teachers.
5. The possibility of linking up the work of the new Educational Research Council with the Department of Special Inquiries and Reports.

RESEARCH IN EDUCATION

THE final meeting of the Conference summoned by the Council to discuss proposals for the establishment of an Educational Research Council was held on Saturday, May 26. A Report of the Interim Committee was submitted and approved with certain verbal

amendments. The scheme provides for the establishment of an Educational Research Council which will include representatives of Teachers, Universities, Training Colleges, Local Education Authorities, Directors and Secretaries for Education, School Medical Officers, Psychologists, and others having an interest in educational research.

The Council will work through an Executive which will include persons who have special knowledge of the technique of research and of its bearing on educational practice. It will meet at least once a year to receive reports from the Executive. The Council will arrange for collecting and making known the results of research through such channels as: (a) Articles in educational journals, giving summarized and easily intelligible accounts of current research and its bearing on educational practice; and (b) Pamphlets dealing with special investigations, and issued as occasion requires. Such pamphlets may afterwards be bound together and published as volumes of "Transactions."

A collection will gradually be formed of books and other publications dealing with educational research at home and abroad, thus affording a body of information to which teachers and others interested may refer. For institutions, groups, or individuals engaged in research the help of the Council will be available in (a) ascertaining whether a proposed research has already been carried out or is being carried out elsewhere, (b) bringing inquirers into touch with sources of information and possible assistance, (c) providing for the publication of results, and (d) as funds permit, making grants in aid of approved investigations. It should be noted that the Educational Research Council will not establish a laboratory or undertake research on its own behalf. Still less will it attempt to interfere with the activities of institutions, groups, or individuals who are engaged in research. Its functions will be to act as a clearing house or co-ordinating medium, economizing effort and especially helping to make known in suitable form the results of research so far as these affect educational practice.

The Royal Society of Teachers is prepared to provide clerical help in the early stages of the work, but in addition it will be necessary to obtain the services of a qualified secretary, even if the appointment is not a full-time one.

The experience of the Scottish Council for Research in Education suggests that in order that the work of the Council may be started on a satisfactory scale there should be provided for the first few years an annual income of not less than £2000. Associations and individuals interested in the project are therefore invited to help in establishing the Council on a satisfactory basis by making early contributions to the funds in the form of either subscriptions or donations. Early support of this kind will be needed to give publicity to the Council's existence and aims and to provide for the initial expenses involved.

FROM THE OUTLOOK TOWER

ST. SEBASTIAN IN WHITEHALL

LORD HALIFAX is to be pardoned if he displays some impatience with the constant and varied demands upon his attention. He is a kind of modern St. Sebastian, a target for the arrows of many associations, groups, and individuals. In organizations of teachers there is a bewildering tendency to proliferation. It might be supposed that teachers in public elementary schools would have ample ground for common action, but we find them divided into sections, some of which accept the authority of the big National Union of Teachers while others do not. It is possible to enumerate at least half a dozen associations in the elementary field. The secondary schools have five, not counting the "subject" associations such as the Science Masters, while the specialist branches have sometimes as many as four associations for one subject, each body claiming to speak with authority.

Yet the basic principles of a sound educational system are not beyond the reach of scientific investigation and careful experiment. In their application they may be altered from time to time to meet current needs, but nothing is gained by wrangling over the interests of groups or the relative value of "subjects." The importance of education transcends all these sectional disputes.

THE SCHOOL AGE

AN increasing number of Local Education Authorities display willingness to raise the leaving age to fifteen in their areas, but the Board of Education are withholding permission on the ground that local action of this kind is undesirable. Our experience with the Continuation School clauses of the Fisher Act shows that the Board are probably right in their prophecy, but the remedy would seem to be that the school age should be raised all round.

In some quarters it is held that the raising of the school age to fifteen is far less important than attendance at Day Continuation Schools up to the age of eighteen. If a choice between these alternatives were necessary it may be that Day Continuation Schools for all would be better than a raising of the school age without Continuation Schools. On the other hand it must be remembered that the reorganization contemplated in the Hadow Report on the Education of the Adolescent calls for four years in a junior Secondary School after the age of eleven, and it may be supposed that if Hadow schools were established on the lines contemplated in the Report, those leaving them would be ready and willing to attend Continuation Schools. Parsimony, masquerading as economy, is leading us into a serious neglect of youth.

YOUTH AND CRIME

THERE is a disquieting growth in the number of youthful offenders against the law, and this calls for the earnest attention of all who care for the future of the country. The increase is hardly to be wondered at when we reflect that in some districts there are many boys who have not had a regular job since they left school some years ago. Under the new Unemployment Act juvenile instruction centres are to be established and unemployed youths and girls are to be compelled to attend. These centres, oddly enough, are to be controlled not by the Board of Education but by the Ministry of Labour, and one can hardly envy the lot of teachers who may be employed in them. Their pupils will be in and out of the centre according to the condition of the labour market and the demand for their services in industry, and it is hardly to be expected either that those who attend will be willing and eager to receive instruction or that those in charge will be able to provide systematic and ordered discipline either physical or mental. Having in mind the fact that during the next few years we shall have a great increase in the number of school leavers, we might well order both the raising of the leaving age and a provision of Day Continuation Schools for the whole country.

SOME CRITICISMS

CRITICS are heard to say that to raise the school age would merely extend the period of what they regard as a tedious and unprofitable process of schooling. Some have even suggested that teachers want the school age to be raised in order to provide more posts for themselves. These critics do not take note of the recommendations of the Hadow Committee, which were all in favour of a new and less pedagogical form of instruction between the ages of eleven and fifteen. It is intended that the "modern school" should justify its name by giving ample scope to the interests and activities of the young adolescent. These might be further developed in the Continuation Schools with the help of voluntary agencies such as now exist. We must rid our minds of the notion that education consists only in giving instruction in "subjects," and try to comprehend it as a process of adjustment to the needs and conditions of a modern community. Bodily fitness, manual skill, and experience of social life are at least as necessary for the individual as a knowledge of dates or an understanding of isobars, and young people in whom these qualities are fostered will have no need to seek adventure in minor challenges to the law, but will be in training to play their proper part as citizens. As things are, we are throwing good material to the scrap heap, and accumulating a heavy debt for the next generation to meet.

CIVIC TRAINING

A NEW association has been formed to promote what is called "education in citizenship." It is difficult to see how a sensible system of education can fail to produce good citizens. For children, at any rate, it is something of a waste of time to give instruction in such matters as the law and history of the Constitution or the machinery of Local and Central Government. These are matters for the consideration of young men and women rather than boys and girls. There is further some risk that in emphasizing the importance of the topic known as "civics" we may establish in the minds of the young a false idea of the relation between the State and the individual.

We may learn from certain countries in Europe how easy it is to embark on the effort to mould a citizen to pattern and to make patriotism a subject of regulation and control. Our British tradition is wholly opposed to this kind of thing, and we shall do well to be on our guard against inculcating a narrow nationalism under the plausible title of "citizenship." Our political system demands for its successful working that all members of the community shall be able to distinguish between sound political theory and the wiles of the demagogue. It has been well said that the main purpose of education should be to enable a man to distinguish between a hypothesis or guess and a statement accompanied by proof.

HISTORY IN GERMANY

THE organization called the "Friends of Europe," which has its headquarters at St. Stephen's House, Westminster, is performing a valuable service by publishing a series of cheap pamphlets (2½d. each, post free) on the new Germany. Nine pamphlets have already appeared, and the writers include Professor Einstein, Sir Austen Chamberlain, and Mr. Wickham Steed. One of the latest is anonymous, but it has a perface by Professor Ernest Barker. It consists mainly of extracts from a Nazi School History Book entitled *The Awakening of the Nation*, which is widely used as a textbook, not only in Bavaria but in other parts of Germany. As Professor Barker puts it, the new Germany is creating a legend which fans national pride and tends to encourage dislike of other nations. Verse and song are used to impress upon children that Germany suffered a great wrong in 1914 and a monstrous injustice in 1918. Here is one question with the answer suggested; "What does our Chancellor Hitler want?" "He wants to lock up the Godless Communists and to drive out the Jews. He wants a proper Government and an army. He wants to help the peasants and to give every German work. He wants to make the German people powerful again."

NATIONALISM IN SCHOOL

WE do well to refrain from rancorous criticism of the Nazi textbook, however much we may deplore the kind of nationalism which it seeks to engender and however much we may detest the Hitler policy. The war has intensified everywhere the worst forms of national self-seeking, and the present condition of international relations offers some difficult problems to educators of youth. Yet in essence the problems are one, and they are possible of solution without any sacrifice of national pride or any appeal to exaggerated notions of the "brotherhood of nations." It is not uncommon for two families to live in adjoining villas, or fifty families to live in the same street, without attempting to kill each other, though they are not related by ties of blood and may be hardly on speaking terms. Each family will naturally seek its own welfare and comfort, but if it does this by damaging a neighbour then the law can be invoked. The weakness and uncertainty of international law is our greatest danger, and we ought to balance our teaching of patriotism by a full exposition of the aims and achievements of the Permanent Court of International Justice. Rightly used and supported the Court is our best defence against the madness of war.

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION

THE Board of Education have published a report of a conference on the provision of increased opportunities for teachers to equip themselves for giving religious instruction. It is a timid document, offering no suggestion of any real value. We are told that religious instruction is a matter of increasing interest to teachers and Local Authorities. We know that it appears on the time-tables of most elementary schools, but the report tells us that this is not so in all secondary schools. Here the subject is taken throughout the course in about three-quarters of the girls' schools, one-half of the boys' schools, and a quarter of the mixed schools. There is a tendency to drop the subject either before the First Certificate Examination or, more commonly, in the Sixth Form. Thus secondary school pupils who intend to become teachers may enter the training colleges with little equipment in this subject. At college their aim is to obtain a degree or recognition as certificated teachers, and religious instruction forms no part of these studies. The report says that the balance of opinion of the conference was against the suggestion that religion should form an optional subject in the Certificate tests, but it is hoped that Universities and Training Colleges will help to provide a supply of teachers competent to undertake the teaching of Scripture in secondary schools. How they are to do this is not made clear, nor will the attempt be without serious difficulties.

A DIFFICULT SUBJECT

THE history of our elementary school system shows that religious instruction bristles with difficulties. The subject demands special knowledge and skill in the teacher, and any mistake in handling it may arouse violent feelings in those whose religious belief finds expression in sincere and devout attachment to some particular creed. Yet in the provided elementary school the teacher is expected to give religious instruction detached from dogma. Many succeed in giving a valuable course of moral teaching, based on the Bible, and they also impart a useful outline of the Scriptures. The difficulty is that we do not train or appoint teachers for this purpose solely or even mainly. The Scripture lesson forms only one item in the day's work. This is true even of those non-provided schools wherein a "religious atmosphere" is fostered by denominational management. We cannot expect that all teachers will be theologians or even equipped as curates. If religious instruction is to achieve anything of permanent value it must be undertaken by the clergy, and the various churches should provide for their ministers a training in this branch of teaching. Thus equipped, the clergy might be able to attract young people to the Sunday Schools, and in the day schools they might hold voluntary classes at the end of the day's work, as permitted by the present law.

CUPID AND CULTURE

IT is announced that Miss Eleanor Dodge, Dean of Vassar College, the well-known college for women in U.S.A., has ordained that students may marry and continue their studies as before. Secret marriages, however, are forbidden, and married students must continue to live in their spinster hostels. Miss Dodge has explained that the College authorities find that long engagements involve an emotional strain and that secret marriages, such as have been not infrequent in the past, result in deceit and lying, and thus cause unhappiness and trouble both to the young wife and to her husband. Apparently the disturbance of mind produced by Cupid's darts is to be cured by marriage. At first sight this seems to be a somewhat cynical view of matrimony, and it is to be hoped that the young ladies who avail themselves of the new permission will not settle down to their studies in a state of disillusionment and philosophic resignation.

In the southern branch of the University of California the authorities have gone one better than Miss Dodge, for they have provided a hostel for the accommodation of married couples. Boy and girl undergraduates who find themselves irresistibly drawn to each other can marry and settle down before taking their degrees.

THE AMATEUR TEACHER

MR. MICHAEL W. BEAUMONT, M.P. for Aylesbury, recently expressed the view that true educational progress lies in the direction of more judicious selection of teachers, and in facilitating the entry into the profession of older men and women with experience outside teaching. This he holds to be far more important than the imposition of training qualifications which render difficult the entry into teaching work and, he says, in the view of many people tend to contract rather than expand the teacher's outlook. Mr. Beaumont thinks that the trouble with our present teaching is that too many teachers have never in their lives been outside the atmosphere of schools.

While there is much to be said for giving teachers a wider experience of life and affairs, the conditions and remuneration of teaching work will have to be greatly improved before we can hope to find recruits of mature age with the kind of experience which Mr. Beaumont values. Even if we did secure them, they would find it none too easy to handle a group of pupils and to teach them successfully. For this some form of apprenticeship would be required, and the best form would probably be found in a year of training service spent under the guidance of an experienced teacher, and accompanied by some study of the methods and principles of teaching.

THE POLITE LETTER-WRITER

FROM the tone of his letter to "an association of teachers" we may gather that Lord Halifax holds strong views on courtesy in correspondence. It is a pity that these were not revealed sooner. Even now it is not too late for the Board to compile and issue in one of their little green books a summary of rules for the polite letter-writer. Let him be told that while his sense of grievance is acute his pen must never be blunt. If he writes to the modern Colossians who dwell in Whitehall his epistle must be blotted with soft sawder and sealed with lick-spittle. A decorous humility must pervade his protest with an urbane resolve to "speak low and in a bondsman's key." Thus he may avoid the peril of being pilloried in the public press. He may even hope for the reward of public commendation from both the Prime Minister and the President of the Board. His demure demeanour will deserve a pat on the head instead of a verbal buffeting. By his meekness he will be entitled in due course to inherit the earth, even though a present instalment of one shilling in the pound on his salary is denied him. Politeness costs nothing, and it may be prudent if the other fellow has the gun.

CHARLES HADDON SPURGEON THE TEACHER WHO TURNED PREACHER

By J. RONALD WILLIAMS

THE centenary of the birth of Charles Haddon Spurgeon provides an opportunity for interesting educational comparisons and contrasts. This "Prince of Preachers" who was born at Kelvedore in Kent in June, 1834, started his career as a teacher, and his recollections contain many references to schooldays and school-ways.

He started at a Dame School in the days of slates and pencils, when the pupils had to provide their farthings for the latter. And it was a debt incurred for the purchase of one of these pencils, that gave his father the opportunity to lecture him on the evils of speculation.

After this he proceeded to Stockwell School, Colchester. There he held his position at the top of the class until he found that the boys at the bottom were much more comfortably placed. They sat near the only stove in the draughtly room. In those days it was the general practice to give many oral tests. If a pupil succeeded in answering a question at which more highly placed boys had failed, he was moved above them. Spurgeon wanted comfort. Therefore, much to his master's annoyance, he allowed other pupils to usurp his position until he arrived at the bottom of the class. His dullness in oral work persisted, but his standard in written work was maintained. Investigations followed, and Spurgeon had to confess why he had lost his place. But he won his point, for after this in cold weather the order of progress was reversed.

St. Augustine's College, Maidstone, next claimed him as a pupil. This school was conducted by his uncle, David Walker, a man who had views of his own on punishment, making it not so much fit as resemble the offence. Thus, some boys who had stolen a free boat trip on the river were surprised to find themselves rudely awakened at midnight and commanded to row over the course they had covered during their escapade.

On one occasion, the nephew's precocity brought him into trouble. He had the temerity to call his uncle's attention to a mistake he had made on the blackboard during a mathematics lesson. A private lecture followed on actions which were "derogatory to the dignity of a headmaster." To prevent any further incidents of a similar nature Charles was sent to pursue his mathematical studies in an adjoining field, and, incidentally, formulate tables for a life assurance company—a task which his uncle had undertaken.

Spurgeon's removal to Newmarket School, whither he went as "usher

and articulated pupil," saw the beginning of his career as a schoolmaster. While at this school his interest in theological and religious problems, which had been awakened at Maidstone, was deepened. It was there that he made his first recorded speech, the occasion being a missionary meeting over which he presided.

The stay at Newmarket was short, for within a few months he went to a Cambridge school to act as usher and "receive such help in his studies as would enable him to qualify for public life." But he was to receive no salary. It was at Cambridge that his actual preaching career commenced, and the "Boy Preacher," as he came to be known, drew large congregations to his meetings. The head master tried to persuade him to become a schoolmaster, and in his letters referred to the assistant usher's wonderful influence over the boys. When it became known that a London Church was seeking his services the head tried to induce him to stay in the school by offering him a salary of £10 per year!

Spurgeon was then nineteen, and it was evident from an advertisement of the time that he hoped to combine preaching and teaching. The announcement read:—

"Mr. Spurgeon begs to inform his numerous friends that after Christmas he intends to open a school for six or seven young gentlemen, where he will impart a good commercial education, including Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry and Mensuration; Grammar and Composition; Ancient and Modern History; Geography and Astronomy; Scripture and Drawing. Latin, and the elements of French and Greek, if required." But his acceptance of the London pastorate killed the school before it was established.

When the new Board Schools were established Spurgeon was critical. An intimate friend of his who conducted a private school, and to whom Spurgeon had been indebted for many kindnesses, had fallen on evil days. The preacher, in a letter of sympathy, pictured his friend as "struggling against the difficult circumstances which Board Schools have created for private ventures."

In spite of this, however, he possessed the essential gifts of a great educator. Though his genius had enabled him to succeed without a ministerial training course, he realized how necessary it was. We therefore find him, early in his ministry, establishing the Pastor's College. Often scorned as a charlatan and derided because of so-called extreme religious views, he nevertheless showed himself a true educationist in choosing his staff. Though he insisted on Christian gentlemen holding a post, he did not apply denominational tests. His main concern was to find the best teacher for a particular subject. He can also be regarded as a pioneer of adult education. Evening classes were instituted at the Pastor's College, and all who wished to do so could attend and pursue their studies without payment.

LABORATORY DANGERS

By A SCIENCE MASTER

IT may be that an awakened interest on the writer's part, or increased publicity in the Press, or the spread of science teaching, makes laboratory accidents seem to him to be increasing. While varying a good deal in their nature, a large number of the mishaps are traceable in some measure to the technique of the master in charge.

The school "lab" is, or can be, a most dangerous place for boys. Yet, as it is now a familiar part of the school's equipment, the risks are forgotten and few walk circumspectly among them. A young man fresh from the profundities of an honours course may without ado take his first chemistry class. It may be that thirty boys are at his mercy, and nothing exists to shield them from the possibilities of his inexperience. He knows all there is to know about the elements and their behaviour under given conditions of temperature and pressure and so forth, but he knows less than nothing of the amazing possibilities which arise when those same elements are studied by inquisitive and unruly fourteen-year-olds. If, in his eagerness that each boy should make his own discoveries, he gives each of the class a piece of phosphorus, who is to tell him of the dire consequences if someone should play the fool?

In a recent case which received much publicity caustic soda was the remedy suggested for acid burns, and this from a science master who should have known better. This plainly shows that the correct procedure was not known by one at least who should have had it at his finger tips. There are probably scores of "labs" in the country with no bottle of sodium bicarbonate solution ready for emergencies. The accidents which may happen are too serious to be lightly regarded. Acid burns with consequent scarring or loss of eyesight due to flying glass splinters are the two most likely to occur. There should be a specialized First Aid scheme drawn up, and the masters concerned should be compelled to acquire a first-hand knowledge of it.

But since prevention is better than cure, the combined experience of all the older masters should in some way be placed at the disposal of beginners. It could be part of the teacher's training. At present one learns slowly by bitter experience, sometimes at the expense of injury to the boys in the class, but oftener by the happy chance of escapes. Every syllabus contains hidden pitfalls, the dangers not revealing themselves, it may be, until the third or fourth time over the ground, perhaps never at all, perhaps by a serious accident, and perhaps by a near call. These experiences should be pooled and studied by the tyro before he begins laboratory teaching.

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A good example came to the writer's notice recently. In the preparation of oxygen, lampblack was used in mistake for manganese dioxide. Serious damage resulted. How easily this could happen to any of us! Few would have foreseen such a mistake. Disregarding the difference in weight of the two black powders, the writer at least will always see to it in future that manganese dioxide is being used and not a dangerous substitute.

Ignorance is bliss! What sleepless nights there would be for parents did they but realize the fullest meaning of the remark: "We're having a new science master next term, Dad"! The writer, by experience gained over a period of six years, has reached a point where a class is reasonably safe in his care, without fuss or bother or being denied the right of individual experiment. Those six years have seen a number of narrow escapes, one of which is worth recording. To avoid loss of time in fitting up elaborate apparatus for each pair, and also to minimize pollution of the air, chlorine was being prepared in test-tubes with little delivery tubes attached. The latter in one case became choked and the cork blew out. Boiling acid spurted over the boy's chest and face. Nose, cheeks, lips, and eyelids were burned. I was hurriedly applying limewater and dilute ammonium hydrate when my senior man came to my help with bicarbonate solution. For the first time I learned of its efficacy. By great good fortune the boy's eyes were unhurt and the bicarbonate prevented even the slightest disfigurement. Thus did I learn to enforce the seemingly obvious rule that test-tubes must always be pointed away from the body, and that the delivery tube in this experiment must be of good size. But why should that boy's eyesight have been endangered by my inexperience and ignorance of laboratory risks?

BRITISH INSTITUTE IN PARIS

THE Selection Committee of the British Institute in Paris, presided over by Sir Henry Pelham, the Secretary of the Board of Education, have awarded the following scholarships for the year 1934-5:—

Esmond Scholarship: Miss Zena Warren Goddard, B.A., of King's College, London.

British Institute Scholarships: Mr. Norman Omar Barnes, B.A., of Manchester University; Mr. Frederick A. Hare, M.A., of the University of Toronto; Mr. Claude J. Hayes, B.A., of Oxford University; and Mr. Frederick West, B.A., of Sheffield and St. Andrews Universities.

In addition the Committee awarded six grants to Training College Students to enable them to spend the third year of their training in Paris.

OLD TULIP

By OLIVER WARNER

EVER since the disreputable Mace—aged fifteen—brought a pot into form containing a red tulip, and put it on Burnaby's desk as an end-of-term offering, the name had stuck to the old master. "Ee—thank you, Mace, for this singularly inappropriate votive offering," he had said icily. "The form-room is no place for tulips, even if it is the end of term, and if you weren't leaving I should cane you."

If the gift was inappropriate, the nickname was equally so, though it had a certain irony. Burnaby, far from handsome, lent himself easily to caricature. His reddish hair was confined to a narrow fringe at the sides of his head, whose top was exceedingly shiny, and looked as if it were oiled and polished every morning. He had little blue eyes, which looked at you very straight over his spectacles if you sat in the front row of the class; a large nose, with a hair or two almost at the end, just below where he poised his spectacles; a red moustache, stained with tobacco, which hid his mouth; a firm chin; and a stoop. The whole effect was of a rather vindictive beetle.

Though a man of fiery temper and great irritancy, he was a sportsman at heart. Duty came first with him, always; but there must be a trifling allowance for the nature of the boy. And so when he arrived late into form he gave a little cough, quite loud enough to be heard in advance in the classroom, to signify his approach. But once in form sportsmanship must be left till the break. He would put his chalk and box of throat pastilles on the desk, give another little cough, and the hour would begin.

No one ever learned anything from old Tulip—that was admitted on all sides—except to sit still. Officially he taught English, and generally a novel of Scott was the term's work, with perhaps a play of Shakespeare. The form sat in alphabetical order, and each boy read aloud in turn. Those who read badly, or fidgeted, or played, or had to be spoken to twice stood on the form; a second offence entailed an imposition; a third, or any kind of insolence, a caning. And Tulip caned hard.

After a chapter had been read, Tulip would say "Stop," and a breath of anticipation was then heard throughout the form. It meant questions. He would choose a sentence, preferably a long and involved one, and the form would first analyse it, and afterwards parse every word. This, to Tulip's mind, was the real business of the day, and woe betide the boy who could not differentiate between an adjectival, relational, and any other kind of clause. He taught Greek by the same method to a

chosen few, with the result that the modern side became exceedingly popular.

Most of the form (when they had done their impositions) forgot Tulip out of school, unless they happened to be in the Second Eleven, which he used to coach in fielding; and very well, too, as everyone who had escaped into the First admitted. Only one or two, not singled out in form for favouritism in any way, were privileged to know the Burnaby of his own room.

It was a strange bare room, well worth noticing. There were just two pictures on the walls: one a water-colour of Vesuvius in eruption, done by an old pupil; and another of a college cricket team at Oxford, 1882, with Burnaby in the front row of the group holding a ball, for he had been a fine bowler in his day. Over the mantelpiece were two bronze swords, found on the Downs near his home in Sussex on a day of great triumph, and a rack of pipes, all beautifully polished, though seldom used, for one of Burnaby's conceits was that he could roll a cigarette that would last as long as any pipe.

There were a few books: a large classical dictionary, a lexicon, two books on glass, one on lead statuary, and Burton's *Anatomy*. In a corner were two packing cases containing glass and trays of coins, and on the table a large unfinished catalogue of the School Museum, of which he was Curator.

He had the fifth finest collection of glass in England, and contributed articles to the *Connoisseur* and the *Burlington*; but glass was not his real passion. For years part of his income had been saved for an expedition to Sicily. It was a very small part, for he had to keep himself and his maiden sister, and his pay was inconsiderable. Sicily was where he had always longed to end his days. School, collecting, everything was only a means to an end, and Sicily was the end.

Fate thought otherwise; and the last chapter in the old schoolmaster's career was sad. The numbers of the school became reduced, and the staff had to be cut down. The inspector's report was against Burnaby's methods, which were described as "archaic." He had to go. They broke it to him as tactfully as they could, but the shock was considerable. There was then no pension scheme by which he could benefit, and he had to sell his glass.

He never got to Sicily, but on his last morning his form made him another presentation. This time it was a coin, one for which he had been hunting for years. It had been bought cheaply from Lancashire's father, who happened to be a famous dealer. Spoken a little shakily, Burnaby's words of acknowledgment were these: "Boys, I thank you, and I would ask you to remember this. In life, discipline is the thing, but in everything there is compensation."

RESEARCH IN EDUCATION

By E. R. HAMILTON, M.A., B.Sc., *Principal, Borough Road College*

I. WHAT IS EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH ?

IN the world of education proposals are often made which claim to be new, or are regarded by many people as new, but which on closer inspection are found to be as old as the hills. If we are to succeed in the attempt to secure a wider recognition of the claims of educational research we must be prepared to show that the ideas we are advocating are healthily alive and possess the capacity for purposeful growth which is characteristic of a living thing. If educational research fails to attain the status in the educational profession its advocates believe it ought to have, that will not be entirely due to mere conservative prejudice to new ideas. Indeed, opposition to ideas merely because they are new usually breaks down in time if the ideas are of real value. But we may hasten a reform by explaining its significance. Widespread explanation of its significance is what educational research now most needs, for it is suffering not so much from active opposition as from neglect (outside a field which, relative to the educational profession as a whole, is small), and from certain misconception on the part of people who should be amongst its most earnest disciples.

What is "research"? Is it just systematic inquiry? So wide a definition is hardly useful, and is rendered ambiguous by the word "systematic." Quintilian, Comenius, Herbart, and a score of others who have furthered or hindered the progress of education certainly thought systematically, yet they did not carry out what we now call "educational research." The thought of some whose names appear in the history of education, such as Helvetius or Ratke, was systematically wrong. System, like patriotism, is not enough. Some thinkers achieve "system" by ignoring "fact"; indeed, the building up of a system of philosophy has more than once been a form of escape from the world as the philosopher found it. Inquiry becomes "research" only when it is carried out with the maximum degree of impartiality of which we are capable. It is by the attitude of free inquiry, by the disinclination to accept any statement as true unless it can be verified by methods that all competent people will accept as valid, that research is characterized. The researcher must be a philosopher; he must think clearly and be guided by a code of values which is sanctioned by reasonable people: but he must also be a natural philosopher; that is to say, it must be a basic principle for him, as it is for students of natural science, that truth does not come to him who only sits and thinks. He must try to frame hypotheses which will synthesize the various data he has collected; and he must verify his hypotheses. Whether he be

engaged in psychological, historical, or any other form of research he must exercise that impartial care in the collection of data and that caution in inference from the data which is the chief characteristic of thinkers in the field of natural science. In its broadest sense the appeal for research in education is an appeal for systematic, cautious, objective investigation of all the many problems, psychological, historical, methodological, sociological, that bear upon education.

Educational research, in the sense of investigation conducted in the spirit and by the methods of science, has evidently great utility. We know a good deal less about human beings than we do about stocks and stones, and if men find the caution, the humility, and the empirical method of science necessary in dealing with the non-human world, it is possible they will find the same qualities of value in "the proper study of mankind." But there are at least two conditions for the valid application of scientific method to the study of educational problems. The first condition is that the data sought by such research shall have a significant bearing upon reputable educational values. We must recognize that we cannot decide wholly by scientific method *what* inquiries shall be carried out, nor can we decide by scientific method whether that method is applicable to the solution of a particular problem. The worth-whileness of researches must be decided by a code of values which cannot be constructed solely by applying scientific method to experience of life. The dependence of educational research upon values has been curiously overlooked by some people. Research of a detailed and technical kind has sometimes been applied to solve problems of the smallest educational significance, or to answer questions the mere asking of which revealed gross ignorance. Thus, the enormous literature of research into the best methods of "drill" in arithmetic is out of all proportion to the educational importance of drill. Again, when a writer asserts that a knowledge of the definitions employed in any subject is the necessary foundation of sound understanding of the subject (I quote from an educational journal not published in this country) and then proceeds, with impressive statistical technique, to inquire what list of definitions in physics it is best to draw up for the beginner to learn by heart, he proves himself incapable of sensible thinking about education. Some researchers vainly attempt to shelve the problem of educational values, or to solve it by wrong methods. When we find researchers attempting to construct the school curriculum by trying to take a kind of photograph of the present uses of various "subjects" in the business and social worlds, regarding Subject A as twice as important as Subject B, if 200 people say that A is valuable, while only 100 support B, we conclude that two things have gone wrong with the researchers. They are using the wrong technique to solve their problems; and they should be leading more normal, sensitive, balanced

lives. The technique they have not mastered is that of sensitive and intelligent living, and that is the first essential for effective educational research.

The second essential for successful educational research is that the technique employed must be appropriate. The most frequent violation of this principle takes the form of unjustifiable use of quantitative and statistical methods. As educational research grows, new techniques of inquiry will develop, but it will always be necessary to view technical educational research in perspective with a general philosophy of education of which the results of such research are only part of the data. It is especially important at the present time that we should attempt to understand clearly the part that research can play in educational thinking and practice, and to recognize its limitations no less than its enormous importance.

II. IS A "SCIENCE OF EDUCATION" POSSIBLE?

The application of scientific and mathematical concepts to psychological and educational theory was attempted over a century ago by Herbart. Not until much later in the nineteenth century, however, did investigators apply to the study of children that careful, controlled observation which is one of the characteristics of scientific method. The rapid progress of natural science during the last century influenced educational thought in many ways. It drew a somewhat sterile and illogical theory of education from the pen of Herbert Spencer; it led to eloquent advocacy of the educational claims of science by T. H. Huxley and others; it led Stanley Hall and others to carry out minute observations of children, partly under the inspiration of a particular form of the theory of evolution; it produced Galton's endeavours to apply quantitative methods to the study of human characteristics, from which pioneer attempts started a long line of statistical investigations into mental and physical qualities; and it influenced educational thought in other and less obvious ways. For well over half a century scientific concepts have been permeating educational thought, playing a considerable part in the attempts, collectively called the "theory of education," to synthesize educational ideas. The question whether it is possible to establish a "science of education" must have arisen in many minds during the past fifty years. Indeed, in 1878 appeared a book called *Education as a Science*, which, in point of fact, did not at all justify its title. It seems desirable to attempt to answer the question, "Is a science of education possible?" in the light of the most recent attempts to apply scientific method to the study of educational problems, though I am not sure that the question could not be worded in a less misleading form.

Many students experience a considerable shock in their early study of education and psychology on finding that apparently equally competent people can hold quite divergent views about those subjects. There are no various schools of thought about Quadratic Equations or Boyle's Law, but East and West are hardly farther apart than the views expressed by different schools of psychologists, or by different groups of educational thinkers. In educational theory we find that people will generally agree about statements that are sufficiently general and abstract. But general statements usually have little meaning until they are interpreted at a lower level of abstractness, and then the trouble begins. Whether a "science of education is possible" will depend to some extent upon whether agreement can be reached about essential principles.

When we come to the details of educational practice the varieties of opinion are bewildering. There may be considerable agreement that a fostering of individuality, and of the power to fend for oneself, is, with certain provisos, a good thing. But do we all agree that the Dalton Plan is a good thing? We may agree that the classification of school activities in terms of "subjects" is out of harmony with the way in which children's minds naturally develop. But do we all agree that the Project System is sound? That self-discipline is better than imposed discipline may appear sufficiently obvious. But is the psychology of self-discipline adequately understood, and are we all in agreement that what are called "free discipline schools" have a better influence on character than other schools have? Few are likely to deny that the development of character is an important factor in education. But, even after reading Mr. Shand, some of us do not feel altogether competent to judge character. And we know that often the people who are most eager to develop character in the schools mean by "a man of character" a particular sort of person—the sort that is supposed to be good for running an empire—in fact, a very particular sort of person, who regards as mentally defective anybody who wonders whether an empire should be run at all. Even in matters of less consequence the clash of opinion is remarkable. It is astonishing to observe the fervour with which the merits of a particular method of teaching subtraction are extolled by one teacher and denounced by another, when probably neither teacher has tested his method by reputable scientific methods.

Clashes of opinion about the fundamental principles of education are fatal to the establishment of a positive science of education. If we want to know what chance there is of an educational science we must find the causes of the diversity of opinion on educational matters. The clash may be due entirely to the complexity of the problems in question, and if that is so there should be greater agreement as our knowledge of the data of educational thought increases. To assume that differences of opinion concerning education, or politics, or ethics, are merely due to

lack of knowledge is to make a big assumption, but there can be no doubt that clash of opinion is usually bad for collective action, and that where we can resolve our differences in educational matters we have achieved something worth while. Agreement to differ may strengthen friendship, but it weakens clear thinking.

From one point of view educational research may be said to aim at replacing "mere opinion" by positive knowledge. But what is "opinion"? It is obviously opposed to certain knowledge, for we do not opine if we know. A belief, however, may have any degree of probability from zero to certainty, and opinions may be more dependable or less according to the subject with which they deal, and the person who expresses them. Who is competent to express opinions concerning education? To determine this is less easy than to determine who is competent to hold opinions concerning the theory of relativity. To understand relativity you must master a mathematical technique and be aware of a great deal of research that has been done by masters of that technique. To express useful opinions about education, at any rate concerning many important aspects of education, only the (extremely difficult) technique of living need have been mastered. The grounds for legitimate expression of opinion about many aspects of education are experience of life and culture. It is necessary, of course, to verify in practice any proposals for the conduct of education, and it is possible for a man of culture and broad development to forget that everybody is not as he is. But with these provisos we may say that the educational views of men whose experience of life has been varied, balanced, rich, and constructive, claim the serious consideration of all who are concerned in education.

There is certainly no prospect at present of anything like universal agreement about ethical and sociological principles, and so long as that divergence of opinion continues there will be no science of education in the sense of a universally accepted set of principles governing all educational aims and methods. The values that form the warp of educational thought, as perhaps we may say that something of a "factual" nature forms the woof, are not likely to be universally accepted. There is an art in educational thought just as there is in educational practice. Moreover, the age of Utopias is past: we realize now that ideals are only temporarily frozen ideas, and that it is of the essence of their nature that they change. No unchangeable, universally accepted scheme of educational thought is possible. But that is also true of natural science and all branches of thought. There can be no science of education, just as there can be no science of physics, in the sense of a final, universally accepted body of facts and principles, because change is a quality of both facts and principles. Neither can there ever be a science of education which gives, at any particular time, infallible rules of

educational procedure. There will always be an "art" of education whether or not there is a "science" of education.

There was a time when the "arts" and the "sciences" were not regarded as such different activities as they are now. It really is not easy to see exactly what marks an art off from a science, but an important quality of any art is that it involves a good deal of intuitive action—that is, of action not performed by the conscious application of general principles. A science of education, in order to be a science, must have general principles, which are expressed in terms of abstract ideas. In the practice of education we deal with concrete individualities. Though we may deal effectively with these in educational practice, we can only describe such individualities in educational science in abstract terms. But reliable intuitions do not come to him who only waits for them. The reliability of intuitions, at any rate in the case of the ordinary man, depends largely upon the thought he has given to the principles underlying his art. A science of education would not enable us to dispense with intuition in the art of teaching, but it would control intuition, and so enhance its value. We know that art is long and that life, according to Hobbes (who lived to be 91), is "nasty, brutish and short." The art of education may be very much furthered by the scientific study of education, and we have therefore reason to be glad that the scientific study of education is on the way to receiving the recognition it deserves.

III. RESEARCH AND THE EDUCATIONAL PROFESSION

Speculation about the principles of education is as old as Plato, and older. Few periods have been without teachers or philosophers who wrote books on the aims and practice of education. There has always been the rhythm of forward movement and standstill convention: times when enlightened teachers were breaking new ground, followed by times when nearly all teachers were working in a rut, when ideas once alive and appropriate had become fossilized and futile. But there never has been a time when interest in the improvement of education has been so widespread as it is now, and the readiness of the teaching profession as a whole to recognize that healthy progress in education depends upon constant thought and investigation is a comparatively new thing. The health and status of a profession both require that its members shall maintain continuous progress in the science and art of the profession. We should, therefore, welcome the establishment of an Educational Research Council by the Royal Society of Teachers.

The task of anybody who tries to get a clear view of the multifarious educational activities now going on, of the many experiments and investigations by teachers and others bearing upon education, and of the vast

quantity of expressed opinion, is very formidable. Indeed, nobody can have, and I hope nobody either desires or needs, such encyclopædic information. But though no human brain has the capacity to act as a storehouse for so much information, there will be an increasing need to provide an organization for gathering and preserving the results of the thought and inquiries of educational thinkers, practitioners, and investigators who, in study, classroom, or laboratory, are furthering the science and art of education. We may hope there will some day be a National Bureau of Education where information may be obtained on any aspect of educational theory or practice. The Bureau would contain a comprehensive library of books and journals; it would house, in printed or unpublished form, reports on all educational research of any consequence; it would issue abstracts of educational papers published in all countries; and it would render invaluable aid to people engaged in research. There are already educational libraries, there is a Department of Special Inquiries and Reports at the Board of Education, and there are bodies, such as the Educational Research Committee of the British Psychological Society, which endeavour to further research. The Bureau we have in mind would not necessarily supersede these organizations, but it would differ from all of them in the comprehensiveness of its plan and the variety of its functions.

The establishment of an Educational Research Council by the Royal Society of Teachers would be but a very small step towards the founding of a Bureau such as I have described, and indeed there is no reason why the ultimate outcome of the Council should be a national bureau at all. Many who would be glad to see the Council in existence might view the prospect of a National Bureau of Education with apprehension.

Why should the teaching profession view the fostering of educational research as one of its foremost duties? And why should it regard the application of scientific principles to the study of educational problems, which is the main characteristic of educational research, as one of the vital needs of the present time? These two questions can be taken together and, I believe, answered in a manner to which no reasonable person will take exception.

In the second section of this article I said that there could be no "science of education" in the sense of a universally accepted set of *permanent* principles which would suffice to guide the teacher in all the situations with which he is faced. It may be said that that is a platitude; that nobody ever believed such a science of education to be possible, or desirable. That may be so, yet I believe some of the scepticism with which educational research is viewed springs from the notion that such an unchanging body of educational principles is what the educational researchers are really trying to construct. They are attempting nothing so futile, nothing so contrary to the history of

science. They are attempting to substitute for the sporadic, unsystematic experiments by which educational progress has hitherto been made, the investigation, wherever possible, of educational problems by the careful, controlled methods that have proved so successful in other fields of study. They are well aware that scientific method is not all that is necessary for fruitful thought and inquiry, and that behind all educational research must be a growing philosophy of education, shot through with the results of educational research itself but also resting upon what we vaguely call "true values." They are well aware of the complexity of educational problems and of the dangers that attend the use of techniques of research by persons of narrow view who, in the midst of technicalities, lose sight of the problems they ought to be solving. But they are above all aware that the prestige of the educational profession will be very greatly enhanced when research—that is, briefly, systematic inquiry by the best methods that have been evolved—is recognized by teachers as an essential foundation for their work. The problems of the teacher are no less complex than those of the medical man. Let it, then, at once be realized that educational research and the founding of a "science of education" have as close a relation to the daily work of the teacher as medical research, and the founding of a "science of medicine" have to the daily practice of the medical man.

When this is realized it becomes clear that members of the teaching profession should encourage research, should continually spread the results of research, and should recognize that the scientific study of education is essential to the health and status of the profession.

MR. T. G. TIBBEY

BY the death of Mr. T. G. Tibbey, a representative of Head Masters in Elementary Schools, the Teachers Registration Council has suffered a distinct loss. It is chiefly due to his interest and advocacy that the Council undertook the formation of an Educational Research Council, for Mr. Tibbey, alike on the Head Teachers' Association, of which he was ex-President, and at the time of his death General Secretary, and on other bodies, had for years urged the importance of basing educational practice on research. As Editor of the *Head Teachers' Review* he contributed many interesting and valuable supplements containing the results of investigations.

His place on the Council will be taken by Mr. T. H. Gunn, Head Master of the Sidnouth Street Boys' Demonstration School, Hull, who was next on the poll at the last election. Mr. Gunn will hold office until the end of the current quinquennial period, that is, until 1937.

A TEACHER'S WORK IN A SPECIAL SCHOOL

By P. M. BUCKELL

THE academic attainments of a teacher of mentally defective children form but a slight part of her qualification. She must possess in addition a boundless sense of humour, a stupendous capacity for endurance, and the adventurous spirit of an Arctic explorer.

Her great adventure starts early in the morning when she is shut up in a room with from twenty to thirty mysterious and turbulent little people. Here are children of all ages and all types from the very vacant-looking defective to the high-grade Mongolian with the narrow and sometimes closely set eyes and thin skin. Children who have suffered from sleepy sickness usually find their way into the special school, and these are a source of great interest to the enthusiastic teacher. Intellectually they are frequently fairly normal, but the defect shows itself on the moral side. They have violent and wholly uncontrolled tempers. Teachers of these children learn to stand by serenely during the splendid few moments when desks, chairs, books, and apparatus go flying round the room in rapid succession and every fragment of glass within range is threatened with complete destruction. The passion over, a strong reaction often appears, and the little fire-brand will tearfully protest his sorrow and swear himself to a future life of the utmost sanctity.

The epileptic, for whom more suitable accommodation is usually provided, sometimes enters the school for mentally defective children, and proves an attractive pupil. In the early days of work with abnormal children a colleague told me, as a stern warning, a story of her own rashness in allowing an epileptic child with whom she happened to be attending a church service, to pass a loaded collection plate to her neighbour. A slight attack caused the child to let go the plate with the result that coins were scattered far and wide. Other defective children present becoming excited added to the general confusion by groping wildly after the distributed money. It was a considerable time before the teacher responsible at the time could look back and realize the humorous aspect of the incident.

Very common types in the special class are the repressed child and the child who is suffering from a severe inferiority complex. In both cases outward indications of the conditions are somewhat similar. The children are extremely nervous, unwilling to attempt any occupation, apparently lost in a dream-state, and at first lacking in response to all stimuli. Here the genius of the experienced teacher has wide scope. She gradually and sympathetically raises the child's opinion of himself. She provides him with very simple and attractive occupations, and showers upon him encouragement and love; without the latter she can

do nothing. After weeks or months, according to his condition, he will voluntarily attempt and complete satisfactorily some straightforward task, and the sight of his joy in accomplishment is worth much to the persevering teacher.

Some types of defective child-mind unfold like buds in the hands of the expert. Self-confidence develops, interest in life is awakened, and the sullen spiritless expression of the neglected child gives place to a brighter, more intelligent, and happier countenance. This result is but one of the many changes the special school teacher brings about and takes as a matter of course.

The repressed child, coming often from a home where finance and the conditions of living permit of no exceptional treatment for exceptional children, is frequently anti-social. He hates everything and everyone, and refuses to join in games or organized play of any kind. He has found himself unable to keep up with normal children, and in despair has turned against all. In the special school, however, he finds life easier; there are things he can do, people he can meet as equals, and above all a teacher who believes in him, understands him, and who even regards him as being quite clever at some things.

Of course there are the few children whose chief object in life seems to be the assassination of as many other children as may cross their path. With these strange little persons in her class the teacher will many a time emerge from a fierce fray, hair standing out, face flushed, and the gleam of battle in her eyes. But it will be worth it, for she will most surely reap the reward of a sincerely affectionate and penitent hug, and perhaps a ceremonial hand-shake before the dismissal bell releases her.

Occasionally the special school harbours the more uncommon types of abnormality, such as the kleptomaniac who will steal anything from a safety-pin to a pound note, the child with religious mania, the deaf and blind defective, and the child who has no conception of the meaning of truth. The greater the difficulty, the greater the interest to the teacher, and the more determined her intention to penetrate the darkness and bring to the surface the little gleam of intelligence and character.

The end of the day finds the special school teacher tired in body and brain. She has given generously of her all in the service and love of suffering and misunderstood little people, and most thoroughly she deserves the rest and change to which she departs each evening. Indeed, a complete change of occupation and environment is necessary for her at intervals throughout her career.

The answer to the question as to whether the mentally defective can be educated is that they can, but only by specially trained teachers having a special vocation to the work in the adapted environment of a special school.

CRICKET STORIES IN THE '80's

By J. W. B. ADAMS

IT would perhaps seem strange that stories apparently written by people who were not cricketers themselves should have interested me in my boyhood. At the grammar school I attended we only had a school First Eleven, but the younger boys started unofficial short-lived clubs. Rules were drawn up, one of which amused my parents, "No swearing aloud." We all read tales about school cricket matches, specimens of which are referred to below.

Dr. Lightfoot, a kind and very mild clergyman with long white hair, was head master of a country boarding school. He was approached by an exceedingly wealthy "self-made" parent who wished to enter his boy, and let him have, *inter alia*, unlimited pocket money—say £2 a week—or more. "Sixpence a week," replied the Reverend Doctor, "no more—this is my last word!"

In the end, the rich parent gave way, and the boy was admitted. The cricket season was beginning, and the new boy wrote to his father asking him to provide the school with a new pavilion and a professional.

A few days later a boy came running on to the field "doubled up with laughter." "The professional has come, and what do you think his name is?—I saw it on his bag—come and look." It was "Duck"!

The first practice duly took place, and the senior assistant, Mr. K—, who was also sports master, was present. In the accompanying illustration he appeared in a tall top hat, high collar, immaculate tailed-coat and trousers, patent boots, an eyeglass, and the then fashionable side-whiskers. Duck took his stand at the wicket; Mr. K— then took off his coat, and rolled up his shirt-sleeves and, taking a longish run, sent down a very fast ball which beat and bowled the pro. Sensation! and appropriate quotations from the senior boys, e.g., "*lucus a non lucendo*," "*veni, vidi, non vici*," etc. Mr. K— quietened them and started to bowl again. Now, however, Duck began to hit Mr. K— and the senior boys to all parts of the field—and out of it—with ease and finish.

"*Dux*, not Duck," exclaimed Mr. K—, now out of breath with his bowling.

"Yes, Sir," replied Duck, mopping his forehead and looking shyly round, "I felt nervous a-coming to coach they boys" . . . but why didn't it occur to him to change his name?

The next story we read several times, although not convinced of its probability.

Some young men were staying on holiday in the country village, Little Pedlington. A disagreeable young resident, Charley by name, who suffered under the delusion that he was a class player, arranged with the visitors to play a match with a crack touring team—The

Piccadilly Inimitables! "This team," said Charley, "have made a name for themselves"—a truth obvious enough.

Only ten men (including Charley) were available in the village, and so it was suggested that a certain quiet and shy young man called Black might play. Charley had no opinion of him—but an eleven had to be raised.

The Piccadilly Inimitables won the toss, and their opening pair did what they liked with the bowling, three figures going up in under the hour. Then—and not till then—Charley took an over himself. It appears that he bowled three wides and two no balls, all of which were heavily scored off! Charley took himself off and put on some other bowlers, but all in vain, and 250 went up. Then the wicket-keeper suggested that young Black might have a turn. Charley had to admit that he couldn't do worse than he himself had done, and so "contemptuously tossed the ball to him." "Brown-faced young Black smiled broadly and shyly," and then . . . need I say what happened? The Piccadilly Inimitables' crack was clean bowled by his first ball, and young Black went straight through the side, only eight or ten runs (including byes) being added. Little Pedlington and its visitors fielded splendidly—and Charley missed only two more catches.

The Piccadilly Inimitables were very strong in bowling, and poor Charley, who confidently opened the innings, had his middle stump sent a record distance first ball. He still, however, wished to send young Black in last, but the wicket-keeper persuaded Charley to send him in next as his partner. Well, these two got going and, alas indeed for the Piccadilly Inimitables!—young Black "reached his century well under the hour," and then scored much faster still while his partner kept his end up, scoring, however, at a more moderate rate. "Boundary after boundary, six after six"—and up went the 250 amid tumultuous applause from Little Pedlington and visitors and friends. At the cricket supper that night Charley admitted (with certain reservations) that young Black showed signs of becoming a good player.

Did the Piccadilly Inimitables change the name of their club after this debacle? Did they ask Black to join them? Was he some famous cricketer *incognito*?

It is rather hard to describe the next type of school—perhaps we might call it a minor Public School; but then it played the County—that ubiquitous County which is often beaten by schools—"Loamshire"! I find it difficult to swallow these victories, even if "Loamshire" is a very minor County. . . .

George Featherstonhaugh was the captain of St. Fredegonde's—a young man of "good county family"—a good athlete, a good scholar, and a general favourite. It was his last year at school, and his great ambition was to beat the County, which the School had never done in recent years.

The best scholar in the school was one Sanders, a rather delicate, nervous boy who would have liked to play for the school, but wasn't even good enough to play for his house, but he had been seen having long private talks with old Brown, the school gardener, who had once been a well-known professional cricketer. It came out afterwards that old Brown had been giving him a lot of private coaching in slow lob bowling, for which he had "a remarkable gift."

One of the regular school eleven could not play in the Loamshire match, and George F—, who had a great opinion of old Brown, took his advice—with a certain amount of misgiving—and included Sanders in the team, much to the surprise of the Doctor and the school.

Loamshire's two best bowlers were Spinn (fast), and Smashley—whose slow deliveries were "the most provoking that were ever sent down."

George F—went in first and had reached his fifty, the top score made by the school, when Spinn removed his leg bail. Poor Sanders was beaten and bowled by the first ball he received (possibly one of Smashley's) to the disgust of the team, who all showed him in how many ways he might have played it!

The school made quite a respectable total, and seemed to have a fair chance—with luck—of winning. Ingham, the school express bowler, was reckoned good, and Throwley was a deceptive slow break bowler—not so deceptive as Smashley, we may suppose.

Loamshire lost three wickets for a fairly moderate total, but then Eastman, their most promising young professional, came in and set about Ingham and Throwley to some purpose. George F— went on to keep the rate of scoring down, but things now looked very bad for the school, and to make matters worse poor Sanders dropped a catch in the slips. Soon afterwards Eastman damaged his bat in making one of his hard drives to the boundary, and went in to change it. The critical moment had now come, and George F—took a folded piece of paper from his pocket, given him by old Brown before Loamshire went in to bat. It ran as follows: "Put on Sanders with his bak to the sunn." So George F— beckoned Sanders and told him to take the next over. Sanders bowled his first ball—a high-pitched slow lob—to Eastman, who "swiped" hard at it, and much to his astonishment missed it and was clean bowled! A rot then set in, and Loamshire still required twenty runs to win with three wickets to fall.

Ingham then resumed, and successfully, with his expresses, and when Spinn came in last to face him Loamshire still required nine runs to win. Spinn was their worst bat, and was jocularly advised by his friends to "Shut his eyes, and have a go." Ingham was on the top of his form, but Spinn made a lucky snick to the leg boundary off his first ball. The second ball he swiped for three, and this brought him up against Sanders.

When Spinn saw Sanders' first ball coming he must have thought, "Well, here's a safe sixer," and he made a desperate swipe for all he was worth. What actually happened I need not say . . . cheers unlimited . . . Loamshire beaten at last!

The concluding story seems harder to believe. It appeared in a periodical called *Young Folks*, now long defunct.

The hero of this story, Herbert Mayne, was tall, fair, blue-eyed, brainy, athletic, and in short much too good to be true. He had been sent to St. Winifred's by his aunt to make friends with Richard Gifford, who was not so tall, and was dark, and certainly not too good—but he was a good scholar and first-rate at games.

It appears that the aunt had formerly left a lot of money to Gifford's mother and had subsequently taken it away and left it to Herbert Mayne—who had lost his mother. Evidently asking for trouble! Gifford was first in work and games before Mayne arrived, and then had to take second place. The great cricket match of the year was now coming off—not *v.* Loamshire this time—but against their special rivals, Dorrencourt, who had beaten them for the last two or three years.

Mayne was made captain and so Gifford refused to play—a serious loss, as he was the best bowler in the school and very good all round.

Dorrencourt's bowlers were Cunningham, "with his dangerous shooters," and Bruce with his "insidious lobs"—I suppose there *were* others, but no reference was made to them during the progress of the match—but perhaps Cunningham's very unusual accomplishment sufficed for all emergencies.

Dorrencourt batted first and Gifford was sadly missed. But for Mayne things might have been much worse—and Dorrencourt made a good score.

Then the home side did none too well. Wicket after wicket fell, but neither the dangerous shooters nor the insidious lobs could shift the hero, Herbert Mayne, and when the last over came (just on time) nine wickets were down and the score was four to tie and five to win.

Cunningham took the last over against Mayne, who was forced to block the first three "dangerous shooters"—and then came the last ball—one of Cunningham's "most deadly shooters" and a perfect length. "Herbert Mayne drew himself up to his full height, and drove it over the boundary—over the crowded spectators—over the trees—out of sight!" The school won by one run! But why not by one wicket? The reverend white-haired Doctor and his tall, fair, blue-eyed, young daughter, the idol of the school, were delighted beyond measure—and so was everybody—except Gifford!

These stories were written fifty years ago; present-day tales are different, but what will they be like fifty years hence, if cricket still survives?

THE RURAL TEACHER SHOULD HE KEEP A DIARY?

By WILLIAM CLAYTON, M.B.E.

IS it necessary for the village teacher to keep a record of his daily adventures? Many excellent and successful teachers argue that it is not. They declare that the increase in clerical work now demanded of us by the Education Authorities is a burden sufficiently heavy for any teacher to bear; that the preparation of forecasts of lessons and records of examination tests take up so much of our time that they ought to satisfy the most inquisitive visitors, whether they be officials of the Board of Education or of the Local Authority.

There is much to be said in justification of this attitude of mind about written records; but all of us should remember that we have for a long time claimed that we should have a much greater say in the selection of the children that should go forward for further education in the Secondary and High Schools.

We cannot justify our claims for this responsibility unless we possess full and complete information, not only of our pupils' ability to pass our examinations and of the type of questions we set for these tests, but also a carefully prepared record of the attitude of the scholars to the general work of the school during the whole of their period with us up to the time they should go forward to another type of school.

Even this is not enough to enable us to judge successfully. We must know very intimately the pupils' dispositions, their likes and dislikes, their mental and physical capacity and their home influences and environment.

Though many of these matters find a place in the child's school record book, or card, there are some matters which because of their delicacy and intimacy cannot be recorded there.

We rural teachers are particularly well placed for knowing nearly all there is to know about our scholars, including their home lives and out-of-school activities. The diary will be of the greatest possible use for the insertion of all those details which the more public school records forbid.

There are other reasons why we village teachers should enter up our daily acts and impressions.

When I started this habit many years ago, it never entered my head that my entries might be useful to inspectors. Mine was most definitely started, continued, and completed each year to satisfy a much more searching person than any outside official whose right to come and inspect my work I could not question. It was written to use as a whip with which to scourge myself. It has served its purpose admirably, but the whippings have been frequently eclipsed by the happy memories it has awakened of past pleasures.

The joys anticipated from reading these diaries in the future are making my present burdens much more easy to bear, so much so that could I be permitted to begin my vocation again I should certainly keep a diary. It would differ from my present one in that it would be much fuller, much more detailed in its descriptions of the simple adventures which we village teachers embark upon daily, so that each crisp entry could act as a spark to light a fire of happy retrospection to warm and cheer the days when I was forbidden to continue my simple work among my simple children.

Pepys wrote a diary. It was, as ours should be, full of the common-places of his daily life. It is just those quaint records of his simple doings which have brought both joy and enlightenment to so many of his readers.

It is the little things that count for most in life. Ours is made up of such a variety and multitude of trivial happenings that some sorting and sifting will be necessary before any ink is spilt. All who read *The Countryman*—and every teacher should read that Quarterly—will remember what a stir was caused in literary circles by the publication therein of “The Gravedigger’s Diary,” written nearly two centuries ago of the happenings in his village. He was concerned chiefly with the decent burial of the dead villager. We are concerned with the first flush of life of the country child, and though no one may read what we write of our efforts to make that little one grow into an intelligent, observant, and responsible citizen, we shall be amply repaid for time spent in recording the simple facts, for the pages will show why we succeeded, or failed, in our vocation.

UNIVERSITY OF BESANÇON

THE Holiday Courses at the University of Besançon, after having undergone a complete transformation in 1932, now offer great advantages for English-speaking students. The Courses now form an integral part of the Faculty of Letters, under the control of the Dean. There are three “Directeurs,” of whom at least one will always be in evidence. Fees are very modest, and much additional help is always available. A comprehensive syllabus includes Phonetics, Grammar and Language, Literature, Authors, History and Geography, Civilization and Institutions, Translation, Practical Exercises and Commercial Correspondence. The new University Hostel, or “Students’ Palace,” as it is termed, offers comfort, quiet for studies, and every possible modern convenience at a very low rate. There are 133 “sunshine bedrooms.”

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ORPHEUS AND THE PEDAGOGUE

By D. CHARLTON FOWLER

IT is obvious that many modern composers are not getting a fair hearing for their music—not because the public are simply being pigheaded and refusing to accept them; they are æsthetically incapable of doing so.

A certain amount of training is necessary to anyone desirous of appreciating any art. The proper place for this primary grounding is in the schools.

The present system is totally inadequate. In the average secondary school the music syllabus takes perhaps one and a half hours per week. This would not be a bad arrangement were the time well occupied, but the greater part of the time is filled by singing in a more or less indifferent manner, and by the superficial study of technicalities.

Many schools have now organized orchestras—this is a step in the right direction. Even so I consider that their time would be better occupied in the study of music from a *critical* point of view. A gramophone should be used, and instructive lectures given in the manner of Sir Walford Davies and Dr. Dyson.

I do not suggest giving complicated talks on fugue and harmony to first and second year schoolboys, although I consider it possible to inspire them with a *desire to find these things out for themselves*. I think I can best illustrate my idea by means of a quotation from *Le Coq et L'Arlequin*, by M. Jean Cocteau. He is comparing two master musicians. "Beethoven is irksome in his developments, but not Bach, because Beethoven develops the form and Bach the idea. . . . Beethoven says: 'This penholder contains a new pen; There is a new pen in this penholder, etc.' Bach says: 'This penholder contains a new pen in order that I may dip it in the ink and write . . . etc.'"

In this way, by careful analogies and with a stock of well-chosen gramophone records, it would be possible to give the children a grounding in æsthetics and a basis for intelligent if not very profound criticism. They would write essays about the music played to them, and would learn to give reasons for disliking certain pieces. This, I believe, would be much more beneficial to the average child than the uninteresting torrent of information about minims and crotchets which is generally poured into their ears.

The pedagogue must remember that he is teaching for the majority of the children and *not* for the few who will make music their profession; and until he realizes that it is best to leave the technicalities to the musician and show the child how to sift the wheat from the chaff, we shall continue to have with us the tragic spectacle of genius, such as Stravinsky, jeered at, and what is worse, criticized, by the ignorant mob.

PUZZLES AND PROBLEMS

By JAMES TRAVERS, B.A., M.R.S.T.

NEW PROBLEMS

THE answers to the following will appear in our Autumn number :—
 1. Find six whole numbers, all different, such that the sum of the first three may be equal to the sum of the second three, and also such that the sum of the squares of the first three may be equal to the sum of the squares of the second three.

2. Magic squares are still a fascinating subject for both the mathematician and the puzzlist. It was long believed that such squares could only be constructed by the use of numbers in arithmetical progression,

6	7	2
1	5	9
8	3	4

Fig. 1.

and we here reproduce the oldest and easiest of these squares. We now invite our readers to fill in the above square with prime numbers only, and in such a manner that the constant sum may be the lowest possible.

3. A man bought 148 feet of wood at 2d. a foot, and it was noticed that the cost (£1 4s. 8d.) was represented by the number indicating the quantity of wood bought. Can you find other three-figure numbers at so many pence per foot that work out in the same way?

4. Here is a very old riddle. Why are women's feet like fairy tales?

5. The following problem is given in *Angel's Practical Mathematics*: Bisect a triangle by a straight line drawn through a given point outside the triangle. The solution given by Angel is very complicated, and the proof would also take up a considerable portion of space. We are referred to *Bradley's Geometrical Drawing* for the proof, but we will publish a very elementary original method with proof in our next issue, a solution which evoked much praise from the late Professor Langley when I first published it in the *Mathematical Gazette* about 1925.

6. Show how to divide any square into nine pieces so that when these pieces are put together properly they will form 5 perfect squares of equal area.

7. Find three different numbers such that their product may be equal to 8 times their sum. How many sets of three numbers are there which fulfil the conditions.

8. Find points P and Q in the sides AB and AC of a triangle ABC such that $BP = PQ = QC$.

ANSWERS

The answers to our Spring problems are as follows :—

1. With B as centre and BC as radius describe an arc cutting AC in L. Join LY. Then it is easy to see that BLY is an equilateral triangle, and BL = LP = LY. Hence YPB is 30°.

This is the simplest solution to this celebrated problem, and I now publish it for the first time.

2. The correct answer is 12 lbs.

3. The shares are £642 and £641.

4. Eight, night, wight, fight, bight, light, sight, might, right, dight, and tight, are the missing words in order.

5. The general solution to this original problem is as follows :—

Let n be the number of tiers, then the total number of triangles is given by $\frac{n(n+2)(2n+1)}{8}$, when n is even, and by

$$\frac{(n+1)^2(2n+1)}{8} - \frac{(n+1)}{4} \text{ when } n \text{ is odd.}$$

In connection with this problem, the following remarks will not be inappropriate. The figure given below is similar to one containing 4 tiers published in book form by the late C. Pearson. He asked his readers to count the total number of triangles in the figure, and gave the correct answer, 653. We may add that there are very few mathematicians able to furnish the formulæ for the general solution, and some of the best men have been engaged quite recently in this task.

For the benefit of those who desire to pursue the matter still further, we append the following results :—

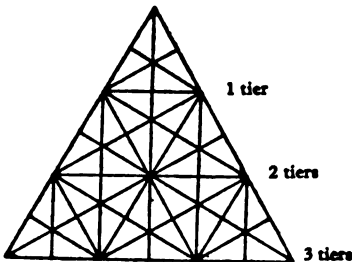


Fig. 2.

Total Tier		Triangles
1	..	16
2	..	104
3	..	303
4	..	653
5	..	1196
6	..	1978
7	..	3032
8	..	4410

GLEANINGS

CAUSE AND EFFECT

"Atticus writes with regard to Public Schools that we have shaken ourselves loose from the tradition of the clerical head master. That this is all to the bad is shown by the indifferent attitude of youth of the present day to all forms of religion."

Lt.-Col. Bidwell in a letter to the press.

THE CRITICAL YEARS

"It is one of the basic functions of school to teach a child how to learn and to furnish him with the tools of learning. But unless these tools are kept bright and sharp and polished between the ages of 14 and 19 they soon become rusty, blunt, and useless."

Mr. Herwald Ramsbotham.

DISCOVERY

"Little by little there has grown up in this country a large body of lovers of music to whom a first night at the Opera is something sacred."

The Daily Telegraph.

THE DOWNFALL?

"When she came out she was distinguished as being one of the few well-educated debutantes. Since then she has been at the London School of Economics."

The Evening Standard.

A DICKENS PICTURE

"An old lady who had been outside all day and came in towards dinner time turned out to be the Mistress of a Yorkshire School returning from the holiday stay in London. She was a very queer old body, and showed us a long letter she was carrying to one of the boys from his father, containing a severe lecture (enforced and aided by many texts from Scripture) on his refusing to eat boiled meat."

From a Letter by Charles Dickens, quoted in "The Times."

CONFIRMATION WEAK

In a letter to *The Times* of May 15 the Rev. G. J. Inglis states that at the request of the Vice-Chancellor of Sheffield University he gave a course of Extension Lectures on the Gospels which were attended by fifty-four persons, of whom the great majority were teachers in elementary schools. He adds: "My experience confirms the conclusion that there is at the present time a strong desire among teachers for opportunities for further study which would be of value to them in the teaching of Scripture." The conclusion is hardly strengthened when it is remembered that in the elementary schools of Sheffield there are over 1800 teachers.

BOOKS AND THE MAN

THE ART OF CONFERENCE

SIR ISAAC PITMAN & SONS have recently published an interesting book by Frank Walser, entitled *The Art of Conference*. This was originally written for American readers, but it contains a wealth of matter useful to teachers and to all who are engaged in the conduct of public affairs. Mr. Walser has been an Inspector of Schools in Egypt and has conducted discussion groups in several European cities. In America he is well known in educational circles, and he has arrived at the opinion that group discussion, well arranged and properly supervised, is greatly superior to the procedure of debate or post-lecture questioning.

In a valuable series of supplementary notes we have examples of a class discussion in a high school, a group discussion in Paris, a Y.M.C.A. group discussion in New York, a University students' group discussion, and discussions by workers in an American factory. These examples serve to illustrate the technique recommended by the author. Thus, he records how a group of boys of sixteen and seventeen years of age attending a school near Paris were led to discuss the question of whether an old part of the city of Lyons should be demolished because of the risks of fire and the dangers to health. This topic was suggested by a chance remark of a clerk in a tourist office who had said that some people wanted the quarter destroyed for sanitary reasons and others wanted it preserved for historical and sentimental reasons. The boys chose their own Chairman, and after some twenty minutes of discussion the group began to take sides for and against destruction, one stressing sanitary reasons and the other historical ones. The Chairman intervened with the suggestion that the group should attempt to find some middle course, and finally it was agreed that the best plan would be to establish a Commission of Control made up of the Minister of Health, the Chief of Police, and a Professor of History or the Curator of the Museum. This Commission would consider each of the old houses in turn and make a suitable recommendation as to its fate.

Such discussions are obviously of great value. These boys were led to marshal their knowledge of history and hygiene, and to apply it to a practical end. Any resourceful teacher can find in our daily newspapers suggestions for discussion appropriate to pupils of any age, and the resulting practice in speech and in the quick formulation of arguments is valuable in the extreme.

All teachers will find this book not only interesting but full of useful ideas.

SELIM MILES.

REVIEWS

MATHEMATICS

ELEMENTARY ALGEBRA. Part II. By A. W. SIDDONS and C. T. DALTRY. Pp. 236. Cambridge University Press. 3s. 6d.

THIS is a revised and re-written edition of the authors' textbook published just over twenty years ago. These authors need no introduction to the majority of teachers of elementary mathematics, and to those who do not already know this book I should say, study it. The beginning chapters are especially valuable, as through them the student gains an early acquaintance with indices, formulæ, graphs, and a very useful chapter on terminology. A book to be confidently recommended.

SCHOOL CERTIFICATE MATHEMATICS: GEOMETRY. Part II. By H. J. LARCOMBE and J. K. FLETCHER. Pp. 212. Cambridge University Press. 3s.

THIS volume forms the second of a series of three textbooks designed to cover the course for the School Certificate Examination. The authors aim at enabling the student of moderate ability to solve a fair proportion of the problems by grading them carefully, while there is an abundance of more difficult riders for the brighter pupils. The book is well produced. D. E. C.

PROBLEMS

THE CALIBAN PROBLEM BOOK. Edited by Messrs. PHILLIPS, SHOVELTON, and MARSHALL. De La Rue. 6s. net.

WE congratulate the authors and publishers on the production of this book, containing 105 problems of varying degrees of difficulty. If we were disposed to cavil we might take exception to the amount of padding that surrounds some of these teasers, but the beauty and neatness of the many bids us refrain from pointing out the defects in the few.

For the teacher looking for original intelligence tests we heartily recommend problems 38, 5, 4, 1, 2, 3, 11, 13, and 15, particularly 38, which is a gem of its kind. Those interested in mathematics will welcome numbers 30, 47, 55, 74, and 79, the first-mentioned being one of the neatest I have ever seen.

The Appendix well repays the reader, and the list of prime numbers, had it been continued, would have been very valuable. There is room in a cheap textbook for a list of primes up to (say) the first half million.

The proof that a prime number of the form $4n + 1$ or $8n + 1$ or $8n + 5$ is the sum of two squares is found in Barlow's *Theory of Numbers*—a fact which seems to have escaped the notice of the authors. J. T.

GENERAL SCIENCE

SCIENCE IN COMMON THINGS. By W. A. SCARR, M.A. (Cantab). Edward Arnold & Co. Book I. Pp. 144. 2s. Book II. Pp. 128. 1s. 9d.

THESE are two of three projected volumes designed to provide a progressive course of study for post-primary scholars and those of junior secondary schools. Book I deals with the physics of air, water, heat, and light, more especially as they touch upon human life, and activities; while Book II is definitely biological in scope, sections dealing with plant and animal life being followed by two others dealing with food and hygiene. Very wisely the author has treated his subjects in such manner as to appeal

to the intelligent child and to engender in him a real interest therein, instead of following the too common course of giving a plethora of details—which are promptly forgotten—at the expense of the meaning and use of the essential structures and other features of the living types studied.

The author, quite obviously, is thoroughly acquainted both with his subject and with the nature and needs of those for whom he has prepared this scheme of work, which is to be warmly commended both for the excellence of its subject matter and its treatment.

F. H. S.

SCIENCE IN THE SENIOR SCHOOL. Pp. 32. 9d. net. "The Golden Science Series." Book I. Limp Cloth. 2s. Cloth Board. 2s. 3d. By ELSIE V. M. KNIGHT, B.Sc. University of London Press.

THIS is the first of three science readers for post-primary children covering a syllabus which is given in detail in the brochure, and follows the lead given by the Board of Education's "Memorandum on the Teaching of Science in Senior Schools." This means that it deals mainly with Biology, Home Science, Human Physiology, and Hygiene.

Following the syllabus is information concerning the apparatus needed for the experimental work, addresses of dealers in the requisite specimens, and hints as to the use of the apparatus. Taken as a whole the course is a very satisfactory one; the author deals with her subject very clearly, and the admirably printed letterpress is excellently illustrated. A useful set of questions and exercises follows each chapter. On the whole the information given is accurate, but there are a few statements we are sure Miss Knight would find it difficult to substantiate. Mammalian babies are not more helpless than bird babies; some of them, indeed, including those of horses, cattle, and sheep, being far more precocious than the nestlings of our song birds. Nor did living mole ever construct a fortress such as is represented by the traditional but inaccurate illustration on page 110—as inaccurate as is the traditional story of Newton and the falling apple. There are other statements that need revision; we venture to suggest that in the succeeding volumes the author would do well to lay rather more stress upon the significance of the structural features observed. That is the way nature lovers are made, and a permanent interest developed in nature in general.

F. H. S.

A SURVEY OF SCIENCE

THE STORY OF SCIENCE. By DAVID DIETZ. Pp. 353. 47 Diagrams. George Allen & Unwin. 10s. 6d.

OWING to an unfortunate oversight we regret that we have waited till now to call our readers' attention to this valuable book. Our regret is tempered by the knowledge that a good book is its own salesman. This is a good book. Science comprises many subjects, and anyone who sets out to master science would soon realize his task was impossible. Indeed, this difficulty is so well known that most of us are content to choose one small branch of science for our study and to neglect all else. This leads to the ignorance of the narrow specialist and is to be regretted.

This book, carefully read, will give the layman a unified and organized view of modern science or it will prevent the science specialist from being guilty of narrow outlook. Here we find clearly expounded the story of the universe. Many interesting facts concerning the solar system, comets and meteors, the stars and kindred matters, are set out. Then there is the story of the earth, its structure and its history. Next we find the story of the atom, a story full of baffling problems which occupy the thoughts of many eminent physicists. Finally there is the story of life which necessarily includes a consideration of the theory of organic evolution, and this leads to a discussion of the origin of mind.

That part of the book which deals with biology is certainly accurate and attractive. We feel safe in inferring that other parts of the book, which treat subjects with which we are less familiar, are also accurate, since from his qualifications it is clear that the author is an astronomical physicist rather than a biologist.

The book is well planned and adequately illustrated by about fifty diagrams. There is a useful bibliography and an appendix consisting of tables of planets and stars, geological eras, chemical elements, and ancient man and his probable periods.

We can confidently recommend this book to teachers, upper form pupils, and parents. It is useless in these days to pretend that it is clever to remain ignorant of science. We are controlled whether we like or not by science. What is wanted is more science more thoughtfully applied, not less, and this first step must be to educate ourselves so that we may put before our children a true if sketchy picture of science as a whole. It will be for them to choose which branch of science attracts them most. This book will enable us to get that breadth of vision of science as a whole which is so necessary. We wish the book great success.

J. R.

PHYSICS

PHYSICAL CONSTANTS. By W. H. J. CHILDS. B.Sc., Ph.D. Pp. 77. 2s. 6d.

THE GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF THE QUANTUM THEORY. By G. TEMPLE, Ph.D., D.Sc. Pp. 120. 3s. net.

ELECTROMAGNETIC WAVES. By F. W. J. WHITE, M.Sc., Ph.D. Pp. 108. 3s. net. Methuen.

It is pleasant to welcome these three recent addition to Methuen's Monographs on Physical Subjects. This series is well known to all serious students of physics as a model of clarity and accuracy, and these three volumes are no exception to the rule.

Dr. Childs has aimed at gathering together within the compass of a book for the pocket all the physical constants to which a busy research worker or student is likely to have to refer. He has succeeded splendidly, and the book contains accurate tables of reference compiled from the whole range of physics, both classical and atomic. An interesting feature is the inclusion of seven "monograms." A monogram is an accurate diagram which is constructed in order to obtain graphically the third of three inter-related quantities when the other two are known. For example, in the case of dry air, if the temperature and pressure are known, the density is definitely fixed. The three inter-related scales of pressure, temperature, and density, are drawn on the monogram, and if a straight-edge is placed across the diagram and any two of the quantities are known, the third can at once be obtained by inspection. The book is certain to meet the needs of a large number of workers both in the laboratory and in the study.

The Quantum Theory in its later stages is becoming more and more mathematical, and although Dr. Temple writes in his Preface that the "theory is here considered as a branch of physics and not as a branch of mathematics," his book is almost entirely mathematical throughout, and is rather heavy reading for the ordinary student of physics.

Dr. White is one of the members of Professor Appleton's staff at King's College, London, and consequently his book contains an interesting account of recent investigations on the propagation of wireless waves in the earth's atmosphere, and their reflection from the ionized layers that have been discovered at high altitudes. For the rest, the classical theory of Maxwell and the electron theory of Lorentz are dealt with, and there is also a chapter on propagation in a dispersive medium. The book is clearly written and gives a convenient summary of the theory of electromagnetic radiation.

R. S. M.

THE NEW ELECTRICITY

ELECTRICAL CONCEPTIONS OF TO-DAY. By CHARLES R. GIBSON, LL.D., F.R.S.E. Pp. 278. 74 Illustrations. London: Seeley Service. 6s. net.

THIS is a useful book, well planned, clearly written, and suitably illustrated. Interest in modern science is often hindered for lack of knowledge. This book supplies the knowledge, awakens and maintains the interest. Much of modern work in physics is difficult to understand, and this book is not always easy reading; it is safe to say, however, that since much of the book is easily understandable by those having little scientific training, anyone who reads this work will have his outlook broadened. The subjects treated include the form and behaviour of the electron, the positive particle, radium and radioactivity, crystals and their structure, the ether and the wireless valve, terrestrial magnetism, and the spectroscope. A chapter is devoted to the description of certain classic experiments in physics. Apart from a few misprints, e.g., bells for bubbles on p. 25, this is a good book, one which should find a place in the school library. J. R.

WIRELESS

WIRELESS: ITS PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE. By R. W. HUTCHINSON, M.Sc. Pp. 300. 220 Diagrams. 3 Plates. University Tutorial Press. Second Edition. 3s. 6d.

THE first edition of this book was good and this edition is better, because it is more up to date. The form of the work is unchanged. The first six chapters deal with the theory of electricity and magnetism in order that the reader may understand the essential problems underlying wireless transmission and reception of both telegraphic and telephonic signals. Chapter seven describes aerial and earth systems. Chapter eight explains the forms and functions of crystals and valves. Much valuable information on the Westector and on the newest valves, such as the Catkin, the Class B, the double-diode-triode, the double-diode-pentode, the Hexode, the Pentagrid and variable mu valves will be found here. The last three chapters describe various wireless receivers. Quiescent push-pull (Q.P.P.), Class B amplification, automatic volume control, and other modern developments are fully considered. Amateur building of wireless receivers, together with such matters as fitting a gramophone pick-up, using mains units and receiving short wave signals, are discussed. A brief account of superheterodyne reception and a short consideration of television and its modifications conclude the work.

The author assumes no previous knowledge on the part of his readers, and from personal knowledge we can say that a careful study of this book will afford sufficient information to enable the reader to build wireless receivers of his own design, or will enable him to understand the working of any commercial receiver whose circuit he can determine.

This book is remarkable for logical arrangement, clearness of description, and accuracy of information. It is strictly scientific, yet the interest of the subject and the cleverness of presentation prevent the work from being "dull."

It may be added that printing, binding, and illustrations are all eminently satisfactory.

J. R.

SKY LORE

A GUIDE TO THE SKY. By E. A. BEET, B.Sc., F.R.A.S. Pp. 96. Cambridge University Press. 4s. 6d. net.

THE avowed object of the author of this little book on practical astronomy is to act as a guide to those who are not content with reading what others have to say concerning the stars and other celestial bodies, but who wish to do something for themselves in the

way of personal observation. Clearly written chapters dealing with the main constellations and the planets are followed by others giving valuable instruction in the use of the telescope and the camera; and some useful appendices. To the lucid text are added a number of helpful illustrations, and altogether Mr. Beet proves himself to be an interesting and competent guide. We know of no introduction to this interesting subject which quite so successfully fulfils its purpose.

F. H. S.

PSYCHOLOGY

PSYCHOLOGY AND THE NEW EDUCATION. By Professor S. L. PRESSEY. Harper. 10s. 6d.

ONE should, as a rule, begin with the Preface. Sometimes, as here, it reveals a general point of view, which opponents very naturally call a bias. Professor Pressey says: "One attitude which pervades the entire volume is so fundamental as to require special emphasis." The writer is very much of an environmentalist. He does not question the importance of "original nature." He holds that in the large "society is responsible for what each child becomes," and that "the school can make a child or break him."

There you have it flat, as Biglow said. Should you be a stern and rigid hereditarian, you will have little use for Professor Pressey, his experiments, his charts and tables, and his deductions. But, on the other hand, you may hold that the education process itself implies a very considerable belief in the power of environment. A school is an environment, physical, psychical, ethical, moral. If the Professor is very much in the wrong, then our schools, as indeed it is sometimes hinted, are in the main a waste of taxpayers' and ratepayers' money, and a very proper subject for a first and hearty "cut" in any emergency, crisis, or stringency, even if these happenings are only slightly probable.

The book is full of practical studies and inquiries straight out of the schools. It is pragmatic and practical. There are many suggestions for teaching, and many (indeed, too many) selected references for further reading. There are, for example, forty-seven references for further reading on Transfer. On this, the writer's summary is interesting. "If an educational value is to be obtained," he writes, "go straight for it." But this does not imply Bernard Shaw's "You cannot learn one thing by doing another." To a limited extent the writer thinks you can. Failing the direct Shavian method, there is a little help to be had from transfer to a near territory.

The disastrous and far-reaching effects of a mocking discouragement of a child's crude attempts are well—and we think not unduly—emphasized by a phrase and a story (p. 197). The phrase is rather stiff; but the story is telling and significant.

R. J.

A BOOK FROM BEDALES

THE WILL TO FULLER LIFE. By J. H. BADLEY. George Allen & Unwin. 10s. 6d.

Two years ago the Head Master of Bedales School published an Introduction to Psychology, or "Outline of Evolutionary Psychology," under the title, *The Will to Live*. The present volume is a continuation of the earlier one. Both books are "the outcome of weekly discussions carried on with boys and girls, mostly in their last year at school." The first book was an exposition of psychology, as that science or semi-science is understood in our time. The second volume might have for a sub-title, "Values." One can almost imagine the late G. Lowes Dickinson, to whom the book is dedicated, suggesting "Values." "Value, then, as a fact of experience, is what we feel to be good" (p. 53). "Life is thus at once the source and measure of value." Ruskin's way was to affirm: "There is no wealth but life."

The writing, in both books, is clear. It flows easily, and is as simple as it ought to be: that is, there is happily no writing down to youthful readers. The argument is continuous from the first page of the earlier volume to the last page of the later, so that no summary

is possible, except a list of chapter headings or their equivalent; and no quotations, unless on a wholesale scale, would be of help.

It should be said that this second volume, although it follows naturally from the first, is complete in itself, with possibly one proviso. The brief quotation made above is from the beginning of a chapter headed, "Spiritual Values." In the Preface, the author forestalls a likely query as to why "in a book treating of spiritual values . . . there should be no mention of . . . religion." But for that we are promised a third volume.

Meanwhile, where has our author's inquiry led him, not only in terms of abstract thought, but also in its correlative action? Hear him in his final pages.

"A necessary pre-condition (of) . . . spiritual growth is a satisfactory standard of physical well-being . . . A readjustment of economic theory and practice . . . is therefore the first need that lies before us . . . A fairer distribution both of goods and burdens . . . reducing the present monstrous inequality in the conditions of well-being . . . not only in terms of work and wages . . . leisure . . . education."

Lowes Dickinson often talked and wrote like that; and like this also: "War is neither a reasonable nor a necessary way of settling disputes and gaining our ends."

And now either you want to read the book or are quite certain that a book leading to such doctrines ought to be watched by the police and magistrates if and when the Incitement to Disaffection Bill becomes an Act. Bedales may be seriously affected by disaffection.

R. J.

TEACHING AS A PROFESSION

THE PROFESSIONS. By A. M. CARR-SAUNDERS and P. A. WILSON. Clarendon Press. 25s. net.

IN this exhaustive study of the professions the authors show little insight in their references to teaching. They declare that there is no special place for a Registration Council. This, forsooth, because "most teachers are employed by local government authorities and are certificated by the State." This reason is the chief one for demanding a Register of Teachers under the control of teachers, for it is anomalous that the body which employs the teacher should be the one which grants him leave to work at his calling. Clearly in such circumstances the employing body will be able to depress salaries at any time by licensing additional teachers. Worse still, it will be able to keep teachers in a state of subjection. There should be no State certification of teachers, but a Register maintained by the representatives of teachers, acting with representatives of the public. Even now the State controls only the qualification of teachers in public elementary schools, and there are thousands of teachers in state schools whose academic qualifications are lower than those demanded for university matriculation.

If the information on other callings dealt with is no better than the authors provide on teaching, this volume is an expensive futility.

R.

COLOUR FOR SCHOOLS

COLOUR PRACTICE IN SCHOOLS. By O. J. TONKS. Winsor & Newton. Two Parts, 4s. each.

MESSRS. WINSOR & NEWTON, the well-known dealers in artists' materials, have already done a great service by publishing a translation of the great work on Colour Science, by Professor Wilhelm Ostwald. Now comes their graded course in the perception and use of colour in schools. The work is in two parts, the earlier for infants and junior pupils, the later for seniors. Both volumes have many excellent and useful illustrations in colour with a wealth of practical hints for the teacher, based on the author's experience as senior master in arts and crafts in the Hasland Hall School, Chesterfield. It would be difficult

to praise these books overmuch. Teachers should buy them and use them in their schools. We have ample proof that under informed direction—but not overdirection—children can accomplish marvellous things in colour, and Mr. Tonks shows the way. It is a great advantage that Messrs. Winsor & Newton, with their long experience in the manufacture of colours and appliances, are able to supplement the books with appropriate material, and their “Ostwald Standard Colours” are available at prices within the range of any school.

R.

THE SCIENCE OF COLOUR

COLOUR SCIENCE. Part II, Applied Colour Science. By WILHELM OSTWALD. Authorized translation by J. SCOTT TAYLOR, M.A. Winsor & Newton. Pp. xii + 173, with 2 Plates. 10s. 6d.

PART I of *Colour Science* seems to have met with the general approval of colour users, although many of them found it “a difficult subject to digest.” Some others, who were concerned more particularly with the science of colour measurement, did not agree with the fundamentals of Ostwald’s theory. The present volume contains a preface in which the translator further elucidates one or two points in the theory and also replies to various criticisms. The book itself, however, describes the practical applications of the principles given in Part I, and is written in the lucid style so characteristic of Ostwald. The first section deals with “Colour Measurement,” the second with “Colour in the Physico-chemical Sphere,” and the third with “Colour in the Psycho-physical Sphere,” each section consisting of three chapters. No matter whether the user of the book agrees with Ostwald’s theory or not, he will find that it gives a practical course of procedure which should be of the utmost use to him. The book is very well printed and the translation seems to be well done.

T. S. P.

EDUCATION

SEX DIFFICULTIES IN THE MALE. By KENNETH M. WALKER, F.R.C.S. Pp. 254. London: Jonathan Cape. 5s. net.

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CONTENTS

	PAGE
UNIFICATION OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION ..	133
THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS	134
REFLECTIONS ON INSPECTIONS	140
FROM THE OUTLOOK TOWER	141
EDUCATION FOR WHAT?	147
CHILD GUIDANCE CLINICS.. ..	149
PUZZLES AND PROBLEMS	152
A BUSH SCHOOL	153
GLEANINGS	155
BOOKS AND THE MAN	157
REVIEWS	159
BOOKS RECEIVED	170

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AUTUMN 1934

UNIFICATION OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION

WHEN the new Teachers Registration Council was launched in 1912 there was much talk of "the unification of the teaching profession." This process, however desirable in itself, cannot be carried out by administrative action alone. Teachers themselves must play their part in breaking down the present barriers which have been erected as between one form of teaching work and another. In former days the pupils in different types of schools represented different social strata much more closely than they do to-day. In some of our leading public schools, and in all of our grant-aided secondary schools, there are pupils whose education began in public elementary schools. The same may be said of a growing proportion of honours graduates at Oxford and Cambridge, and probably it is true of a majority of the graduates of modern universities. The old social barrier between schools is dissolving, but among teachers the tendency towards sectionalism seems to be growing, and we frequently hear that new associations are being formed. In itself this process is not harmful, provided always that sectionalism is not carried to the length of mutual hostility. However many associations may be born there will still remain a vast field where teachers may meet on common ground and work in professional harmony. For example, no teacher who respects himself and his calling can fail to approve the establishment of reasonable tests of admission to the teaching profession. As to the details of these tests there may be differences of view, but it will be generally admitted that successful teaching calls for adequate knowledge on the part of the teacher and for some proof of successful experience in the work. In addition to these requirements, the novice should be asked to undertake some form of professional training, for it cannot reasonably be held that teaching differs so widely from other professions that any university graduate or holder of a specialist subject diploma is qualified to communicate knowledge to others without giving some consideration to the principles which underlie the work and some attention to the technique of successful practice.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS

Executive : THE TEACHERS REGISTRATION COUNCIL

Readers are asked to note that although the EDUCATION OUTLOOK will contain in every number a record of the Royal Society of Teachers and of the proceedings of its Executive—The Teachers Registration Council—these bodies are not responsible for the views expressed by the Editor or by contributors and correspondents.

HISTORICAL

THE present position of the Registration movement calls for a reminder that this effort towards gaining real professional status for teachers is no mushroom affair. So far back as 1846 there was established the College of Preceptors, an institution of which the avowed aim was "to raise the standard of the profession by providing a guarantee of fitness and respectability." The College thus established was in the main concerned with schools in private ownership. Public elementary schools were already under state control and their staffs have continued to be recruited under the special inducement of grants in aid of their preparatory training. The schools which rank as public schools have drawn their staffs from the Universities, chiefly Oxford and Cambridge, and have never shown any great perception of the need for the professional training of novices.

In 1869 W. E. Forster introduced in Parliament a Bill "to provide for the Registry of Teachers and the Examination of Scholars in Endowed Schools." After a period of grace no person was to be appointed to teach in any endowed school unless his name appeared on a Register which was to be kept by a National Council of twelve members, representing the Crown, the Universities, and the Registered Teachers.

This Bill was abandoned, but in 1879 Mr. Lyon Playfair introduced a Bill to provide for "the Organization and Registration of Teachers engaged in Intermediate Education." The proposal excluded the seven great public schools and also the public elementary schools, but an Education Council was to make a Register of other teachers, admitting graduates or those holding equivalent qualifications. This Bill also was abandoned.

In 1881 Sir John Lubbock proposed a Register of Teachers, with the important suggestion that the Teachers Certificate of any university should be a qualification for admission. This is the first suggestion of professional training as a condition of registration. In 1890 Bishop Temple introduced a Bill for "the Registration and Organization of Teachers," repeating the proposals of previous bills.

In the same year Mr. A. H. Dyke Acland (later Sir Arthur Acland, and the first Chairman of the present Registration Council) introduced

an important Bill which was the first effectual step towards a real professional Register of Teachers. The Bill, together with the Temple Bill of 1890, was referred to a Select Committee. It proposed to set up an Educational Council, including representatives of the National Union of Teachers, the Teachers' Guild, the Headmasters' Conference, and the Headmistresses' Association. Teachers in universities and private tutors were not to be registered, but all others of two years' experience were to be eligible during a period of three years. After this the qualifications were to be: Age (21 years); the possession of a certificate in the theory and practice of teaching, and experience of two years.

It will be noted that these proposals lay stress on professional training and proof of teaching ability as qualifications for Registration. To the plain man such qualifications would seem to be inseparable from any scheme for making a register of *teachers*. The guarantees of "fitness and respectability" which were sought in 1846 by the College of Preceptors, and the proofs of academic learning which were suggested in the Bills of 1869, 1881, and 1890, might be appropriate to any learned profession, but only as preliminary requirements. If teachers are ever to claim rank as a true profession they must be ready to formulate their own standard of craftsmanship in teaching, just as the doctors have done in medical practice or the lawyers in legal practice. At any time there are thousands of university graduates who, after taking their degrees, have undergone a further course in preparation for some calling. Why should a university graduate be allowed to suppose that teaching demands no special preparation and that the pupil's bench can be exchanged for the master's desk in one stride?

The Select Committee on the Acland Bill of 1890 found among the witnesses an inevitable clash of interests. Administrators were afraid lest the barrier of registration qualifications might impede the recruiting of teachers. Forward-looking minds believed that registration would help to improve educational methods, and teachers hoped that it would lead to better status and higher pay. But some teachers were reluctant to impose any requirement as to professional training. These differences killed the Bill.

In 1891 another effort was made to pass the Temple Bill, and in 1893 a third Temple Bill was introduced "for the Registration of Teachers in Secondary Schools." It proposed that registration should not include teachers in universities or public elementary schools and that no unregistered teacher should serve in any public endowed school or in any state-aided or rate-aided secondary school. Also the unregistered teacher was to be unable to recover professional charges in a court of law. This Bill contained the first reference to teachers of special subjects.

Also in 1893 another Bill—the Macdonald Bill—was put forward on the lines of the Temple Bill of the same year. It was proposed to establish

a Council representing the Universities and teaching bodies with four Crown nominees. An essential qualification was a certificate of proficiency in the theory and practice of teaching, but individuals of general intellectual attainment and of practical ability to teach were also to be admitted.

The Bryce Commission on Secondary Education in 1894-5 widened considerably the conception of a Register of Teachers by recommending one Register for all teachers, based upon a twofold qualification, academic and professional. Up to this time the Registers proposed had been mainly Registers of teachers working in secondary schools, but the Commission held that an exclusive Register would hinder the passage of teachers from one type of school to another. Following the Commissioners' Report came Sir John Gorst's Bill for the Registration of Teachers, 1896. Under this Bill a Registration Council was to be formed consisting of six Crown members, six elected by the Universities, and six by the Registered Teachers themselves. The qualification for admission to the Register was to be a degree or a certificate of adequate knowledge of the theory and practice of education. The Register was to be open to teachers in all classes of school or institution, including private teachers, but the Council was not to conduct examinations and no penalty was suggested for non-registration. In 1898 the same Bill was introduced into the House of Lords by the Duke of Devonshire.

These developments led to the establishment of the first Registration Council, which was authorized under the Board of Education Act of 1899. The Act gave powers for constituting by Order in Council a Consultative Committee which, in addition to advising the Board on any matter referred by it to the Committee, was also to be charged with the duty of framing, with the approval of the Board of Education, regulations for the Register of Teachers to be formed and kept in a manner to be prescribed by Order in Council.

The first Registration Council was constituted in March, 1902, and its membership was made up of six persons nominated by the President of the Board and one elected by each of the following bodies: the Headmasters' Conference, the Headmasters' Association, the Headmistresses' Association, the College of Preceptors, the Teachers' Guild, and the National Union of Teachers. The Register established by this Council was divided into two parts known as Column A and Column B. Teachers in elementary schools who held the Board of Education Certificate were registered in Column A without application or payment. In Column B appeared the names of teachers in schools other than elementary who satisfied the prescribed conditions and paid a fee of one guinea.

From the outset this Register was strongly condemned by the leaders of the elementary school teachers, and also by many secondary school

teachers, on the ground that a professional register ought not to be divided into categories. The officials of the National Union of Teachers declared that teachers in public elementary schools were willing to pay a registration fee provided that they were not treated as a class apart. Their demand was that the Register should be arranged in one column with the names in alphabetical order. In 1905 the Registration Council declared that under existing conditions it was not practicable to frame and publish a Register of Teachers such as appeared to be contemplated in the Act of 1899. They added that Column A served no good purpose, and expressed disappointment that the number of men applicants who were producing evidence of having taken any form of professional training before entering on secondary school teaching was entirely disproportionate to the needs of the profession. As a result the Board proposed to abolish the Register, but this step was strongly objected to by many associations of secondary teachers and also by the National Union of Teachers. Hence in the Education (Administrative Provisions) Act of 1907, Lord Monkswell secured the addition of a clause which, while putting an end to the previous Register, gave power to His Majesty by Order in Council to constitute a Registration Council *representative of the teaching profession* to whom should be assigned the duty of forming and keeping "a Register of such teachers as satisfy the conditions of Registration established by the Council for the time being and who apply to be Registered." It was further ordered that the Register should contain "the names and addresses of all Registered Teachers in alphabetical order in one column, together with the date of their Registration and such further statement regarding their attainments, training, and experience as the Council may from time to time determine that it is desirable to set forth."

This was in 1907, and during the next five years there were held a number of meetings of teachers for the purpose of discussing the form of the new Register. Deputations attended at the Board of Education, and at the beginning of 1911 a conference was held between representatives of several associations of teachers and the leading officials of the Board. Following this came a Privy Council Order dated February 29, 1912, in which it was provided that the Teachers Registration Council should consist of one representative from each of the eleven universities then in existence, together with eleven representatives of then existing associations of secondary school teachers, eleven of associations of then existing elementary school teachers, and eleven representatives of teachers of specialist subjects (music, art, physical training, etc.). It was further ordered that the Council should elect a Chairman from outside its own number and that each Council should hold office for three years.

So began the present Register of Teachers. It will be noted that the Council was not *representative of the teaching profession*, inasmuch as

there can be no properly constituted profession without a Register. Moreover, the constitution was by its nature temporary, since new universities might be established and new associations of teachers formed. This is what happened, and in 1926 His Majesty in Council authorized a new Order providing that the Council should consist of twelve representatives nominated by the Universities, together with thirty-six representatives elected by Registered Teachers voting according to the type of teaching work to which they belong. The forty-eight elected members are empowered to co-opt two others to represent types of teaching work not already represented on the Council. This form of control of the Register is likely to be permanent, since it affords the fullest possible measure of representation, ensuring that no type of teaching work is ignored. It may be that fresh types will develop, but this can be provided for by a simple alteration in the present Privy Council Order. In 1929 the King ordered that the whole body of Registered Teachers should be known henceforth as the Royal Society of Teachers. This marks the beginning of a new stage, for Registered Teachers become without further payment or any annual subscription Members of the Royal Society of Teachers, while those who are qualified for Registration in respect of attainments may be admitted as Associate Members pending the fulfilment of the prescribed conditions in regard to training and experience.

It should be noted that the progress of the Registration movement has been greatly impeded by the War and by the fact that no penalty or even inconvenience has hitherto attended non-Registration. On the latter point it may be assumed that the Board of Education have held their hands while awaiting proof that teachers as a body supported the movement. On this the test is the number of teachers who apply for Registration and pay the fee without expecting immediate personal advantage. It is greatly to the credit of teachers as a body that nearly one hundred thousand have supported the movement, but it cannot be hoped that this support will be continued indefinitely. The time has now come when the Board and appointing bodies should recognize the existence of the Register and reserve all posts of responsibility in the teaching service for Registered Teachers. A beginning might be made in this direction by ordering that none save Registered Teachers with a suitable period of experience in the type of school concerned may be appointed to the headship of any grant-aided school, elementary or secondary.

Since the Council receives no financial aid from the State its income and its independence as a professional body must be secured by the fees paid on Registration. Early in 1914 the prescribed fee was one guinea, but war charges led to an increase of £2 (not two guineas), and later the heavy reduction in the interest on War Loan compelled a further

increase to £3, at which figure the fee is likely to remain. It is a single and final payment, for, unlike members of other professions, those who secure admission to the Register of Teachers are not called upon to pay an annual fee. Nor can it be considered that a fee of sixty shillings covering possibly a teaching service of thirty years is extortionate. There is not a profession nor even a trade union in which membership can be retained for the equivalent of a halfpenny a week. The Conditions of Registration have been carefully devised, and applicants are required to produce evidence of attainments appropriate to the branch of teaching in which they propose to work, together with satisfactory experience covering one year. The greatest difficulty has been to enforce any requirement as to professional training, but here the Council has avoided any demand for a course of preparation in an institution or training college. A period of training service during which the novice practises teaching under skilled supervision and follows a course of reading in the methods and principles of teaching is accepted as a form of training qualifying for admission to the Register.

From the foregoing record it will be seen that in its present form the Register of Teachers fulfils the demands made from time to time by teachers themselves. It symbolizes what is called the unification of the teaching profession, recognizing no barriers as between one type of teaching and another, while ensuring that all who are admitted to the Register have given proof of "fitness and respectability," academic knowledge, and craftsmanship in teaching. No professional Register can guarantee the personal efficiency of all who are admitted, but the Teachers Register does guarantee a minimum standard such as a representative body of teachers are able to formulate with full knowledge and after careful consideration. Qualified teachers who refrain from Registration are failing to perform their part in a movement which is designed to enhance the status of their own calling and ultimately to bring advantages to the whole body of teachers.

RESIGNATION OF LORD GORELL

AS we go to press we learn that Lord Gorell has decided to resign from the dual office of Chairman of the Teachers Registration Council and President of the Royal Society of Teachers. He succeeded Sir Michael Sadler in 1922 and during the ensuing twelve years he has brought to the work all the resources of a mind well-equipped and highly trained, with a varied experience of public work. He has guided the Council with great skill and unflinching tact, and has won the esteem of all its members. The increasing demands upon his time have led him to resign, but his interest in the Registration movement will not be diminished.

REFLECTIONS ON INSPECTIONS

By H. J. MINDHAM

THE correspondent of my school had just sent me the Report from H.M.I., and I glanced through it with the indifference born of familiarity with its futilities. One phrase caught my eye, "Geography in Class III is weak." My thoughts went to Class III, in this village school. There was Tom, aged 8, who could hardly tell you where he lived and certainly could not write it down. There were the two Smiths (shall I call them?), one of whom was "practically M.D.," the S.M.O. had said. Also I thought of Freda, who had a withered arm and bad eyes.

I remembered that an inquiry I had recently made showed that 70 per cent of my pupils had never seen a train or a ship or a town. A few of them had not even travelled by bus into the next village. None of them had ever seen a mountain, river, or lake.

Then I thought of the teacher, Miss X, who, four years before had been a pupil of the school, and whose range of experience had extended very little further. What sort of geography could she be expected to teach?

Lastly the Inspector came into mind, and the day of inspection. It was a cold, wet, and depressing day. Garments of all kinds were being dried before the fires, the children were uneasy and frightened, and the teacher nervous to the point of speechlessness. H.M.I. had bustled in and had grumbled about the bad roads and the weather. How loquaciously he had described his travels in Scotland and Ireland, and how disappointed he was at the "one word" answers to his questions, from the few who gathered courage enough to speak. After ten minutes he had had enough of it, and here was his Report!

Is it not high time this ridiculous business of "inspections" came to an end? H.M.I. knows well what sheer humbug it is. He knows that small village children cannot possibly learn the sort of geography and history which can be examined. He knows the fraud of hygiene lessons in a dark and dirty building lacking water supply or decent conveniences. He knows how impossible it is for ill-nourished children to benefit by the physical training course, and he knows, too, that the thousands of untrained, unskilled (that is, without special skill) teachers cannot possibly make a success of the elaborate physical training and handwork schemes put out by the Board.

I hope one day to read a Report by an Inspector who knows at first hand the lives of the poor, who knows that teaching is an art difficult to acquire, and who has studied the S.M.O.'s detailed reports on the children.

How much longer is H.M.I. to remain an official instrument without a mind of his own? How much longer is he to be expected to close his eyes to disagreeable facts? When will he call a spade a spade, and, on the other hand, give honour where honour is due?

FROM THE OUTLOOK TOWER

SIR JOHN ADAMS

THE death of Sir John Adams at Los Angeles on Sunday, September 30, removed from the world of education not only one of its leading personalities but also one of the most esteemed of teachers. Born in 1857 he devoted the greater part of his long life of seventy-seven years to the practice of teaching and the exposition of educational principles. Before coming to London to take office as Principal of the Day Training College and Professor of Education in the University of London, he had already become a man of note in Scotland, where he had been Professor of Education at Aberdeen and Glasgow and had occupied the Chair of President of the Educational Institute of Scotland. His work in Scotland was distinguished and in a sense epoch-making, for he placed the study of education on the level of other university studies, and among his former pupils are to be found many who now hold posts of great influence in schools and Universities. For those who were privileged to be in the circle of his friends there are unforgettable memories of his kindness and ever-present sense of humour. For him teaching was a human undertaking, and the study of education under his direction became something wholly remote from the dull pedantry with which it is so often associated.

SCHOOL AGE COUNCIL

THIS Council has been formed to co-ordinate the efforts of those who favour the raising of the school age to fifteen. Under its auspices there was held in London recently a meeting of representatives of some thirty bodies interested in the welfare of young people, and a resolution was passed declaring that this Conference of social agencies specially concerned with work among children and young people regarded the raising of the school leaving age by Act of Parliament to at least fifteen as a measure of urgency on educational, moral, social, and spiritual grounds. The Hon. R. D. Denman, M.P., who presided, said that re-organization on the lines of the Hadow Report made the raising of the school age inevitable. Every year's delay meant that a generation of school children were deprived of the extra year's benefit. The case for raising the age was unanswerable. The Warden of All Souls, Dr. W. G. S. Adams, stressed the educational aspect of the question, pointing out that the recent investigation showed that over one-half of the boys who left school remained uninfluenced either by a social club or by an educational authority. Miss Margaret Bondfield reminded the Conference that in U.S.A. many States had made it illegal for children under sixteen to enter regular employment.

OUR NEGLECT OF YOUTH

THE case for raising the school age should not be pressed solely on economic grounds, although it is clear that so long as children are allowed to leave school at fourteen, many employers will be only too willing to treat them as a source of cheap labour, regardless of the fact that they are displacing older workers who are thrust upon the unemployment insurance fund or upon the new public assistance fund. More important than the economic aspect are the educational and social aspects. With every extension of the franchise there comes an increased danger if the democratic system of majority rule is accompanied by an ignorant and untrained electorate. With every extension of mechanical production there comes an increased possibility of leisure for manual workers, and if they are not trained to use this leisure aright the life of the community will suffer. As was pointed out the other day, spare time with money is called leisure, and spare time without money is called unemployment. The problem of unemployment is in reality a problem of ill-distributed spare time. We must learn to distribute leisure more equitably by shortening the hours of labour, and at the same time our educational system must provide a training in crafts and leisure pursuits. Vocational training has no place strictly in a school curriculum, but a training in leisure-hour pursuits is valuable both educationally and socially.

JUVENILE INSTRUCTION CENTRES

MEANWHILE we are presented with the spectacle of a shoddy alternative to raising the school age and to the day continuation schools authorised by the Education Act. Up to December 4, fifty-one Local Educational Authorities had submitted proposals for establishing juvenile instruction centres and classes for unemployed boys, and forty-six had submitted proposals for centres and classes for unemployed girls, while sixty-three are proposing to admit unemployed juveniles to existing educational institutions. Only 123 centres and classes are in operation. The average attendance during the week ending November 21 was 13,945 boys and 4,757 girls, leaving over 100,000 unemployed young people for whom no provision was made. Such arrangements are a mere trifling with an urgent problem, and apart from the small number of centres, no informed person can believe that the educational value of a centre will amount to very much, since the pupils will be in and out according as they find and lose jobs. It will be utterly impossible for the most gifted teacher to do much that is worth while towards the right training of these casual visitors, most of whom will come grudgingly and of necessity, driven only by the prospect of losing their unemployment pay if they do not attend. Compulsion could take no worse form.

THE TEACHER'S FREEDOM

AN incident such as happily seldom occurs in our university history attracted some attention during the early autumn. Professor Laski, of the London School of Economics, who was for some years on the staff of Harvard, U.S.A., delivered by invitation a course of lectures in Moscow at the Institute of Soviet Law. These lectures were based on a book by Professor Laski already published in this country under the title *Democracy in Crisis*. It would appear that in Moscow he hazarded the prophecy that democratic institutions in this country will survive if the "governing class" show readiness to compromise and are willing to play the game according to their avowed traditions. This sentiment was unwelcome to many of his audience, and oddly enough, but for a different reason, it was unwelcome to many of his critics in England, for questions were asked in Parliament and it was even suggested that the London School of Economics should be deprived of part of its grant on the ground that it is a hot-bed of communistic teaching. The Vice-Chancellor and Principal of London University wrote to the press hinting that it might be desirable to hold an inquiry into the conduct of their colleague.

These are strange doings, wholly contrary to the sound principle that teachers cannot honourably consent to become mere mouthpieces of authority. They are bound by a professional code to hold the balance fairly as between different views, but they must not be expected to become gramophone records.

SCHOOL BOOK CENSORSHIP

IT is possible to link up with the Laski incident an ill-considered proposal of the London Labour Party that all text-books used in schools should be examined with a view to the elimination of "militaristic, patriotic, and capitalist, propaganda," and to the replacing of all text-books "not regarded as accurate and reliable" with books of a more impartial character. This suggestion is clearly dictated by a strong political motive, and if it were accepted we should probably require different sets of text-books, each set being used only during the term of office of one political party. When the United States came into the War, attention was drawn to the fact that in most of the history books used in their schools, England was represented as the great national enemy. An inquiry was held and a report followed describing the treatment of the American Revolution in American school text-books. In many instances this treatment showed little regard for impartiality, truth being sacrificed to the picturesque, with the result that a resolute effort had to be made to convince the American citizen that his Government was acting wisely in becoming an ally of Great Britain.

THE TEACHERS' FIVE POINTS

AT the Autumn Conference of the London Teachers' Association there was put forward a plan for the improving of London schools, the scheme falling under five heads, namely : (1) The modernization of many school buildings ; (2) Improved standards of lighting, heating, and cleansing ; (3) A reduction in the size of classes ; (4) A widening of opportunities for secondary and technical education ; (5) The provision of greater facilities for all types of cultural education and education for leisure. Coming from an important association of teachers these aims are worth considering, and it is to be noted that the teachers are not asking for additions to their own salaries or showing any of that " trade union spirit " of which they are sometimes accused. The improvements which they ask for are indeed so obviously in accord with sound educational practice that some day we shall wonder why they had to be suggested. The plain and regrettable fact is that even in London there are many schools which need to be brought up to date in respect of buildings, while throughout the country the standards of lighting, heating, and cleansing are often extremely low. There is a certain tragic irony in the frequent reminder of Sir George Newman that more attention should be paid to the teaching of hygiene in schools when we remember that in many schools there are no facilities for even the simple operation of washing one's hands in comfort.

VOLUNTARY O.T.C.'S

WHENEVER it is suggested that membership of the Officers Training Corps in secondary schools is not wholly voluntary warm protests are forthcoming. On this point Mr. C. H. Wilkinson, of Worcester College, Oxford, offers some interesting evidence, for in a letter to *The Times* he states that it is notorious that service in the junior division of the O.T.C. is almost always compulsory, even when nominally voluntary. Mr. Wilkinson is interested in the senior O.T.C. at Oxford, and he tells us that " for the last ten years undergraduates at Oxford have justified their refusal to join the senior division of the O.T.C. by saying that their school O.T.C. has given them a distaste for any further service." Hence Mr. Wilkinson urges that membership of school O.T.C.'s should be voluntary, and he goes even beyond this by saying that " the value of military training under the age of eighteen is open to question and certainly not as great as training received after that age." So he concludes that compulsory O.T.C.'s tend to kill voluntary military service, and that the money spent in grants to school contingents defeats its own purpose. These conclusions from one who cannot be described as a conscientious objector to military service are worth noting, especially by those schools which have come to regard their O.T.C.'s as a kind of hall-mark of social standing.

THE FUTURE OF LATIN

THE most remarkable incident in the educational meetings of the British Association was a suggestion by Dr. Cyril Norwood that for many boys the study of Latin is a waste of time. Not unnaturally, this suggestion has caused some disturbance of mind among teachers who have hitherto gained a modest livelihood by attempting to teach Latin to children in secondary and public schools. The arguments used to justify what Dr. Norwood calls a waste of time are sufficiently familiar, although they may not be sufficiently convincing. It is possible that the teaching of Latin would be at once more interesting to the pupil and more successful in its results if the technique of imparting it were rigorously overhauled. Such books as the three volumes entitled *Latin for To-day*, published by Ginn & Company and written by experienced and alert-minded teachers, have performed the miracle in some schools of making the majority of learners, and not merely a selected few, eager to read and understand the language of Rome. For many boys it is a novel experience to realize that Latin was in fact spoken by boys of their own age two thousand years ago. Most often the subject is presented to them as a distasteful blend of arbitrary rules and annoying exceptions, with such meagre opportunities for reading as the limitations of the school time-table permit.

MUSIC TEACHERS AND TRAINING

MUSIC teachers are too often content to acquire some proficiency in the theory of music and in performance on an instrument, without troubling to consider how they should impart their knowledge and proficiency to others. In this they are not alone, for a similar state of things is to be found among teachers in other branches. Yet it is surprising to find the Principal of a large musical institution in the north of England declaring that a great deal of nonsense is talked about the training of musical teachers, chiefly by educational experts from Whitehall who admitted that they had no knowledge of music, or by professional musicians whose commercial instincts had been cultivated more than their musical capacity. "They would have it believed," he said, "that courses in method, pedagogy, psychology of the child mind, and all the mysterious things one heard so much about were of more importance than technical training." It is impossible to believe that any responsible person has ever suggested that training in teaching will replace knowledge of the subject-matter taught, and in music, as in any art, the success of the teacher depends to a large extent on his ability as an artist, but it is possible to be a fine artist without being able to communicate one's skill, and therefore a teacher of music should study the principles and methods of teaching and not depend solely on his pupil's power of imitation.

THE MILK RATION

MR. HERWALD RAMSBOTHAM has caused some excitement by declaring that children who do not pay the prescribed half-penny for the ration of one-third of a pint of milk now made available for schools by the benevolent operations of the Milk Marketing Board must not expect to receive a free ration unless the school medical officer is prepared to say that they are in a state of "sub-normal nutrition." A committee of the British Medical Association have declared that in their opinion the onus of making this decision should not rest upon the school doctors, and indeed it seems strange to suggest that a child must show evidence of semi-starvation, in the medical sense, in order to prove that he needs food. On the other hand, Mr. Ramsbotham could reply to his critics reminding them that the payments under the unemployment insurance and the public assistance scheme are intended to ensure that all families, including children, are adequately fed in their own homes, and that the milk ration is therefore in the nature of medical treatment to be paid for and possibly allowed for in the home dietary. This answer might be supported by some interesting conclusions to the effect that some youngsters who have taken milk at school have no proper appetite for their mid-day meal. There is need for a clear statement as to the present position, for when school feeding was introduced in 1906 there was neither unemployment insurance nor a well-ordered scheme of public assistance.

THE CASUAL WORKER

WRITING in the *Manchester Guardian*, Mr. Ivor Brown reminds us that "instruction of the young mind is open to anybody who starts a school and can wheedle any parent into paying fees for such teaching as will there be given. It is true that those who are to teach the poor are taught to teach, but those who are to teach the rich are not. At universities the recipient of last year's lectures is delivering lectures next year without any pause to reflect upon the technique of this exercise or any practice in the extremely difficult art of conveying facts and opinions by the spoken word. The graduate can become a schoolmaster without a minute's application to the business of instruction. A total ignoramus, or even a dangerous crank, can start a school whenever he likes and undertake the cure of minds; whereas nobody can undertake the cure of bodies unless he has been through a long and expensive course of medical science. The only legal remedy which can be taken against the charlatan-schoolmaster is to prosecute one of the parents who patronize him for failing to educate his child, a cumbrous process which may very easily fail, since all the schoolmaster need do is to prove that he is somehow offering the equivalent of an elementary school."

EDUCATION FOR WHAT?

By ERNEST MARSH

IT is now a little over ten years since I left an elementary school at the age of fourteen. For a time I worked on a farm, then in a wholesale warehouse, until finally, after wielding a sledge hammer at a smith's forge in the boiler yard of a railway works for several years, I managed, with the help of a scholarship, to get to Oxford. But the cloistered quiet of a university does not lull the memory into forgetfulness of faces seen in the glare of a factory furnace. My experience of the past year has made me realize more than ever the necessity for raising the school leaving age, for it seems inevitable that education must be one of the forerunners of any change that leads to the betterment of the people. To leave school at the age of fourteen is still looked upon by many as a kind of natural law, to be accepted without demur. In this respect there has been little change since I handed in my tattered school books for the last time.

The school I attended adjoined the railway works, and large numbers of the boys went into the works on leaving. They simply went from one side of the wall to the other. Some of those who had just left used to sneak away to the school wall at playtime and converse with their old school mates. They were inordinately proud of their black faces and grimy clothes. The grimier they were the greater they considered their superiority over their former schoolfellows. They soon discovered, however, that the gulf between themselves and their school days was infinitely wider than the thickness of the playground wall. Perhaps it is because I eventually became one of those boys that the whole question of education seems to me a matter of such vital importance. I realize now that, after all, one is really quite an immature being at the age of fourteen.

As things are, most adolescents at the age when emotional and social feelings are really beginning are thrust into a non-citizenlike atmosphere. It is also the time when ideas are clearing and becoming more firmly fixed in children's minds. Teachers now begin to see the fruits of their labours. Moreover, many boys who enter the employ of large engineering firms and work at odd jobs for a year or two are then apprenticed, if they happen to be among the fortunate ones, to the particular trade in which there happens to be a vacancy, irrespective of their own personal inclinations. There is usually no alternative, and no second offer if the first is refused. Consequently many a boy who has set his heart on becoming a carpenter because of his interest in woodwork, is sent to the machine shop to become a turner, or to some other trade that does not appeal to him in the least. Thus he starts his career with a lack of enthusiasm and a feeling of frustration which,

apart from any other consideration, is not conducive to creating an efficient workman. Efficiency will always be at a discount while there are so many round pegs in square holes.

The boy—and I happened to be one of these—whose sixteenth birthday comes at a period when there are no apprenticeship vacancies, is allotted a semi-skilled job in one or other of the shops, where he proceeds to strain his puny muscles at a man's task for a boy's pay. He may simulate an attitude of indifference to the trick which circumstances have played upon him. But beneath this veneer of sophistication there is often a burning sense of bitterness, a feeling that he has been cheated of something to which he was justly entitled. He may make spasmodic efforts to get out of the rut, only to find himself thwarted at every turn. He has no influential friends to pull strings for him, and eventually becomes more or less resigned to his fate. Finally he tends to drift along in an aimless kind of way, while football coupons, horse-racing, and similar diversions, assist him in relegating his youthful aspirations to the background. As a result of our modern methods of industrial technique he is unable to express himself in his work. The joy of craftsmanship is denied him. His work is uncongenial and irksome and his heart is not in it. The opiate of gambling has the psychological effect of making his blind-alley occupation a little more tolerable.

It is impossible to expect youths to be keen about their work or to take a genuine pride in it when they are daily faced with the deadly dullness of routine work in drab surroundings. Yet, if a boy at school, as the result of modern educational methods, gains an appreciation of the Arts, as happily he now does, the difficulty of adjusting himself to such mechanized working conditions becomes greater than ever.

The National Institute of Industrial Psychology has done a great deal of useful work in connection with vocational guidance, although knowledge in regard to it is still limited. A big extension of this work, however, would embody the true spirit of educational progress. For the purpose of such work the raising of the school leaving age is of the utmost importance. Not only would it prevent adolescents from being thrust on to an already overcrowded labour market, but it would provide them with better opportunities for developing along the lines which their interests and capabilities indicate.

While if productive methods, such as, for instance, those exemplified by the assembly belt system, continue to increase, it is imperative, if workers engaged in such industries are not to deteriorate mentally, that the introduction of shorter working hours and a wider cultural education should come. Yet it is twenty-odd centuries since Aristotle told the Greeks that the aim of education should be directed towards the preparation for refined leisure.

CHILD GUIDANCE CLINICS

By T. FLOWER MILLS

THE Child Guidance movement, which came from America only about five years ago, claims that potential young criminals can be turned into ordinary children by judicious early training. That is, the "difficult" qualities likely enough to develop into actual crime later on may be checked and cured if at the very beginning they are noted, understood, and treated. If neglected, they will recruit the class of "youthful offenders" requiring Borstal detention or other more serious means of correction.

If a child is ill in body a doctor is at once called in, but if his behaviour goes wrong his elders have had hitherto to rely on their own judgment. The Child Guidance movement is an attempt to bring together different kinds of work for the young. It is not for the mental deficient, but for those who do not yield to normal discipline or training, and are subject to such things as night terrors, "faddiness" in feeding, and delinquencies such as theft and running away. To call such children "nervy," "incorrigible," or merely "backward" is to describe their symptoms, not to discover causes. This movement tries to find out the cause by studying the individual child and his surroundings, when the connection between these and the symptoms can be seen, and treatment is chosen accordingly.

It is estimated by some authorities that as many as fifty per cent of the population have nervous disorders of one kind or another, such as stammering and twitching movements. Punishments of various sorts are tried in vain; bribery fails equally, and the perplexed parents revert to punishment, still without avail. Specialists in these matters understand the patients better than the parents themselves. The roots of the problem have to be ascertained. Mainly these are physical condition, mental gifts, and the background of home life.

The method is to establish clinics, and of these there are so far eight in London, one in each of the largest cities, and a few in smaller towns. A clinic consists of three workers, and nearly all the work is voluntary. One is the Director, a qualified doctor with experience in nervous troubles; one a psychologist or psychiatrist skilled in the theory of motives; and one a social worker with general and special training. They have to be able to gauge the possible motives and feelings not only of children, but of parents and other companions of the children, as these have an important bearing on the diagnosis. These three persons work together in the clinic, first drawing up a plan of procedure. Parents

write to them and bring the children, and then home conditions have to be inquired into so as to provide the needed information as to causes.

Take two typical instances. Here is one where a new baby has come and there is an older child, quite young. Many small things give the latter an impression that he is no longer cared for or wanted, so that jealousy and unhappiness result. A possible symptom is that he becomes once more babyish in habits, unable to walk, or thinking himself so ; or he may be spiteful and cruel, from the subconscious motive of attracting attention to himself. A jealous child, normally kind, was known to take gold-fish out of a bowl and cut them in pieces. He may suffer from night terrors. The mother may be blameless in her attitude towards both children. A doctor's advice in one case of night fears was to keep the elder child up a little later than the baby, and take some pains with him, telling him a story, for instance. In this particular instance the method was immediately effectual, and after one night the child was never troubled again with the fears. The cause of disorder was a feeling of loss or lack in the child's mind, and this must be banished.

The second case is that of an older child, about twelve, who developed discontent with her school duties, became hysterical, and suffered from sickness. She was constantly being told of a brilliant cousin and contrasted with her. The treatment prescribed was not to coddle her, but to encourage her to realize what success she had herself attained, show her strong points, and cease comparing her to the more talented child. In similar cases children sometimes manifest incipient paralysis, and the cause is merely a morbid exaggeration of their own lack of success at school.

Stealing also is often a means of securing attention. The child can become popular among his schoolfellows by the sweets he can buy with money stolen, or with some favourite teacher by other gifts. All such cases come under the head of nervous symptoms or behaviour troubles, and they need care, patience, commonsense, and readiness to use all the means in one's power.

Most of these clinics achieve the fine results of fifty per cent of successes in their treatments. Integrity and trustworthiness are essential in the personnel, as parents often have to give intimate confidences, and must be able to do so without reserve or fear of betrayal.

Hundreds of letters come to the London clinics, asking for help with difficult children. People may bring the patients up from the country, and some have come from as far as Cornwall. Two or three visits are often sufficient to start parents on a proper course of training. Once

they understand what to do, the rest is simple. Sometimes two or three months are necessary, or occasionally even a few years. One of the causes may be any change in the way of living, school, class, age, or health, causing nervous irritation. The clinics may be in hospitals, and this is perhaps best, as then there is no suggestion of "naughtiness" or any sort of stigma, but only of health.

As to finance, the movement is chiefly dependent at present on voluntary contributions, but the L.C.C. helps a little, partly by providing free tram tickets for children going to and returning from the clinics. In Birmingham the Education Committee gives small grants. When people can afford to pay, they do, but no one is refused if poverty prevents this. A fee may be 7s. 6d., or only 6d. They cannot as yet get grants from Government. Most of the workers are unpaid, giving their labour for the sake of the cause.

Sometimes children are removed altogether from their homes, if these are entirely unsuitable, and boarded out in farms and other country places. It depends on each case. Unless home surroundings can be altered while the child is away, there is the risk of a relapse on return, even if he appears to be cured. It is not always the parents' fault, either through inheritance or in the minor sense of lack of comprehension of the trouble. The child may be born unstable through other causes, so that he cannot resist a slightly bad or unwise influence. If the parents understand and are sensible, it is far better that the children should be brought up by them. We must not overlook the common source of really vicious traits in the young—viz., alcoholism in one or other of the parents—but this is so wide a subject that it needs consideration by itself. Naturally, the inquiries by the Social Worker of the clinic into home conditions would note it at once.

An interesting experiment was started in a small way about eighteen months ago by Dr. and Mrs. Hills at Stroud, one of the very few small towns with a clinic. They have now secured an expert psychologist, and a retired local school teacher was appointed as the Social Worker. As most of the parents had been her pupils in school, she knew their history and was able to furnish just the information required. About thirty-three per cent of successes are claimed, but this is an excellent beginning.

It is clear we need this work to save the coming generation as good citizens for the country. The question is: Can we afford to have it? From the point of view of any thoughtful person it might better be: Can we afford *not* to have it? As neglected cases often find their way into police courts in later years, and even prisons and mental homes, surely the answer is an emphatic negative.

PUZZLES AND PROBLEMS

By JAMES TRAVERS, B.A., M.R.S.T.

THE answers to the Summer Number Problems are as follows:—
 1. The numbers 6, 7, 2, and 8, 3, 4, taken from the diagram in Question 2 fulfil the conditions.

2. The prime numbers 7, 61, 43; 73, 37, 1; 31, 13, and 67, arranged in order from top to bottom form the magic square.

3. 298 feet at 2d., and 456 feet at $2\frac{1}{2}$ d., answer the conditions.

4. Because they are leg-ends.

5. Let ABC be the triangle, P the point outside it. Join PA and make angle CAE on the outside of the triangle = angle PAB, and find E in AE such that $PA \cdot AE = \frac{1}{2} AB \cdot AC$. Join PE, and on PE, on the side remote from A, put a segment of a circle containing an angle = the supplement of angle PAC. Let this segment meet AC in K. Join PK, meeting AB in L. The line LK bisects the triangle. Proof: the triangles PLA and AKE are similar. Hence $PA/AL = KA/AE$. This gives $PA \cdot AE = AL \cdot KA = \frac{1}{2} AB \cdot AC$.

6. Let ABCD be the square, E, F, G, H the middle points of the sides. Join AF, BG, CH, and DE. These lines divide the square in the desired manner.

7. There are just 8 sets of numbers, all different, that fulfil the conditions, as 1, 16, 17; 2, 8, and 10, etc.

8. Let ABC be the triangle, having AB greater than AC. From BA cut off BE = AC and draw EL || BC. With centre A and radius AC describe arc meeting EL at L. Join LC meeting AB in P, and draw PQ || AL. P and Q are points required. Proof: complete the parallelogram EIXB. Then $CP/PB = CL/LX$ and $CP/PQ = CL/LA$, and since $LX = EB = AL$ we have $PB = PQ = QC$.

1. The following problem is given in Heath's *Diophantus*, where a solution is given by fractional numbers.

Find four numbers, all different, such that the product of any two plus unity gives in each case a perfect square.

Solution.—

1. Let a, b, c, d, be the numbers, then we must have (1) $ab + 1 = a$ square, (2) $ac + 1 = a$ square, (3) $ad + 1 = a$ square, (4) $bc + 1 = a$ square, (5) $bd + 1 = a$ square, and (6) $cd + 1 = a$ square. If we suppose $b = a + 2$, $c = 4a + 4$ and $d = 100a + 20$, then equations 1, 2, 3, and 4 are satisfied. It remains to satisfy 4 and 5. These become $100a^2 + 220a + 41 = a$ square, and $400a^2 + 480a + 81 = a$ square. But these are squares when $a = 1$. Hence the numbers are 1, 3, 8, 120.

A BUSH SCHOOL

By HELEN JONES

NO railway reached the Bush School, so, leaving the nearest station, other means of locomotion had to be sought.

“Yes, miss, a bus does run, but it’s gone for to-day. How will you get there? Well, I don’t know, unless Dave could give you a lift—he’s the man that takes the mails—you’ll find him at the Post Office.”

Inquiries led to Dave being found ready to start. After solemnly regarding this newcomer from the Mother Country, he reckoned if she didn’t mind sitting among the newspapers at the back he could take her along. Having got me settled uncomfortably among parcels of all sizes and shapes in the back of a decrepit old Ford, Dave himself got in, securing the offside door with a piece of string.

The way lay along a sandy track. Apart from occasional fruit blocks, for this was an irrigated area, the sand stretched endlessly on either side, its bareness broken by straggling gums or clumps of pepper trees.

“There it is,” said Dave, pointing to a solid, red-brick building some distance ahead.

Somewhat battered, I climbed out of the car, walked up the short path shaded by palm trees and through the door of my new school.

A few formalities over, I soon found myself in charge of the Infant Department, with about fifty children between four and a half and eight years of age; my only assistant an inexperienced Junior Teacher. Conditions may vary considerably, but child nature remains the same the world over, and I soon got to know and love these little Bush children. I hope I taught them something; they certainly taught me a great deal of the plant and animal life of their country. Nature Study lessons in a strange land are a decided difficulty to the newcomer.

Although they are shy and undemonstrative, Bush life forces the children to become resourceful and independent at an early age. Should a large snake cross the path, it is tackled single-handed; no child would dream of fetching a grown-up to do the work of dispatch.

The Bush girl is equal to her brother in all respects. Should he climb a tree, she will be up after him, to get a peep at the parrot’s or ’possum’s nest.

In all things they are intensely practical, which may explain why, on a vote being taken as to which were their favourite lessons, Arithmetic came so high on the list and Poetry so low.

Education is free, but parents provide some of the books. Each child brought a Work book, in which most of the class work was done, and it was no uncommon thing to find a map of Australia in the middle of a page, spellings down one side, sums down the other, grammar rules

on top, and Nature notes at the bottom. This was a little bewildering at first, but it was surprising how clear and neat the children managed to keep these books.

The story hour, so beloved by English children, had very little appeal for these Bush children, unless the stories were of a practical nature. Stories of London they never tired of hearing, the Changing of the Guard and the Tower of London being two favourites.

Behind the school was a large sandy playground with a few palm and pepper trees dotted about for shade. Under these were often tethered horses, for many of the children came long distances. Some drove in buggies or jinkers; others rode on horseback, while many came on bicycles. It was no uncommon thing for lessons to be interrupted by, "Please, miss, can Jimmy come out? His horse is off down the track."

During the hot season a canvas swimming bath was erected, which was a great source of pleasure to the children. The River Murray, with its treacherous currents, being near, it was advisable for the children to be good swimmers.

Every Monday morning at nine o'clock the procedure in all Australian schools is the same. The whole school assembles in the playground, the Union Jack is unfurled, and after repeating the oath of allegiance to the British Empire, the National Anthem is sung. The children then march into school.

The hot season was just beginning, and although I found midday hot, the mornings and evenings were delightfully cool. Morning lessons were taken out-of-doors as much as possible. One shelter with seats all round was completely covered by two huge loganberry trees. At times, fat juicy berries would fall with a plop on to the reading book, and fingers and lips would soon be stained dark red.

Afternoons were too hot to be spent out-of-doors, and then the advantages of a brick building were felt, for wooden buildings became veritable ovens during the heat of the day. The well-fitting wire doors reduced to a minimum the number of flies which otherwise would have made work almost impossible. Suspended from a hook in the open fire place was a water bag. This was an ordinary glass bottle full of water, wrapped round in a coarse canvas bag saturated with water. The children were always free to walk out and get a cool drink.

Sometimes we had to hurry out, get the horses safely sheltered, then back into school with every door and window tightly shut while a sand-storm raged outside. This, fortunately, did not happen very often.

The sad day came when I climbed into Dave's old Ford for my last ride into the township in time to catch the train south for Melbourne. In spite of the isolation, heat, mosquitoes, and flies, I have very happy memories of the time I spent at a Bush School.

GLEANINGS

HIGHER EDUCATION HAS VALUE

"He pleaded that justice would be met if the summonses were dismissed on payment of costs, as a conviction might count against his clients in their future life. Supporting this plea, Mr. David Thomas said the seven defendants were all University or public-school men."

Manchester Guardian.

NATIONAL PERIL

"Only a miracle can save England."

Newspaper Headline on Test Match.

IMPERIAL PROGRESS

"It used to be said that you could always spot an Englishman in cosmopolitan company by the way he wore his flannels. There is evidently a very high standard now throughout the Empire."

Evening News.

NAUTICAL LOGIC

"The 4th of August is a sacred date. The unrest in the world is similar to what it was twenty years ago. The best method of preventing war is to have a Navy strong enough to preserve peace, as it has done in the past."

Lord Beatty, reported in "The Times."

THE NEW MODE

"It has become the fashion with modern youngsters to enjoy school life."

Daily Telegraph.

THE TRIPOS AT OXFORD

"Mr. Davies comes from Tonbridge School and is studious. At Oxford he followed his first-class honours in Part One of the Classical Tripos with a first-class in Part Two."

Evening Standard.

MANNERS AT CAMBRIDGE

"It was striking to notice how the buzz of conversation ceased immediately the foremost Esquire Bedell, heading the procession, made his appearance in the doorway, and when the King and Queen entered absolute silence prevailed."

"Sunday Times," on the Cambridge Library Opening.

MR. RAMSBOTHAM AGAIN

"We could not organize an Education Week at Whitehall. It would be a grim and ghastly business. The sight of the President or myself or the Permanent Secretary at work at our desks might provoke a momentary thrill, but it would soon fade, and you would be left to face the monotonous and discouraging gloom of files and minutes illuminated by flashes of red tape."

MORE HOWLERS

"Sarah Dessert is still to be found in Northern Africa."

"David Livingstone was infested with lions in Africa."

"King John signed Magna Carta because unless he did his barons would not let him put tacks on them."

"Nature adores a vacuum."

BROADMINDED

"We are shocked at nothing, and there is practically nothing we do not approve."

Dr. Julie Seton, Head and Founder of the New Civilisation School, quoted in the "Sunday Referee."

APPEAL TO MUSIC

"A year ago his parents went to the school to make a complaint because she had chastised him, and their language was so abusive that she had to get the school to start singing to drown it."

From report in daily papers of case against schoolmistress.

HOPE FULFILLED

In the extracts from the Esher Papers which appeared in *The Times* there appears the following passage: "It is pleasant to see the small and dirty boys reading the labels in the shop windows. It is one of the signs of the happier future. Shall I live to see education of children forced upon parents? Why can it not be done? That great good which must come, but for which we have to linger and wait."

SELF HELP

"Human well-being is largely achieved by human beings themselves in their own immediate surroundings, rather than by something which descends upon them from the Government."

Sir Percy Sykes.

BOOKS AND THE MAN

DE MORTUIS NIL

THIS abbreviated tag expresses my opinion of a book recently issued under the title *Sir Robert Morant : A Great Public Servant*. It is published by Macmillan at 12s. 6d. net, and although the author, Dr. Bernard M. Allen, has accomplished his task with skill and discretion he had been wiser to choose another subject.

Sir Robert Morant died in 1920, after a strenuous life of 57 years, mainly given to public service in Siam and England. Nobody who met him could fail to be impressed by his bigness and forcefulness, attributes which were sources of strength and also of weakness. The appetite for power grew within him until we had the wholly unfamiliar and unconstitutional phenomenon of a Civil Servant associated in the public mind with the direction of policy. It will be a bad day for England if she allows her civil servants to play the part of uncivil masters.

The Record of Sir Robert Morant's life is simple in outline. Born in Hampstead, he passed through the usual avenues of nursery school and preparatory school to Winchester and Oxford. His later schooling and university course were attended by financial stress, but he obtained a first in theology, his choice of study having been determined by his intention of becoming a clergyman. This intention was abandoned owing to a loss of religious belief, and Morant turned to teaching, in which he had already earned money as a private tutor.

A year in a preparatory school was followed by an engagement as tutor to the sons of a Siamese prince. In Bangkok he soon became a power in the land, taking charge of the King's sons and presently devising a scheme of education for the whole country. His industry was prodigious, for he wrote the text-books to be used in the new schools, organized the whole system, and imported a number of teachers from England. Then came his first rebuff, due to the enmity of influential people who believed that he had been a party to the humiliation of Siam by France. Most probably they were wrong, but it may be surmised that they were misled, as were others nearer home at a later period, by the impressive bearing and apparent omnipotence of the Big Man, as they called him.

Returning to England, Morant was glad to accept a minor post in the Education Office, where he became assistant to Mr. (now Sir) Michael Sadler in the new Department of Special Inquiries and Reports. His capacity for work and his appetite for power soon brought promotion, and in the short space of six years he became the trusted adviser of Sir John Gorst. A year later he was made Acting Secretary of the Board of Education, ready to take command of the manœuvres which

attended the passing of the Balfour Act of 1902 and of the developments which followed.

Dr. Allen shows discreet reticence in refraining from presenting the full story of this rapid accession to power, but a sidelight may be found in the record of the subtle machinations which led to the Cockerton judgment, whereby Higher Grade Board Schools were declared illegal. One need not be excessively scrupulous to think that this episode lacked something of the merit of plain dealing. It may be difficult to be a scheme-maker without becoming to some extent a schemer, and the schemer always finds it possible to justify his actions to himself by recalling the greatness of his ultimate purpose.

With Morant the ultimate purpose was worthy in itself, but sadly out of drawing. He aimed, rightly enough, at improving the educational equipment of primary school teachers, but he did not perceive the need for improving first the conditions of the schools themselves. Countless young teachers since his day have enjoyed the experience of secondary school and university, only to be thrust into overcrowded classrooms and into an environment which disgusted them and chilled their enthusiasm.

He killed the Higher Grade Board School in his unperceiving zeal for what he thought was secondary education. As a result we have many grant-aided secondary schools offering a post-primary training which is only now beginning to eschew the foolish effort to imitate Rugby or Harrow. Also we see the same impulse that brought about the Higher Grade Board School operating to produce Central Schools, Senior Schools, and Higher Tops, all of which are manifestations of a kind of instinctive need for a post-primary schooling which does not attempt to ape the public school.

The final episode in Morant's career at the Board was due to the unexplained disclosure of a private Circular to H.M. Inspectors announcing the discovery that elementary school teachers were "as a rule uncultured and imperfectly educated." By an unfortunate oversight the Circular failed to point out that for over sixty years the education of elementary school teachers had been narrowly supervised by the Education Department. Anyhow the elementary school teachers did not relish the description and the Circular was followed promptly by the departure of the President and the Secretary of the Board.

Our educational system gains nothing from "forcefulness" or from hasty contriving, however inspired. Forced plants are apt to be weak and savourless, and education is an organic growth, not a structure to be pulled about and rebuilt at the will of any man. There are those who would like to rebuild our educational system, but they are happily restrained by lack of those attributes of self-assurance and disregard for the feelings of others which are part of the equipment of many master-builders.

SELIM MILES.

REVIEWS

MATHEMATICS

SCHOOL CERTIFICATE MATHEMATICS. Algebra, Part I. By H. J. LARCOMBE and J. K. FLETCHER. Pp. 136. Cambridge University Press. 2s. With Answers, 2s. 3d.

AS the title indicates, this volume covers the first part of the curriculum prescribed for the School Certificate Examination. The book is well produced and the typography is good. I think that the average child should find the subject-matter well within his powers, and the standard aimed at is perhaps a little low. A considerable increase in the number of problems would add to the value of the book. D. E. C.

A CONCISE SCHOOL ARITHMETIC. By A. WALKER and G. P. McNICOL. Pp. 273. Longmans. 2s. 6d.

THIS book covers the work necessary for the School Certificate or Matriculation Examinations. There is an adequate supply of Revision Papers throughout the book, and each section is well served with examples. D. E. C.

SCIENCE

GENERAL ELEMENTARY SCIENCE. By W. B. LITTLE. Pp. 176. Pitman. 2s. 6d.

THIS little book forms another of the Science in Everyday Life Series, and it is well up to the standard of its predecessors. The subject-matter is well chosen and clearly expressed and the illustrations clear and to the point. The book makes very interesting reading.

NATURE READERS

ROUND THE YEAR WITH ENID BLYTON. Evans. Four volumes. Manilla covers, 1s. 1d.; limp cloth, 1s. 3d.

MISS ENID BLYTON has the gift of understanding children, and in these four volumes she takes them through the seasons, introducing them to birds, animals, fish, and insects. The aim is to make children understand life out-of-doors, and each chapter has useful hints on things to do, such as making an aquarium. The illustrations are ill-chosen and little likely to interest young children, and the drawings on the covers are crude in the extreme.

BIOLOGY

BIOLOGICAL DRAWINGS. By C. VON WYSS, F.L.S. First Series. Animal Studies. Twelve Cards, 13 x 9 in. in portfolio. University of London Press. Complete 4s. 6d. Separate Cards, 4d. each.

THESE cards are intended for the use of students taking an elementary biology course, the subjects being amoeba, hydra, earthworm, cabbage white butterfly, dragon-fly, fish, frog (2), bird (2), rabbit (2), and the development of the chick. The drawings are commendably clear, much of this clearness being due to the wise stressing of important features to the exclusion of less significant detail. They will be found of value in enabling the student to identify the actual structural details of the types illustrated, and to make his own drawings as records of his own observations. Apart from their main purpose the drawings should prove useful to teachers dealing with nature study in schools.

H. S.

BIOLOGY. By E. R. and A. V. SPRATT. Pp. 140. Illustrated. University Tutorial Press. 1s. 9d.

THIS is an elementary introduction to the subject, and is suitable for children of from seven to nine years. Plants, trees, worms, insects, fish, birds, and mammals are treated in simple fashion and with but few difficult scientific terms. H. S.

ANTHROPOLOGY

HUMAN HISTORY. By G. Elliott Smith. Pp. 510. Illustrated. Cape. 12s. 6d. net.

THOSE who regard man as naturally militant will receive many surprises when they read this work by Professor Sir Grafton Elliott Smith. Attempting to bridge the gulf between Science and the Humanities, his story ranges from the Tarsier to the restoration of Greek sanity to the West. Human vision and skill offered great possibilities to man, but hundreds of thousands of years passed before he fully appreciated his heritage. He began to devise civilization, and introducing theories of the State, shackled himself in bonds of his own forging. The Greeks offered human reason its freedom by removing those shackles: ever since there has been a conflict between Grecian rationalism and Egyptian superstition. Originally man was peaceful, and the Golden Age was a reality: cruelty, dangerous practices, and war—or organized violent behaviour—are by-products of civilization.

The author, by avoiding prejudice and pedantry, and by employing a style refreshingly simple and coherent, has offered a fascinating and intelligible perspective of human history. This reprint of the most important work by Elliott Smith should be in the hands of every teacher of history. H. C.

PHYSICS

THE KINETIC THEORY OF GASES. By MARTIN KNUDSEN. 1934. Methuen 2s. 6d. net.

THIS is the latest addition to Methuen's "Monographs on Physical Subjects," and it embodies the substance of the three lectures delivered by Professor Knudsen to the University of London in the Autumn of 1933. The author is one of the most distinguished authorities on the Kinetic Theory, and the book deals very largely with his own personal researches. It is an authoritative account of this branch of modern physics. R. S. M.

PROGRESSIVE PROBLEMS IN PHYSICS (REVISED). By F. R. MILLER. Pp. 225. Harrap. 3s. 6d.

THIS is an American publication of graded examples up to the standard of the Regents' Examinations of the University of the State of New York. The questions are well selected and cover ground which roughly corresponds to the syllabus of the Matriculation Examinations of the English Universities. In a future revision a table of answers might advantageously be included. R. S. M.

PROPERTIES OF MATTER. By A. E. GODDARD, M.Sc., and H. F. BOYLIND, M.A., B.Sc. Methuen. 1934. 4s.

THIS work is essentially a text-book. It is divided into two parts: the first covers the subjects required for the Intermediate Examination for the various Universities; the second reaches a Pass Degree standard, and assumes a knowledge of the calculus. To state that the book is a text-book is, however, not meant to disparage it in any way, for of its kind it is excellent. The authors give an account of the laws of motion, the gas laws, and treat fully such subjects as elasticity, surface tension, friction, viscosity, osmosis, and diffusion. Accounts are given in a clear straightforward manner, and the student should be able to

understand them without difficulty. A number of practical experiments are included in the text-book, and it is easy to perceive that one at least of the authors has learnt his Physics at the Cavendish Laboratory, Cambridge. The book gives a sound account of this branch of physics, and it is plentifully supplied with clear illustrations. Unfortunately the general make-up does not reach the high standard of the contents, and to the casual observer the outside appears rather like a cheap school book. However, the inside makes up for the outside. R. S. M.

EDUCATION

WESTMINSTER SCHOOL: A HISTORY. By LAWRENCE E. TANNER. Country Life. 10s. 6d.

IN this admirably produced volume Mr. Tanner gives a most interesting story of Westminster School, with many new facts which he has found among the Abbey records. The "grammar boys" are mentioned as early as 1386, but the School as we know it may be described as an Elizabethan foundation. It was in 1599 that the old dormitory of the monks was assigned to the school. The "forms" were placed round the room and the middle forms were under a half-dome called the "Shell." Hence the use of this term to describe middle forms in other schools. This is but one small example of the influence of Westminster School. Another—less pedagogic—is to be found in the fact that Alexander Nowell, headmaster in 1543, discovered the secret of making bottled beer. This ought to entitle the school to the liberal patronage of the Brewers' Company.

Mr. Tanner gives the story of a long succession of headmasters and many records of the life of the school. He has written a charming work, illustrated by many beautiful pictures. This is a real contribution to the history of English education. F. R.

COMMON SENSE IN THE NURSERY. By MRS. SYDNEY FRANKENBURG (Charis Ursula Barnett), M.A. Oxon. Cape. 5s. net.

THIS is a new and revised edition of the well-known book first published some twelve years ago. In its new form it embodies the conclusions and first-hand knowledge gained by the writer from her own experience as a mother and from her admirable public work in the field of child welfare. The title is well chosen, for the book is replete with common sense. It should be read by every mother, by every child's nurse, and the chapters headed "Advice to Strangers" and "Preparatory Schools" will appeal to all teachers. R.

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF EXAMINATIONS.

UNDER the title *An English Bibliography of Examinations 1900-1932*, (Macmillan, 5s. net), Miss Mary Champneys has prepared an extensive list of publications dealing with examinations. The period covered is mainly the last thirty years, but Sir Michael Sadler has prepared a useful list bearing on the general history of education. This book forms a contribution to the Examinations Enquiry now being conducted by the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University. The weight of the contribution may be judged from the fact that this book has over 2000 references. R.

NOTES ON EDUCATION. By E. T. CAMPAGNAC, M.A. Evans Bros. 1s. 6d.

THIS is a quarto pamphlet of 64 pages, strung between flexible boards, and printed, except for an Introductory Essay on "The Art of Education," on one side of the paper only, so that students may add their own notes and comments. The fifty definitions or descriptions of education are alone worth the published price. Many of the notes, as the author says, are in fact questions. The chief aim, indeed, is a question put to the teacher, and for the teacher to put to himself—broadly what exactly is this job of yours, what are you after,

and how clearly have you got it before you in your mind? Professor Campagnac will be of some help even to such as be told what to put down in their notes, to be "learned up" for examinations and other vile uses. But that, we fancy, is because he cannot prevent that consequence. It is the more dynamic student that he has in mind, who can be made to think out his case and be clear about his aims as well as about his ideas.

R. J.

THE OLD SCHOOL. Edited by GRAHAM GREENE. Cape. 7s. 6d. net.

IN this amusing volume there appear essays on their schooldays from the pens of eighteen young writers, all of whom have gained a place in the limelight, if not in the spotlight, of public notice. The schools described are of diverse types, ranging from an elementary school in Cork to Winchester and Eton. The pictures of school life are not to be taken too seriously. They serve to illustrate the dictum that "art is nature seen through a temperament," and we must remember that these writers are probably different in many respects from the normal type of pupil. They saw—or now see—matter for criticism and raillery which their schoolfellows would either not see at all or would accept without question. The essay on Eton by Anthony Powell is the best thing in the book, furnishing a complete answer to much of the ignorant criticism of that institution. For the rest, there are some essays which reveal a thoroughly bad state of things and an ignorance of elementary principles of education which reflect no credit on those responsible for the schools described. The book is interesting and valuable as a contribution to our knowledge of contemporary practice, even though the record must be discounted for the reason already suggested.

F. R.

THE LIFE OF AN EDUCATIONAL WORKER. By RUTH YOUNG. Longmans. 3s. 6d. net.

UNDER a somewhat cumbrous but empty title the newly-retired Secretary of the Headmistresses' Association gives us an interesting record of the life of Miss Henrietta Busk, who is happily still with us although she was born in 1845.

Her record of achievement covers such notable undertakings as the Bedford College for Women, of which she was one of the earliest students; the Teachers' Guild, which she "mothered" throughout its life; the Conference of Educational Associations which is now an established feature of the opening days of each year; and the institution known as S.T.U.T.I.S., which is the short title for the Secondary Teachers and University Teachers Insurance Society.

To all these undertakings and to many others, Miss Busk has brought a remarkable zeal for educational progress, with an inborn business capacity and a rare talent for organization. Her work for education has been unremitting and unpaid, for she has never been a teacher, although she has devoted countless hours and not a little money to advancing the welfare of teachers.

Miss Young's book suffers from a certain amount of overlapping, and it contains some trifling errors, as when she describes the Essex Hall as the Central Hall, and seems to suggest (page 10) that King's College was established before University College. R.

CHALK AND CHEESE. By RICHARD VAUGHAN. Miles. 7s. 6d. net.

IN this book the author describes in a vivid and interesting fashion an "advanced" school in Germany, "Stetzheim," conducted on co-educational lines. The hero of the tale has been taught up to the age of seventeen in a public school in South Africa, and we are invited to note his reactions to the new environment and new methods. He falls violently in love with a damsel from America who is a fellow-pupil, but we are left wondering whether he learned anything else.

The headmaster, Hubert, gives this explanation to the boy: "All your early life was spent under one system of education. You were taught as every Public Schoolboy is taught—that is, in the opposite way to Stetzheim. You were told to do what you were commanded to do and made to be firm and solid. You were shown the necessity of discipline and had the morale of the Public School drummed into you until you were probably just a little sick of it. Everything you did was to be play; strong, serious play with the body, and weak, casual play with the brain. You were taught to despise or suspect everything outside your own particular circle and respect only the teachings of your own masters. In short, your life was to be one, strong Rule, straight and disciplined, with never a glance to either side. . . . You find that everything is the opposite to what it was at Holton. First freedom, second discipline. First brain, second brawn. You are encouraged to broaden your mind as much as possible and to learn a great variety of things. You are even conducted on a walking tour. What is the result? Down fall your theories, causing you much pain. You try and and bolster them up with conceit and vanity, but that is, of course, no good and only causes further pain."

A later passage suggests that the ideal education is to be found in a blend of the two systems, but it is difficult to blend systems which rest on wholly different foundations and on different ideas of the purpose of schooling. Accepting the view that a school should provide a practice ground for the activities of later life it is still open to doubt whether all the activities of adults, including love-making, are appropriate as parts of a school curriculum. All interested in advanced theories should read this book. R.

THE SCHOLEMASTER. By ROGER ASCHAM. Edited by D. C. WHIMSTER, M.A. Methuen. 2s. 3d.

THIS volume forms part of the valuable series published under the title, "Methuen's English Classics." In the introduction there is a short and well-written account of the life of Roger Ascham, giving due attention to his work as tutor to Queen Elizabeth and Lady Jane Grey. In connection with his appointment as Latin Secretary to Mary Tudor there is an amusing record of how he secured an adequate salary. He drew up a form of agreement for his services, and left an especially large blank in which the amount of his pay would be inserted. A covering letter explained this as follows: "The space which is left by chance doth seem to crave by good luck some words of length, as *viginti* (20) or *triginta* (30), yea with the help of a little dash *quadraginta* (40) would serve best of all. But sure as for *decem* (10), it is somewhat with the shortest."

The text is well edited, and with this admirable edition available at a remarkably low price there is no excuse for any teacher to remain ignorant of Ascham's work and method. R.

SELF-CULTURE

HINTS FOR SELF CULTURE. By HAR DAYAL, M.A., Ph.D. Watts. 5s. net.

It was for a generation almost extinct that J. M. Robertson wrote his *Courses of Study*. This book is a twentieth century successor. Its range is so tremendous, from science to music and painting, from psychology to physical culture, that we are somewhat terrified and inhibited. Only a strenuous-lifer, a tireless uplifter, would dare to say that in reading this book he never once flinched from another "you must," or "should," or "ought." Of course, we must, should, or ought to learn and do all these things. But the author is so "wholesale." Among his many quotations of verse, a line or two from W. H. Davies "Leisure" would be a relief. The quotations (very aptly cited) are from Whittier, Lowell, Milton, Lucretius, Hugo, Li Po, Baba Kuhi, Longfellow, Tennyson; even in quotations the range is wide.

There is a great deal of excellent and stimulating advice in this book, and many a thoughtful reader, cut off from schools and universities, will find it a storehouse and

a guide. But it tends to be too complete, too exhaustively thorough. In a section on Personal Service, for example, we are instructed: "Read some short books about St. Basil, St. Benedict, St. Vincent de Paul, Albert Schweitzer"—fifteen names in all are given—"and others who have served suffering humanity." Humanity, as a rule, will only suffer (voluntarily) to a limited extent. However, each reader can make his own selections.

The fact that the first three names in the list quoted begin with "St." should be noted, for the author is a Rationalist, his book is addressed to "A Young Fellow Rationalist," and it is published appropriately. It is to be hoped that a similar list in a book issued by one of our religious publishing organizations would show an equal tolerance, and include, for example, the name of Charles Bradlaugh.

Finally, let us say that Dr. Dayal can be a little merciful to us at times. On page 175, among some poems that should be read, he meets Samuel Butler at least half-way by saying, "Milton's 'Paradise Lost' is valuable only in parts."

If only a sprinkling of the young Rationalists whom Dr. Dayal addresses take his advice—or half of it—to heart, the vague people who tell or hear of the decay of "rationalism" and "materialism" will have to take another look at some of the works that our author quotes.

R. J.

HISTORY

MODERN ENGLAND (1885-1932). A HISTORY OF MY OWN TIMES. By Sir J. A. R. MARRIOTT, M.A. Methuen. 16s.

THIS volume completes the "Oman" series, of which the previous issue, 1815-1900, was also written by Sir J. A. R. Marriott. There is thus an overlap of about fifteen years due to the writer's desire to make the final volume "synchronise with my own public life." And here lie the attractions, the possible protests, the very highly probable discussions. For Sir John Marriott has not only written of modern history. He has had an active share in making it. As a Conservative Member of Parliament, he was in the political wars and skirmishes, an officer supporting his own side. As a historian, he is above the battle. The two rôles, of course, are in one sense incompatible. In another, they are the very stuff of which living histories are made. The utterly unbiased historian can compile the annals of his time, but he cannot put the fire of life into them. Here is the bias—human, natural, and under the restraint of a trained historian. The last of the die-hard Asquithians, the warmest supporter of Lansbury, the reds from pale pink to strong carmine, can honestly give praise, and even thanks, for such a record of our age in England. Besides, they are offered openings for more than one legitimate *riposte*. There are significant omissions in the Ulster story. Omissions there must be since space is limited; but what is omitted is what Belfast would not and could not see. And though the book is political only and "does not touch literature," Kipling is quoted with respect, almost with reverence; and Tennyson, though with reverence not so marked—not, of course, the Tennyson of *Locksley Hall* but of *Sixty Years After*.

To a man of any age from seventeen to seventy there are chapters here that will stir up vivid memories. Our present age is here, with the National Government that we daily bless or curse; and the yesterday of the post-war years, the National Strike, the League Reparations; the day before yesterday, the War; before that, Ulster, the Suffragettes, the Lloyd George Budget, Ireland, the Boer War.

In fine, no one else has done this particular task so well. Trevelyan might, of course, and Gooch, and one or two others, from a standpoint further to the Left. And the Furthest Left might throw up an historian—one wishes it would—to tell this story as seen by a Marxist. A synthesis of three or four such books would perhaps give us a balanced view—if it did not utterly bewilder us.

Meanwhile, read these pages. If now and then you should discourteously cry out, "Here; what d'ye mean by this sentence?" many times you will—or should—say, "That is good. That brings it back. I remember that row. Brownsmith ought to have been shot. Nosibor was quite right."

As a matter of fact and history, no one (since Ruskin), not even Nosibor, has ever been entirely right. R. J.

A MIDDLE SCHOOL HISTORY OF ENGLAND. By R. M. RAYNER. To 1485, 204 pp.; 1485-1714, 207 pp.; from 1714, 228 pp. John Murray. 3s. each.

MAKERS OF WORLD HISTORY. By R. A. F. MEARS. Pp. 192. Arnold. 2s. 6d. each.

LIFE AND WORK IN ENGLAND. By Mrs. H. A. L. FISHER. Pp. 224. Arnold. 3s.

LIFE AND ADVENTURE IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE. By R. J. MITCHELL. In two parts. Pp. 204. Longmans. 2s. each.

A CONCISE HISTORY OF BRITAIN. By R. M. RAYNER. Pp. 246. Longmans. 3s.

HISTORY OF WALES. By D. WILLIAMS. Pp. 116. John Murray. 1s. 9d.

SOME FAMOUS INVENTORS. By F. W. TICKNER. Pp. 206. University of London Press. 2s. 3d.

THE first series on this list is intended to be a first serious introduction to history, and is suitable for children from twelve years onward. The text is interesting and freshly written, and the illustrations and charts are to the point. The two volumes by Mr. Mears complete a series offering world history in the form of biographies. The text is well written, but the choice of subjects might have been happier. If Cortez and Washington merit full chapters, why ignore Cartier, Rhodes, and J. A. MacDonald?

Life and Work in England is a simply-told introduction to English social and economic history, well illustrated and suitable for the middle school. Mr. Mitchell has provided a most interesting series of glimpses of everyday life in medieval Europe. There is a sense of reality about each of the characters treated, and the backgrounds assume concrete form. These books should do much to help backward students in the task of visualizing the subject. Mr. Rayner's *Concise History* might almost be termed a summary of his *England in Early and Mediæval Times* and *England in Tudor Times*, reviewed in these columns. There is here sufficient material to assist the child to survive the School Certificate ordeal. The *History of Wales* has been specially written for those taking the School Certificate examination of the Central Welsh Board. It would have been more valuable had the paragraphs been made shorter, and more maps and illustrations used.

Some Famous Inventors is well written, beautifully produced, and intelligently illustrated. The story of the Industrial Revolution is told through the biographies of those responsible for the movement, and most children will thoroughly enjoy, and learn much, from this volume. H. C.

FOX. By CHRISTOPHER HOBHOUSE. Constable. 12s. 6d.

THIS is neither an effort at whitewashing, nor its opposite. Fox, indeed, is a subject even more than usually unsuited for either process. Mr. Hobhouse has given us here both a picture and a study. As for the latter, there cannot but be agreements and disagreements, according to the reader's point of view. There could be a very pretty discussion, for example, over such a passage as this: "He (Lord North) allowed himself to be made the instrument by which America was lost; but he stands exonerated by the volumes of his protests which remain on record. And in him the Tory party is exonerated,

too. A few Tories here and there may have honestly agreed with the King : but American taxation and the American War neither found their roots in Tory tradition, nor cast their shadow upon it."

The times, the politics, policies, and the men of this period, so near to us and already so strangely differing from the world of our own lives, make a whole that must appear in some sort of picture to us, if the significance of this or that element, this or that individual, is to be grasped. Such a picture Mr. Hobhouse provides. There is no affectation of aloofness from bias or prejudice, and no consciousness of prejudice ; but a clear story with its impressions and its passing judgments. There is an excellent effect of vividness, obtained by no trick, but helped and partly effected by a book of moderate size being divided into twenty-four chapters, and each of these into sub-chapters ; so that the whole story appears in seventy or eighty successive accounts, each running only to four or five pages. By such a method we can turn at once to an account of the Burke rupture, the India Bill, and so on, if we are not inclined to read the story throughout. That, of course, is what we should do ; and whether we like or dislike Fox more or less than does his biographer, we shall certainly reach the final, "He is buried in Westminster Abbey" exhilarated, part-satisfied and part-enquiring, and possibly muttering : "Yes, but I'd like to discuss that part about —." The blank would not be filled in the same manner by different readers.

R. J.

THE CHURCH IN THE MEDIEVAL AGES. By F. J. FOAKES-JACKSON, D.D. 1934. Cambridge University Press. 2s. 6d. net.

DR. FOAKES-JACKSON'S study of the medieval church takes its place in the series dealing with the "Origin and Progress of the Christian Religion," under the general editorship of Professor Bethune-Baker. It is a great achievement to compress within the space of 150 pages the history of more than a thousand years, and Dr. Foakes-Jackson has produced an eminently readable account of this period. During this time the history of the Church differs little from the history of the Papacy, but throughout there is a constant reminder of the shifting balance of power between the Church and the Empire. We read of Charlemagne, of Canossa, of the "Babylonish Captivity," and finally there are two chapters on the Renaissance and the Reformation. Throughout, the author maintains a true perspective, and the result is a most interesting book which can be thoroughly recommended to teachers of ecclesiastical history.

R. O.

GEOGRAPHY

THE BRITISH ISLES. (Uncle Peter's Travels, Book IV.) By W. J. ROOD and A. H. ROOD. Pp. 248. Harrap. 2s. 6d.

HOME AND OVERSEAS GEOGRAPHY. By C. J. BOOL. Book I, People Far and Near ; 2s. Book II, The World at Work ; 2s. 3d. Book III, Exploring the World ; 2s. 6d. Pitman.

THE WORLD AND THE BRITISH EMPIRE. By E. M. SANDERS, B.A. Size, 10 × 7½ in. Philip. 2s. 9d.

THE STUDY OF LOCAL GEOGRAPHY. By C. A. SIMPSON, B.Sc. Oxon. Size 8½ × 7 in. Methuen. 3s. 6d. net.

THOSE who have already made the acquaintance of Uncle Peter, and enjoyed his letters from abroad, will welcome his return home, and be pleased to accompany him on his itinerary through the British Isles. That itinerary is an excellent one ; Uncle Peter has much information of real interest to impart, a number of stimulating questions to propound and practical problems to be solved. To state that the book is published by Messrs. Harrap is to say that paper, type, and illustrations leave nothing to be desired.

The scheme of work embodied in Mr. Bool's geographical readers is based upon the Board of Education's *Handbook of Suggestions to Teachers* and the *Report on the Primary School*, and when complete the series will form a very satisfactory course for Junior Schools. The author invites the children to "wander far and see the world," and to aid them in their imaginary wanderings a large number of excellent reproductions of photographs are scattered throughout the text. The nature of the contents of each volume is indicated by the respective titles, and it remains to be said that both author and publishers are to be complimented on the production of a capital series of readers which cannot but appeal to the juniors who will read them with interest and profit, and will thereafter be called upon to indulge in some thinking and doing for themselves.

A somewhat more advanced course of work is provided by Miss E. M. Sanders, who, as Senior Lecturer at the Furzedown Training College and the successful author of several pictorial geographies, is admirably equipped for the task of supplying a regional geography, such as will appeal especially to young students who have already become acquainted with the major natural regions of the world, and who wish to carry their study one stage further with particular reference to the British Empire. Very wisely the author stresses the economic side of the study, and has adopted a style which facilitates individual work, each section being followed by a number of very helpful exercises. The illustrations, which are large, numerous, and excellent, will enable the book to be put to profitable use in connection with the lessons given by the teacher.

The remaining volume under notice is for the teacher of geography; not for such teachers as demand a ready-made, cut-and-dried scheme of work, but rather for those who are willing and anxious to absorb good ideas and to utilize general principles which they themselves must adapt and apply to meet their own special requirements. As is indicated by its title, *The Study of Local Geography* is specifically concerned with the relations between man and his environment, and the connection of geography with history. The work involves the use of ordnance survey and other maps, and the author's scheme includes the study of local scenery, observations on the earth's crust, types of country, climate, natural vegetation, agriculture, and other industries, and the sites of towns and villages. To teacher and student alike we unreservedly commend this excellent course of work; it makes of geography what it should be—a scientific and rational study of the earth as the abode and moulder of mankind.

F. H. S.

THE CONTINENT OF ASIA. By PROFESSOR L. W. LYDE, M.A. Macmillan. 6s.

ACCORDING to the Preface, this book was commenced twenty years ago. We recommend the student who contemplates writing an epoch-making work to read the preface and get by heart what Professor Lyde has to say about his methods. He can then turn to consider the results. Here is a book on Asia containing 777 pages and 143 illustrations, every bit of it stimulating and provocative. In the first part relief, climate, vegetation, and fauna and flora are discussed; in the second part each region is treated in detail.

This is no armchair book. The commonplace and the obvious are ignored, and the sentences are so packed with ideas that almost any single paragraph, or less, might form the text for a chapter in itself. No one will perhaps accept all the ideas, or the deductions made from them, but that matters little. This is one of the most valuable contributions to geography in recent times; it is likely to remain the classic on Asia for many years.

It would take far too much space to attempt to point out individual merits, suggestions, or conclusions, and it is impossible to condense a work which is itself so condensed. As a source of facts on Asia it has no present rival. Only one comment we would offer: the book is written with more or less disregard of the idea of European commercial exploitation. It therefore tends to neglect certain commercial potentialities that are of great importance to the man of affairs, e.g., aircraft routes, water power for electrical development, and similar topics.

E. Y.

AFRICA. By W. FITZGERALD, M.A. Methuen. 16s.

THIS is the latest addition to Methuen's series of Advanced Geographies. The author, formerly Lecturer in Geography in the University of South Africa and now Senior Lecturer on Geography at Manchester University, has achieved a very notable result. He has managed to give us a text-book on Africa which is advanced enough for University students yet so brightly and lucidly written that the general reader, with geographical interests, could read it with pleasure. It is true that such a reader might find a few paragraphs here and there too condensed or too technical, but the rest of the book would satisfy his curiosity with pleasure and profit. The book is in three sections: (1) The Physical Environment; (2) The People; (3) Regional Studies. It contains excellent and uncommon maps, useful bibliographies, and a very good index. Quite a number of modern problems, such as those arising from the finding of gold in Kenya, the question of dues on the Suez Canal, the German demand for the restoration of the African colonies, and the operation of "indirect rule" are discussed without bias, and there are some interesting comparisons between French and German methods of colonization. This is, undoubtedly, the best text-book yet written on the once "Dark Continent." E. Y.

EUROPE. By M. K. SHACKLETON. Longmans. 15s.

THIS is a regional geography of Europe suitable for the use of University students, and not without its uses to the teacher of geography in Secondary Schools. It is sound and up to date. Modern changes in economic and political conditions are noted. Short bibliographies of real merit are appended to the several chapters. It is interesting to note, in this connection, that there are no text-books in English on the regional geography of such important countries as Italy, Spain, or even Germany. The enterprising publishers of this volume might well consider the preparation and publication of a series dealing with the regional geography of each of the more important sections of the continent. Miss Shackleton's book is particularly strong on questions of structure and relief. She has dealt with this very complex subject in a way that must be of the greatest value to the student. In brief compass she has lucidly set forth much that is often very baffling to those whose knowledge of geology is limited. We are afraid, all the same, that its inclusion in this admirable book will render the book somewhat difficult to the "general reader," whom the author hopes to include amongst those she has desired to help. E. Y.

HABITAT, ECONOMY, AND SOCIETY. By C. D. FORDE. Methuen. 15s. net.

WITH this book Professor Forde has made a distinct contribution to the geographer's library. He calls it in a sub-title "a geographical introduction to ethnology" and, by reason of its nature, it contains much that is not geographical though nothing that is not of interest to the geographer. Moreover, the descriptions of the several habitats occupied by the peoples described are models of lucid condensation. The plan of the book is that of separate treatment of a number of food gatherers, cultivators, and pastoral nomads, followed by a discussion of the part played by the arts and crafts in the growth of civilization. The bibliography gives references to a large number of articles to be found in various anthropological journals. The teacher will find much that is new to him clearly and interestingly set forth in the light of modern discovery and research. We are loth, in such an excellent book, to find any faults, but we cannot help remarking that the pictures are unworthy of the text, and that there are a number of minor errors that might have been avoided by more careful proof reading, e.g., p. 176, "averted" for "everted"; p. 330, line 34, "east" for "west"; p. 346, line 1, "1200" for "12,000 (?)" All the same, we shall continue to recommend teachers to add this book to their own and the school library, because there is no other book that does for him just what this one does. E. Y.

SOUTH AND CENTRAL AMERICA, pp. 132. **AFRICA**, pp. 140. **AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND**, pp. 136. By T. PICKLES, B.Sc. Dent. 1s. 9d. per volume.

THESE three volumes comprise a series dealing with the southern continent, and are suitable for Secondary Schools preparing for the School Certificate. Studies of the major climatic regions are followed by the regional geographies of the continent concerned, and brief references to historical factors are used to account for the modern economic development of each area.

H. C.

ITALIAN STUDIES

ITALY : A COMPANION TO ITALIAN STUDIES. Edited by E. G. GARDNER, M.A., Litt. D., F.B.A. Methuen. 12s. 6d.

THIS series of "Companions to Studies" has already covered Germany and Spain, and the continuation of the plan seems now to be assured. The books are of course intended, in the first instance, for students who have already some knowledge of the history and literature of the countries concerned. But also, as it is here expressed in Dr. Gardner's Preface, account has been taken of "the requirements of the general reader."

If we apply this wider though less scholarly test, the result appears to be very promising. Of the introductory chapter on the Land, People, and Language (Dr. Camillo Pellizi), all but the pages on Italian words is of very general interest. Two chapters of history follow, then four chapters chiefly on literature, bringing us to 1870. Architecture, Painting, Music, have each a chapter to itself. The final chapter gives a Political and Social History from 1870 to the Fascist Revolution, with nearly a score of pages on modern Italian literature. If there is not enough here to interest the "general reader" it must be that his interest does not cross the Alps. As for the student, the considerable Bibliographies will make him utterly oblivious of the general reader and his requirements.

Our fathers forgot what Elizabethan Englishmen knew very well, that the post-classical culture of Europe came to Europe, and to England, across France, but from Italy. A work like this is a reminder of a fact half forgotten and now emerging.

R. J.

SPANISH

FIRST SPANISH COURSE FOR SENIORS. By H. F. KYNASTON-SNELL and EMILIO CASTRO. Pp. 112. Illustrated. Gregg. 3s. net.

THIS book should prove useful to pupils in evening classes, senior classes in day schools, and others who have some elementary knowledge of Spanish. The subject matter is very well chosen, covers a large and well-selected ground, mainly dealing with every-day affairs, and should prove very useful and interesting to its readers. The running parallel vocabularies will save time, and the exercises are very suitable and well arranged. Commercial as well as ordinary students will find this book well adapted to their requirements.

J. W. B. A.

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It must be as difficult to write about André Gide as to write about Oscar Wilde or D. H. Lawrence. In England he is chiefly known as the author of *The Immoralist* and *The Counterfeiters*—which are, indeed, among his most important works. But the story of his becoming does not show itself in any one of his books. The evolution of a boy brought up in the antimaccassarism of a puritanical and extremely genteel Paris environment, into a defensive challenger of the church, the moral code, and finally the economic code of his time and the civilization around him, needs pains and some genius to describe. This, we think, is not the final attempt to be made at the task; but it will explain Gide to many Englishmen who have a somewhat vague idea of him as a perverted and aggressive Continental with some ideas that are not quite nice. Something of the toil and effort, the struggle from a given code towards a wider one, comes through from these pages. Perhaps, for those who have not read much of Gide, here is as much as can be achieved. A notable chapter gives the story of Gide's exposure of the scandalous exploitation of the French Congo natives, less known to this generation than was the similar horrible story of the Belgian Congo to the last generation of Englishmen. This story, in Gide's own telling, is among his translated books (*Travels in the Congo*. Knopf).

A full bibliography of Gide's works, and of various translations, is given.

R. J.

THE EDUCATION OUTLOOK

Honorary Editor: FRANK ROSCOE



Spring 1935
Volume XII, No. 1

ONE SHILLING

CONTENTS

	PAGE
SECONDARY SCHOOLING	5
THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS.. .. .	6
FROM THE OUTLOOK TOWER	8
IS CO-EDUCATION A SUCCESS?	14
MUSICAL APPRECIATION MADE INTERESTING	16
WHY ARE TEACHERS UNPOPULAR?	17
EXAM. ECONOMY	19
NATURE STUDY IN SCHOOL	22
BALEFUL INFLUENCE OF MATRICULATION ON THE YOUNG CHILD	23
DEBATING AS AN AID TO CHARACTER TRAINING	25
NATURE STUDY AT THE CAPE	27
MENTAL ARITHMETIC FOR TEACHERS	30
PUZZLES AND PROBLEMS	32
GLEANINGS	34
FIRST YEAR'S FRUITS	36
BOOKS AND THE MAN	39
REVIEWS	40
BOOKS RECEIVED	62

THE EDUCATION OUTLOOK

VOL. XII. No. 1.

SPRING 1935

SECONDARY SCHOOLING

THE Report of the Consultative Committee on the Education of the Adolescent—generally known as the Hadow Report—has been much discussed during the past eight years. The discussions have been concerned mainly with the administrative problems connected with the suggestion of a majority of the Committee that the school-leaving age should be raised to fifteen.

The administrative problems have been allowed to obscure the educational issues, and we are in danger of forgetting that the Report presents an outline picture of a scheme of education which will ensure for every child a period of secondary schooling. This scheme is based on the assumption that the age of eleven or thereabouts marks the end of the primary stage of mental progress and that later schooling should be post-primary or secondary.

Unfortunately the term "secondary schooling" has come to be associated with a special type of instruction. We find some difficulty in adjusting our minds to the idea that all post-primary teaching is secondary, even though it may differ greatly from that given in our public schools, grammar schools, municipal and county secondary schools. Even if the raising of the school age to fifteen should continue to be mistakenly deferred, we ought to provide for every child beyond the age of eleven an appropriate form of secondary instruction.

The first stage of this training should be carried out in school, and it should be followed either by further schooling up to the age of eighteen or by part-time schooling where the adolescent is in employment. We cannot afford to sacrifice our young citizens as we are now doing.

Secondary schooling for all is an imperative necessity, and all adolescents should be under educational influence up to the age of eighteen. Employers ought not to be allowed to exploit the youth of the nation. The suggestion that our industries cannot be carried on without juvenile labour is not true. Similar statements were made when it was proposed to exclude children of ten years old from mines and factories. They were repeated when half-time labour by youngsters of twelve was in process of abolition. Yet the experience of several enlightened employers proves that a wise supervision of youth and an extended opportunity for learning enhances the prosperity of an industry.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS

Executive : THE TEACHERS REGISTRATION COUNCIL

Readers are asked to note that although the EDUCATION OUTLOOK will contain in every number a record of the Royal Society of Teachers and of the proceedings of its Executive—the Teachers Registration Council—these bodies are not responsible for the views expressed by the Editor or by contributors and correspondents.

FAREWELL LUNCHEON TO LORD GORELL

THE resignation of Lord Gorell from the dual office of Chairman of the Teachers Registration Council and President of the Royal Society of Teachers was received with much regret by the members of the Council. A Farewell Luncheon was held on Friday, January 18, at which Mr. W. D. Bentliff, the senior member of the Council presided. Farewell speeches were made by members of the various branches of teaching represented on the Council, and souvenirs were handed to Lord and Lady Gorell in the form of an address signed by all the members of the Council and a silver cigarette box bearing a suitable inscription. The wording of the address was as follows :—

To THE RIGHT HONOURABLE LORD GORELL, C.B.E., M.C., President of the Royal Society of Teachers, 1929–1935, and Chairman of the Teachers Registration Council, 1922–1935.

The Members of the Teachers Registration Council, representing the Royal Society of Teachers, desire to record their appreciation of your services as Chairman of the Council during the period from December 1922 to January 1935 and as President of the Society since its formation in 1929.

You were elected to these offices by the unanimous vote of the Council and under your skilful guidance the Registration movement has made steady progress. Your zeal for the cause of education and your knowledge of educational matters have won for you the lasting regard of all teachers.

Now that the manifold claims of your public work compel you to resign the leadership of the Council, the members ask you to accept this expression of their gratitude for your distinguished services and of their sincere good wishes for the future.

LORD EUSTACE PERCY

AT the unanimous desire of the Council Lord Eustace Percy has consented to succeed Lord Gorell. As a former President of the Board of Education he will bring to the work a first-hand knowledge of administrative problems. In a recent speech he expressed the view that the Registration of teachers will be one of the main factors in educational progress during the near future. He will take an active part in discussions with the Board of Education concerning the possibility of making Registration an essential condition of appointments to headships in grant-aided schools. Inasmuch as the Register of Teachers is being formed under the authority of an Act of Parliament and is in charge

of a Council constituted under Privy Council Orders, there is every reason to expect that official recognition will be given to its work.

As to the nature and scope of this work some teachers continue to be under a misapprehension, because they imagine that the Teachers Registration Council can perform the functions of a trade union, by protecting the interests of individual teachers or groups of teachers. Such work must be left to sectional organizations. The proper function of the Council is to formulate standards of admission to the teaching profession. It is not directly concerned with questions of salary, of pensions or conditions of work in the schools. Indirectly its efforts, if successful, will have an important bearing on all these problems, for it is the experience of all recognized professions that when the public once begins to understand the difference between the Registered and the unregistered practitioner, qualified members of the profession find that their standing in the eyes of the public is greatly improved. So long as it is possible for any person, however ill-qualified and unsuited for the work, to take up teaching and even to open a school, the whole body of teachers will suffer disparagement.

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

SOME criticisms have been made recently to the effect that the Council acts unwisely in making professional training a condition of admission to the Official Register of Teachers. Such criticism ignores the fact that in every profession properly so called there must be some special preparation for the work. Hitherto it has been assumed that a university degree or some form of athletic prowess is qualification enough for a teacher in a secondary school, but for teachers in public elementary schools professional training has been thought desirable and even necessary. The distinction is not easy to understand, unless we are to suppose that a boy of twelve in a secondary school will respond to amateur efforts more readily than a boy of the same age in a public elementary school. What happens in practice is that the new recruit in a secondary school is driven either to imitate the methods of his own teachers or to fumble towards a method of his own at the expense of his pupils. Teaching is a craft, and like all crafts it should be practised under skilled guidance if proficiency is to be gained.

The Council is prepared to accept forms of training which are conducted in approved schools where the novice practises teaching under skilled supervision and pursues a course of study in the principles and methods of teaching for a period of at least one year. This requirement does not demand attendance at a training college or a university department of education. It represents the minimum of preparation and it will be expected of all applicants save teachers in universities and institutions of university standing.

FROM THE OUTLOOK TOWER

THE LEAVING AGE

ON every side it becomes increasingly evident that the Government will be compelled to bring forward a measure for raising the age of compulsory schooling to fifteen. Men and women of all parties and of all sections of the community are becoming restive under the continued delay. The President of the Board of Education says that legislation during the present session to secure this reform is impracticable, but as effective opposition dies down and pressure in favour of raising the age increases, the Government may be led to a change of view. The economic argument is a strong one in view of the large number of children who are now leaving school without any prospect of beneficial employment, but the educational argument is even stronger. A child who leaves school to enter a factory becomes little more than an appendage to a machine, and from the point of view of many employers his physical and moral welfare is not their concern. They are interested chiefly in his efficiency as a factor in promoting the prosperity of their business. While he remains at school his physical, mental, and spiritual welfare are being safeguarded and he is being prepared to assume the duties of citizenship.

THE RELIGIOUS DIFFICULTY

BEHIND much of the opposition to the raising of the school age is the fear of religious bodies that young people associated with them will be transferred to provided schools in which dogmatic religious teaching is not permitted. For a century past this "religious difficulty," as it is called, has been an obstacle to the development of our school system. However much we may sympathize with the sincere views of the religious bodies concerned, it is impossible to agree that the general education of children should be impeded by differences of creed. Perhaps the best solution would be found in an alteration of the present grant system. Instead of paying grants to schools we might give educational warrants to parents, entitling their children to receive free instruction to the extent demanded by national requirements, and leaving the parents to supplement this help in any way they wished, provided always that the requirements of the State were met. By this plan members of religious organizations would be left free to pool their warrants and conduct schools in accordance with their own desires, while many middle-class parents who do not use the public elementary schools would receive the help to which they are entitled in providing education for their children. Some big administrative changes would be required, but these would be justified if we could get rid of the "religious" obstacle.

PROGRESS OF REORGANIZATION

IN some areas the work of providing central schools on the lines recommended in the Hadow Report has made excellent progress. In Leicestershire, for example, schemes now in hand and those recommended for early approval provide that 79 per cent of the senior pupils in the county will attend modern schools, and 13 per cent will be placed in senior divisions. Thus, over 90 per cent of the pupils above the age of eleven years will be receiving the kind of instruction contemplated in the Report, save only that as things are it will not be continued for four years in every instance, but will be cut off after three years when the child reaches the age of fourteen. In other districts sensible arrangements have been made between the authorities of the Anglican Church and the Local Education Committee, leading to extensive schemes of reorganization, and the Advisory Committee on Education, which is the National Society under a new name, is being urged to provide funds for the building of senior schools connected with the Church of England. In some quarters strong efforts are being made to induce the Government to provide building grants for denominational schools. This would mean a considerable departure from the accepted policy of English Governments since 1870, although it would not be out of harmony with the policy which governed the first grants in aid of education.

SIDE-TRACKING

THE well-meant efforts of certain prominent leaders in industry to emphasize the value of continuation schools may have the unfortunate result of side-tracking the question of raising the age of compulsory schooling. No one doubts the advantage gained by young people who have the good fortune to be employed by such far-sighted business men as Sir Kenneth Lee or the Cadbury brothers, to name only two outstanding examples, but there is no reason why continuation schools should not be worked in connection with a longer school life by making operative the clauses of the Education Act relating to continued education for young employees. In this important matter we cannot depend upon the efforts of a few philanthropic employers. The worst evils, so far as young people are concerned, arise where a few children are engaged in a small undertaking. Here there is ample evidence to show that they may be grossly over-worked and suffer permanent harm. It should be an obligation upon everyone who employs a young person under eighteen to provide opportunity for attendance at a day continuation school. We cannot afford to waste our future citizens for the benefit of short-sighted employers on the lookout for profits.

LORD EUSTACE PERCY'S SUGGESTION

SPEAKING at the anniversary of the Bournville Continuation School, Lord Eustace Percy suggested that as a practical expedient the school age might be raised without the grant of maintenance allowances, but providing for exemptions at the age of fourteen where the child was beneficially employed, this exemption to be conditional upon regular attendance at a day continuation school up to the age of sixteen. He said that in this way we should at least make a useful and hopeful start with both schemes, namely, the raising of the school age and the institution of day continuation schools, doing this in a form which would permit of steady development as the economic condition of the country improves, and as parents and business men become increasingly familiar with the ideas involved. Lord Eustace urged that the proper remedy for the peculiar evils and dangers of the present day is a flexible adjustment between school and work. He said that the gap between school and employment cannot be closed by discharging all juveniles on to the labour market at one fixed age, whatever that age may be. Nor does he think it possible to eliminate blind-alley employment even in highly skilled trades until industry is called upon to think out clearly its policy in regard to recruitment and training as related to the capacity of the particular industry to absorb adult workers.

LONDON'S PLAN

THE programme of the London Education Committee for the three years 1935-38 has attracted much attention. The proposals include: improvements in the staffing of elementary schools; a thorough reconditioning of school buildings with the provision of hot water; improvements in sanitary arrangements and other amenities; a complete re-modelling of some forty schools with the provision of open-air and new nursery schools. There is also to be an increase in the number of places in secondary schools in the number of scholarships. The school dental service is to be extended so as to make provision for every pupil and there is to be a complete inquiry into the nutrition of children. Evening institutes and schools for domestic subjects and handicraft are to be better equipped.

This programme is expected to involve an outlay of two and a half millions, but the money will be well spent, and London's example will serve as a stimulus to other centres of population. It must be remembered that a considerable proportion of the children of this country are attending London schools and also that some of the older schools in the metropolis are considerably out of date. The need for improvement is urgent and it is to be hoped that no obstacles will be placed in the way of the Council's enterprise.

SUPPLY OF TEACHERS

THE improvement in the teacher's financial position, coupled with the difficulty of obtaining posts in the commercial world, is leading to a great increase in the number of applicants for admission to training colleges. The present increase is in part the result of a request made by Sir Charles Trevelyan when he was President of the Board that head masters and head mistresses of secondary schools should encourage promising young people to remain at school with the aim of entering college and becoming teachers, to supply the need which he confidently expected to follow upon the raising of the school age. As the school age was not raised, and as the Board of Education later cut down the number of admissions to training colleges, many young people have suffered disappointment and even hardship. The hardship arises from the fact that they remained at school beyond the usual age for recruitment in commerce and industry. The non-University training colleges for men have now some four applicants for every vacant place, and in University Departments of Education the pressure is even greater. Many young men are making a second or even a third attempt to enter college, having spent the interval in working as uncertificated teachers in public elementary schools.

ARE BOUNTIES NEEDED ?

THE situation just described gives point to the question whether special financial help is still required to induce young people to become teachers. In one University Department of Education it is the practice to reserve twenty-five places for students who are willing to pay their own fees, and it is found that there are some three applicants for each of these places. The present system of giving grants was instituted at a time when it was believed that children in public elementary schools should be taught by the products of such schools. To-day the elementary school teacher receives a secondary school education up to the age of eighteen, and thereafter may proceed either to a training college or to a University. There is no longer any need for special or ear-marked grants, although if these are abolished it will be necessary to increase the number of general scholarships available for secondary school pupils. Much money is wasted at present in preparing young people to become teachers without regard to the length of their service in the schools. This applies especially to girl students, many of whom marry when they have taught for only a few years. The attractiveness of teaching as a calling should depend upon remuneration and conditions of work. Recruitment should not be artificially fostered by bounties.

PHYSICAL TRAINING

TH**ERE** are signs that physical training is beginning to take its proper place in the school curriculum. Hitherto it has been too often as a kind of extra, and we have wrongly supposed that organized games will provide all that is required. Years ago the Board of Education issued an excellent syllabus which has since been revised and brought up to date. The exercises have been found to be extremely useful, especially where they are taken under the direction of teachers who are interested in the work. Properly speaking, careful regard for bodily fitness is the first and most important duty of a school, but this regard includes not only the provision of systematic exercises but also careful attention to those pupils who require some form of remedial treatment to correct such defects as flat-foot, hollow chest, or spinal curvature. So far as organized games are concerned, they leave too many pupils outside their influence, and there is a tendency to ignore youngsters who cannot play in representative teams. There is a danger that this tendency may be increased by the growth of school football associations and the extension of schoolboy leagues. The doings of these bodies are already being recorded in our newspapers, and it is said that directors of professional football teams sometimes attend these juvenile matches for the purpose of noting early prowess with a view to possible recruitment in the ranks of professional football.

CIVICS ET ALIA

TE**A**C**H**E**R**S never suffer from a lack of critics, nor are they ever left without an ample supply of suggestions as to what they ought to teach and how. There are always individuals or groups who are anxious to see their pet subject included in the school curriculum. At the moment a strong drive is being made in favour of the teaching of what is called Civics, and the Head Master of one of our smaller public schools in a recent broadcast urged that all our young citizens should be taught something of the machinery of local and central government. This sounds plausible enough, but the truth is that any intelligent boy of fifteen or thereabouts can learn in a very few lessons or informal talks all that he need know concerning the method of election to local Councils and to Parliament, and the procedure followed in making our laws. The really important thing is that our young citizens should have a civic spirit of the best kind, the sort of thing which used to be described as "public spirit," expressing itself in a readiness to serve the community without being servile to the State. Other subjects suggested for school treatment include temperance, personal hygiene, kindness to animals, the anti-litter campaign, and leaving wild flowers unplucked.

SCHOOLS AND MOTORS

IT is now stated that the President of the Board of Education and our enterprising Minister of Transport have agreed to include in the curriculum of all grant-aided schools a systematic course of lessons on the right use of our roads. It is extremely doubtful whether the Board of Education will be able to adopt this suggestion, since a precedent would be created by which every department of state in turn might seek to have its own form of propaganda included in the syllabus. Moreover it has been a recognized principle during recent years that the Board does not seek to impose any particular scheme of work on the schools. Doubtless a training in the right use of the roads would do something to diminish the present appalling casualty lists, but if lessons are to be given they should not be confined to children, few of whom are motorists. They might well be arranged for the inconsiderate driver, and especially for the type of person who is anxious to save seconds on a journey, although in truth it matters little where he is at any particular moment.

DOWN GRADING

THE head teachers in public elementary schools are feeling much concern over the system by which their salaries are made to depend on the number of pupils in the school. A comparatively slight fall in the numbers may result in what is called "Down Grading," which means that the school falls into a lower category so far as the head teacher's salary is concerned. This fall in attendance is beyond the power of the victim to prevent and it is urged that his position be made secure. The problem is a difficult one, for it seems inevitable that there should be some relation between the numbers in a school and the amount of salary paid to the head teacher. This relation, however, need not be rigidly expressed in terms of average attendance.

A head teacher's duties are not governed so much by the number of pupils as by the number of assistants whom he has to supervise. Even this plan is open to the objection that a parsimonious authority might bring about the reduction in head teachers' salaries and, at the same time, save assistants' salaries by the simple device of transferring a teacher from the staff. One thing seems to be clear, namely that where a head teacher is held to be competent to take charge of a school of a certain type or size, he should be free from any down grading of salary. The Authority should be responsible for seeing that his services are utilized to the utmost. The duties and responsibilities of a head teacher cannot be gauged exactly either by the number of pupils in the school or by the size of the staff. Other factors must be taken into account, such as the situation of the school.

IS CO-EDUCATION A SUCCESS ?

By ERIC S. ROBERTS

THIS question has always been a personal one to me, for the reason that I spent six years of my life in one of the new State Secondary Schools where co-education was in force. My interest has been intensified in Oxford by the ignorance which so many people display on the subject. In this University there is a clash of two ideas : of the Victorian idea of complete segregation of the sexes while they are being educated, with the resultant ignorance between the two ; and of the more modern view that a greater knowledge of each other will lead to a healthier attitude between the two, and that adolescence is the best period for this to develop.

Until the War Oxford was more or less the preserve of the Public and Grammar Schools, but to-day these have lost their monopoly and there is a goodly sprinkling of "Co-eds." When these latter meet the former type, sometimes for the first time, there is often a good deal of heart searching as to whether mixed education is superior to the old type : the outlook of both in sex matters seems so depressingly alike.

I have already stated what appears to me to be the main object of co-education : the sexes are to be brought into closer touch with one another in order that the next and succeeding generations may have saner views on sex in general. Has that object been attained, or is it likely to be within the next few decades ? Perhaps I have been unfortunate in my experiences, but I confess that I have encountered very few of its products with anything more than the usual ideas on the subject ; they still treat sex as something indecent, something only to be mentioned in male company, or not mentioned in really nice company at all. They treat one of the most natural things in the world as an artificiality of an effete civilization. And if this is true of those who have been through a secondary school, how much more is it true of the vast majority of the workers, who have had no other education than the "rough hewing" of an elementary school ? The crux of the problem seems to lie in the fact that the system has not been carried to its logical conclusion. As well as the mingling of sexes there must be a definite course on sexual matters. The ordinary boy or girl goes to the secondary school at the age of ten or eleven, knowing nothing of the elementary facts of nature. Once there, the "education" begins. By means of doubtful stories and a curiosity at first healthy enough, but gradually becoming more and more morbid, the youthful seeker after sexual truth gradually gains a distorted knowledge of facts quite simple and harmless in themselves. Those who do not go on to the secondary school go through the same process, either in the higher classes of the elementary school or in the occupations which they take

up afterwards. The results of this process are not improved by the fact that the tastes so developed are catered for lavishly by the film industry.

Even though it be granted that sexual instruction is necessary in the schools to-day, yet there is still the problem of choosing the teachers. The ideal teachers would, of course, be the parents, but that is a counsel of perfection. Most parents are no more fitted to give instruction than their children are to find out for themselves. The only other alternative is that of the formation of a special department which would turn out teachers fully qualified in the subject. But a fact which seems to me to be of vital importance is that instruction must be given to children at an early age. As soon as a child becomes self-conscious about sex it is much more difficult for it to see things in their true light. When once it begins to ferret the facts out for itself it gets its nose in the mud, and the chances are it will keep it there.

This does not pretend to be a scientific examination of the case; I know very little about the theory of education. I was moved to find some sort of solution by my own experience of having to find the facts out for myself, and by the consciousness that there must even now be millions of adolescents who are making a muddle of one of the primary facts of life. It may not be a satisfactory solution to others, but it is an attempt to find one by the use of commonsense and bitter experience. Until some concerted effort is made, co-education will never attain its goal of a clean, sane attitude towards sex questions, and those adolescents who are striving to satisfy their natural thirst for knowledge will continue to find it in places "where filthy lusts drink devils' brew for wine."

THE IDEAL TEACHER

IN his presidential address to the Incorporated Society of Musicians, Sir Edward Bairstow gave the following description of his ideal teacher. "He has worked hard to make his brain and his body efficient enough to put out as big a percentage as is possible of the imaginings of his soul. It is this sane and logical conception of the relative importance of technique and imagination that makes him the finest teacher in the world. He does not reproach his pupils or frighten them because they make mistakes any more than he would rate them for being poor, unless their poverty of technique is the result of fear or lazy indifference. If it is, he is not an atom afraid to talk straight to them. But he always leaves them with the impression that they have it in them to conquer their difficulties. For that reason he never produces a hopeless feeling in them. He would be the last person in the world to give the impression that technical work was a dull grind, because he can continually keep the promised land before the eyes of his pupils, and can paint it in such glowing colours that they will fight fiends and go through the valley of the shadow to get there."

MUSICAL APPRECIATION MADE INTERESTING

By LOUISE M. DAWE, A.R.C.M.

IT has always been considered difficult to interest a class in Musical Appreciation.

With young children little trouble is experienced, because they have an innate curiosity regarding any musical instrument, and it is possible to keep them interested by playing simple tunes, such as "Lavender's Blue" or "John Peel," getting the children to clap the rhythm of the examples or to write it in one-note rhythm upon the blackboard.

Children who are older are apt to regard music as a bore, and to discover other interests which divert their attention; for in every class will be found several who resent having any kind of music treated as a lesson, and who would confess to a preference, as regards instrumental music, for a waltz or a fox-trot. These are the very children who need training.

Be careful not to make the lesson too much like a lecture. Children's minds can assimilate only slowly. It is better to speak for ten minutes or so and then ask who can write well upon the blackboard; someone will immediately be suggested by the rest, and facts written down there and then by one of their own number will stamp themselves upon the children's memories.

It is always well to play to the children, preferably from memory. I have visions of lively boys and girls listening with delight to a Bach Minuet, a short movement from Mozart, a composition of Schumann's, such as "The Horseman" from the Children's Album, and "Morning Song" from Grieg's incidental music to Ibsen's Play "Peer Gynt," to mention only a few.

The gramophone is of immense value, especially when treating of opera or a symphony; every school should possess a gramophone, and it should be well used. In talking of an opera or an oratorio it is sometimes a good plan to read part of the text of a selected work, explaining the form and something of the life of the composer, and the period when it was written, and then to put on a record of a chorus or air from the work, and to get the class to hum the tune.

Every class should, if possible, include some aural work, and this need never be dull; an endless variety of patterns to be used for memorizing and for writing down can be taken from well-known songs and instrumental compositions. If the class consists of young children, break off for a few minutes' expression work, with clapping or conducting, remembering that children are, after all, young animals, disliking sitting still for long, and liking exercise and movement.

WHY ARE TEACHERS UNPOPULAR ?

By LOUIS ANDERSON FENN, M.Sc.

IT is a melancholy fact that most people do not like teachers. That is very unfortunate for the members of a great and honourable public service. For example, in 1931, when "cuts" were the order of the day, no victims received less public sympathy than the teaching profession, which had already made voluntary sacrifices for the national necessities.

Moreover, it is very depressing to be a member of an unpopular profession. A burglar's lot, even more than a policeman's, must be distinctly "not a happy one."

Not having been shut up for hours on end with forty or fifty wriggling urchins, most people imagine that teaching is easy work. They therefore resent the teacher's salary, security, and lengthy holidays.

Moreover, though most people like children, real respect for them as persons is comparatively rare, and there is a tendency to resent the status which civilized society gives to those whose business it is to tend the young. The implied contempt of the Shavian aphorism, "He who can, does; he who can't, teaches," is bound up with the conviction that only inferior persons who lack initiative find their way into the teaching profession.

Furthermore, there is a tradition—now at last slowly dying—that the teacher, the policeman, and the parson, are specialists in "telling people not to"; and, quite comprehensibly, people do not like being told not to.

These are external sources of unpopularity. They are the teacher's misfortune rather than his fault. They date from the period before teaching was a real profession, when public parsimony made the teacher into a sort of policeman for keeping children in order.

The most serious respect in which the teacher often deserves unpopularity is his unwillingness to "give himself away" in ordinary adult society. I have occasionally had to lecture to mixed adult classes, containing little compact knots of teachers in a general matrix of working folk.

The ordinary "worker"—when among his own kind—will often argue cheerfully about the subject-matter of the lecture, quite untroubled by the admitted fact that he is inexpert. In the presence of teachers, however, he will shut up like an oyster, scared to death of "superior" criticism from people whose presumed culture he finds intimidating.

One would find it easier to criticize the "worker" if on these occasions one got any help from the teachers themselves. Unfortunately they,

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too, seem afraid to reveal the chinks in their armour. They appear to feel that there is some disgrace about not knowing everything that ordinary people know ; and they keep out of the ordinary healthy give-and-take of class discussion lest they should show the limits of their supposed omniscience.

But this is just pretentious and silly. Nobody to-day loses confidence in a doctor or a scientific man who admits that he does not know every detail even within his own professional sphere. Universal knowledge nowadays is impossible. The courage to admit one's own limitations is one of the chief needs of the modern mind.

Another thing which teachers, in common with all who follow specialized techniques, need to avoid, is the dullness of the trained mind. Knowledge is a perennially exciting thing ; but when it becomes a stock-in-trade it is capable of producing the dullest people. Pegasus in harness is often a sorry nag.

I used to notice a similar defect in some of my fellow students when I was an undergraduate. It was not the man who was taking Honours in English literature, but the science man to whom literature was a relaxation, who was really moved by the beauty of language. He knew much less about it, but he drew much greater inspiration from it.

I think the real trouble is that "examinable" knowledge involves classification, and that successful examinees tend to accept classification as ultimate reality instead of a merely convenient and provisional thing ; and teachers—for their sins—are the most thoroughly "examined" people in the world.

Unfortunately they themselves join in over-emphasizing the importance of this kind of knowledge. I know one who believes that the possession of a university degree really makes people urbane and generous-spirited. Unfortunately it does not ; otherwise staff common-rooms would be much nicer places than they are.

One is reminded of Schiller's aphorism about knowledge : "To one she is a goddess, and to another an excellent cow who provides him with butter." Goddesses cannot be scheduled ; and cows, though tranquil beasts, are terribly dull company.

The moral of all this is that the teacher ought to "come orf it"—as the Cockneys say. Readers of this article will perhaps be surprised to learn that I very much like most of the teachers I know. I want other people to like them as well, and to appreciate the beauty and value of their professional work. Usually they can be thoroughly good and stimulating company whenever they cease to be self-conscious. The lay public cannot be expected to bridge the gulf between itself and a rather forbidding profession. Is it not time the profession itself tried ?

EXAM. ECONOMY

By ALEXANDER BELL

THE late afternoon sun was pouring in through the latticed window of a pleasant study at the College, and Duodecimus Dodder, D.Nsc., was striding backwards and forwards like an agitated pendulum. He held in his hand the Board's reply to the proposal submitted by him in response to their urgent demands. His staff was so well balanced that he could not dispense with a single member of it without disorganizing completely the intricate and carefully thought-out scheme of work which had been approved, and even favourably commented on, by the Board as recently as the previous term. He could, however, dispense with his entire staff, thus going a long way past meeting, and even anticipating, the Board's requirements, if that august body would but undertake to broadcast from the seclusion of Whitehall the essentials of instruction to all forms simultaneously. The Board regretted that it could not see its way to approve so radical a departure from the methods of education traditional in this country; it concurred in the argument that its functions were advisory, but demurred to the conclusion that the pupils in the schools, and not the Government of the day, were those whom it should properly advise.

In the deepening gloom the taut, lanky figure relaxed and sank into a chair. As he turned on the light a slow smile stole over the finely-cut face of the great Head Master. This was not the end. There must be a retort, and who more fitted to find it than he, the author of the standard work on "Circular Functions"? Of course, he was the man to find it, the man who had found it. He had long doubted the efficacy of the existing examination system, had been appalled for years at the trimestrial orgy of marks, the fearful spate of questions, and the futile spilt of ink. The Board were instant in their demands; so were the advanced and enlightened educationists; now was his opportunity to confound the critics and to reconcile their opposing claims.

* * * * *

Sitting in their comfortable armchairs the Head of the School and the Captain of the Games looked at one another in real astonishment, and at the typewritten sheet before them in blank amazement. What had the Old Man got up his sleeve?

"There will be a match on each afternoon of the last week of term."

"Why, we didn't have a match for the whole of the last month last term!" interjected the C. G.

"There will be one examination of three hours for each senior form."

"Expect it's a General Knowledge stunt," suggested the C. G.

"Well, the Old Man was more than usually non-committal," replied

the H. S., "but he did go so far as to say it might be something of the sort; might be questions on all or any of the school subjects."

* * * * *

From behind their barriers of marked and unmarked exercise books, the English and the Science Masters threw puzzled glances at the notice board and each other.

"There will be one examination paper of three hours——"

"Say, guy, what's the great idea?" remarked the E. M.

"Some chimera buzzing in the Old Man's head," suggested the S. M.

"If it's a bee, it's a bonnet," interjected the Art Master, who had dropped in unawares, "and if it's *in vacuo*, it's disrespectful."

"It means I'll have to invent howlers instead of getting them," grumbled the E. M.

"Who is going to set it?" queried the S. M.

"Nobody knows. The Old Man wouldn't let anything out. Couldn't say whether all or any of us would have to stay on to do the marking. Reports as usual, of course."

"Bit awkward, isn't it?" the Maths. Master broke in, "having no marks to go by. Not that I attach undue importance to figures, but I do like to confirm my impressions objectively. Think I'll give my lot a——"

"No other tests are to be given," the S. M. unkindly reminded him.

* * * * *

Match followed match, and the morning of the last day of term arrived. The Fifth Form went into the room where their question paper awaited them. Good heavens, was the man mad? Was it an English paper after all? No, not altogether. There seemed to be some geography, or some——

You are to read carefully the following extract before attempting to answer the questions:—

The spumy vast, cavorting gleefully, ;
Steals unrelentingly along the flat
Undeviating fulvous granular,
Where serried ranks of ferro-concrete piers,
Aligned to face the golden, orient orb,
With distance, true and interval exact,
Alone withstand the insistent urge. Meanwhile
Descends, from heavy nimbus, slantendicular
Torrential aqueous superfluity
And all around is silent solitude.

(Twaddlelow : *Erosion*, Bk. XII).

Three hours later the Fifth burst out of the room and into animated conversation. Old Wanless, the dud, positively beamed, as he told his

bosom pal of the wonderfully detailed sketch-map he had drawn in answer to Question 1. The extract, it seemed, had called up memories of Mudd-on-the-Ouse, where he spent his summer holiday—usually nothing in examination papers ever reminded him of anything in everyday life. Meanwhile, with glum looks, Tiny Uptake, the dux, rapidly faded into the distance—as he confided afterwards to his sturdy partner :

“ I knew the velocity of the wind and the angle of incidence of the rain, but even now I’m not sure why the height of the nimbus was x in Question 2.”

Generally he was certain of his facts and confident in his conclusions.

* * * * *

Two days later a highly elated S. M. bounded into the Senior Common Room. His most erratic pupil had done exceptionally well on Question 3.

“ Only boy to discover one of the elements in the extract,” he confided to the world at large. “ Told me line 3 sounded silly, which reminded him of silicate—— ”

“ And the silly coon reaped his reward,” interrupted the A. M.

“ Well, Smooge ” (his doubtful pupil) “ sure got a cinch that-a-way, put him wise to Question 4,” jerked out the E. M.

“ Which was that ? ” inquired the S. M. “ The one about the retired major’s review and the author’s military education ? ”

* * * * *

Duodecimus Dodder sat in his study with a pile of papers beside him, neat lists before him, and a term’s work behind him. He glowed with satisfaction as he put the finishing touches to a carefully type-written document. That would waken them up. Broad outline of the experiment would appeal to the general public; detailed statistics of savings—this term 249 sheets of foolscap, last term 6937 sheets; this term 1’37 pints of ink, last term 1’82 gallons, etc.—would convince the Board of the utility of his proposal; analytical comparisons of results obtained—coincidence of final order with that of previous terms, etc.—would satisfy the pundits of the soundness of his scheme. Slowly he placed the document in the waiting envelope and turned to his unopened correspondence.

* * * * *

Duodecimus Dodder, Esq., D.Nsc.,

DEAR SIR,

My boy was so much impressed by the passage of poetry set in his examination paper this term, that I should be much obliged if you would inform me of the full title and of the name of the publisher of Twaddelow’s works. I wish to present him with a copy on his forthcoming birthday.

NATURE STUDY IN SCHOOL

By HARPER CORY, F.C.G.S., *Director of Studies, Nature Study Groups*

IT is usually expected that a teacher shall have had a training in the subjects which he or she must teach. Nature Study, the Cinderella of the curriculum, is less favoured than her sisters; it is frequently handled by teachers who have no idea of where and when to seek an Orange Underwing, or who would have difficulty in distinguishing a moth from a butterfly, or a dicot from a monocot. Untrained for the work, they are compelled to put their trust in books which omit detailed reference to the most important part of the subject—practical observation. It is not enough to tell a child what happens; he wants to know how, when, where, and why. If he is told where and when, he can be taught to discover the answers to what, how, and why in such a manner that he will enjoy and remember his achievements; for a gain in knowledge is a distinct achievement.

A good method of teaching Nature Study is as follows. Adopt a scheme of work to cover three or four years, and stick to that scheme. One problem per month will provide ample study material for the first year: two problems monthly can be attacked in later years. Use a reliable text-book, and give the pupils ample time to browse through it, so that one or more problems will arouse intelligent interest in the other parts of the course as well.

The class should read the relative chapter of the text-book during the first lesson of the month; further lessons for that month should consist of class discussion, practical work, and observation of natural phenomena by the pupils. The function of the teacher is to sift and collate the evidence obtained. This method arouses a friendly rivalry and enthusiasm which prompts the children to continue their observation when away from the class-room. Thus they learn that Nature is a wonderland, not a cause of mental indigestion, and that Nature can be studied in a city back-yard or even in a window-box.

This method, unfortunately, presupposes much specialist knowledge on the part of the teacher, an asset which many teachers lack. Nature Study Groups attempts to inform them each month on what, when, where, why, and how to observe certain natural phenomena. Schemes of study are suggested to meet the requirements of teachers, and other assistance is available for the asking. As Nature Study Groups is a voluntary movement rendering free services, all inquiries must be accompanied by a stamped, self-addressed foolscap envelope. Members of the R.S.T. desiring a four-year scheme of study or other help free of cost are invited to write for fuller particulars to the Director of Studies, Nature Study Groups, 36, Gordon Square, London, W.C.1. There is no entrance or membership fee.

THE BALEFUL INFLUENCE OF MATRICULATION ON THE YOUNG CHILD

By FLORENCE M. SURFLEET

SINCE young children do not sit for Matriculation, it may seem surprising that it can affect them in any way, yet unfortunately such is the case.

Matriculation is, of course, a university entrance examination, and it therefore naturally puts a premium on book-learning, and scholastic and academic attainment. It provided an examination which was satisfactory enough in the days when our English education was concerned almost exclusively with academic learning.

But in these days when our education is taking quite other lines, or, at least, would take quite other lines were it not for the examination, its hampering effects are to be seen on every hand. Education is seeking to awaken the child's interests, is fostering his initiative and resourcefulness, is helping him to develop from within himself so that he may take his place in the world worthily. Now it is clear that if education is to succeed along these lines, the subject-matter and treatment must be adapted to the child's needs at every stage; he must learn by doing, not by memorizing parrot-fashion the records of what others before him have thought or believed or imagined or achieved.

If this is to be accomplished, the method of approach will need to be a different one from that required by our school-leaving examinations, though, of course, such a thorough knowledge as that needed to make a foreign language a tool could also be used for obtaining satisfactory examination results, and, in fact, modern progressive education is trying to cover the requirements of outside examinations without sacrificing the child's real needs.

The difficulty is, however, that the curriculum is so crowded with traditional subjects from the past that there is little time for doing anything thoroughly. The School Certificate examination was intended to be an examination which should test and not direct secondary school work, and if full use were made of the freedom it allows it is quite certain that very much of the pressure now experienced on account of examination requirements would be removed. In fact, certain progressive schools are finding it possible to take examinations without giving up the real aims of education in so doing. The vast majority of schools, however, do not avail themselves of the freedom granted by School Certificate, but instead, in deference to requests from parents and employers, prepare their pupils for a combination of subjects which will bring Matriculation or Matriculation equivalent as well as School Certificate to those who are successful.

In order to be sure that every child has the best possible chance of matriculating at the end of his school course, the pressure on academic subjects begins immediately on his entry to school. This is true in schools of all types, and it is exceptional to find schools anywhere that do not insist on the early learning to read and write, or that dare put off academic subjects until the children are ripe for them. Moreover, young children are hurried through the first classes so that they shall reach the right standard by the time they must sit for secondary school entrance examinations or for scholarship examinations at ten or eleven.

Thus it is that examination requirements at sixteen or seventeen influence the whole school course, from five or six to sixteen or seventeen, and hold up educational reform long overdue.

Progressive educationists are concentrating their energies along two lines. They are trying to get Matriculation separated from School Certificate, and for this they need the support of the general public, but especially of parents and employers, so that only children who intend to proceed to a university ever sit for Matriculation and then not until a School Certificate has been obtained. Already there is support for this separation in many quarters, and business firms, banks, and colleges are amongst those who have expressed themselves as willing to accept School Certificate as a perfectly satisfactory standard for a school-leaver to reach. The School Certificate examination is not necessarily of a lower standard than Matriculation, for it would be possible to reach a very high standard in it and yet fail to matriculate if the subjects taken were not those accepted by Matriculation. It differs from Matriculation in being designed as a school-leaving examination and not a university entrance examination, which is surely a good thing, especially as so relatively small a number of scholars leaving school ever enter a university.

A second way in which progressive educationists are working is by allowing examination requirements to influence education in school as little as possible. In many progressive schools education goes forward for several years, until the year or two preceding the examination, without special reference to examination needs, and these are considered definitely only for the last year or two at school. Good results are obtained by this method, though it makes a heavy demand on the teachers. Parents have then to be willing to support the teachers, or the work is greatly hampered by the feeling of dissatisfaction or uneasiness experienced by the parents.

In any case, whatever type of school parents choose for their children, it is important they should understand just how education is hampered by the university Matriculation requirements and should see on what grounds the claims of School Certificate as a better and more suitable examination rest.

DEBATING

AS AN AID TO CHARACTER-TRAINING

By J. G. SYKES-MARSHALL

IT is comparatively simple for a student to recite poetry before the class when he has had time for preparation, but when suddenly asked to stand up and give his own ideas on a subject, he will often be in difficulties.

It is good to give every class, no matter of what grade, a reasonable opportunity for debating. For it is as needful to the juniors in the elementary schools as to the seniors of the secondary schools. Preparatory to the first debate it is best to announce the subject a week beforehand, in order that everyone may have plenty of time to collect facts. The first subject should be a very simple one; proposers and opposers should be selected at the discretion of the teacher, but for future debates they may be appointed by the class. Care must be taken that the speaker does not become too keen on his own speech. Nervous ones are sometimes so excited in waiting for their turn to speak that they take no notice of the other speeches. Except possibly in the case of very young pupils, and then only at the start, the reading of speeches should be prohibited. Notes may be used, but these must not be copious, and must only be in the form of separate words to serve as reminders.

It is here that we see the true value of the debate. To make a speech it is necessary to have confidence in yourself, as well as a good delivery and something to say. The student can express his ideas in the essay; he can show his powers of speech when he is reading aloud to the class; but the debate also demands confidence in oneself. As regards the length of the speeches, it will probably be necessary to fix a maximum length, since some speakers are capable of speaking at any length. The time allowed will depend upon the total time available and the number of speakers. No definite minimum need be fixed. A one-minute speech delivered by a nervous speaker often demands more effort than a ten-minute speech by a fluent speaker.

After the proposer and opposer have made their speeches the debate may be open and anyone may speak for a definite period. At the start it may be found necessary to call upon speakers by name, but once they are interested and have overcome their first nervousness, they will find the time all too short. It is unnecessary for the teacher to remain as chairman for every debate; it is better for the class to appoint a different chairman for each meeting, but the teacher should keep a firm hold on the meeting, making it keep to the rules and discouraging

irrelevance. Where only a limited time is allotted for the debate everyone should be allowed to make one main speech in which he brings out his main points and remarks. After that he can only either ask a question concerning someone else's speech, or answer any question that has been put to him. At the end the chairman should review quickly the main points in the various speeches, and perhaps give his own views. The proposer and opposer should then make their final speeches before the vote is taken.

It is sometimes useful to make a speaker maintain an argument against his convictions. This will compel him to study the other side of a question—the side on which he thought there was nothing to be said. To obtain variety at the debates, it is sometimes interesting to withhold the subject until the meeting begins. Preparation is thus impossible, and the speakers are taught to rely on their own wits. The subject of the debate should be very carefully considered. It will be discussed in its entirety, and speakers may learn all the main points from the consideration of both sides. Therefore it is well to choose subjects which will add to the knowledge of those taking part in the debate.

Debate may involve some departure from the usual school routine, but the time spent will be repaid with interest.

WOMEN IN GERMAN UNIVERSITIES

THE Berlin correspondent of the *Manchester Guardian* says that a big reduction in the numbers of women pursuing higher education has taken place since the introduction of the National Socialist policy of restricting university studies in accordance with the possibility of future employment for men and discouraging them for women, whose career in the Nazi State is regarded primarily as domestic. In some faculties women students have declined by a half.

Compared with the winter term of 1932-3, the number of women studying in 1933-4 has fallen by 22 per cent in the faculty of medicine, 25 per cent in dental surgery, 15 per cent in pharmacy, 57 per cent in law, 48 per cent in philosophy and pedagogy, 35 per cent in economics, 41 per cent in business administration, 53 per cent in physics, 53 per cent in chemistry, and 58 per cent in geography.

DALCROZE EURHYTHMICS

THE London School of Dalcroze Eurhythmics is offering a number of scholarships, which will be awarded not only to women students but also to men students. Particulars will be found in our advertisement columns.

NATURE STUDY AT THE CAPE

FROM A CORRESPONDENT

THE Cape Education Department is perhaps the only education authority in the world to maintain a woman teacher for the express purpose of teaching children Nature Study, especially from a practical point of view. This teacher, Miss Muriel Johns, is stationed at the National Botanical Gardens at Kirstenbosch, some six or seven miles from Cape Town.

Every day a class from one of the many schools in the area goes out to Kirstenbosch, and spends a day there, under the guidance of this teacher, in exploring the Gardens and noting those objects of interest which happen to be in season. The children take lunch packets with them, and in addition to spending a pleasant day away from the usual school routine, are taught to observe Nature.

The education authorities try to arrange for the children to visit the Gardens at least four times a year; one visit for each of the seasons. In practice, certain schools do not send their pupils as often as this, and others send them more frequently.

On an average the Kirstenbosch nature study teacher has from 150 to 300 boys and girls passing through her hands weekly, and in the course of the year she will teach pupils from some thirty schools. It has been found that the children are deeply interested in these courses, which are certainly an improvement on the old method of teaching Nature Study in the class-room with the aid of text-books and pictures.

When the children go to Kirstenbosch they get away from the old routine Nature lesson. They are encouraged to use their eyes, to investigate matters of interest on their own account, and freely to discuss the plants, insects, and other items of interest they see. Kirstenbosch is a flower and bird sanctuary, and is probably without rival as a Nature Study class-room.

Miss Muriel Johns says: "I find that the children respond very well to the idea of observing Nature for themselves. They love movement of any kind, and the bird life in the Gardens is a constant source of interest to them. I have made a study of bird calls, and although often it is impossible to see the songster I imitate its call, and in that way the children learn to recognize the different species. The other day eleven kingfishers stood in a row on the lawns at Kirstenbosch. A party of snow white egrets settle there frequently. I am able to show the children robins, the Cape thrush, green piet, bulbuls, the piet myn vrou, the long-tailed sugar birds, and the white-eye. The most popular bird with the youngsters is the "Jan Fiscal," or butcher-bird, whose neat method of hanging his provender in a larder intrigues the imagination immensely. The mouse bird, with his call like a cracked bell, has

perhaps the least musical voice. The friendliest of the birds is the wagtail, and the bird with the clearest voice the piet myn vrou. The bird with the most musical call is the little reed warbler, whose notes are sweetly clear.”

These Nature Study visits to Kirstenbosch offer a means of interesting town-bred children in the life and flora of the country. They learn that the place is always accessible to them, with its variety of mountain country, open hillside, forest and water preserves, and other features.

The interest of the children has been aroused by the study of insects found under stones. They are taught the use of these, and encouraged to curb the townsfolk's impulse to kill such creatures. When these insects have been studied for a time the stones are replaced.

Kirstenbosch has large numbers of succulent plants of many varieties, and the curious shapes of some of these lead the children to call them by names of their own invention. There are also many other features so far out of the ordinary that the children will listen eagerly while Miss Johns answers questions or tells them about further curiosities of the plant, bird, insect, or animal world.

It is being thought in South Africa that this teaching method could be extended, although there is no other part of the country with botanical gardens to compare with Kirstenbosch. Yet it should be possible for the educational authorities in the large towns to use the municipal gardens or even to set aside a strip of natural veld, and there raise plants for study by the children.

Another suggested extension of this teaching practice is the caravan museum, which could be sent into the remote districts, there to bring Nature Study instruction to isolated schools. It is also suggested that schools in the country districts might collect natural history specimens of their areas and so form school museums. A further extension of this idea is that the various schools in the country establish an exchange system under which specimens peculiar to one area are sent to another, and so lead to a wider understanding of the nature treasures of the country.

Kirstenbosch was established on an old farm of the same name some twenty-one years ago, to serve as a botanic garden. During this short time it has become a rallying-ground for South African botanists, as well as for visitors from other parts of the world.

To make Kirstenbosch what it really should be, an annual income of at least £30,000 is needed. At present it does not reach £4000, and little beyond bare maintenance work can be undertaken. In the opinion of Professor Compton, the present Director of the Gardens, an annual contribution of one penny from every European person in South Africa would serve to make Kirstenbosch the sort of national botanical garden the country requires.

To be properly equipped it should have a large botanical library, research laboratories, a herbarium, containing as many specimens as possible from every part of the country, a museum of economic botany, and the usual offices for the executive. This is, in fact, the ideal at which Professor Compton is aiming, but until there are considerable increases in the Gardens' income he has little hope of achieving it.

H. H. W. Pearson, Professor of Botany at the South African College and first Director of Kirstenbosch, was one of those mainly responsible for the establishment of these Gardens. At first the area allowed was about 400 acres, but this was extended to 1100 acres by the addition of the Upper Kirstenbosch reserve. This brings the upper boundary over the top of Table Mountain, between Maclear's Beacon and the trolley track, and provides for work on many types of ground. The soil here includes scrub, indigenous South African forest, stream soil, swamp, and silver-tree woodlands, all of which bear many sorts of vegetation. It is no vain boast to say that these Gardens are without rival in beauty and situation.

The importance of such plant reserves is now recognized by the educational authorities and the South African Government, and in the course of time there will probably be important extensions in the number and size of them. There is a National Park in the Drakensberg, Natal, of considerable size, but this is too inaccessible for educational purposes, and it is not a nature reserve in the full sense of the term. The ideal would be to establish gardens on the Kirstenbosch model in all the large centres in South Africa.

CUJUS CULPA

THE Rev. H. Martyn Sanders, Hon. Director, Adult Religious Education, Diocese of London, says: "From Poplar to Knightsbridge I am in weekly contact with the mind of the laity, and what I learn at lay conferences, public and private, at clerical dinner tables and meetings of 'Chapters,' and in a correspondence which grows and grows in volume, convinces me that the greatest danger to the cause of true religion in England at this moment is to be found in the ignorance of the laity of the true content of Christianity and the inability of so large a proportion of the clergy to set the Faith before them against the background of a philosophy which is in line with the assured results of the labours of the scientist, the psychologist, and the biblical critic."

A LASTING NEED

Mr. H. Ramsbotham, M.P.: "The need for education does not suddenly terminate at fourteen plus, or, indeed, at any other plus."

MENTAL ARITHMETIC FOR TEACHERS

By A. J. LILLIMAN

I HAVE often wondered why mental arithmetic should be a tradition of elementary and not of secondary and public schools. I believe I struck an answer the other day when I came across a fifty-year-old manual on *Mental Arithmetic for Schools and Training Colleges—yes, and Training Colleges*. There lies the reason; teachers required for service in elementary schools were trained in mental arithmetic. More than that, they were, as this little book shows, *examined* in it. For the manual contains “a complete set of the Certificate Examination Papers in Mental Arithmetic both for Male and Female Candidates from the beginning.” It appears that the subject was introduced into the Certificate Examination for men (pardon, males) in 1863, and in 1866 for females. Who can tell me when it was dropped?

FROM TEACHER TO TAUGHT

The influence of the inclusion of a Mental Arithmetic Paper in the Teacher's Certificate Examination naturally found its way into the schools, for teachers of those days taught very much what and how they were themselves taught. According to the stories I have heard even infants were examined in mental arithmetic. I imagine that this influence began to fade about the beginning of this century when the cry went up that mental arithmetic in the schools was not what it was, and efforts were made to re-invigorate the practice. Many teachers still have faith in the “daily dose” or the “daily dozen,” but the types of questions now set are more realistic and relate to principles in course of being taught rather than to rule and rote.

A SPECIMEN

Here are the questions set for male candidates in 1869. You may care to try your hand at them.

1. $[(17 + 25) \div 19^5] \times 5\frac{2}{3} = X$; $(X - 9) \div 16 =$
2. 216 at 5s. 7½d. each =
3. 45030 at £1 5s. 4d. each =
4. 5020 at £43 4s. each =
5. 147234 at 19s. 7d. each =
6. 23808 \times .875 =
7. 528 \div .792 =
8. 24596 at 12s. 6d. each =
9. 58473 \times 2010 =
10. 19 cwt. 2 qr. 19 lb. reduced to lb. =

11. 4s. 10½d. × 365 =
12. Square of 1109 =
13. (Square root of 21⁷) ÷ .5 =
14. Square root of 815409 =
15. (40800)² - (40675)² =
16. Simple interest on £437 3s. 2½d. at 4 per cent =
17. Simple interest on £313 11s. 6d. at 6½ per cent =
18. Sold stock at £94³/₈ for £611 11s.; required the stock sold.
19. Present worth of £206 4s. 2d. due in 73 days at 5 per cent =
20. Banker's discount at 5 per cent = £8 6s. 3d.; true discount on same amount =
21. Reduce 3s. 2½d. to the decimal of 8s. 10½d. =
22. 7 tons 16 cwt. 2 qrs. at £5 1s. 8d. per cwt. =
23. Sold goods for £19 11s. 8d., and lost 6 per cent on my outlay; what was the cost?
24. A mean proportional to 328, 738, is . . .

Here are some other selected types which may be of interest :—

If $A = \frac{1}{5}$ of $7\frac{1}{2} B$ and $C = 3\frac{3}{8} B$, find $\frac{A}{C}$

591 squared =

$$56^2 + 44^2 =$$

$$\frac{21 + 36 + 45 + 84 + 105}{28 + 48 + 60 + 112 + 140} =$$

CAN YOU DO CUBE ROOTS ?

How many present teachers, I wonder, could work out a cube root without using factors? A senior mathematics master in a well-known County School recently confessed to me that he was aware a method of finding cube roots existed, but he did not know it, in fact, had never seen it. For myself, I have recollections of being taught it and of practising it with some little pleasure when I was in Standard VII, but perform it now I could not, without resort to algebra.

TRUTH OR TRADITION ?

The Certificate Papers in Mental Arithmetic for female candidates appear less difficult than those for males, Banker's Interest and Stocks and Shares being assumed to be outside their orbit, and square and cube roots beyond their ability. Perhaps the tradition that girls are less capable mathematically than boys also owes a good deal to the requirements of teachers' examinations of bygone days. At any rate, it seems to linger on without adequate grounds either for justification or denial.

PUZZLES AND PROBLEMS

By JAMES TRAVERS, B.A., M.R.S.T.

NEW PROBLEMS

1. On page 477 of Barlow's excellent work on the theory of numbers, we are asked to find a triangle with rational sides, rational area, and one rational median. Barlow gives the answer as 480, 299, and 209. These numbers are obviously wrong. Find the correct solution.

2. Find three whole numbers such that the product of every two plus the sum of the same two is a perfect square.

3. Here is a missing word puzzle in which the ten stars are all filled in by words containing the same six letters.

Thou who * aught for * of the dim and hidden past,
 May find the * of a * that was recently *;
 May know omissions are but *, and as thou * off to buy
 Must know that he who * still has * full on the sly;
 So beware, and do not worry, just find out all the facts
 And know that undue hurry against you still *.

4. Prove by a direct demonstration that if the bisectors of two angles of a triangle are equal the triangle is isosceles.

SOLUTIONS

1. The triangle with sides 30, 40, and 50, is a solution.

2. A set of numbers fulfilling the conditions is 4, 9, and 28.

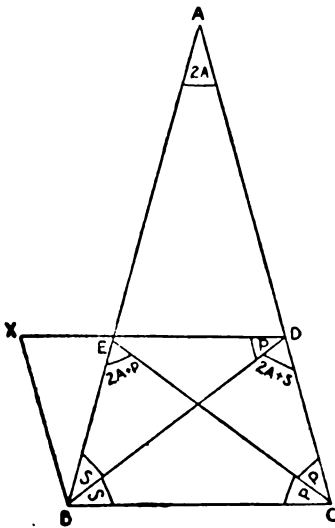
3. The missing words in order are carest, cartes, traces, caster, recast, carets, racest, caters, crates, and reacts.

4. The demonstration of this celebrated problem is much simplified by the following devices:—

The value in degrees of angles is printed by a symbol inside the angle.

The side opposite an obtuse angle is denoted by the abbreviation SOO.

By using the following theorem the demonstration given below will be easily followed. The theorem is: If two triangles have the obtuse angle of the one = the obtuse angle of the other, and the SOO of the one = the SOO of the other, and another side of each equal, these triangles are congruent.



Let ABC be a triangle with the bisectors $CE = DB$, and let the angles be as shown by the internal letters. To prove angle $S =$ angle P .

Draw $DX = BC$, and with angle $P =$ angle P . Then the triangles CEB , BDX are congruent (Euclid, Prop. IV, Bk. 1). Hence angle $XBD = BEC = 2A + P$ and hence the angles XBC , XDC are obtuse, as $A + S + P = 90^\circ$. $\therefore 2A + S + P > 90^\circ$. And triangles XBC , XDC are congruent by the quoted theorem. Hence the figure $BXDC$ is a parallelogram. Hence $XD \parallel BC$ and hence angle $S =$ angle P .

MATHEMATICS

SENIOR SCHOOL MATHEMATICS. H.M. Stationery Office. 1s. net.

THIS booklet will be read with interest. One might be inclined to cavil at the wide range suggested by the title, but in the hands of a skilful teacher any normal pupil could get a strong grasp of even a much wider range.

It is pleasant to note that stress is laid on the learning of tables, and even greater stress might have been placed on this important matter. No progress can be made in the teaching of Mathematics unless a thorough knowledge of the ordinary tables is possessed by the pupils, and this knowledge should be acquired by any normal pupil (indeed by any pupil) at the age of eight, if not earlier. There is a deplorable ignorance of these tables among the present generation of pupils, and we should do well to go back to the old practice of learning these tables by heart by simultaneous repetition.

A text-book embracing the suggested syllabus is the next want, for we have no good text-book designed on the lines suggested in this volume, and we hope to see in the near future a suitable one on the market.

J. T.

ELEMENTARY ALGEBRA. Part III. By A. W. SIDDONS and C. T. DALTRY.
Cambridge University Press. Pp. 245. 3s. 6d.. Without Answers, 3s.

THIS volume forms the last of a set which should be afforded a welcome in all schools where the School Certificate or Matriculation Examinations are catered for. The ground covered in this volume is very wide and some very important chapters are included, namely, those on gradients, rate of change, and further examples of derived functions. I know of no exponents of the subject who are better fitted to introduce new ideas to a student than are the authors of this book, and the multitude of examples and lucid explanations all go to make up a volume which should prove invaluable to teacher and student alike.

D. E. C.

SCHOOL CERTIFICATE MATHEMATICS. Geometry, Part III. By H. J. LARCOMBE and J. K. FLETCHER. Pp. 144. 2s. 9d. Without Answers, 2s. 6d.
Cambridge University Press.

THIS volume forms the conclusion of the School Certificate Geometry by the above authors, and is for use in the last year of the course. It is intended as a course of revision, with numerous examples, and is not put forward as a complete text-book. It seems rather a pity to put the chapter on loci at the end, when that particular branch of the subject is introduced so early in the actual teaching of Geometry.

D. E. C.

C

GLEANINGS

UNFORTUNATE

"Mr. Lloyd George made his speech in Welsh, a fact which greatly decreased the enjoyment of his English hearers."

The Observer.

THE VISION

"We must dream of an England that is not a Power that makes war; not an industrial organization that makes wealth; but an educational society which makes and diffuses wisdom among its members."

Professor Ernest Barker.

PATERNAL UNWISDOM

"If a father's desire is to hear his sons swanking about the Really Nice People they know and to see them sporting the Old School Tie, he will stint himself and his wife and daughters so that he may spend £200 or £300 a year in having his sons taught to look down on him."

Mr. St. John Ervine.

A NEW PERIL

"The quality of the English, spoken and written, of university graduates is a national menace."

Professor J. Dover Wilson.

NEW WORK FOR SCHOOLS

"In a saner state we should obviously educate our road users before we allowed them to use the roads at all. . . . The schools of the country have the future road-users of the nation massed under their roofs for periods varying from nine to twelve years. They have unlimited time at their disposal, and at present waste a great deal of that time."

Motoring Correspondent of the

"New Statesman and Nation."

WHAT IS A PUBLIC SCHOOL?

"A Public School is a place where every gentleman's son ought to go. It is often referred to as "the coll." The boys can work if they wish, if not, they needn't. When they leave they can wear the old school tie."

From a General Knowledge paper.

QUITE "NEWSUAL"

"Children arriving at elementary schools in luxurious chauffeur-driven cars are quite a usual sight these days in North London."

Sunday Dispatch.

DIFFICULT PROBLEM

“ If the working-classes do not provide the country with a stock of miners, scavengers, bus-drivers, sewer-men, fishermen, dock-labourers, etc., who is to do it? ”

From a Letter in “ Daily Telegraph.”

NOTE ON HISTORY

“ History is the record not of what has happened or of what has been said, but of what matters.”

Sir Arnold Wilson in a letter to “ The Times.”

Excellent! But who decides what matters?

THE ONLY WAY

“ There is too much education altogether, especially in American schools. The only rational way of educating is to be an example—of what to avoid, if one can't be the other sort.”

Professor Einstein.

SPEECH TRAINING

“ It is a sad reflection upon our education system that not one of us, since he left his first school, has ever had a reading lesson, and I should like to suggest that our schools and universities should pay at least as much attention to the technique of speech as they do to the technique of the written language.”

Professor Lloyd James.

WHAT BOYS ARE FOR

Concerning the decline in the Italian birth-rate, *Il Popolo d'Italia* says: “ The Fatherland has been cheated of more than a million boys—that is of future soldiers.”

THE AMATEUR PROFESSIONAL

Writing in the *Evening News* Mr. John Connell says that when he was considering an occupation he was told, “ If you were good at games you could get a Blue and become a schoolmaster.” Certainly! Teaching may be entered by the wicket gate.

THE ESSENTIAL CHANGE

“ To expect a change in human nature may be an act of faith, but to expect a change in human society without it is an act of lunacy.”

The Rt. Hon. Lord Eustace Percy, M.P.

FIRST YEAR'S FRUITS

By HELEN JONES

THERE is no magic recipe for making teaching easy. It is experience, and experience alone, which will finally produce the all-round efficient teacher.

Unfortunately, while obtaining this necessary experience, the young teacher's energies and enthusiasms are often strained and dissipated. I am recording my own first year's experiences, in the hope that it will help others at the beginning of their teaching career, who are wrestling with similar problems.

My school was in a slum. It was old and dark. The rooms were small, and children often had to sit three in a desk, with dire results on work and discipline. On the other side of the road was a factory with noisy machinery, and I had either to open the window and shout above the noise of the factory and traffic, or shut the window and stifle.

The staff room was small and ugly, with a fireplace, table, cupboard, class-room chairs, and a gas cooking stove which frequently threatened to blow up. Between us we bought an easy chair, and took it in turns to enjoy its comfort during the mid-day break. It will be seen that my surroundings were far from ideal.

My class consisted of forty-four boys and girls, aged nine and ten. The first week was a confused nightmare of registers and innumerable naughty children. I retired to bed at the week-end to recuperate. By Sunday night I had sufficiently recovered to realize that the first problem to be dealt with was the restlessness of the children.

It was invariably the unoccupied children who started the mischief; the ones who said, "Finished, Miss," before the slower children had really got going with the work. My usual reply was, "Take out your reading book," but I knew this did not meet the case, as these children were the quick ones who had therefore read the book from cover to cover, and now found it dull. The class cupboard had nothing to offer. I approached the Head Teacher, who was very sympathetic, but said there were no other suitable books available, and no funds to provide any.

Almost giving up, I remembered that stored away in the attic at home were many of the books we had read as children. My mother treasured these, but I persuaded her to let me have them. Then I went round to all my friends, and very slowly accumulated a stock of interesting and fat books for the class.

The "Finished, Miss," children were provided for first, and it had a steadying effect. They were no longer unoccupied, and naughtiness meant being deprived of a book.

When we had enough for the whole class, we spent time profitably in backing and repairing the books with newspaper and brown paper

provided by the children. Then a drawing lesson was given up to ruling the cover pages and printing the title. Reliable children were chosen to number and list the books, while two were appointed librarians to give them out and to keep tidy the library shelves.

Because the children were interested, the scheme worked, and became not only a source of pleasure but of real educational value, for I found that the reading, spelling, and vocabulary were all improved.

After a few weeks' teaching I developed laryngitis, and lost my voice completely. The doctor said, "You must not use your voice so much."

"But I talk all day long," I replied.

"Must you?" he asked.

"Of course," I answered.

When he had gone, I sat and wondered. Was it really necessary to talk all day? My throat was obviously not going to be equal to the strain.

I went back to school before my voice had fully returned, which made it physically impossible for me to talk as I had been doing. I explained this to the children, and said that I should have to write on the blackboard what I wanted them to do, and that when I did speak, it would be only in a whisper.

To my surprise the children enjoyed finding out for themselves what they had to do. Even when my voice returned I still wrote up as many directions as possible, only said things once, and did not raise my voice except when compelled by the machinery over the road. With my voice silent the classroom was much quieter, and there was more concentration on the part of the class.

One morning to my dismay, the classroom door opened to admit the Head Teacher and a much-dreaded Inspector. Contrary to my expectations, I found him most sympathetic, and helpful, and when he suggested another visit I did not tremble. Thus was a bogey slain.

So far I had found myself thinking of the children as the "class," and not as individuals. This I decided was wrong. It was no use saying, "Sit still," to a child who was continually wriggling. I had to find out why the child was restless. This brought such problems as children who were troubled by fleas, sharing a bed with more than one member of the family, getting up too early to deliver newspapers, and going to bed late after a fish-and-chip supper.

I did not find out these things all at once. Some of the girls told me while sewing was being placed. This information was not always reliable, as some were prone to exaggerate, while others closed up like oysters.

Playground duty days were opportunities for talking in an informal way and so gaining the confidence of the children.

Compositions on "Wash Days" and "Our Kitchen," in many cases pathetically illuminated the home conditions.

"My Bedroom" was a favourite subject for a drawing lesson, and it

was not uncommon to see one bed with two queer little figures at each end, and another in the same room with "Mum, Dad, and Our Baby."

This information was reliable and of inestimable value in helping me to decide on the best method of treatment to obtain the desired co-operation of individual children.

By this time I had achieved law and order in the classroom, my own energies were conserved, I had no fear of outside inspections, and so was free to go ahead with true educational work. It was necessary to decide the type of education which would be of most value to these children.

None of them would ever reach a university. My teaching, therefore, would have to be not so much academic, as practical training in citizenship. This could be done by linking up school and home life as much as possible, particularly in hygiene lessons. I felt that my ultimate goal was to turn out children cleaner, healthier, more dependable, more considerate of other people, with wisdom enough to use their leisure wisely; in a word, equip them for the life they would lead when school-days were over. An attempt to achieve this is, if one takes a long view, a work of national importance.

The end of my first year found me with a much wider understanding of child nature and its requirements, and a realization that true education was not a water-tight compartment, but something so much bigger and wider that it knew no bounds.

MISEMPLOYMENT

IN a letter to the *Manchester Guardian* Mr. W. McG. Eagar says: "Recent experience proves that some youngsters who leave school in a period of shortage have a wider choice of employment, but that for many others the dangers of misemployment are aggravated. The present Government's Shops Act has half remedied the scandal of the unregulated occupations. But there still remain about 300,000 boys and girls now at work whose hours may legally be much longer than those tolerated for adults. The pressure of the shortage has fallen with full weight on them. But it has fallen also on a number of young persons in employment where the hours of labour are regulated. The latest annual report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops calls attention to a number of known instances of disgracefully long hours. A boy was found to be employed for 156½ hours in 11 days, including spells of work of 22½ and 37½ hours. Other boys were working from 6.30 a.m. to 11.30 p.m. every week-day, in addition to hours varying from three to fifteen on Sundays. Girls of 14 and 15 were employed at night and for scandalously long spells. If these instances of misemployment are detected in trades where hours are regulated, what monstrosities of misemployment must be occurring in the unregulated occupations!"

BOOKS AND THE MAN

ACHIEVEMENT TESTS IN FIFE

THE Scottish Council for Research in Education furnishes an example to the teachers of England and also to our education authorities. It is supported mainly by grants from Scottish L.E.A.'s and conducted by a representative body of experts. Already it has produced some results of importance which throw some light on classroom practice and administrative methods, thereby helping to release us from the rule-of-thumb which operates to the idle content of many who live south of the Border.

Mr. Gregor Macgregor, Director of Education, Fife, has prepared a noteworthy statement embodying a comparison between the results of achievement tests in his own area and in America. The volume is published at 5s. net by the University of London Press under the title *Achievement Tests in the Primary School*.

Lack of space prevents one from describing the book in detail, but I hope that it will find many readers. The method of testing was based on American Achievement Tests, and it was found that the youngsters of Fife were in general some sixteen months ahead of Americans of the same age. In reading they were five months ahead; in arithmetic computation, twenty months; in arithmetic reasoning, thirteen months; in language usage, twenty-four months; in spelling, twenty-nine months.

It is pointed out that American norms hardly apply in Scotland. We ought properly to have a norm for each district and for each country to make fair comparison possible. Nevertheless this book contains much food for reflection. Suppose, for example, that the achievement test seems to indicate that London children are more advanced than those of Lincolnshire. Shall we ascribe this to local surroundings or to superior schooling? Both factors may come in. It would be interesting and useful if this Scottish research could be repeated throughout England. When our projected Educational Research Council is fully launched, such inquiries, and many others, may be undertaken. But we must first make English authorities and teachers see that research in education is not less important than research in medicine or in agriculture.

We have no lack of half-baked experiments in schooling, conducted in some instances by people whose enthusiasm is untempered by knowledge of children. Our chief need to-day is a careful investigation of the results of our present methods of education. Such an inquiry should cover matters of physical development, the presentation of instruction, the amount of instruction which is retained a few years after leaving school, and the development of independent critical power.

SELIM MILES

REVIEWS

EDUCATION

MENTAL HYGIENE AND EDUCATION. By MANDEL SHERMAN, M.D., Ph.D.
Longmans. 12s. 6d.

THIS book is obviously the result of practical experience as well as study. The author is not committed to the theories of Freud, Adler, Jung, or Watson, and recounts them or refers to them dispassionately. His work covers the ground, as far as school applications are concerned, with practical completeness. There are some schools in America where the inter-relation of the teacher and the psychologist make possible the type of inquiry and treatment here outlined, but there are very few in England. Notwithstanding, only those teachers who have already made a considerable study of psychology would fail to find instructive and suggestive material here.

R. J.

SCHOOL DRAMA

1. ON ENGLISH COSTUME. By MARY KELLY. Deane. 2s. 6d.
2. MANNERS AND MOVEMENTS IN COSTUME PLAYS. By ISABEL CHISMAN and HESTER E. RAVENHART. Deane. 3s. 6d.
3. A TEXT-BOOK OF STAGECRAFT. By SUSAN RICHMOND. Deane. 3s. 6d.
4. THE PLAY PRODUCED. By JOHN FERNALD. Deane. 3s. 6d.

EACH of these, within its own set limits, is a book worth reading, and reviewing them is a question, in the main, of saying to what readers each is appropriate.

The first is for the reader who knows only a little about historical costume, and wants a general idea before attempting a more detailed acquaintance. It deals with dress under the headings Saxon, Mediæval, Tudor, Elizabethan, Stuart, Georgian, Empire and Victorian, dividing the mediæval into three periods. The treatment has two notable features: in each age the ordinary rather than the court dress is described; and in each age it is made clear how one type of costume was evolved from its predecessor. *On English Costume* is a handy little first guide to a large and intricate subject. There are twenty-four line illustrations, not very good as drawings, though adequate in showing the costumes described.

The second book is invaluable for the producer of "period" plays, those plays which always raise awkward questions—"How did friends greet each other in the seventeenth century? "How was a mediæval court of law arranged?" "What was a Tudor dressing table like?" This little work covers most of the cases likely to arise, and will save the conscientious producer much searching in public libraries and picture galleries. It divides its subject as follows: deportment, manners, ceremonial, weapons, dances, foreign customs. Some very detailed suggestions are made, as for instance, for the moves in a simple stage duel and a wrestling match. Very much a book to possess.

The intention of the *Text-book of Stagecraft*, in the author's own words, "is to provide a clear and simple course of study which will help Dramatic Students, professional and amateur, to gain some idea of the general principles underlying all good acting." The art of the actor is discussed, and then the book concerns itself with practical exercises—in breath control, voice, gesture, mime, expression of emotion, management of properties, etc. The special feature is a series of ingenious little scenes for class practice work; they are short enough to be given by word of mouth and used at once by the students. It would be interesting to take the book as the basis of a dramatic course, and only by that means could its degree of usefulness be judged. A reading of it suggests that the experiment would be successful.

In *The Play Produced* we have something like the ideal book for the producer. It is not for the beginner, who would do much better to turn to *The Production of School Plays* (Amice Macdonell. George Allen and Unwin), reviewed recently in this magazine. *The Play Produced* is for the producer who already knows a good deal, or for the actor who has had long experience of being produced by other people, and is turning to the job himself. The author defines the function of the producer. He then devotes three chapters to dramatic contrast, in terms of speech, movement, grouping, and decor; a chapter to the question of interpretation; another to that of form; one to the special problems raised by comedy; and his final chapter reviews step by step the whole work of the producer, from the point where the play is chosen to the point where the curtain rises on the first performance. It is worth the while of any serious producer to get this book.

F. V.

PSYCHOLOGY

GENERAL EXPERIMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY. By A. G. BILLS. 1934. Longmans. 16s. net.

THE author of this extremely interesting book is the Assistant Professor of Psychology in the University of Chicago. He has given an up-to-date account of the methods of experimental psychology, and has sifted out the most important experiments from the almost overwhelming mass of data which is available. Such a large number of papers are published on this subject each year that it becomes quite impossible for any one person to take cognisance of them all, and therefore it is only natural that the bibliography contains a high percentage of the names of American research workers. At the same time the well-known experiments of such English workers as Ballard, Myers, and Spearman, have not been neglected.

The book is divided into six parts. The first two parts deal with the sensory and perceptual processes. Experiments in seeing, hearing, and touching, are described, and there are many excellent illustrations of apparatus. The third part is concerned with learning and memory, and it is perhaps the most important section of the book, for the subject is handled with greater completeness than is usual in similar works. A great deal of work has been done on this subject of learning since Ebbinghaus carried out his pioneer experiments on nonsense syllables, and the nature of the learning process and the factors which influence its efficiency are carefully discussed. But however well we learn anything we also tend to forget it, and the section on forgetting is of peculiar interest. Part Four deals with association and thought; Part Five with work and the effect of fatigue on work; while the last section treats of emotional and affective processes. This branch of the subject presents considerable difficulty to the experimentalist. It is not an easy thing to measure the emotion, but the method of what has been termed the psycho-galvanic reflex, i.e., the change of electrical resistance of the body while experiencing an emotion, has yielded promising results, as have also verbal methods which depend on free association tests. At the same time although any given experiment may provide interesting results to a psychologist, it does not necessarily follow that it is a desirable thing to carry it out; such an experiment may have far-reaching results on the life of the subject, and in certain cases may do him definite and permanent harm. For example, what educationalist, moralist, or even psycho-analyst, could give approval to the following experiment quoted from the book? "An eleven-months-old infant was first subjected to a series of stimuli and it was found that he showed the fear reaction only to loud noises. The loud noise, in this case the striking of a steel bar behind the child's head, was therefore the native unconditioned stimulus. A white rat was used as the conditioned stimulus. A preliminary test showed no fear reaction to the rat. But after eight simultaneous presentations of rat and loud noise together, the infant showed the

fear reaction to the rat, also, crying and trying to escape. In order to determine whether the fear reaction had transferred to other similar objects, the infant was again tested five days later. He still showed the fear response to the rat, also to a hairy dog, and a fur coat, and slightly to cotton-wool. But all other objects which were in the room when the conditioning took place failed to elicit the emotion. The emotional response had therefore been conditioned to the white rat, and transferred from this to all furry objects."

The production of this book is a model of its kind. Both type and illustrations are delightfully clear, while the paper and binding are excellent. Altogether it is a credit to its distinguished firm of publishers.

R. S. M.

SOCIAL HYGIENE

EMPIRE SOCIAL HYGIENE YEAR BOOK, 1934. George Allen & Unwin. 15s.

THIS is the first general survey published of hygiene statistics and general data for the Empire. It can best be described—for it can scarcely be reviewed apart from descriptions—in a statement of parts.

A survey of Britain (not including the Irish Free State) deals with a dozen aspects, from infant mortality to prison service, and is followed by short summaries on about 150 townships and counties. Each point of the Empire is then briefly described from the point of view of hygienic and medical services.

Part II contains an extraordinary collection of articles and reports on Biological Teaching in the Colonies, the Film in Education (hygiene), the Traffic in Women and Children, the I.L.O., and Seamen's Welfare, for example. There is an excellent bibliography of social hygiene.

R. J.

DOMESTIC SUBJECTS

MODERN HOME LAUNDRY WORK. By E. HENNEY and J. W. BYETT, B.Sc.
Pp. 172. Dent. 3s. 6d. net.

MODERN laundry work is a science as well as an art; it demands a knowledge of the principles upon which the practice is based; of the properties of the materials to be cleansed, as well as of the cleansing materials. The authors of this excellent manual are experienced lecturers on the staff of the Gloucester Training College of Domestic Science; and they deal clearly not only with methods of treating wool, silk, rayon, lace, and other material, including cleansing and finishing; with the properties of water, soap, and other reagents; but also with recent developments in labour-saving devices, including electrical equipments. We find ourselves in cordial agreement with the principal of the college referred to that the book will earn the grateful appreciation of those for whom it has been written, the ordinary housewife not less than the professional laundress.

F. H. S.

ATHLETICS

BOXING FOR SCHOOLS. By HYLTON CLEAVER. Methuen. 3s. 6d.

THE book is suitable for beginners because of emphasis on the importance of thoroughly mastering the elements of foot-work before punching is attempted, and also because of the numerous illustrations which show clearly how a blow ought to look if properly delivered. It is also suitable for those who have already done some boxing, as something is said about the elements of ringcraft. The chapter on "in-fighting" emphasizes the fundamental idea of getting the arms inside one's opponent's guard.

The chapter on training is useful for schoolmasters, etc., in particular, as the author says that training should only be moderate. Masters should benefit from the advice to stop a fight if it is too uneven, as boys often develop a distaste for boxing through being

knocked about in the early stages. The author talks of "the stance" and gives an illustration of it, as if there were only one, whereas there are numerous stances to suit various types of build.

D. W.

SCHOOL SCIENCE

A SCHOOL COURSE OF SCIENCE. Parts I and II. Also bound together in one volume. By JAMES HUNTER. Longmans. Part I, 122 pp. Part II, 132 pp. 1s. 9d. each.

THESE books on elementary science have been written for the first three years of the post-primary curriculum, and they will also be found to be very useful for the first science course in secondary schools. The subject matter is confined to physics and chemistry, and the author proposes to treat biology in a separate volume. The books are well produced and contain a number of useful and easy experiments which are well within the range for which they are intended, and they do not contain any superfluous matter. They should form a welcome addition to the existing stock of text-books on the subject. They contain short biographical notes on famous scientists, which are especially welcome.

D. E. C.

NATURE STUDY

THE WONDERLAND OF NATURE. By HARPER CORY. Four books. With Pictures by W. N. Parker. The Grant Educational Co. Book I, 1s. 4d.; Book II, 1s. 6d.; Book III, 1s. 7d.; Book IV, 1s. 8d.

THESE four volumes form a series of remarkable value for schools. Their price is well within the range of the most sparing "requisition." They are well bound, well printed, and exceptionally well illustrated, with a coloured frontispiece to each volume and many drawings and photographs in the text. The matter is well arranged and set forth in simple language which is certain to arrest the attention of young readers. A valuable feature of the arrangement is that the study of wild life is made to lead on to the observation of the habits of domesticated animals, thereby avoiding one of the common mistakes of natural history readers, namely, that of treating nature study as a thing outside the ordinary lives of the pupils. This series is to be heartily commended, and it should have a very wide circulation.

J.

PHYSICS

(1) **RELATIVITY PHYSICS.** By W. H. MCCREA, M.A., B.Sc., Ph.D. 2s. 6d. net.
 (2) **HIGH VOLTAGE PHYSICS.** By L. JACOB, M.Sc. 3s. net. (3) **LOW TEMPERATURE PHYSICS.** By L. C. JACKSON, M.Sc. 3s. net. 1934. Methuen.

THE present-day study of physics covers such a wide range that it is well nigh impossible for any one person to be conversant with all its branches. "Methuen's Monographs on Physical Subjects" are each written by a specialist in his own field of work, and these accounts of particular branches of modern physics bring a knowledge of the recent advances in the subject within the range of the ordinary student. They are thus of great value, since they contain within the compass of some hundred pages a précis of the researches of many workers. The three new monographs mentioned above maintain the same high level as their predecessors.

1. In his study of relativity as applied to physics, Dr. McCrea confines himself entirely to the Special Theory, and shows how it has been applied to mechanics, optics, electromagnetic theory, and atomic physics. The book is largely mathematical throughout and would only be of use to readers with a sound mathematical knowledge.

2. In contradistinction to the first monograph, Mr. Jacob's study of High Voltage Physics is largely an account of experimental work. The theory underlying high voltage discharges is as yet imperfectly understood. A great deal of experimental research has been undertaken in this subject, and, as may be observed in the bibliography, much of this is of very recent date. The first chapter discusses the production and measurement of voltages between 1 and 1000 kilovolts. Later on, the part played by electrons and positive ions in this phenomena is discussed, while the second half of the book is concerned with the study of dielectrics. The work should prove to be of great value to those persons who are doing research in this and kindred subjects.

3. Until a few years ago little research on low temperatures had been undertaken in this country after the time of the pioneer work of Dewar and of Travers. The cryogenic or low temperature laboratory that had been established in Leiden by Kamerlingh Onnes had held the field in this respect. Within the last year or so, however, low temperature laboratories have been established at Oxford, Cambridge, and Bristol, and it is gratifying to hear that in future English physicists will be able to take their share in work on this most interesting branch of their subject. Mr. Jackson has written a most interesting and attractive book. He first of all discusses the production and measurement of low temperatures, i.e., temperatures at which hydrogen and helium liquefy. At such temperatures, the properties of matter often undergo surprising changes, and these anomalous conditions are described in the chapters which deal with specific heats, electrical conductivity, and magnetism. It is not possible to discuss such changes in detail in a short review, but Mr. Jackson's monograph will well repay careful study, and it is to be highly recommended.

The publishers are to be congratulated on the continued success of this series, which is proving so useful both to research workers and to teachers. R. S. M.

CHEMISTRY

PROGRESSIVE SCHOOL CHEMISTRY. Introductory Course. By J. M. HARRISON.
Pp. 167. Longmans. 2s. 6d.

THIS is a book written in a style suitable for the young. The diagrams are clear, though half-drawn burners are apt to be irritating to the eye, and the directions for experiments are very full, and questions after each subject provide adequate testing of the pupil's grasp.

It is a pity the book does not include some facts about water's hardness and its removal—water-softeners being so common now in many houses.

A child having a good grasp of the knowledge in this book is well equipped to start on School Certificate course.

A PRACTICAL CHEMISTRY FOR HIGHER SCHOOL CERTIFICATE AND INTERMEDIATE STUDENTS. By G. P. McHUGH. Pp. 117. Longmans. 2s. 9d.

THIS ranks as one of the best books of its kind, containing as it does both qualitative and volumetric work in one volume. Equations for all reactions are given and sufficient explanation of the theory for any student to be able to understand. The volumetric work is a little scanty with regard to iodimetry—arsenite and antimonite reactions could have been given fully and also the reaction between iodide and iodate. The use of an internal indicator for dichromate-iron titrations is also missing. Apart from these the book deals adequately with problems of volumetric analysis.

A HIGHER SCHOOL CHEMISTRY. By J. CAMPBELL SMITH, B.Sc. Pp. viii + 375.
Grant Educational Co. 4s. 6d.

IN recent years there has been a spate of chemistry books published to meet the requirements of the various school certificate, matriculation, and other similar examinations.

That all were not required and that some were not very good was to be expected; books of outstanding merit were met with only occasionally. This book can be classed in the last-named category. It is written by an author who has had a long and successful teaching experience. Interest is immediately awakened by the introductory chapter, wherein it is shown by numerous examples that at every turn of our daily lives we come into contact with chemistry and its achievements. Afterwards follows a lucid account of the facts of elementary chemistry, illustrated where necessary by historical references and by simple experiments easily performed by the scholar. The author evidently knows the difficulties which meet the beginner in chemistry, and what is more he knows how to teach the student to surmount them. The questions set at the end of each chapter are well-chosen, and generally bring out some difficult point for consideration.

There are very few errors—it seems impossible to find a book which is quite free from them—but it is surprising that the author has passed Fig. 104 on page 298.

The reviewer has no hesitation in recommending this book as a very satisfactory and informative production, which will make the science of chemistry interesting to the student or scholar.

T. S. P.

ENGLISH

ANTHONY AND CLEOPATRA. Edited by A. E. MORGAN, M.A., and W. SHERARD VINES, M.A. Warwick Shakespeare Series. Blackie. 2s. 6d.

WE can cordially recommend this excellent and scholarly edition of *Anthony and Cleopatra*. The study of this book should afford pleasure as well as profit to all students who have reached the School Certificate stage and beyond, and to the general reader. We have seen several volumes in this well-known series, but not one to better this.

J. W. B. A.

MODERN POEMS FOR CHILDREN. An Anthology for School and Home. Compiled and edited by ISABEL and R. L. MÉGROZ. The Fenland Press, Ltd. 2s. 6d. net.

IN this well-produced volume we have another charming selection of verse, chosen with a shrewd knowledge of children's likes and a sound judgment of the merits of poetry. This collection will be welcomed not only by children but by adults, for it contains many examples from modern poets.

J.

FORM IN LITERATURE. By HAROLD WESTON. Rich & Cowan. 12s. 6d.

ANYONE interested in literary technique, whether of the drama, the novel, or the short story, will find Mr. Weston's book a valuable guide towards a greater understanding of the fundamental laws of form which give symmetry and significance to the work of the creative artist. Beginning from a Line of Intention, and moving on to Barriers and Reversals, to Ostensible and Real Dénouements, his theory of construction is admirably illustrated by diagrams and apt commentaries. The reader is then shown how this Unit of Dramatic Form, culminating in a fusion of Intention, Dénouement, and Theme, acts as an illumination to the significance of the story. This basic architectural pattern is revealed as one which underlies the work of our greatest writers. The author's method enables us, as it were, to take a look into the workshop where we can observe some of the world's master craftsmen at work. The explicit manner in which he illustrates the application of these universal laws, particularly in relation to the tragedies of Shakespeare, makes a valuable contribution to literary criticism. The comparison of the main elements of one plot with another is well done, though it inevitably arises from the skeleton method adopted that the extent of the reader's appreciation will depend upon his previous acquaintance with the works under review.

At a time when new forms of art, whether of literature, painting, or sculpture, often

have the appearance of suffering from internal strife, when their forms are indeterminate, and their significance difficult to discover, a book containing so much clarity of thought, and fearless, but not extravagant, criticism, is singularly opportune. Nevertheless, the author is not in the least pessimistic about the future of our literature. He makes it abundantly clear, however, that although it is in the nature of things that each age should attempt to bring its art into consonance with itself, there are certain elementary principles which demand compliance if success is to be attained.

E. J. M.

HISTORY

THE MINGLING OF THE RACES. By G. M. TREVELYAN, O.M. Longmans. 3s. 6d.

THIS is not a new book, but the first part (Book I) of the author's well-known *History of England*, here issued as a volume in the "Swan Library." The Preface to the complete *History* is included. There is no index, but the maps are reproduced. It is somewhat late to praise or attempt to assess. It should be sufficient, now, to say that the author is

R. J.

BRITISH FOREIGN POLICY, 1815-1933. By WM. EDWARDS, M.A. Methuen. 5s. net.

THERE is at present no rival to the book as a student's manual covering the century and more, and ending but yesterday. We travel from Metternich to Hitler. Naturally, the last chapters, 1919-1925 (Locarno), 1925-1933, and the Epilogue which follows, hold our immediate interest. Here, of course, a point of view—a "bias" if you will—must appear, unless the pages are to be dull and barren; and they are not. Some readers may demur at such phrases as "The Soviet remains (1933) the determined and unscrupulous opponent of constitutional government," but the general "point of view" is very close to that of the average Briton of the type that reads the older newspapers; and that is a standard not to be despised.

The author hopes that the book may prove acceptable, not only to the student preparing for examinations, but to "others who are interested in current history," and the book deserves that his hope should be fulfilled.

R. J.

BRITISH HISTORY FROM 1782 TO 1933. By T. K. DERRY. Pp. 354. Bell. 3s. 6d.

DR. DERRY has written a very useful, orderly, and accurate narrative of events, and by concentrating on things essential has produced a handbook which should prove invaluable to teachers covering the nineteenth and twentieth centuries for the First Public Examination. Excellent summaries have been included which should do away with the making of outline notes. Supplementary chapters deal with social and economic history of the period. The book may be had without the economic section at 3s.

A CONCISE HISTORY OF BRITAIN (1485-1714). By R. M. RAYNER. Pp. 373. Longmans. 2s. 6d.

THIS forms Part 2 of the series, and attains the standard set in the first volume. It is an admirable short School Certificate History of Britain.

H. C.

NAPOLEON'S HERITAGE. By B. FORTESCUE. John Murray. 10s. 6d.

WE shall never see the issue of the last book about Napoleon. Should a final debunking volume ever appear, it will evoke a reply and vindication.

"B. Fortescue" (surely this is the author of that remarkable narrative, *The Gun*) has one task and aim, and to that he keeps. His theme is the influence of race and environment, but more especially race, in producing the Napoleon Bonaparte who became

“L'Empereur,” and The Corsican. It is as The Corsican that Mr. Fostescue sees him, traces him, pictures him, explains him, and almost stamps him. Let us study the Corsica from which he came; still more, let us study the racial type from which he sprang, and so best shall we follow and understand that remarkable career of the conquering Frenchman who was not French. So our task and study will not be to praise or blame, magnify or minify, but to get at the subjective facts underlying the objective facts of that unusual life. Hero-worshippers will perhaps dislike the method; but many readers—more particularly in these days—will find it to their taste. Some of this has been done before, of course; but no such complete and in a sense one-ideal inquiry has been issued before this. The writer seems filled by his theme; indeed the fullness at times stands in the way of clearness.

R. J.

MATRICULATION HISTORY OF ENGLAND, PART I, 1066-1485. By H. C. SHEARMAN, M.A. (Oxon.), and H. PLASKITT, M.A. (Cantab.). University Tutorial Press. 4s. 6d.

WHOEVER is “in for an exam.” on 1066-1485 could hardly do better than learn from these pages. There are nearly four hundred of them, however, remarkably well stocked with facts, so that lazy students might well be intimidated at the start. But for the student resolved to satisfy the examiners there is great help offered. The material is classified and paragraphed, the “dates” set out in little bunches, the Historical Terms, from Avowdson to Writ, described crisply and clearly. There are brief biographies, maps, genealogical tables, and illustrations—good illustrations. And there is fuller treatment than is usual in books of this size and style of such subjects as Usury, the Influence of Rome in England, and the Standard of Living.

R. J.

ROMAN HISTORY

A HISTORY OF THE ROMAN WORLD FROM 146 TO 30 B.C. By Professor F. BARR MARSH, Ph.D. Methuen. 15s.

THIS volume follows immediately on *The Greek World, 323 to 146 B.C.*, already published (and reviewed here) in the Greek and Roman World series of histories, in seven volumes, now being issued.

The period covers the events associated with the names Gracchus, Marius, Sulla, Pompey, Catiline, Cato, Cicero, Cæsar, Brutus, and Antony. It deals, indeed, with the “Rome” that rose, with the Republic that rose, and was moving to its fall. It is a picturesque theme; but Professor Marsh has refrained from picturesqueness. His aim is to give the historical facts and data in their sequence. The story supplies its own splendour—usually a grim splendour. The contemporary renaissance in Italy, whether fascistical or factitious, whether a bubble or a beginning, in any case gives an interest of to-day to this story of yesterday.

The author has compiled several appendices to the book that are of more interest than are most appendices, especially the Political Machine of Ancient Rome, the Registration of the Italians, and the Legal Issue between Cæsar and the Senate.

There are four full-page maps; but it is doubtful if the added value in the book makes their insertion worth while. The Index and Bibliography, however, are of real value.

R. J.

ECONOMICS

SIMPLE ECONOMICS. By F. H. SPENCER. Pp. 208. University of London Press. 2s. 6d.

THE author is to be congratulated. He has made a dry subject virile, extremely interesting, and so simple that pupils in the middle school can read the book and understand it. The

subjects treated include production, organization of industry, exchange, distribution of wealth, foreign trade, balance of trade and taxation. The diagrams are effective and simple. The book can be warmly recommended for the upper school. H. C.

THE THEORY OF MONEY AND CREDIT. By LUDWIG VON MISES (Professor in the University of Vienna). Translated by H. E. BATSON (London School of Economics). Cape. 18s.

THIS work, first published in 1912, became almost at once a standard work in Central Europe; and not only there. A second edition was issued by the author in 1924; and, with a few omissions, this second edition appears in this first English edition.

There are many books on money, or on money and credit. Post-war events have produced a host of pamphlets and volumes. But there is no general, comprehensive, authoritative work on the whole subject of Money and Credit by any English economical or financial student.

It seems to be claiming much for this volume to say that it fills so large a gap; but that is a fair description of it. Here we have the Nature of Money, its history, its kinds, its relations to the state and to economic life, exhaustively described in a hundred pages. The section on The Value of Money, which follows, of necessity contains much that is far less easier reading than is the first part. The third section, dealing with Money and Banking, is of intense political interest, as well as of intense "economic" interest in these our days. The "cases" for and against this or that theory are very thoroughly set out; the conflict of theories and policies is nowhere avoided. On the whole, Professor von Mises is more conservative than revolutionary; but he is writing a scientific handbook, or one as scientific as the subject itself permits; and he is never the mere advocate. The book should be put on the shelves of every public library, in the hope that it will rarely rest on its shelves. At the next election, any candidate who can honestly begin his address by saying, "I have read von Mises with care and diligence," might well be credited in the public interest with a percentage addition to the votes actually polled for him.

Many sincere folk, however, of the genuine "currency crank" type and order will find this book very tiresome. R. J.

THE INDIAN PROBLEM

A FOREIGNER LOOKS AT INDIA. By P. STAAL. Cape. 7s. 6d.

THE writer of this book is Consul-General for the Netherlands at Sydney, and formerly held a similar post at Calcutta. Here is a view of India by an outside observer, but one equipped by his work to judge of administrative work, and knowing English well enough to write his book directly in our language. Such an equipment doubles our interest in what he has to say of British rule in India. He has no severe criticisms to offer us; which is almost a pity. The size and the uniqueness of the task seem to be implicit in all his view. But he has looked at India, and has written this book, not to set out a pro and (or) con on the British in India, but to give a general picture, geographical, historical, social, and political—with a glance ahead. He gives chapters to the Land, Caste, pre-British History, the Conquest, Education, Unrest, Russia, Reform. In the chapter on Education he stresses a point that writers on India often omit—perhaps by assumption. The general education of the Hindus—that is, Western education—is very much higher than that of the Moslems. For when the opportunities for obtaining this education came, the Moslems, for more than one reason, passed it by, while many Hindus seized upon it very eagerly. Thus there are few Moslems and many Hindus holding administrative posts. The balance is now being restored a little, as many Moslems are coming to think that this particular kind of aloof isolation is not at all splendid in its results. Meanwhile, it increases friction between the two.

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"There will be more conferences and more committees. The Conservatives, the Liberals, and the Labourites will talk at home. In India Mr. Gandhi will talk, and so will Congress, and the Mohammedans, and the Sikhs, and the Untouchables, and all the majorities and the minorities. And amongst each and every group there will be eminent men and very clever talkers. But there are two things that even the cleverest talker amongst them all cannot do : he cannot talk India—populated as it is by groups which are divided by race and by blood, by religion and by law, as well as by an entirely different outlook on social life—into a united independent Empire. Nor can he talk the British out of India."

And although he does not say so, the practical Netherlander seems to be adding, under his breath—"and there you have it—flat." R. J.

GEOGRAPHY

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THIS admirably produced text-book deals with North, Central, and South America and Hawaii in simple language. In Chapters 5 to 10, the United States is treated in zones, a method which should enable the pupil to appreciate the similarities and dissimilarities in so vast a country. Strangely enough, the authors have ignored the North-West Territories, and the Yukon is dismissed in two lines of statistics. H. C.

SCHOOL CERTIFICATE REVISION GEOGRAPHY. By C. E. CLOWSER, B.A.
Pp. 168. John Murray. 2s. 3d.

THIS book, as the author makes confession, frankly caters for the average boy or girl whose success in the School Certificate Examination is one of the main concerns of teachers. As such it should prove of distinct value, seeing that it is the work of one thoroughly acquainted with his subject and having had considerable experience in coping with the problem of selecting just those aspects of that subject that make for examination success. The condensed information supplied is illustrated by a considerable number of clear diagrams and sketch maps ; each chapter is followed by valuable suggestions for additional work, and a set of School Certificate questions which have been actually set by the various examining bodies. F. H. S.

WORLDS IN THE MAKING. By R. BARNARD WAY. Pp. 136. The Chatterbox Co. Cloth Boards, 3s. 6d. ; Limp Cloth, 2s. ; Paper, 1s. 6d.

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ACADEMICIAN-BAITING has been a popular indoor sport in France since 1635; but seldom, since they condemned *Le Cid* and excluded Molière, have the Immortals given such opportunities for adverse criticism as they did when the long-awaited *Grammaire* appeared to take its place beside the *Dictionnaire de l'Académie*. For the Dictionary, the perpetual and apparently the only "work in hand" for the last three centuries, has been a monument of careful and painstaking research, marked by the generous time-lag which is characteristic of official bodies of dignity and standing; as such it commanded the respect of the educated public, and exerted a valuable steadying influence on each successive generation—whereas the grammar turned out to be a monument of the grossest incompetence, giving practically no sound rulings on doubtful points, and a multitude of unsound rulings on points which were not doubtful at all. Definitions and rules were arbitrary and often nonsensical, historical explanations inaccurate and unscholarly, and the general arrangement unbalanced. If this appears too harsh and sweeping a condemnation, readers should consult Ferdinand Brunet's *Observations sur la Grammaire de l'Académie*.

In the new edition, of which the present volume is a reprint, the worst blunders have been corrected, and certain parts, notably that dealing with subordinate clauses, have been entirely re-written. The *Académie* still refuses, however, by definition (p. 144) to allow *Dieu a créé le monde*; it still condemns (p. 167) *il n'y a pas que des fleurs dans ce jardin*, a perfectly logical construction which can claim highly respectable "usage." The English student will be surprised to find that the classification of verbs makes no mention of a regular conjugation in —re . . .

Sir E. Denison Ross contributes a short preface, in which he speaks with suitable eloquence of the beauties of the French language. We cannot help regretting that that beautiful language has been so maltreated by the official defenders of the Faith. The last sentence of the Preface might well have been written by M. Brunot himself: "The very fact that it is written in French presupposes a considerable knowledge of this language, and *some of the rules will come as a surprise* not only to foreigners, but even to many who are privileged to call French their mother tongue" (our italics). A. B. G.

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UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH

Chancellor: Sir JAMES M. BARRIE, Bart., O.M., M.A., LL.D.

Rector: General Sir IAN HAMILTON, G.C.B., G.C.M.G., K.C.B., D.S.O.

Principal and Vice-Chancellor: Sir T. H. HOLLAND, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., LL.D., F.R.S.

Secretary to the University: W. A. FLEMING, M.A., LL.B., Advocate.

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The University embraces Six Faculties, viz.: Arts, Science, Divinity, Law, Medicine and Surgery, and Music, in all of which full instruction is given and Degrees are conferred. There are many different avenues to the Degree of M.A. (Honours and Ordinary), the graduation subjects embracing English, History, Modern Languages, Science, etc., besides Ancient Languages, Philosophy, Mathematics, etc. The wide scope of the Arts Curriculum permits of the combination of Arts, Science, Medical, Law, or Special Studies; and it has been shown by successes of Edinburgh students in the Civil Service Examinations that it is possible to combine study for Degrees in Arts, Science or Law with preparation for these and other Special Examinations. In addition to the Ordinary and Honours Degrees in Arts, the Higher Degrees of D.Litt., D.Sc., and Ph.D. are conferred. The Degree of Bachelor of Education is conferred on candidates who have attended courses and passed Examinations in Psychology and in Education (Theoretical and Practical). Diplomas in Education, in Geography, in Actuarial Mathematics, in Social Study, in French, in German, in Spanish and in English Language are granted. The Degree of Bachelor of Commerce (B.Com.) is conferred, and Special Courses in Industrial Law and other kindred subjects are provided. Degrees in Science (B.Sc. and D.Sc.) may be taken in Pure Science, Engineering, Agriculture, Veterinary Science, Forestry, Mining, and in Technical Chemistry. There are also Diplomas in Technical Chemistry and in Agriculture. There are fully equipped Science Laboratories, and other necessary appliances, in all these Departments. The curriculum in Divinity affords a thorough training in Theological subjects, and the Degree of Bachelor of Divinity (B.D.) is conferred. The Law Faculty, besides furnishing the professional equipment necessary for those intending to practise in Scotland, contains Chairs in Jurisprudence and Public International Law, Constitutional Law and Constitutional History, Roman Law, and Political Economy, as also Lectureships in other important branches of Law, and is thus adapted for students preparing for the Civil Service Examinations, and for legal, political, and administrative appointments generally. The Degrees of Bachelor of Laws (LL.B.) and Bachelor of Law (B.L.) are conferred. The Faculty of Medicine has a full curriculum in Medicine and Surgery, and is equipped with very extensive Laboratories, and all other necessary appliances for Practical Teaching. Ample facilities are afforded for Clinical Instruction at the Royal Infirmary, Maternity Hospital, Royal Hospital for Sick Children, Hospital for Infectious Diseases and Royal Edinburgh Hospital for Mental Disorders. Four Degrees in Medicine and Surgery are conferred by the University, viz.: Bachelor of Medicine (M.B.), Bachelor of Surgery (Ch.B.), Doctor of Medicine (M.D.), and Master of Surgery (Ch.M.); and these Degrees qualify for practice throughout His Majesty’s Dominions, and for admission to the Naval, Military, and other Public Medical Services in the United Kingdom. A Diploma in Tropical Medicine and Hygiene (D.T.M. & H.) is conferred on Graduates in Medicine of the University, and specially approved Medical Practitioners who have resided abroad. There are also Diplomas in Public Health (D.P.H.), in Psychiatry (Dipl. Psych.), in Radiology (D.R.), and in Tropical Veterinary Medicine. In Music there is a full course of study for graduation, and the Degrees of Mus.B. and Mus.D. are conferred.

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January, 1935.

By order of the Senatus.

W. A. FLEMING, Secretary to the University.

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THE EDUCATION OUTLOOK

Honorary Editor: FRANK ROSCOE



Summer 1935
Volume XII, No. 2

ONE SHILLING

CONTENTS

	PAGE
BROADCASTING AND THE SCHOOLS	69
THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS	70
FROM THE OUTLOOK TOWER	71
EDUCATION OF PRIMITIVE RACES.. .. .	77
EDUCATING THE MENTALLY DEFECTIVE CHILD..	80
APPRECIATING POETRY	83
VERSE	85
SARA COLERIDGE	86
TEACHING IN THE TROPICS	90
THE UNIVERSITY AND AFTER	91
THIS HOMEWORK	93
PROSE THROUGH POETRY	95
“FORCED RHUBARB”	97
EFFECTIVE ACTION	99
GLEANINGS	102
PUZZLES AND PROBLEMS	104
BOOKS AND THE MAN	105
REVIEWS	106
SOME BOOKS RECEIVED	126

THE EDUCATION OUTLOOK

VOL. XII. No. 2.

SUMMER 1935

BROADCASTING AND THE SCHOOLS

AT the Conference of the Association of Education Committees the Director General of the B.B.C. expressed disappointment amounting almost to resentment over the attitude of authorities to the broadcast talks to schools which issue from Broadcasting House. Sir John Reith went so far as to suggest that unless a more favourable response were forthcoming this feature of the programme might be abandoned, and he asked why the local authorities had not been clamouring at the doors of the B.B.C. instead of showing apathy towards its effort to provide "decent" fare.

This attitude might be compared with that of an enterprising editor who undertakes at his own cost to provide "decent" literary fare and then complains in public because his journal is not bought in sufficient numbers to justify his expenditure of time, money and effort. Such a public protest would evoke a smile. The B.B.C. has a monopoly conferred by the State, but few will take the view that unless they "listen in" they are in some way failing to recognize the noble aims and moral worth of the Director General and his two thousand colleagues. Teachers will rightly resent any suggestion that they are failing in their professional duty if they do not make use of the broadcast talks. This duty requires only that they shall give a fair trial to the new medium, and use it, if they think fit, in such manner as will best help them to fulfil their responsibility to pupils.

From time to time His Majesty's Stationery Office and the Board of Education publish books and pamphlets which might conceivably furnish useful material for school lessons, but it has never been suggested that these productions shall be bought by local authorities and placed in the hands of teachers. If this were done it would be proper for the local authorities to go further and inquire as to the use which was being made of the books, thereby introducing a new factor of control which would lessen the independence of the teacher and impede the exercise of his professional judgment. The broadcast talks as now given are rightly designed to supplement and not to supplant the efforts of the teacher, but nothing must be done, either directly or indirectly, to make them a compulsory part of the school programme.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS

Executive : THE TEACHERS REGISTRATION COUNCIL

Readers are asked to note that although the EDUCATION OUTLOOK will contain in every number a record of the Royal Society of Teachers, and of the proceedings of its Executive—the Teachers Registration Council—these bodies are not responsible for the views expressed by the Editor or by contributors and correspondents.

FOLLOWING his appointment as Minister without Portfolio in the new Cabinet, Lord Eustace Percy found himself unable to continue his work for the Council, and to the great regret of the members he resigned at the June meeting. His departure at this stage of the Council's work is unfortunate, for Lord Eustace had already taken an active part in the discussions now going on between the Council and the Board concerning the possibility of restricting future appointments to headships in grant-aided schools to registered teachers. In the opinion of the Council it is important that this step should be taken as soon as possible. Close upon 100,000 teachers have already shown in the most practical way their desire for an effectual register, inasmuch as they have paid a fee and asked to be enrolled. The conditions of registration have been devised with the object of ensuring that those admitted to the roll shall possess adequate attainments, and also have taken some form of training in teaching, followed by satisfactory experience in the work. These requirements cannot be described as arduous, but to fulfil them does call for some effort, whereas at the present time it is possible for anyone, however ill qualified and unsuited to the work, to assume the functions of a teacher and even to open a private school. The remedy for this state of things is in the hands of teachers themselves. Respect for their calling demands that they shall support the work of their representatives who are striving to furnish the public with some means of distinguishing between the man or woman who is professionally qualified to teach, and the sort of person who sometimes undertakes responsible duties without any proper justification.

A communication is being despatched to all members of the Royal Society of Teachers, giving an outline of the Council's work, and showing the financial position at the end of last year. In regard to finance the Council depends entirely on the fees received for registration. Its financial position at any time indicates the desire of teachers to become a profession. If this desire does not exist there is no reason why the Council should continue, but it is difficult to believe that teachers as a body are so little concerned with the welfare of their calling.

FROM THE OUTLOOK TOWER

PHYSICAL TRAINING

THE Board of Education announce the formation of a Central Council of Recreative Physical Training. The President is Lord Astor, and the membership includes not only the leading authorities on the technical side, but also a number of those who have shown an interest in the question in its social bearings. The movement is to be heartily welcomed, for hitherto we have been slow to perceive that the basis of a sound educational system must be found in careful attention to the physique of the children. For years past we have had excellent colleges for the training of women teachers in this branch, but it has apparently been assumed that the needs of boys would be met by drill and games. It is nearly twenty years since the Board of Education issued its handbook of physical training for elementary schools, but the carrying out of the precepts in the handbook have been left to teachers who are not in any full sense of the term specialists in the subject. It is to be hoped that before long we shall have available in every school the services of either a whole-time teacher on the staff who is competent to supervise the physical well-being of the pupils, or of a visiting teacher who performs this function for a group of schools. Remedial treatment is unfortunately necessary in many instances, and this calls for the services of men and women who are specially trained.

HEALTHY SCHOOLS

IN this connection it is important to remember that lessons on hygiene and exercises in physical training are of little value so long as we are content with school premises which have insufficient playground accommodation, no room equipped for gymnastics and no proper washing arrangements. We still have many hundreds of schools which were condemned as far back as ten years ago as being unfit for educational work. During the ten years the number must have increased considerably, and it is not too much to say that at the present time thousands of schools are ill equipped to fulfil the aims of a modern educational system. There is something of grim humour in a requirement that teachers shall give instruction in personal hygiene in schools where the washing accommodation provides perhaps one wash bowl for a hundred youngsters, and one roller towel which is changed not oftener than once a week. In such conditions lessons on personal hygiene are of little greater practical value than talks on the growing of orchids. Cleanliness is a habit, and habits are not built up on precept, but on practice.

THE SCHOOL AGE QUESTION

AT Geneva the International Labour Conference has been discussing a report of the Committee on the Unemployment of Young Persons. An important feature of this report was a recommendation that fifteen should be fixed as the minimum school-leaving age and the minimum age for admission to employment. Some surprise has been expressed because Mr. F. W. Leggett, the British Government delegate, said that he could not vote for the recommendation. He explained his attitude by saying that the question of raising the school-leaving age was now being examined in Great Britain, and it was full of difficulties, both technical and financial. A few days later a meeting was held at Lady Astor's house in St. James' Square under the Chairmanship of Lord Tweedsmuir, better known as Mr. John Buchan. He told the meeting that in this country 100,000 more juveniles were at work to-day than were at work a year ago, and suggested that this exploiting of youth was carried on at the expense of their fathers. Sir Percy Jackson said that more than 42 per cent of the boys and girls leaving school to-day formed no connection with any place of worship or with evening classes or clubs.

THE NEED FOR ACTION

IN this business the Government is showing lamentable want of courage and resource. No one can deny that there are difficulties, but the official method seems to be that of facing the difficulties and then resolutely turning away from them instead of seeking to overcome them. We have the absurd situation that young workers are being imported into certain areas where unemployment among adults still prevails. As a civilized community it is our duty to bring to an end without delay the practice of misusing young citizens for the increase of commercial profit. At each stage in the limitation of child labour we have heard the cry that the reform would spell ruin to the industrial prosperity of the country. The gloomy prophecies have never been fulfilled, and there is not the slightest reason to believe that if the school age were raised to fifteen at once industry and commerce would be unable to carry on. The welfare of the young citizen should over-ride every other consideration, including the possibility of quarrels between denominations, the trouble of reorganizing the business of a firm and the comparatively small expense required to provide suitable buildings and equipment. Maintenance allowances should not be universal, although they might be granted as part of the general scheme of public assistance.

TOPSY-TURVY

IN a letter to *The Times*, Mr. G. F. Bell, of Trent College, Derbyshire, says: "The idea that an O.T.C. or Cadet Corps breeds militarism reveals complete ignorance of boys. A parent, agreeing to his boy joining the O.T.C., recently wrote to me, 'It is as good a way as any to make him dislike regimentation and strip some of the romance from war.'"

This topsy-turvy argument leads us to the conclusion that the best way to abolish war would be to give military training to everybody. Our members of parliament should parade daily in Palace Yard, with Cabinet Ministers as officers and Parliamentary Secretaries as Sergeants. Even Mr. Hore Belisha might thus acquire a dislike of regimentation, and the sight of a pacifist Premier in khaki would have served to assure the world that the reign of universal peace had begun. It is quite true that the O.T.C. routine in schools hampers recruiting for the O.T.C. in universities. It is equally true that this routine has nothing but a negligible value for any future war. Boys who are preparing to defend their country should be learning how to make poison gas and how to distribute it from fast-moving aeroplanes. Rifles and bayonets are becoming as obsolete as pikes and battle-axes, and a school O.T.C. is a mere anachronism—a game of playing at soldiers.

ONE VIEW

TO our breezy young contemporary, "Out of Bounds" we are indebted for the following:

Extract from a Headmaster's Letter to a Parent:

"Your son is now of an age to join the O.T.C. as a recruit, and I should like to bring to your notice the advantages which the corps offers.

"*Military training, though the basis of instruction, is perhaps the least important effect aimed at.* Mental and bodily alertness, habits of command, initiative and self-reliance, self-respect, observation, and co-operation, are lessons invaluable in themselves, and taught far more easily through the corps than through games or books; in fact, in my opinion, it is the most valuable instrument we have for shaping character, and a boy who does not join it is throwing away the facilities which the school offers. At the same time, needless to say, it is not compulsory, and therefore the more valuable.

"The expense is trifling; a guinea entrance fee is charged towards the upkeep of the uniform and equipment, and a terminal subscription of five shillings, which is largely spent on teas and travelling expenses. The school is justly proud of its Corps, and eager to maintain its fine record of service and efficiency."

THE OFFICIAL VIEW

IN contrast with the headmaster's soothing letter we may quote this :

Extract from Official Regulations for the Officers' Training Corps :—

“ The primary object of the Officers' Training Corps is to provide students at Schools and universities with a standardized measure of elementary military training, with a view to their applying eventually for commissions in the Militia, Territorial Army (including the Reserve) or Regular Army Reserve of Officers (including the Supplementary Reserve). It should therefore be understood that the aim of every university and school which furnishes a contingent for the Officers' Training Corps must be to obtain the highest possible number of certificates of proficiency, and to provide as many officers as possible for those forces. . . .

“ The secondary object of the Officers' Training Corps is to provide a potential reserve of young officers to meet a national emergency.”

That the War Office view is the one which counts may be seen from the fact that in four schools the O.T.C.'s have been disbanded on the ground that they are not furnishing officer recruits for the Territorial Force. It is idle to assert that the O.T.C. in schools is not intended to foster militarism. The War Office grant is paid for no other purpose than to ensure a supply of young men equipped with military prowess of at least an elementary kind.

THE EDUCATIONAL VIEW

IT is sometimes alleged in support of the O.T.C. that boys gain benefit from the kind of discipline involved in these military exercises. This suggestion implies a confession of weakness on the part of those teachers who make it. Military discipline is not intended to foster qualities of self-reliance. It is a discipline imposed from without, and in its extreme form it will produce docile automata rather than human beings. The routine of school work, and the intelligent practice of physical exercises, coupled with the discipline of organized games, result in better forms of self-control. Every kind of discipline imposed on youth should be so devised as to foster self-discipline rather than enforced obedience. If it can be demonstrated that O.T.C.'s in public schools have a real educational value, we may be led to ask why similar organizations are not provided for the public elementary schools, since it is from these that the greater number of soldiers must be drawn. Headmasters of public schools usually declare themselves to be opposed to any form of vocational training, and yet they accept and attempt to defend a system which from the War Office point of view exists only to provide a preliminary vocational training for army officers.

FREEDOM IN THE UNIVERSITIES

IN some European states university teachers are in danger of being turned into gramophones restricted to the communication of official views. This is contrary to all sound principles of education, and the Central Council of the Association of University Teachers has adopted the following statement :—

“The Association of University Teachers affirms the right of university teachers to the full exercise of their functions and privileges as citizens. It maintains that the public expression of opinion, within the limits of the law, on controversial matters, is in no way incompatible with the position and responsibilities of a university teacher, it being understood that such expression of opinion is personal and does not commit the Institution to which he belongs. The Association recognizes that a special responsibility rests on a university teacher to weigh his words carefully when making public pronouncements. But the application of this principle in particular cases must, in the final resort, be left to the judgment of the individual concerned, and the Association would resist any attempt by university authorities or by outside bodies to impose restrictions on such expressions of opinion.”

A similar statement is signed by a number of teachers in the University of Oxford, who declare further, that it is highly undesirable that schools, universities, or other teaching institutions should seek to place any restriction upon the political activities of teachers in either national or municipal affairs.

INDIAN EDUCATION

OPENING a discussion on the problem of Indian education, Dr. N. N. Gangulee, C.I.E., a member of the recent Royal Commission on Agriculture in India, and lately Professor of Agricultural Economics in the University of Calcutta, stressed the fact that the vast majority of people in the British Empire are illiterate, and that neither economic nor political solidarity could be built up on such a basis. In India state education had seemed to favour the production of good clerks, and the idea that education would filter down from the universities to the masses had proved to be wrong. An impervious stratum had been encountered and Indian education was dangerously top heavy. The products of higher education had not been absorbed. Unsatisfied ambition led to unrest. The aim of education properly understood was two-fold—to build up the “economic” and also the “social” man. The neglect of education of the masses in India was due to a failure to think in terms of the economic man. Mass education should be compulsory and free, and university education should be provided for the limited number able to profit by it. The education of women was of basic importance.

THE INTERNATIONAL SCHOOL AT GENEVA

IN Geneva there are many children whose parents are officials in the League of Nations and in the International Labour Office. Their schooling presents special problems. Swiss state schools will not fully meet their needs, owing to the language difficulty, and to the fact that the scholarships available are usually reserved for Swiss children. Accordingly an international school was established some eleven years ago, and to-day there are 150 pupils representing more than twenty nationalities. Teaching is given in two languages, English and French, the older children learning German also. According to age the children are divided into groups of nationalities and are taught the history, geography and literature of their own country through the medium of their own language. More general subjects include Latin, Greek, Spanish, Italian, Mathematics, Physics, and Natural Science. Some forty of the pupils are boarders. The school is co-educational and controlled jointly by a head master and head mistress. It offers an interesting example of an attempt to preserve national characteristics while fostering an international outlook. The children become accustomed to living and working with young people of other nations. Friendships are established which will probably endure.

BELATED JUSTICE

FROM the beginning of July teachers and other public servants will receive their salaries in full. Since 1931 they have been paying a special income tax imposed upon them chiefly because their remuneration is drawn from public funds. This procedure is no doubt convenient for a harassed Chancellor of the Exchequer, but it is difficult to see why one section of the community should be thus exposed to a form of "benevolence." The "cuts," as they are called, were naturally resented, and to the protest an answer was sought in the statement that many individuals in the community were suffering even greater loss. This is true, but it takes no account of the fact that other individuals were suffering no loss, and some were even making additional gains. A higher income tax would have fallen equally on all concerned. Justice would have been done, and public servants would have been saved from an unfair burden placed upon them, only because the money for their salaries was readily accessible. It is to be hoped that the device will never again be adopted. One unfortunate result of the cuts is that many teachers will suffer a permanent loss of pension. The Board of Education have succeeded in obtaining from the Exchequer a valuable concession, but Local Authorities and the younger teachers can hardly be expected to pay superannuation contributions in full for the period during which salaries were reduced.

EDUCATION OF PRIMITIVE RACES

By O. F. RAUM, B.A.

*(Formerly of the Teachers' Training School, Marangu,
Tanganyika Territory)*

IN Europe educational thought tries to fit itself into the spirit of the age. It is determined by the prevalent philosophy, the material culture, and the political situation of the country. In return pedagogical experiment exercises a positive influence as one of the social forces moulding human history. A similar state of affairs obtains in the indigenous education of the kraal. In the undisturbed African society the training of the young is a process in harmony with all the other forces that attempt to mould the youth and maiden in the transition stage between childhood, the period of protection by the family, and manhood or womanhood as the period of work for the family.

No such relation can be said to exist where European schools have been imposed on native communities. For they are controlled by the educational agency concerned and never by the tribe in question. Missionaries were the first to open schools in Africa. Their early purpose was not communal but narrowly ecclesiastical. They taught the reading of the Bible. In consequence their schools produced specialists in an art which remained barren for the community. Again, when governments started the training of natives an analogous bias gained ascendancy because the official aim was to turn out clerks and government assistants. No wonder that the black man came to associate reading or a purely clerical training with education, and that the obvious subservience of schools to the aims of the agent made the natives demand payment for their attendance.

These times are not so far past that we could not detect their traces even now. Before the establishment of the Advisory Committee on Native Education the educational policy of colonial governments was drafted on the advice of the Board of Education, which had not the slightest idea of the psychology and the needs of the Africans. Some Departments of Education, for instance, tended to neglect the education of the older generations for the sake of the young. This meant that the age group controlling the social life of the tribe was handicapped in its task, because the white man's ambition was to raise a system of schools which could compare statistically with the home system. But we cannot feel content with the argument that whatever works in Europe must also be applicable in Africa. The problem is precisely whether another situation does not demand another approach. To sum up the characteristics of this period : education in the abstract tried to determine policy. Social anthropology was not consulted at all.

Of course, we have in Africa examples of an extreme reaction against the thoughtless transference of Western schools coupled with the definite attempt to continue certain institutions of native life in so far as they can be considered as "good." The Bishop of Masasi has incorporated a chastened initiation ceremony in the Anglican ritual. The German mission among the Chaga tried to take the clan organization over into that of the congregation. The keynote of Dr. Mumford's experiment at Malangali, Iringa, lay in the preservation of tribal pride and in the evolution of native custom. The difficulties in carrying out this policy were due to three causes. First, only isolated features of native life were carried on. The social system as a whole and the religious background underlying it were left out of account. Secondly, the criterion of selection was thoroughly European. The foremost consideration at Malangali was to discover "the sound and healthy elements of native social life," a task which no African would solve on the same lines as a European. Thirdly, the experiments were "interpreted by many Africans as attempts to withhold the benefits of civilization and to keep them on the level of a subject race" (Dr. Mumford). In short, the one-sided interests of early "practical" anthropology led education into a difficult situation.

The fact we must face is the impact of Western civilization on primitive culture, and the resulting absorption of the latter by the former, or at least its complete remoulding. For any change in one aspect necessarily involves developments in those aspects that are correlated and in a similar manner through the entire social structure. From this angle we obtain a new insight into the nature of education. Education, the unitary process concerned with the relation of two successive generations in one society, widens out into the interaction of two societies at various levels of development and becomes a dual process called "acculturation" by sociologists. It assumes among the sociological sciences that synthetic position which in the natural sciences is occupied by Geography. It is no accident that at the time when Ritter synthesized the science of Geography from data of the natural and historical sciences, Herbart should have discovered the composite nature of Education, ascribing to Ethics the function of determining the aims and to Psychology that of finding the means of training. We would complement the individualistic selection of Herbart's by a third auxiliary, Sociology and its sub-division of Anthropology.

We are now in a position to ascribe to the school its function in Race education. In Youth education, as we all know, it fulfils a conservative function as it passes on the cultural traditions of the parent generation. It is the index of a culture, showing what has been accomplished rather than what will be attempted in the future. In Race education something quite different obtains. The school becomes the index of the changes

brought on by the impact ; it points or ought to point the way, and is progressive rather than conservative. This is in fact not an altogether new departure, for as the History of Education shows, a similar function is performed by the general school in revolutionary epochs, and by the Universities at all times. The school then becomes the vanguard of community life. Teachers turn into prophets and pupils into enthusiastic protagonists of the dawning epoch. This is exactly what we observe in Africa at present. It explains what might be called the black man's craze for education. The sociological definition of education as the fitting of an individual for participation in the culture of his society acquires in acculturation a definitely political bias : the individual's participation is desired in a "planned" not yet-existing society. To bring this about the native is made to play his rôle in Indirect Rule, in the "Dual Policy," as Lord Lugard called it. The politician together with the educationist and the enlightened native map out the route along which native development is to be led. It cannot be mere evolution of customs, neither can it be slavish imitation. It must result in a community grown out organically and in its entirety from the old, and yet be wholly new and ready to assume the obligations of modern life, a community of dual aspect served by a school fighting on two fronts. For the school which is to take part in the creation of this new community must share its double nature and reflect the assimilation of the new world by the old culture. It must be a bridge spanning the gulf between community as it is and as it is planned to be. In the determination of these two ends Education would profit by a study of what Professor Malinowski has called Functional Anthropology, which sees native society in its entirety.

THE NEW PENMANSHIP

WRITING AND WRITING PATTERNS. By MARION RICHARDSON. University of London Press.

MISS MARION RICHARDSON is now an inspector under the L.C.C. She is also an expert in the teaching of penmanship, and under the above title she has prepared a set of five books, the first costing 9d. and the rest 6d. each, together with two sets of six cards, each set costing 6d. The cards are hinged together and contain patterns of capitals and small letters. Accompanying the books and cards there is a teacher's book which costs 2s. 6d. A specimen set of the whole outfit may be obtained from the publishers for 5s. post free. The method has been tried extensively and with marked success. The examples in the teacher's book afford proof of the rapid improvement which is possible even with young children. The resulting style of penmanship is extremely pleasing and at the same time wholly practical, for it presents a consistent and legible form of lettering which can be written at speed. In this the method is superior to the somewhat archaic style of art writing which is sometimes recommended, and also to the "script" which was in vogue some few years ago. Miss Richardson has pointed the way to a national style of penmanship, and it is to be hoped that her efforts will be supported by all teachers. F. R.

EDUCATING THE MENTALLY DEFECTIVE CHILD

By SADIE B. HARRIS, N.F.U., M.R.S.T.

A CHILD may be backward for various reasons. He may have been delicate in babyhood and earliest childhood and unable to develop normally. He may have inherited some physical or mental handicap which prevents his being on the same level as other children of his age. He becomes the "dunce" of the class and learns very little because in a large class he cannot receive the necessary individual attention.

Eventually the backward child comes under the notice of the School Medical Officer, who examines him by recognized tests and deduces the exact age which he has reached in his mental development. If the child proves to be very much retarded, and there is no history of illness or continual absence from school to account for it, the medical officer informs the parents (who may or may not have been present at the examination) that their child is a case for the Special School in the neighbourhood and should attend there at the beginning of the next term.

Some parents visit the head teacher of the Special School and become convinced that their child is more likely to "get on" with the more practical type of teaching. They see the children learning their letters phonetically in a game by means of cards which associate each letter with a picture—e.g., "C" for Cat. They see children who have passed this stage, building words from single letters on cards

C	A	T
---	---	---

. They see children still further advanced making sentences from cards on each of which a whole word is printed :

THE

CAT

SAT

ON

THE

MAT

They see children at the next stage writing sentences each to contain a word given by the teacher. They find the next children writing original composition : (1) from pictures which have the most difficult words printed on them, and (2) from pictures without words. The most advanced are writing composition with very little help, simple English exercises and reproducing in their own words a simple history story they have read.

The parents are impressed by this and say, "We had no idea they did this kind of work." They turn their attention to the Number, which goes through graded stages until it reaches arithmetic proper. They

see the beginners filling the Montessori counting boxes, building up the Long Stair, and then learning simple calculation with the solid insets which have 10 as their basis. They are first adding one to all numbers to 10: $1 + 1 = 2$; $2 + 1 = 3$; etc. Then they subtract 1, and continue easy practical work until they understand mentally the composition of 10 and 20. Then simple addition, subtraction, multiplication follow, and the compound rules.

Everything is learnt practically: the simple rules with Tillick's Bricks (again with the 10 basis) and the compound rules with cardboard money.

The parents are again surprised. They see the children building up multiplication tables on chequered paper:

--	--

 $1 \times 2 = 2$;

--	--

$2 \times 2 = 4$; and notice the various stages of handwork: coloured designs in crayon work, basketry in cane and raffia, wool and silk embroidery, hearth-rugs being worked from charts.

They go away with the idea that the School is a good place to "get children on."

Unfortunately, many parents will not take the trouble to visit the School and hug to themselves the opinion that the children of the Special School are imbeciles. Rather than investigate, they send their children to some little private school for about a shilling a week, to be taught by some unqualified person. There is no law to prevent a father from educating his child in a school of this kind, and there is no law to prevent any unqualified person from posing as a teacher and opening a school.

Now the parent who refuses to allow his child to attend the Special School usually has three grievances. He objects:

1. To the name "Special School" as placing a stigma on his child.
2. To his child's being certified "mentally defective."
3. To his being obliged to attend school to the age of 16.

There is a good deal to be said for these points of view. In the majority of cases the mentally defective child is outwardly the same as any other child. The teacher knows that he is unstable, weak-willed and educationally backward. But this also applies to children who are dull and backward (border-line cases) and not certifiably mentally defective.

The practical methods of teaching are applicable to all dull, backward and defective children. Hence a school on these lines, called a "Practical School," and catering for every grade of backward child, would do away with the parent's chief grievances. Moreover, all the children would leave at the usual school-leaving age, and no child would be certified until after his school days, and only then if he were a low-grade mentally defective. In the latter case, it would be necessary to certify the child to the Board of Control so that he might be watched over and given any necessary help.

The type of training in the Special School leads the children even in these days of unemployment to finding work and keeping it. Sometimes he starts this as errand boy in his school days.

The writer has taught mentally defective children for 16 years. Her present school accommodates 21 children of all ages from 7 to 16 years. At the time of writing, she believes that each one who has passed through the school has paid employment. The last to leave, a girl of 16, with her intelligence quotient only 55 per cent (as compared with a normal child) has daily domestic work at 9s. per week.

A boy who started work with an ironmonger in his school days has kept that employment for eight years and is still employed. A girl who left four years ago has been a daily maid in the same family since then.

Another girl has been employed in a laundry for two years since leaving and earns about 18s. a week. A lad who left six years ago works for a contractor at a man's wage. Many people think that defective boys get errand boy's jobs which carry them no further. In the writer's experience this has been rare. One boy who started as grocer's boy is now serving behind the counter. Another boy started as green-grocer's boy, then went as "handy-man" to a large boys' private school. Now, after two years there, he has left with a good reference and has work as under-gardener at 28s. a week. He is only 19 and his intelligence was only 57 per cent on leaving.

One boy, now 19, had to leave school at 14 as he had become nearly blind from cataract. He was successfully operated upon. His physical development was poor generally, and his speech difficult to understand. He got work in a brickyard. This, however, was dependent on the season, so now he does gardening and odd jobs, and though a poor specimen of humanity, manages to earn about 15s. a week.

These are merely isolated examples; the writer could give many more from her "After-Care Book."

Meantime, normal children of the same town are out of work. The facts speak for themselves.

HANDWORK

LINO-CUTTING FOR SCHOOLS. By F. CRAIK STEWART, M.A. Size, $8\frac{1}{2} \times 6\frac{1}{2}$ in. Pp. 102. University of London Press. 5s. net.

HERE is a book dealing with one of the most deservedly popular of the artistic crafts practised in our schools, by the lecturer on Art in the Edinburgh Provincial Training College. Every aspect of the very interesting and valuable occupation is dealt with as only an expert and experienced teacher could do; and those who wish to introduce lino-cutting to their pupils, or practise it for themselves, are unlikely to find a more reliable and helpful guide. As an introduction to the production of lino prints the use of potatoes as a substitute for linoleum is commended, and to this novel art the author devotes the last chapter of an entirely attractive, useful, and fully illustrated volume. F. H. S.

APPRECIATING POETRY

THE MAJOR DIFFICULTY

By T. W. SUSSAMS, M.A., *Saltley Training College, Birmingham*

EVERY school time-table reserves at least one period a week for the reading of verse. Yet it is exceptionable to find young people extending their acquaintance with even a little modern verse after leaving school. This may be due to the fact that the school-leaving age is fourteen or sixteen for the majority of children, and that good verse makes its widest appeal to the later years of adolescence, when a genuine interest in ideas begins to develop. But young children in the Junior School enjoy verse of a narrative and rhythmic nature. It is the years between eleven and sixteen that give most teachers of English their biggest problems.

With a view to discovering some of the reasons for this antipathy, a number of experiments were conducted with five classes of boys in two reorganized Senior Schools. The boys formed a representative selection of the school population, in that there was an age range of from eleven to fourteen plus, and a range in intellectual ability from "dull" to "very bright." The method of inquiry was twofold.

Three classes had a weekly poetry lesson throughout a term. The poems for the inquiry, selected mostly from modern writers, were chosen by the experimenters on the basis of previous successful teaching experience with similar classes. At the end of the term each boy was asked to re-read carefully all his poems and to arrange them in an order of preference. If he could he was asked to say why he placed one poem at the top of his list and another at the foot. The collected responses were then analysed.

The selection of verse was not identical for each class, but it so happened that one of the poems common to all three selections was an easy favourite.

The second line of inquiry was to give the favourite poem to each member of the two remaining classes, and note his spontaneous comments and questions. The experimenters only spoke to prompt the boys to voice their opinions. They scrupulously avoided all use of suggestive questioning. In this way a comparison was made between what the normal boy can make of verse with and without the aid of the teacher's more mature and experienced mind.

The statistical analysis of the results is not of general interest, but the conclusions to which they seem to point are significant.

A boy's first reaction is to the subject-matter of the poem, often to the mere title of the verse before him. His attitude to the poem is decided by his attitude in ordinary everyday life to what he conceives

to be the subject of the poem. If a poet takes "arms against a sea of troubles" his verse may be disliked because of a boy's unfortunate experiences while bathing at Blackpool. This statement seems preposterous, but the fact is that very few boys can, without aid, construe the plain sense of a poem if the language is at all figurative or the structure condensed or slightly involved.

A first distinction must therefore be drawn between verse in which the plain sense of the words is the full sense of the poet's meaning, and verse in which the plain, prose sense of the words, when fully apprehended in their context, serves to indicate attitudes and feelings similar to those experienced by the poet at the time of writing the poem.

It is safe to leave boys by themselves to read the first type of verse. A full anthology of good narrative verse and a dictionary are the only requisites. The more ground covered the better. But verse of the second type distinguished, the only true poetry, presents difficulties.

A boy's attention must be won immediately by confronting him with verse on topics and experiences with which he is familiar. For this purpose trains are superior to nightingales and telegraph poles to lesser celandines. This narrows the field of suitable poetry, and places on every teacher of English the task of compiling an anthology for his classes, based on his knowledge of the boys he is teaching, and of the environment in which they are living.

The anthology need not be very large, for each included poem will require close study by the class and considerable comment and explanation by the teacher. In order to elucidate the plain sense meaning of the words, it is essential that poems should be studied critically and not read discursively. One poem a week, in the writer's experience, is ample. Boys, at least, have no sympathy with that attitude which regards all poetry as essentially mystic and incomprehensible. The teacher's main function is to help his class to an understanding of the poem.

It is, moreover, quite easy to separate in any poem what can be explained from what cannot be construed into any other language than that which the poet has chosen. At innumerable points a clear understanding of the apparently obvious materially assists an intuitive understanding of the purely poetic. The teacher has no right to force his particular interpretation of a poem on his class, but it is his duty to see that boys are in a position to build up their own evaluations. He can discuss conflicting interpretations and help his class to measure the strength of words.

In this way, the study of poetry will become in school at least an exercise which summons all the resources of the mind. It will commend itself to those pupils who like adventuring with ideas, as a rival to the anodyne of detective fiction after schooldays are over.

VERSE

IDLY I lean against this ink-scarred desk,
 hearing the ancient winter wind
 shrill wildly through the trees,
 shudder with gloom against the window panes
 and moan among the shadows ;
 so sinister a note it seems to sound
 from shivering pine, and frosted boughs of beech,
 so strange, that childish eyes gaze wide around
 these pleasant walls ; one does not hear
 my voice which strives to tell
 how Caesar's mighty legions wandered far within our land.
 He listens not to tales of how they marched,
 strange in their majesty, over these same hills,
 stirring with sword and shield their virgin stillness,
 their unbroken peace. That one young child heeds nought,
 for he is far away,
 borne on the wind's swift pinions to where
 his faery folk are lingering in their hollow.
 I heard them when their elfin voices called,
 I knew that he could do nought else but follow.

GERTRUDE A. CHADWICK.

WHAT is amber ? What does amber mean ?
 One bright face uplifted, and a depth of wondering eyes,
 strange with swift childhood's fleeting mysteries,
 awaits an answer. But how may I tell
 all the pale amber loveliness that this world holds ?
 His own clear hazel eyes have amber tints
 when sunshine swims their depths.
 Slim catkins on the black untidy boughs,
 are threads of amber lighting all the spring ;
 an amber splendour sleeps beneath the pool
 where shafted sunlight stirs cool drifting weed
 to dreams of summer's warmth, and sweet delight.
 And safe encircled and embedded in his spawn,
 the unborn tadpole waves his tiny length
 in sensuous laziness. He ponders nought ;
 where is the need, enwrapped inside his world,
 a perfect globe of soft translucent amber.

GERTRUDE A. CHADWICK.

SARA COLERIDGE

By F. E. HANSFORD

TOWARDS the end of 1934—Coleridge's centenary year—there passed into my hands a slender volume written by the poet's daughter, Sara, in the year of her father's death (1834). *Pretty Lessons in Verse for Good Children, with some Lessons in Latin in Easy Rhyme*, was for long a popular aid to juvenile instruction in early-Victorian nurseries and seminaries—it reached a fourth edition in 1845. When first I turned the pages I was merely amused by the quaintness of the mnemonics, but on examining the contents more closely I made the curious discovery that the book is markedly autobiographical, providing not only an illustration of the educational methods employed in the early training of "little Masters and Misses" a century ago, but a pleasing picture of the unruffled domestic life of a happy and cultured family. Indeed the frontispiece depicting the fond Mamma with her two children may well represent Mrs. Coleridge, Herbert and Edith.

Born at Greta Hall, near Keswick, in 1802, Sara Coleridge was reared among a distinguished literary coterie. Her girlhood was spent under the care of Southey, and in the frequent society of Wordsworth, who immortalized her in his poem *The Triad* (1828). She early displayed extraordinary abilities, allied to powers of criticism and reasoning no less remarkable. Before she was twenty she published *An Account of the Abipones, an Equestrian People of Paraguay* (from the Latin of Dobrizhoffer), concerning which her father proudly declared: "My dear daughter's translation is, in my judgment, unsurpassed for pure mother English by anything I have read for a long time." It is said that Sara intended the proceeds of this publication to be devoted to the university education of her brother, Derwent Coleridge, who, as Principal of St. Mark's College, Chelsea (1841-1864), did signal service to the cause of national education. Lamb met her and was charmed by "Sara's unaffectedness and no-pretensions." "You might pass an age with her without suspecting that she knew anything but her mother tongue," he wrote to Barton, adding, "I wish I had just such a daughter. God love her!" Yet another was entranced about this time by her delicate beauty and grace, and throughout the seven long years which had to pass before marriage was practicable the affections of Henry Nelson Coleridge never wavered. On September 3rd, 1829, the cousins were married at Crosthwaite Church. They lived first at Hampstead, and afterwards in Chester Place, Regent's Park, where Henry Coleridge followed his legal and literary pursuits, the most notable of the latter being the editing of Samuel Taylor Coleridge's *Table Talk* (1835).

INSTRUCTIVE AND CAUTIONARY RHYMES

Her first-born, Herbert, was but four years old when *Pretty Lessons in Verse* appeared. To him the little volume was inscribed, the dedicatory sonnet being the tender and sincere expression of a mother's unselfish devotion!

“ My Herbert, yet thou hast not learnt to prize
 Parental love that hovers o'er thee still ;
 No heavy hours hast thou—no sorrows fill
 Thy childish bosom when thou hear'st my sighs ;
 But thy fresh cheeks and pretty gleaming eyes,
 Thy careless mirth, bring happiness to me ;
 No anxious pitying love I ask of thee—
 Be thoughtless still while swift thy childhood flies.
 Hereafter thou, my Herbert, wilt discern
 With tender thoughtfulness this heart of mine
 That ask'd no present love, no full return ;
 And then, while youthful hopes within thee burn,
 May'st dream that one to whom thy thoughts incline
 E'en so may love some cherished child of thine ! ”

The book opens with “ The Months,” the well-known lines of which have been memorized by thousands of children. No school primer in old days was considered complete without it : it is reprinted in many juvenile anthologies still :

“ January brings the snow,
 Makes our feet and fingers glow.”

There follow verses dealing with the seasons, days of the week, weather-lore, trees, flowers and fruits, beasts and birds, reptiles and insects, interspersed with so many rhymes on manners and morals as to make this volume seem a nineteenth-century counterpart of some ancient “ book of courtesy.” Herbert comes in for many an admonition. He is the hero—or rather the villain—of the piece entitled “ The Boy that won't lie in his Crib ” : perhaps a mitigating circumstance may be found in the assertion that

“ Herbert's bed is stuffed with chaff.”

In “ Behaviour at Meals ” he is thus exhorted :

“ At meals my dear boy must be good and obedient,
 Nor must he be ever requesting to taste
 Each savoury dish and expensive ingredient,
 Nor play with his dinner and half of it waste.

“ At table he never must whisper and giggle ;
 He gently may smile but not noisily laugh,
 Nor fidget about and reach over and wriggle,
 Nor must he expect wine and porter to quaff.”

The final hint is hardly necessary, for from "Herbert's Beverage" we gather that the four-year-old "cares nought for the fruit of the vine," preferring "the excellent fluid that comes from the cow" to "brown muddy porter" and "coarse vulgar rum."

Halfway through the volume appears a fanciful poem, "Edith Asleep," wherein the mother describes the faerie realms traversed by her slumbering daughter. It is to Edith Coleridge's loving labours in editing her mother's *Memoirs* and letters that we owe much of our knowledge of Sara's rare qualities of mind and spirit.

PLEASANT PATHS TO GEOGRAPHY AND LATIN

It is not by her *Pretty Lessons in Verse* that we estimate Sara Coleridge's place among our minor poets, but by the lyrics contained in her fairy-tale *Phantasmion*. The former indeed are didactic in tone, and so utilitarian are the mnemonics that the author has to exercise amusing ingenuity in contriving her rhymes. Consider the geographical jingle, "Good Things from Distant Places":

"Tea is brought from China ;
Rice from Carolina,
India and Italy—
Countries far beyond the sea.

"Coffee comes from Mocha ;
Wholesome tapioca
Is from the West Indies brought,
Where the humming-birds are caught."

And so on through fifteen instructive stanzas. Sara Coleridge must be regarded not as the *originator* but as the *improver* of the rhymed mnemonic. Her verses compare very favourably with those earlier and cruder types in which the rhyming lines usually had little or no connection with the main fact. Take, for example, a single couplet from "Marmaduke Multiply's merry method of making Minor Mathematics ; or, the Multiplication Table" (1816):

"Six times 8 are 48—
Dear Aunt ! your dress is out of date."

If the youthful linguist committed the generous series of rhymed lessons in Latin to heart he would indeed have had a most serviceable vocabulary at his disposal. Let me quote but one of the many examples :

"A boy like my Herbert should ne'er
Shed tears like a baby, and cry,
Because a new plaything or gift
Mamma may be forced to deny.

“ His Latin he always must say,
 And *puer* is Latin for boy
 And *domum* is Latin for gift,
 And *gaudium's* Latin for joy.

“ When Herbert can say all his nouns,
 And likewise the four conjugations,
 How much it will please his Papa,
 His Aunty, and all his relations ! ”

Living in an age when such methods had not lost the attraction of novelty, Herbert would seem to have profited much from this early instruction. After a brilliant career at Eton and Oxford (where he obtained a “double first” in classics and mathematics) he became a distinguished lexicographer and philologist, with a profound knowledge of Sanscrit and of the Northern tongues, particularly Icelandic.

Of Sara no finer tribute has been penned than that with which James Dykes Campbell concludes his *Life of Coleridge*: “Her father looked down into her eyes, and left in them the light of his own. Her beauty and grace were as remarkable as her talents, her learning, and her accomplishments; but her chief characteristic was the radiant spirituality of her intellectual and imaginative being.”

EDUCATION

TOYNBEE HALL: FIFTY YEARS OF SOCIAL PROGRESS, 1884-1934. By J. A. R. PLIMLOTT. Dent. 8s. 6d.

So famous an experiment, so bold an adventure as “Toynbee Hall,” should have a memorial worthy and dignified. It should be a record of beginnings, achievement, and standing. It should tell of “settlement” life, and should inscribe the names of the residents and wardens. All this is here; indeed, nothing seems to have been forgotten. Among the many records, one is outstanding to the present reviewer—a reprint of the paper on University Settlements made by S. A. Barnett (afterwards Canon, and first Warden of Toynbee). The paper was read at Oxford in 1883. It dates and it is in another sense dateless. It dates, because here is the spirit of the 1880's in relation to the Social Problem: Victorianism; echoes of Charles Kingsley; Sir Walter Besant and the People's Palace. It is dateless because here is set out, in language as uncompromising as that of any of the reddest left, not only the continued criticism of the Settlement idea, but the acceptance and placing of that criticism: “‘What will save East London?’ ‘The destruction of West London,’ was the answer, and, in so far as he meant the abolition of the space which divides rich and poor, the answer was right. Not until the habits of the rich are changed, and they are again content to breathe the same air and walk the same streets as the poor, will East London be ‘saved.’” This fine address deserves to stand at the forefront of the book, with the Archbishop of York's Preface, and the Introduction by the present Warden, Mr. J. J. Mallon.

The sub-title indicates a wider objective than Toynbee in itself; and rightly so. For the story of social progress in London has to be set out as Toynbee's framework. Such a picture as that of the boys of an East End school, in 1894 and 1934, even when every possible “but” has been allowed and implicated, tells a living truth of change!

The book has a score of illustrations, largely portraits, a good bibliography, and a good index.

R. J.

TEACHING IN THE TROPICS

By ELIZABETH GLANVILLE

"MUMMIE, I *must* stop playing. Something's trickling down my face!"

The thread of attention was broken once more, and with a sigh I let Eric stop.

There *was* something trickling down his face, as it had done since before breakfast, when the thermometer registered 82 degrees. People who dislike damp heat should never come to Singapore!

Perspiration mopped up, we started again, and all was going swimmingly, when flop! into my lap fell a chicha. Chichas are house lizards, which run about the walls and ceilings, and help to keep down the thousands of moths and small insects which abound here. Pretty little things, and we love watching them, but unsettling when they fall into the middle of music lessons!

That is my great trouble. Everything is unsettling, and concentration seems impossible. No sooner have I succeeded in capturing Eric's attention—and this is not difficult, as he is alert and intelligent—than *something* happens. It may be quarrelling sparrows, which delight in using our verandah as a battleground, or a bat flitting silently round, wondering why he has made a mistake in the time of day. Or it may be a friend from town, twelve miles away, looking in for a chat and a drink.

Sometimes it is more serious. One morning there was an uproar in the kitchen, and I found that one of the "boys" had been attacked by a swarm of hornets, and Cookie was trying to brush them off with a whisk! I may mention in passing that hornets here *are* hornets—very large, and it is no joke to get even one sting.

Another morning peace was shattered by Amah running in, saying that the gardener had cut off his toe. It turned out not quite as serious as that, but lessons had to stop while first aid was rendered.

Another excitement is fires. I happen to look out of the window, and see the valley in front of the bungalow blazing fiercely. I ring up the office and tell my husband. The fire is not on our land, but naturally it is carefully watched, and we send help if necessary.

Can you wonder that I find Eric's education in the tropics rather an unsettled affair? The only school is too far away for him to attend, so I *have* to teach him myself. Parents in England, with schools close by, have much to be thankful for!

ENGLISH FAULTS AND THEIR REMEDIES. With 150 examples. By A. WISE, A.R.C.S. Blackie. 1s.

THIS should prove a useful book for schools and private students for the study and correction of grammatical errors in writing. J. W. B. A.

THE UNIVERSITY AND AFTER

By ERNEST MARSH

IN the film "Men of To-morrow," depicting undergraduate life at Oxford, there is a scene in which the young hero applies for a job on a newspaper. The editor asks him what experience he has had. The young man replies that he has no experience and is only just down from the university. The editor then remarks somewhat brusquely that he is sorry but he has no use for him. This dialogue evoked a howl of laughter when the film was exhibited before an undergraduate audience at Oxford. It is highly probable, however, that many of those who laughed have since found for themselves, in some form or another, that that scene was based on unpleasant fact.

Most people now recognize that a university education is no longer a guarantee of a safe niche in the wall of life as soon as the undergraduate gown is finally discarded. It was perhaps never entirely so; nevertheless until a few years ago the average graduate, especially of the two older universities, was practically certain of a place in one or other of the professions. To-day the professional ranks have closed up. The problem of gaining some kind of employment is one with which increasingly large numbers of graduates are faced. In the past there has been a good deal of false prestige attached to the product of the university. All this has gone, driven before the cold blasts of the modern world. The men and women of to-morrow must stand on their own feet. But the tragedy of the precarious future of the undergraduate to-day arises in no small degree from the fact that a larger proportion of them are gaining their training by their own merits. Yet for many of them the future is clouded with uncertainty.

It is small wonder, therefore, that more and more people are tending to regard a good education solely by its commercial value. They pride themselves on being practical people in a practical world. That without a liberal education many of the most beautiful things in life are never really appreciated is something which they regard no one but an incurable romanticist would hold as important. This growing tendency, together with the increasing diminution of opportunities for young men and women to find a place in the sphere for which their interests and qualifications fit them, is undermining the ethical foundation of our educational system. It means, too often, that irrespective of personal aspirations, the newly fledged candidate in the world's labour market snaps up the first job there is going. He thus starts his career by joining the already swollen ranks of the misfits. More often than not, his parents have made sacrifices to assist him while at college, for even scholarship grants are often insufficient to meet all his legitimate needs.

Consequently they are unable to advise delay until there is a vacancy in the sphere on which he has set his heart.

In these days, the possibilities of the poorer student obtaining work in vacations are few. Practically the only work available to him is the most arduous manual labour, such as navvying, an occupation which, as I know from personal experience, requires more skill than those who have not tried it usually imagine. To the more fortunate student the intervals between residence in college are opportunities for continental travel.

So far as the graduate is concerned, the opportunity of employment in the industrial market is strictly limited. By the time he leaves the university, the youth who went into industry from the elementary school, and who began his apprenticeship at the age of sixteen, is now a fully qualified tradesman. The graduate cannot compete in the same industrial market as the man with a tradesman's skill. Moreover, the man whose interests have been enriched and widened by a cultural education cannot easily adapt himself to the monotony of modern mass production methods. If, however, he accepts an unskilled job, his workmates will probably regard him as an interloper, as one who will be singled out for any opportunity of promotion that may occur. This again is entirely due to a false sense of educational values. For its origin we must go back to the last century, when the manual workers only hope of a tolerable existence was to climb somehow out of his class. It is greatly to be deplored that there should have ever grown up the idea that once a boy's educational progress has taken him beyond the elementary school, he automatically becomes a black-coated worker.

There has admittedly been some change of outlook, but the change has been wrought with painful slowness, and has been largely due to compulsion from without. There has been a reluctant recognition that the present dearth of opportunity leaves little room for picking and choosing, whereas what is really needed is a new orientation of ideas concerning the value of education on the part of the mass of the people.

ACADEMIC OBLIGATION

IN his letter of resignation from the Bavarian Academy of Sciences—quoted in *The World As I See It* (Bodley Head, 8s. 6d.), Professor Einstein wrote: "The primary duty of an academy is to encourage and protect the scientific life of a country. The learned societies of Germany have, however—to the best of my knowledge—stood by and said nothing while a not inconsiderable proportion of German savants and students and also of professional men of university education have been deprived of all chance of getting employment or earning their livings in Germany. I would rather not belong to any society which behaves in such a manner, even if it does so under external pressure."

THIS HOMEWORK

By J. M. EVANS

AT the present time the mention of homework is sufficient to arouse sympathy not only for the child who carries home an attaché-case full of books in readiness for the evening's task, but, more especially for the parent who groans about the magnitude of this task. Usually it is the father who is vehement in his denunciation of such work, while the mother says less but spends sleepless nights endeavouring to solve a problem relative to the amount of water contained in a bath when both taps are running and the waste pipe is doing its best to empty the vessel, or else to find out exactly the amount of food eaten by various sheep and lambs in a pasture with growing grass.

It seems patent, however, that homework could be less troublesome if all connected with it—teachers, parents and children—would apply to it principles of psychology or common-sense—for these two are fundamentally the same.

A great help in this connection is the formation of Parents' Associations ; where such are in existence, the teachers and parents have frequent opportunities of meeting and discussing matters of school routine, and, through such methods of gaining understanding, a compromise in the planning of homework can often be effected. A slackening of homework on certain nights in the week when the parents particularly need their children's company is very often the outcome of the formation of these Parents' Associations. For it must be confessed that there is a tendency nowadays for the school to demand too much of its pupils' time. Social life in school doubtless is an excellent institution, but when the boy or girl comes home late several afternoons in succession, or insists on returning to school at night owing to the claims of concerts or the dramatic society, the chess club or the school orchestra, it is no wonder that the much-enduring parent exclaims : " I gain no pleasure from the company of my children, and they are growing up without any adequate home-life." When, in addition to these calls on a child's time the bogey of homework is added, the school indeed seems to be claiming an unfair advantage over the home. If homework *must* be set—and the exigencies of the examination syllabuses appear to demand more time than can be allotted during the normal period spent in school—its right function should be borne in mind. The only justification for homework is that it should put the coping-stone on work that has already been prepared in the classroom. It should give the child an opportunity to measure his own knowledge, to realize for himself that he really understands

what he is supposed to have learnt ; it must never be simply a means of preparing some new work which is to be tested by the teacher on the following day. Opportunity for initiative may be given, and the quieter pupil may thus feel his power with regard to the knowledge he has gained at school and can have new light thrown on his work by looking at it from a new angle. The slower pupil, on the other hand, may, by writing an exercise precisely similar to one which has already been attempted in class, fix the knowledge with which he is already partially familiar.

The amount of homework set must be moderate, and the homework time-table should be arranged according to psychological knowledge. Assuming of course that by means of intelligence and other tests the child is in a form suited to his capacity, he must be helped by his parents and teachers to arrange his homework sensibly. He must be taught the wisdom of "spacing" his learning, of dividing the task set into short periods instead of trying to do it all at once ; of giving, for example, ten minutes a night to the learning of French verbs instead of attempting to learn as many as possible in forty minutes on one particular night. If any memorizing of poems has to be done the young pupil must realize that valuable minutes are saved by reading the poem or at any rate a verse through several times and then trying to recall the whole, instead of attempting to learn one line at a time. Again, there is definite proof that if a child undertakes strenuous mental work immediately after committing some task to memory the remembrance of this task is likely to fade very quickly and recall is difficult. Hence "learning by heart" should be the last piece of work attempted in an evening, and should be followed by some activity of a purely recreative nature. The ideal homework would consist of a written exercise and some reading or "learning by heart," the written exercise being attempted first. Preparation for the poem or passage to be learnt would already have been given in class by means of tests in comprehension, paraphrase and reading aloud of this particular poem, so the actual learning would be an easy task.

Experiments are being made at present in connection with the lengthening of the school-day and the consequent diminution of homework, but longer hours in school entail great hardships on pupils who travel, and deprive other children of part of their home-life. If parents and teachers will arm themselves with forethought and elementary psychological knowledge there is no reason why homework should not be a pleasurable activity to be undertaken in a spirit of cheerfulness rather than a bogey to be feared.

PROSE THROUGH POETRY

C. M. G. NESBITT, B.A.

I believe that the control of expression by thought can be induced by making the child try to write poetry to improve his prose. The child, of course, rarely succeeds in writing poetry; at best his attempt can be called verse; at worst it is rhythmical prose. The occasional production of verse which has intrinsic merit justifies the experiment, although the aim of the exercise is to encourage the child to produce well-constructed sentences.

A boy usually finds talking and writing easy—and often he does both badly. But when he is asked to write poetry he is conscious that extra effort is necessary. He thinks more about his subject and about the right choice of word. In the middle school this attempt at writing in rhythm is a good corrective for the commoner faults—involved or incomplete sentences; colourless vocabulary; wordiness.

Here are some examples of work done by boys and girls in the fourth forms of a large co-educational school.

At the beginning of the term the following scheme was given to each child:

- a. Write a page of prose on any subject that interests you.
- b. Write out a poem, either old or modern, the rhythm of which pleases you.
- c. Write a poem on the subject chosen for your prose passage with the rhythm of the chosen poem.
- d. Turn your own poem into prose.

The work was not hurried; seven weeks elapsed between A and D, and what was written in the first exercise did not influence the last. Each child was allowed to choose his subject-matter and rhythm in order to minimize individual difficulties that would hamper the effect of the verse "crucible" through which the original prose had to pass. While stress was laid on a conscientious attempt to copy faithfully the rhythm of the chosen poem, the child was not discouraged by having to imitate complicated rhyme schemes. If he could, he reproduced the pattern of the original; if he was diffident, he was advised to limit his aim to producing lines with a regular succession of strong beats which he might call blank-verse. For the average pupil the scheme finishes at C not D. The last injunction—"Turn your poem into prose"—is merely a piece of diplomacy that avoids hurting the susceptibilities of the pupil. As a rule, it is only necessary to run the lines together, though with the better pupils inverted phrases and words have to be re-arranged, repetitive refrains altered, and rhyme deleted.

The first examples are from the work of two girls, aged thirteen.

The form of their poems was blank-verse, and the opening sentences of each are here reproduced, unaltered, as prose.

1. "How sweet the river twinkles in the sunlight; here the breeze is playing in the trees, making them sigh and shed their leaves in showers. Soon. Ah! so soon, the woodland glen will be a glen no more, and Winter will reign with all his spite upon the world."

2. "The parson, clothed in his white surplice, stood preaching to the sleepy village-folk. No witty words escaped his solemn tongue as on and on he rumbled to the throng. When he cast his frowning eye upon them, the children did fidget in their seats. At last the sermon drew unto its faltering close."

The third example is from the work of a Cockney boy, aged fourteen, whose work normally is execrable. This is his copy of a difficult stanza form:

"A beach made of pure white sand
Belted the whole of the island
On which laved
The slow waved
Ripple of the lagoon: rivulets
Flowed across small green islets."

The prose version became: "A beach of pure white sand belted the island. On this sand laved the gentle ripple of the lagoon, across whose green islets flowed streams."

The last examples furnish proof that this method helps to eradicate the prevalent fault of expressing trite sentiments with stock phraseology. For instance, where a boy wrote in the first place—"The warblers could be heard pouring forth their songs," his final version was—"The little coppice around his domain re-echoed to his merry chinking."

And even where the child has written efficiently in the manner of the formal essay, it is interesting to note how the inevitable effect of the poetry is to make the treatment of the subject vital and personal. Compare the following two opening paragraphs:

a. "Hockey, I think, is the most invigorating winter game that is played. As the game is played by both men and women it appeals to both sexes. In Victorian times women began to play hockey, but their parents thought it was very unlady-like."

b. "When the sun was shining brightly and the players were ready and eager to start, we picked up our sticks and went out on to the pitch. With a quick bully and a simple trick, a strong defence and a clever forward line, we had a pleasant match to look forward to."

It is true that in none of the work here cited is there any actual error in either grammar or syntax, or in vocabulary. But there was scarcely a single piece of prose produced at the end of the scheme which had not gained in vividness of style and originality of idea.

“FORCED RHUBARB”

By R. C. SMITH, M.R.S.T.

“**F**REDA’S won a scholarship!”

Thus Mrs. Brown to her neighbour, about this time last year.
“Oh, I’m so glad. Going to a secondary school makes such a difference, doesn’t it?”

Yes, it does. It means a different kind of school, different methods, different discipline, different subjects, different teachers, different acquaintances, and maybe different hours, different meal-times and perhaps a journey by train, bus or tram as well. Besides the physical changes that are almost due.

The homework is not different. Freda was no stranger to that. Nor to staying in playtimes working. From the moment she was promoted from the Infants’ Department she was regularly tested, so that by “Scholarship year” her head master could tell within two or three marks what she could do in the Exam. He adjudged her good enough for his “Scholarship Class.” This meant that, though not one of those brilliant children who seem to do all their work without effort, Freda was no duffer.

It meant, too, working all through playtimes. It meant cutting out many needlework and drawing and music lessons in order to do extra arithmetic. It meant ceaseless tests. It meant homework every night. It meant that she knew her work “up to scholarship standard” thoroughly. She finished learning long before the examination. Intelligence was hardly needed. Just practice, practice, practice, till the stuff likely to be wanted became automatic. No glimpse of anything beyond.

She got through. Of course she did. She would have found it harder to fail than to pass.

* * * * *

Freda will soon be going back after her holidays. She still remembers bringing home her report at the end of her first year at the “County.” Twenty-fourth. She was twelfth at Christmas. One month she had been tenth.

“That’s not very good,” said her mother.

Freda mumbled something while her mother read on.

“English Grammar—Good. Composition—Lacks originality. Arithmetic—Very fair. Algebra—Weak. Geometry—Poor. History—Does not work hard enough. Geography—Needs to put more energy into her work. Drawing—Seems to lack interest.” And so on. And the head mistress had added, “Freda’s progress has been disappointing.”

Freda waited, without enthusiasm, for her father to come home and add to her depression. She "hates" French—though, if she knew it, her accent is very passable, even if her grammar is weak—and she "can't do" geometry. She blames various mistresses for some other subjects.

The truth is that Freda is "forced rhubarb," of which a distressingly large crop is still produced every year. There are still so many "forcing houses" that people often say, "How is it that scholarship children seldom do anything afterwards?" The answer is that they have been overworked at the elementary school. They stay in most playtimes, frequently stay behind after school, and get back early in the afternoon. Not as a punishment, but because it is "done." And after the exam.—flop! Played out mentally, run down physically, you see them sometimes with nerves so badly worn that they are quite unable to sit or stand still even for a minute or two. So that when September comes they are not in any fit condition to begin the great new adventure.

Another aspect. Intelligence and initiative have been at a discount. Training has been very thorough up to a definite point. But there has been no anticipation of the change of school. No preparation that would make the change-over easier. Freda's parents do not go back to her old school and say, "The work you did with Freda helped her enormously over her first months at the 'County.'"

No. Freda was so highly trained that nature demands at least two years' rest. She has had one of them. She is now twenty-fourth in form. Next year she will probably be lower. But in the process she is getting disheartened, and is gaining a false outlook on learning and on life. She may easily be put in a "B" or a "C" form in her third year. Chances of "Matric" will thereby be reduced. And in the end the Freda's are written down comparative failures.

It was the head of the elementary school who failed. Unfortunately he gets credit for his "forced rhubarb." A large number of passes looks well. And is well, if——.

How long shall we grow forced rhubarb? Entrance to a Secondary School was never meant to require this forcing. And it isn't necessary.

OUR readers will be interested in learning that the International Journal of Individual Psychology, an English counterpart of the *Internationale Zeitschrift für Individual Psychologie*, is now available. The Editor-in-Chief is Dr. Alfred Adler, and the publishing office is 228, N. La Salle Street, Chicago. The first issue contains a number of articles of great interest to teachers.

EFFECTIVE ACTION

By E. ALLEN HUNTLEY

THE long-continued rumbling of protest about the Examination-fetish is becoming an angry shout. A resolution concerning examinations was passed at the Head Masters' conference; and it began thus: "Seeing that no effective action has resulted from resolutions passed last year." The Heads are evidently in high dudgeon.

As we all are. Something, it is felt, ought to happen—soon; but there exists a strange lethargy in high places. The present article is written to suggest that for teachers to wait for the examining bodies to take "effective action" is a rather pathetic act of faith. These bodies will do nothing except administer the School Certificate in its present form so long as they are allowed to do so.

It is hardly fair to blame them. They are (as Sir Michael Sadler recently stated) not students of education as education. They are experts only in matters academic; and they examine accordingly. Knowing only one trick, they persist in doing it with an air of conviction, though the delight of the audience becomes increasingly tepid. For the 7 per cent of Secondary-school pupils who proceed to universities, their examination, and the curriculum it dictates, may be suitable; but the other 93 per cent—the general, all-round type—go through school with a somewhat thwarted, vaguely unhappy feeling, being made to know rather than to do; having an unexpressed conviction that much of the "cram" is lumber so far as living is concerned; yet endeavouring, joylessly (even though, in more than 60 per cent of cases, successfully) to gain the "School Certificate."

Our task is to cater for the 93 per cent, without losing sight of the 7 per cent. One may look forward to a time when there will be different types of post-primary schools—academic, technical, and general—each with somewhat particularized pupil, curriculum, and examination; but such things are at present merely visions. What can be done immediately?

First: let the power be seized by the people who are in direct and active touch with the pupils, and are at the same time broad-minded men of the world—using that term in its best sense. And let these teachers—heads, assistants and enlightened inspectors—assembled, declare thus:—

We are trained teachers, responsible for the actual running of the schools. We are interested in the powers and the potentialities of the young; we are alive to the needs not only of individuals, but of communities; we realize the demands of the various departments of the nation's life. We know that the Secondary-school curriculum is overcrowded; with that fact we propose to deal. We know that for complete living, there must be education for power as well as education for fact-absorption.

We realize that the School can merely provide the basis for further study; and we have grasped the fact that our main task is to stimulate the powers of the pupils, to whet appetites for knowing and doing, to create desire for skill and achievement. A few of our pupils—around 7 per cent—are “born” students, academic types, natural readers. They cannot fail to do well in examinations of the academic order. It is the others who need careful consideration; they, after all, are the nation’s healthy backbone; it is their powers which we must discover and encourage.

The time has come when we feel that these convictions must be translated into classroom action. That translation is at present throttled by your examinations. There may be much about education which we do not know; still, we have some practical acquaintance with boys and girls; we have read, talked, thought about matters connected with their well-being; whilst you (it is the university examining bodies to whom we are talking)—well, you have not. We—to put our meaning beyond all doubt—are the People Who Know; you are the people who don’t know.

This is, obviously, a call to revolution—a peaceful revolution. Revolution is, we believe, the only “effective action.” To do you justice, you have never claimed to know; greatness (in the shape of power to examine) has somehow, in our topsy-turvey system, been thrust upon you. Rather pathetically you listen to our suggestions, we admit. Still, it won’t do; the “set” of your thinking is incurably academic. You have yourselves been “through the mill”; and to you there is only one mill. We envisage a mill of different shape, a new distribution of emphasis.

We declare the following to be our general aims and procedure in school from this time forward :*

A. Each pupil must leave school with a sound *physique*, a pride in bodily well-being, and a taste for fresh air, exercise and green fields. He must know “how to keep fit.”

B. He must possess certain *capacities* :

i. Accurate calculation applied to everyday matters. Arithmetical and Geometrical skill.

* In outlining this basic curriculum, I have in mind the average Secondary school in an industrial area, where most of the boys wish to leave school for work on obtaining the School Certificate. A prominent newspaper, commenting recently on a suggested curriculum, said that the difficulty was to embody it in time-table form. I suggest the above curriculum could be so embodied, thus: Assuming 35 periods per week, 5 go to P.T. and games; 4 to Arithmetic and Geometry; 5 to English; 3 to Geography; 3 to History; 3 to General Science. Twelve periods remain. Most of these should be devoted to various forms of “Power-development”; others to self-chosen, private (but not necessarily unsupervised) work. Academic, professional, and civil service subjects could be included for the small groups for which they are desirable.

ii. Mastery—adequate and growing mastery—of his own language, in speech, writing, and reading.

C. Knowledge.

i. He must know something of his country's literature—"the best that has been thought and said"; this will entail some study of the Bible.

ii. He must know the geography of his own country in some detail; and must know, in a general way, the main features of the earth on which he will live his life.

iii. He must know the history of his country since the Industrial Revolution; and he should have a general knowledge of the outstanding events which took place in the preceding centuries.

iv. Some *general* knowledge of scientific principles and phenomena should be gained.

D. Power-development.

The study of perfection, apart from the practice of it, is of little avail. The creative impulses have to be canalized. The knowledge and capacities developed under headings *A*, *B* and *C* have to be put into fine action, by recreational and creative methods.

The pupil will have the opportunity of expressing himself, of realizing himself, in music; in debate and lecture; in rhythmic gymnastics and dances; in literary work, arts, and crafts; in dramatic work; in scouting and hobby-societies of all kinds.

This power or skill development is, to us, the crown and reward of all our work.

The declaration should continue:—

Along these lines, and along these lines only, we shall work. We realize the necessity for an examination, and will collaborate with any examining body which is prepared, with our help, *to frame its syllabus to suit our curriculum.*

Such an examination would obviously have nothing to do with Matriculation. Taken at 15+, it would merely seek to ensure that a pupil had satisfactorily completed his course in the Secondary School; and that is the original purpose of the First School Examination. For the small number of pupils who had followed a more academic course, there would be papers in more advanced Mathematics, and a language other than English.

There is no ideal curriculum, but some curricula approach the ideal more nearly than others. There is no ideal examination. We assert that the method of approach is, first, to frame as worthy a curriculum as possible; then to make the examination meet it. At present we allow an examination which is unsuitable for, and unworthy of, 93 per cent of the candidates to determine our curriculum.

GLEANINGS

DISCOVERY

"The story of two parents' starving and poverty-stricken, who died within three hours of each other after they had done all they could to feed and clothe their four-year-old baby, was told at a Belfast inquest.

" 'This tragedy,' said the Coroner, 'shows that even among the poorest there may be found a streak of noble humanity and virtue.' "

Reported in The News-Chronicle.

ALTERNATIVE

"If we are not competent to solve the world's problems in terms of liberty, then we must expect to have to give way to those who will attempt to solve them under some form of despotism."

Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler.

NEW PERIL

"Two juvenile terrorist organizations have been discovered in a high school in the town of Rouma, in Yugoslavia, which bear the startling names of 'The Black Hand' and 'The Underground Vampire.' Several of the schoolmasters and mistresses have received letters from these bands threatening them with death unless the children obtain higher marks in the end-of-term examinations."

The Observer.

NATIONAL NEED

"At recent courts débutantes have shown a marked stoop and bent the head when curtseying. . . . It might be a help if the Lord Chamberlain would give a ruling of what is now accepted as the right thing."

Daily Telegraph.

MANNERS IN MAYFAIR

"It was one of the best-mannered parties. Large stands were placed in all corners, and bore the request 'Cigarette ends, please.' "

From a newspaper account of Lady Suardale's dance.

HOW PROCTORS ARE TREATED

"It is fitting that we should record our appreciation of the courtesy and friendliness which have been extended to us by those who occasionally stray into bars."

From the Oxford Proctors' Report.

IMPORTANT DISTINCTION

"The witness said he was not a financial expert, only a financial adviser."

Reported in "The Daily Telegraph."

BRAINS WANTED

“ Internal prosperity and patriotic emotion are no substitute for the successful statesmanship which the nation legitimately expects.”
Bishop of Birmingham.

TABLE DELICACY

“ The Minister of Agriculture is standing with both feet upon the breakfast table of the people. There is hardly a meal in which we cannot detect his hand in our food.”
Mr. J. Bailey at the Co-operative Conference.

THE ESSENTIAL

“ If there is one thing more indisputable than another it is the absolute necessity of education, to fit the common citizen to the complex and artificial requirements of the modern community.”
H. G. Wells.

HOPELESS

“ We cannot expect the harassed warden of an over-sized class of underfed children in an inadequate room to do more than jog his pupils through a routine.”
Ivor Brown in “ The Manchester Guardian.”

DEFINITION

“ A highbrow is a person educated above his intelligence.”

DISCUSSION NECESSARY

“ Religious vitality cannot be secured unless we have free discussion. Unreality in religion is intolerable. Broadcast addresses guaranteed to offend nobody, such as the B.B.C. inflicts upon us, are rightly classed as dope.”
Bishop of Birmingham.

FORTIFYING DISCIPLINE

“ I began to learn Latin at the age of eight ; from nine to seventeen I was made to spend more time on this than on any other subject ; and the outcome of it all is that I cannot read any classical author without a crib. My schoolmasters can, of course, answer that some people are too stupid to profit from even the best education. But of all my friends who have been through the same mill there are only four or five who can read Latin (and still fewer, Greek) with pleasurable ease. I conclude that the method by which we were taught was abominably bad.”
Raymond Mortimer in “ The New Statesman and Nation.”

PUZZLES AND PROBLEMS

By JAMES TRAVERS, B.A., B.Sc., M.R.S.T.

NEW PROBLEMS

1. Show how to bisect the area of a triangle by a straight line drawn through a given point outside the triangle.

Note.—When the given point is on one of the sides of the triangle, the solution is very simple, and may be found in almost any text book on elementary geometry, but when the given point is either outside or inside the triangle the construction and proof is more difficult, and a brief history of the methods employed, with references, may not be devoid of interest to our readers.

I first came across a complicated construction in *Angel's Practical Geometry* on page 48, and for the proof we are referred to *Bradley's Elements of Geometrical Drawing*, but the same construction and proof is also found in *The Educational Times Reprints*, Vol. 1, page 93. There is a much better solution with proof in Vol. xviii of the same reprints (New Series), page 46. I venture to affirm that the solution given below is the neatest and shortest of any that has been heretofore published by any other author.

2. The number 2401 is remarkable. The sum of its digits is 7 and its fourth root is also 7. How many other numbers, excluding unity, can you find that fulfil the conditions.

SOLUTIONS

1. Let ABC be the triangle, and P the given point outside it. Join AP and at A make the angle CAL = PAB, and cut off AL so that PA.AL = $\frac{1}{2}$ AB.AC, and join PL. On PL put a segment of a circle containing an angle = the supplement of BAL. Let this segment meet AC in E. Join PE, meeting AB in M. The line ME bisects the triangle.

Proof. Join LE. Now the triangles PAM, EAL are similar, and hence PA/AM = EA/AL and by cross multiplication we get PA.AL = AM.AE = $\frac{1}{2}$ AB.AC. Q.E.D.

2. There are just four other numbers that satisfy the conditions :
 $234256 = 22^4$; $390625 = 25^4$; $614656 = 28^4$; $1679616 = 36^4$.

If we had taken 7th roots instead of 4th roots the result would have been more prolific, for we would have found, excluding unity, eight numbers satisfying the conditions.

BOOKS AND THE MAN

SCHOOL DRAMA

ONE of the most promising and useful features of modern school practice is the attention now paid to dramatic work in schools.

In former times generations of school pupils were condemned to read plays of Shakespeare in minute and unrelated sections, with grudging regard to points of syntax, variant readings, and all the tushery which delighted Shakespearean pundits of half a century ago. There is a saying among theatre managers that Shakespeare spells ruin, and if a reason were to be sought for this it might be found in the distaste for our national poet which was sedulously engendered in the minds of the boys and girls who are now elderly and potential theatre goers.

It should be noted that where Shakespeare is presented as an entertainment and not as an exercise in literature the plays will still attract, as will be known by any visitor to the Old Vic or by anyone who tried to obtain tickets for John Gielgud's *Hamlet*. In schools the modern method is to utilize drama in the early teaching of literature, beginning with simple recitation accompanied by action and leading on to more difficult problems of dialogue. This method is probably the easiest way of curing ordinary defects of speech. The boy who will persist in using provincialisms in ordinary life will speak correct English if he is enshrouded in a tablecloth and asked to declaim Mark Anthony's oration over the dead body of Julius Cæsar. When the tablecloth is removed he will return to his provincial usage, but the exercise has been valuable, since his vocal organs have for the time being had some practice in correct English.

The good work in this regard is helped by a number of useful publications, and among the latest of these are three volumes entitled *Invitation to the Play: An Introduction to the Drama for Young Children*. They are published by Nelson (Vol. I, 1s. Vols. II and III, 1s. 3d. each), and the compilations are the work of Miss Mary Cousins, an authority on diction and drama and a successful head mistress of an L.C.C. school. I warmly commend these volumes, as the selections are extremely well chosen and well graded. In the hands of any teacher who is interested in the subject—as all teachers should be—they furnish an excellent introduction not only to drama but to English literature.

SELIM MILES

REVIEWS

OUR EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF ENGLAND AND WALES AND ITS RECENT HISTORY. By Herbert Ward, C.B.E. Cambridge University Press. 7s. 6d. net.

BEFORE the reader settles down to this work, let him test his knowledge by answering the following questions :

1. The years 1870, 1899, 1902 and 1918 are often called landmarks in English education. Why ?
2. Describe the various ways in which private enterprise and voluntary association have contributed to the English system of education.
3. How was the work of the old School Boards affected by the Cockerton judgment ?
4. Trace the origin, rise, decline and death of the old English system of pupil-teacher-ship.
5. How is the work of (a) The Board of Education, and (b) a leading L.E.A., organized and administered ?
6. How are the L.E.A.'s associated with the Board of Education. Trace the growth of this association since 1902.
7. Summarize the conclusions of the Hadow Report.
8. What is there logically unsatisfactory about the official use of the terms " elementary " and " secondary " as correlatives ?
9. Classify the schools in the Board's " List of Secondary Schools and Preparatory Schools recognized as efficient," pointing out the distinguishing factors of the different types and the main factors common to all.
10. How did the Technological Branch of the Board of Education originate ? Outline the developments of its work since 1902.
11. What are the respective functions of the Permanent Secretary and the Parliamentary Secretary of the Board ?
12. What is the Teachers' Registration Council ? Give a brief account of its history.

These are some of the hundreds of questions suggested by Mr. Ward's new book.

The purpose of the book is stated to be twofold : (1) To describe our national system of education ; (2) To indicate the main events in the growth of the system during the present century.

Mr. Ward could hardly tell us how great a part he himself has played in building up our national system of education. He was appointed one of H.M. Inspectors just at the time when that vicious old system, " Payment by Results " was brought to an end, and when there was a clamant demand for an entirely new system of inspection. Right from the first Mr. Ward took his place in the forefront of those who encouraged teachers to free themselves from the old shackles and to use their own brains. First as District Inspector, then as Divisional Inspector, then as Chief Inspector of Training Colleges, he was ever warmly welcomed as a visitor, whether by the unfledged teacher struggling with a difficult class or by the experienced Professor of Education. It was often said of him in those days that he was full of knowledge and full of sweet reasonableness.

We do not therefore expect his book to savour of musty old documents. Indeed it is very largely a record of personal experience and is as authoritative as it is admirably documented.

Mr. Ward is at his happiest when analysing clashing motives, for his judicial mind keeps him scrupulously fair. And he is a master-hand at disentangling factual knots, and at logical exposition. His book is a model of accuracy, lucidity, and happy phrase.

For the student the book will focus a bright light into a multitude of obscure corners in our educational system. For the expert, educational or administrative, it will serve as an invaluable reference record. It is bound to be the standard work on its subject for many years to come, and no one will give it a warmer welcome than the intelligent foreigner who is so often anxious to know how we do things.

F. W. W.

STUDENTS MAKE THEIR LIVES. By Winifred Wilkinson. George Allen & Unwin. 6s. net.

No religious body came through the War with such credit as did the Society of Friends. But the post-war work of the Quakers was greater and more significant than what they did—or refused to do—during the War. This book is a record, or rather a direct and simple telling of the author's experiences as a social worker among students in Germany, America and London, in the years after 1922. Of these, the German scenes are of necessity the most painful, as they are the most impressive. Moreover, they bite into the mind all the more because they are related without sentimental flavouring. Much of the book is a practical account that might be called "Hunger in Action: Hunger Physical and Spiritual." For the German students of these lean twenties, there was never enough food for the body, and never any satisfying answer to the needs of the spirit. Here are men and women, indeed, in the "fell clutch of circumstance."

That average Englishman, reader of the Daily Dot and not a great deal else, who is puzzled to know why there should arise Hitlerism here and Ghandyism there, would find a basis for an explanation in this little book. Were it not plainly indicated, though unstressed, that the writer is a Friend, it might be supposed the pages came from a very tolerant and kindly heart that was unpledged to any creed, caste or nation. It is a human and humane book. Here (p. 51) is a picture of Jews, greedy; elsewhere, of Jews, artistic and creative. Here (a rare thing) a gibe at "the business man, who has made the world through his wisdom so beautiful a place in which to dwell." There is the "unbelievable" story of Andrej and the beautiful Polish girl.

And near the end of this record of man's failures is this flash upon the post-war story of modern youth: "To be a member of a group using all its brains and time against others gives him the sense of power he needs to make him happy."

So fixed is this world. To make himself happy, works *against others*. It is a sad epitaph upon the War; or is it upon the Peace?

R. J.

HOW TO TEACH SWIMMING

HOW TO TEACH SWIMMING. By SIR G. HEDGES. Methuen. 2s. 6d.

NOT only is this book an invaluable help to schoolmasters and others who teach swimming, but it is also full of sound practical advice which, if followed by seaside bathers, would prevent many tragic accidents. The old drastic method of teaching swimming and diving, which often implanted a permanent fear of the water in a child's mind, is here replaced by a reasonable, scientific and psychologically sound method of instruction.

The author gives some useful hints with regard to discipline and the efficient control of a large class of boys of varying ages. The numerous illustrations show convincingly the various exercises which the beginner must practise both on land and in the water before he can attempt the complete stroke. The system of instruction in diving is equally simple and efficient; for there are clear and ample illustrations and descriptions of the various gradual stages through which a beginner must go.

Suggestions for organizing competitions and clubs, and a clear account of the art of life-saving will also be welcome to teachers, whether in schools or elsewhere.

SCHOOL DRAMA

THE PRODUCTION OF SCHOOL PLAYS. By AMICE MACDONELL. George Allen & Unwin. 3s. 6d. net.

THE first qualification for the producer of plays is experience; the second is a flair for the work. A sound work on methods of production should point the most direct path while experience is being gained, and provide natural talent with the necessary equipment of technical information. This little book does so adequately and in simple terms. It covers the whole ground: the functions of the producer; of his assistants; the choice of play; its introduction to the players; casting, rehearsing, setting, costuming, make-up; actual performance. It is rounded off with a good index and bibliography, which latter term is made to include the names of firms supplying certain materials. In some details one may differ with the author, but she says nothing of a general character with which any producer would quarrel. In sum, a book worth the while of any beginner to possess.

F. V.

DRAMA IN SCHOOL. By G. H. HOLROYD. Allman.

It is undoubtedly true that the arts take a back place in our educational system. Rightly or wrongly, we are much less concerned about inculcating the capacity to enjoy a good play, a fine piece of music, a great picture, than we are about a good many other things. It is also undoubtedly true that the practice of dramatic expression from early years onward has a far-reaching effect on the individual. This book sets out to stress these points, and to give practical information about the conduct of dramatic work in schools. The case is over-stated perhaps; and I fancy the average reader will not find himself in agreement with everything said. But the book contains a great deal of information of one kind and another, and a great number of suggestions and ideas. It is always worth while to consider someone else's ideas, even if not to adopt all of them. Play making by the children; the choice, production and performance of a play; articulation and gesture; make-up; costume; lighting; and stage effects, are all discussed. A separate chapter is given to revues, one to outdoor work, one to finance; and a final one to the question of linking school efforts with those of bigger scope outside the schools. There are some very good photographs, lists of plays and books on dramatic work, and a foreword by Sir Nigel Playfair.

F. V.

A STUDY OF LANGUAGE

LANGUAGE. By LEONARD BLOMFIELD. Pp. ix + 566. George Allen & Unwin. 15s.

THE learned author of this book maintains that the most difficult step in the study of language is the first step. It is a step which the scholarship of the past has persistently missed. For it began with the written word instead of the spoken word. It concerned itself with literature and grammar when it should have been concerned with speech and phonetics. To the new school of linguistic scholars the audible utterances of the common people are far more important than the written records of the great writers. For language is essentially a spoken thing.

This preference for sound over symbol colours the whole of this book. And rightly so. Too long have we been told that the proper way to learn the essential structure of language is to study the classics; too long have we been asked to believe that the correct use of words can be logically deduced from principles laid down by grammarians, and that it is the function of the grammarians to tell us what is right and what is wrong. This book deposes the grammarian from the position of pundit to that of reporter. His duty is to report usages and to find therein what uniformities he can.

Not that the distinction between correct speech and incorrect speech is meaningless; it is merely given a different meaning. It is in fact regarded as a by-product of certain

social conditions. We regard *ain't* as bad English and *am not* as good English because they represent the social habits of two distinct social groups, one of which has higher prestige than the other.

After reading this book we begin to realize how large and rich a prominence the new science of linguistics covers, and how dark a region it is even to the most erudite.

P. B. B.

ENGLISH

THE INFLUENCE OF ENGLISH. By M. FOLICK. Williams & Norgate. 6s.

THE author sets out to discuss the claims of the five leading European languages, English, French, German, Italian, and Spanish, with the object of discovering the one most suitable for adoption as the universal language. He maintains that Esperanto has failed, and language still remains the greatest barrier to international understanding. After an interesting and thorough investigation of the credentials of various claimants, English is finally chosen. Many who will at first agree with his choice may perhaps feel inclined to withdraw their support when they find that it is an English radically reformed, or deformed as a good many will regard it, that he proposes. By abolishing our illogical variations of pronunciation, and introducing a new system of phonetic spelling, the author claims that the language "would be so easy that the majority of foreigners would learn it as a sort of pastime."

It is, in many ways, an informative and thought-provoking book, and should appeal both to the student of philology and those interested in international problems.

E. J. M.

SELECTED SHORT STORIES. By JOHN GALSWORTHY. (Heritage of Literature Series). With Introduction, Notes, and Exercises by T. W. MOLES, B.A., B.Sc. Longmans, Green. 2/-

THIS selection contains eleven very interesting and well-chosen tales by Galsworthy, which should induce "Senior" and Secondary boys and girls to further their acquaintance with that author. The introduction is well put and suggestive, and the short notes should prove useful.

J. W. B. A.

A SECONDARY SCHOOL COURSE OF EXERCISES IN ENGLISH. By E. E. ALLEN, B.A., and A. T. MASON, M.A. Blackie. Book I, 1s. 6d.; Book II, 1s. 6d.

THESE two books furnish a series of graded and progressive exercises to meet the requirements of the normal five-years course for the School Certificate. The exercises are very well chosen and arranged, and we think that these books will prove very useful for the purpose for which they are intended.

J. W. B. A.

THE STORY OF ENGLISH LITERATURE. By GERALD BULLETT. No. 20, "The How and Why Series." Black. 2s. 6d. net

THIS book, we feel assured, will be read with much interest both by elementary and more advanced students, and should encourage and induce them (as the author wishes) to seek some first-hand acquaintance with the literature therein so well and ably discussed and criticised.

J. W. B. A.

MATHEMATICS

MODERN MATHEMATICS. By H. H. PEARCE and G. A. S. ATKINSON. McDougall. 2s. 6d. With answers, 3s.

THE book before us is a praiseworthy attempt to embody the recent suggestions of the Board of Education in regard to the teaching of Mathematics. The sensible method on

page 38 has our warm approval, and we are surprised to note that many schools still allow even more clumsy methods than the one condemned to be at large in our midst. On page 43 we are asked to remember that a speed of 60 miles an hour is 88 feet per second, but we will let the authors into our confidence by telling them that the following simple rule for converting miles per hour into feet per second if more widely known would be a boon and a blessing to men. Here it is. From one and a half times the speed subtract one thirtieth of the speed. The result is the answer in feet per second. Take 60 miles an hour.

$$1\frac{1}{2}(60) = 90; \text{ and } \frac{1}{30}(60) = 2; \text{ and } 90 - 2 = 88, \text{ Answer.}$$

We wish the ready reckoner and the simple interest tables were removed and replaced by something more valuable; while on page 71 we fail to see why the cash value should not be used instead of the conversion to stock, as we require only the income, and £95 cash gives £5, and £9500 cash gives £500 income.

The argument on page 107 is not likely to impress many, as what applies to the investment applies equally well to the income. If one goes the other goes.

On page 107, I am glad to see C for cow and S for sheep instead of the stupid X and Y, but on page 136 the method of factorizing outlines is clumsy, and the following method might be better.

Factorize $6x^2 + xy - 15y^2$. Writing this in the form $x^2 + xy - 90y^2$ we see at once that the factors are $(x + 10y)(x - 9y)$, and hence writing our expression as $6x^2 + 10xy - 9xy - 15y^2$ we have $2x(3x + 5y) - (3y)(3x + 5y) = (3x + 5y)(2x - 3y)$.

This method saves a good deal of the scientific guessing of the authors.

It is a pity that the authors still adhere to the clumsy method of solving the general quadratic.

However, the book is a step in the right direction, and if we can get a proper mathematical interest instilled into the children of our schools we are not likely to grumble. J. T.

STANDARD FOUR-FIGURE MATHEMATICAL TABLES. By L. M. MILNE-THOMSON, M.A., and L. J. COMRIE, M.A., Ph.D. Macmillan. 10s. 6d. net.

THIS is the most beautifully produced book of mathematical tables that the reviewer has ever had the pleasure of seeing. Not only is the production perfect of its kind, but all the tables likely to be required are gathered together in a handy form. Further, they are arranged in such a clear way that anyone who uses them will have his task made as light as possible. The names of the distinguished authors are a sufficient guarantee that the accuracy of these tables is of a high order. At the end of the book a large number of differential equations and mathematical constants are included, and these greatly increase the usefulness of the book. The price of half a guinea seems to be extraordinarily low for such a valuable set of tables. R. S. M.

CHEMISTRY

THE TEACHING OF CHEMISTRY. By N. F. NEWBURY, M.A., M.Sc. Pp. xi + 247. Heinemann. 6s.

EVEN at the present time graduates who have just obtained their degree qualification are appointed to a teaching post without having had any previous training in teaching methods. It is surprising that under such conditions the teaching of science in schools has made the great progress it has; undoubtedly the teachers have been born and not made. It is to help young teachers, to interest educationalists, and also, perhaps, to present a new point of view to experienced teachers, that this book has been written. It differs from other books on the teaching of Science in that it deals with the subject, not generally, but particularly, chemistry being the science chosen. It is the type of book which is not very suitable for short review, since in each of its sixteen chapters one can find plenty of

material for discussion. This is all to the good, however, and for this reason the book is recommended to all teachers of chemistry, especially to those at the entrance to their career. These latter will find plenty to help them in making out their syllabuses and in drafting their lectures or lessons, and the older and more experienced teachers can debate the relative merits of various methods of teaching, as to whether micro-chemical methods should form part of the school curriculum, etc.

In an appendix suggestions are made by Dr. Holmyard for the formation of a School Chemistry Library. This book might well be added to the list of those which should be available.

T. S. P.

BIOLOGY

ELEMENTS OF PLANT BIOLOGY. By A. G. TANSLEY and W. O. JAMES. Pp. 390. George Allen & Unwin. 10s. 6d.

A REVISED edition of a useful and very practical work, this impression contains new chapters and sections in which certain subjects are treated more adequately than in the original work. The account of the main features of plant life are clear, comprehensive and truly scientific, and are at once intelligible and interesting. The standard is of the Preliminary Examination in Science (First M.B.), but the general reader can study the text with advantage and without much difficulty. Teachers will find it of immense service as an introduction to biology.

H. C.

HISTORY

THE HEROIC WORKER. By F. R. WORTS, M.A. Pp. 180. 2s. **THE MAKING OF THE NATION.** By E. M. SHEARER, M.A. Pp. 188. 2s. Harrap.

THESE are the first two of a series of readers dealing with the History of England at Work, the term "work" being used with a wide connotation. The list of "heroic workers," whose brief biographies have been written by Mr. F. R. Worts, includes eminent governors, statesmen, patriots, navigators, architects, authors, inventors, naturalists, and explorers; beginning with Caradoc, the Celtic Chieftain, and ending with Baden-Powell, the Chief Scout. In one way or another they all worked in such manner as made for the progress and welfare not only of their own country but of lands across the seas; and it is well that all children should know something of the deeds they wrought.

In the second volume Mr. Shearer concerns himself mainly with the political history of the nation, regarding it as the foundation upon which are reared all other phases of historical development. Having regard to the fact that political history is not easy to read, the author wisely adopts the chronological method, and makes excellent use of it, the result being an outline that cannot but prove a valuable preparation for the more advanced books of the series. Both books are excellently produced in all respects.

F. H. S.

THE ROMANCE OF WINDSOR CASTLE. By HECTOR BOLITHO. Evans Bros.

THIS little book is quite frankly conceived and written in the romantic spirit which its title suggests, and should be so accepted and read. Herne the Hunter is here, together with more credible folk connected with the Castle from the Conqueror to the Widow of Windsor. There are some pictures, old and new, covering a range almost as long, and some vignettes and anecdotes, all of them well worth preserving.

R. J.

THE TREATY OF VERSAILLES AND AFTER. Various Authors. George Allen & Unwin. 5s.

SUCH a volume almost inevitably recalls J. M. Keynes, "Economic Consequences of the Peace." So far have events now taken us, that Keynes' prophecies—all too sadly

realized—make no appearance here. The book is a small one but it is pertinent. First comes a picture of the actual making of "Versailles," by Lord Riddell and Professor Webster, which one may add to Keynes' sharp vignettes and the picture in "Treaty Making." There follows an account of "What was Done," by Professor Toynbee—territories, Disarmament and the League. But the third section is of greater value than are the earlier chapters, good as these are. This is because four views of the Treaty as seen to-day are given, as from France, Italy, the United States, and England. The writers are Professor Saurat, Baron von Rheinbaben, Mrs. Tappen Holland, Senatore Davanzatti, and the Marquess of Reading. There is a final chapter by Sir Norman Angell.

Such writers, for such a subject, ensure guidance of the best kind. It is a good book, and one of the right books to-day for good Europeans. As nearly all of it was prepared for broadcast talks, it follows that the treatment is simple and semi-conversational. Whoever would make a little fuller and clearer the picture in his mind of "Europe To-day," should read it.

R. J.

THOMAS MORE. By R. W. CHAMBERS. Jonathan Cape. 12s. 6d.

APART from books of purely confessional interest, motived to enhance More's religious heroism, this searching biography of Henry VIII's Chancellor by the Quain Professor of English in University College, London, is likely for many years to come to be the outstanding authority on an honoured Englishman whose mark remains impressed, after four centuries, upon our legal and parliamentary institutions and on the current of our literature. While recognizing More's claim to a martyr's crown, it portrays a statesman of European renown, who was prepared to lay down his life for principles which "must in the end triumph, if they do not, the civilization of Europe is doomed." Professor Chambers challenges many of the judgments of generations of historians who have limited More's claim to recognition to the sanctity of his home life and the joyousness of his personal character. He regards the historical value of William Roper's *Life of More*—"probably the most perfect little biography in the English language"—as over-estimated, and enormously underrated as a work of art. Discipline, he considers, was the essence of More's life, and consistency its chief mainstay. At heart a product of the Middle Ages, More stands nearer to St. Francis and St. Bruno than to the later Tudors. His Utopia, not built to Hellenic pattern, with its communism, sacerdotalism, and love of beauty and symbolic ritual remains in touch with that period. "In the course of one lifetime," he writes, "*Utopia* has passed out of the realm of fantastic 'poetry,' as Tyndale called it, and has become a text-book of practical politicians." We are grateful to Professor Chambers for a profoundly interesting book.

F. R-L.

THE KINGSWAY HISTORIES. By E. WYNN WILLIAMS, B.A. (Oxon.), formerly H.M. Inspector of Schools. Book I. Manilla 1s. 9d., Limp Cloth 2s. Books II, III, and IV, Manilla 2s., Limp Cloth 2s. 3d. Teacher's Book, covering the four books, 2s. 6d. Evans Bros.

WE hear a great deal nowadays about the teaching of History, especially in Elementary Junior and Senior Schools. The majority of critics decry the "old fashioned" methods of teaching History, and "old fashioned" text-books, and a minority criticise the so-called "up-to-date" methods proposed by the reformers—in practice certainly, if not altogether in theory. Both sides, however, would, in our opinion, approve of the above-mentioned school histories, which should prove to be most useful and most interesting to the class of students for which they were written.

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HISTORY TEACHING IN SCHOOLS. A Handbook for Teachers in South Africa.

By A. F. HATTERSLEY, M.A. Longmans. 5s.

ALTHOUGH this book is primarily intended for teachers in South Africa, we think that other history teachers will find it very interesting and suggestive in its detailed treatment of the difficult problems involved in the successful teaching of History in schools—especially in Elementary and Junior. J. W. B. A.

TRACING HISTORY BACKWARDS. By STEPHEN KING-HALL and K. C. BOSWELL.

Book I. The Facts. Book II. The Problems. Evans Bros. Illustrated. 1s. 6d. each net.

THE aim of these books is to link up present-day problems—political and industrial, etc.—with the ordinary work covered by the teaching of English history in schools, and to contrast the conditions of living in the past with nowadays.

They should prove very useful and suggestive alike to teachers and pupils, and we can confidently recommend their adoption, especially for the use of the higher standards in Elementary Schools. J. W. B. A.

ANCIENT TIMES. A HISTORY OF THE EARLY WORLD. By J. H. BREASTED.

Pp. 823. Ginn. 10s. 6d.

THIS is a second edition of a work published eighteen years. During this time the book has enjoyed large sales and a high repute for authoritativeness and accuracy. The present edition has been largely rewritten in accordance with the latest discoveries. Divided into five parts, it discusses: I. Man Before Civilization; II. The Origin of Civilization; III. The Greeks; IV. The Hellenistic Age and the Roman Republic; V. The Roman Empire. Extremely well illustrated, it includes series of pictures showing how one race borrows culture from others. Appended to each chapter are pertinent questions and a bibliography for topical studies. A full bibliography and an index rounds off a book which can be warmly recommended for advanced students. H. C.

THE ROMANS. By JACK LINDSAY. Illustrated by PEARL BINDER. No. 17, "The How and Why Series." Black. 2s. 6d. net.

ALL students and general readers who have any acquaintance with Roman history, will undoubtedly read this most attractive book with much interest. We can unreservedly recommend it to them. J. W. B. A.

THE PROGRESS OF EARLY MAN. By STUART PIGGOTT. No. 18, "The How and Why Series." Black. 2s. 6d. net.

THIS most interesting and lucid account of man's remote past, before written history, should interest all students, and we can strongly advise them to read it. J. W. B. A.

WORDS IN THE MAKING. By G. H. VALLINS. No. 19, "The How and Why Series." Black. 2s. 6d. net.

WE can recommend this interesting little volume to all and sundry readers, who will probably find as much difficulty as we did, in putting it aside before we got to the last page!

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F. R-L.

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THE EDUCATION OUTLOOK

Honorary Editor: FRANK ROSCOE



Autumn 1935
Volume XII, No. 3

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CONTENTS

	PAGE
THE AMATEUR	133
ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS	134
FROM THE OUTLOOK TOWER	135
THE NAZI POLICY OF STATE INTERVENTION IN EDUCATION	139
ON LECTURES	146
DESIGNS—DIFFICULTIES AND PITFALLS	147
BOTANY	148
THE SINGING CLASS IN FRENCH SCHOOLS	149
DEPARTMENT, LADIES, DEPARTMENT!	151
GLEANINGS	154
THE EDUCATION OF SOVIET CHILDREN	155
LETTERS TO THE EDITOR	158
THE SCHOLARSHIP CHILD	161
PUZZLES AND PROBLEMS	163
BOOKS AND THE MAN	165
REVIEWS	165
SOME BOOKS RECEIVED	173

THE EDUCATION OUTLOOK

VOL. XII. No. 3.

AUTUMN 1935

THE AMATEUR

IN the recent election there were four candidates for the two seats assigned to the University of Oxford. Their political views are not for consideration in these pages, but one feature of the contest is worth noting. In a manifesto of some sixteen pages, Mr. A. P. Herbert gave one line to the frank statement that he knows nothing of agriculture. Another candidate was Mr. C. R. M. F. Cruttwell, M.A., Principal of Hertford College. He did not issue a manifesto, but in reply to a question as to his views on the school-leaving age he is reported as saying: "I am not an educational expert."

In the circumstances, Mr. A. P. Herbert's frank statement is to be commended, but it might have caused some little surprise if instead of being a journalist, novelist, and playwright he had been in charge of an important agricultural station, aided by State grants and private endowments.

Mr. C. R. M. F. Cruttwell, M.A., is the academic head of an Oxford college. In due course he may become the Vice-Chancellor or acting head of the University itself, an institution which in our more sanguine moods we regard as a centre of learning and a place of education.

Self-disparagement is not usual in candidates for Parliament, and we may assume that the head of an Oxford college thinks it no detriment to announce that he is not an educational expert. It is even possible that he felt some satisfaction in making the statement, for in some scholastic quarters there is a quaint belief that the instruction of the young is best accomplished by people who are amateurs.

In our public elementary schools we have one teacher in every five who has received no professional training. In grant-aided secondary schools the proportion rises to three in every seven.

In appointing school medical officers, school nurses, or school dentists, we do not select those who tell us that they are not experts in medicine, nursing, or dentistry. School buildings are planned and school accounts are audited by professional experts. But when we come to the real purpose for which schools exist we are content to entrust the work to the man or woman who can say, "I am not an educational expert."

THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS

Executive : THE TEACHERS REGISTRATION COUNCIL

Readers are asked to note that although the EDUCATION OUTLOOK will contain in every number a record of the Royal Society of Teachers and of the proceedings of its Executive—the Teachers Registration Council—these bodies are not responsible for the views expressed by the Editor or by contributors and correspondents.

THE NEW PRESIDENT AND CHAIRMAN

AT the November meeting the Council unanimously invited Sir W. Ross Barker to succeed Lord Eustace Percy as President of the Royal Society of Teachers and Chairman of the Teachers Registration Council.

Sir Ross Barker has accepted the invitation. He is a former officer of the Board of Education, where he served in the Legal Department from 1903 to 1918 and as Legal Adviser from 1918 to 1925. He then became Chairman of the Indian Public Service Commission, an office which he held until 1932. More recently he has been a member of the Durham University Commission.

PROGRESS

Whether the term "movement" is appropriate or not will depend on developments in the near future. The Act of 1907 gives authority for the establishment of a Council representative of the Teaching Profession and assigns to the Council the duty of forming and keeping a Register of Teachers. But there is no hint of any compulsion upon teachers to become Registered.

The Register was opened in January, 1914, and since that time over 96,000 teachers have applied for admission. Allowing for ascertained deaths and for removals by the Council, the number of Registered Teachers exceeds 86,000. It is thus evident that the Council has succeeded in "forming" a Register. The task of "keeping" one is beyond the power of any Council so long as there is no personal advantage to Registered Teachers nor any professional handicap on the unregistered. A professional Register cannot be maintained indefinitely on an optional basis.

Hence the Council has requested the Board of Education to make a regulation requiring that headships in grant-aided schools shall be reserved, as a rule, for teachers who are Registered. It is not asked that the regulation shall be retrospective or rigidly inflexible. What is desired is a formal recognition of the existence and work of a representative body of teachers which was established with the full concurrence of the Board and enjoined to carry through an important enterprise

FROM THE OUTLOOK TOWER

THE NEW PROSPECT

BEFORE the recent election the contending parties showed an unprecedented desire to place education near the forefront of their programmes. Never before has education received such non-political regard from politicians. This augurs well for the future, and it is to be hoped that all parties in Parliament will continue the excellent practice of keeping our school system outside the field of political warfare. The pre-election promises of the new administration were more cautious in their wording than were those of the other groups. A sense of impending responsibility has the effect of making even the most reckless bidder for votes tone down his offers. Nevertheless the new Government are pledged to undertake reforms which have long been desired by all who care for education. The school-leaving age is to be raised; nursery schools are to be increased in number; physical training is to be improved, and extended opportunities are to be made available for children of promise. We are warned that these changes cannot be made without due preparation. It is to be hoped that due preparation will not be held to warrant any undue delay in carrying out the promised reforms.

BENEFICIAL EMPLOYMENT

WE are told that when the school age is raised exemptions may be granted to children of fourteen who are able to obtain beneficial employment either in their own homes or elsewhere. This provision is open to abuse, since child labour is usually of greater benefit to the employer than to the child. The most casual survey of the history of our system of popular education shows that the employment of children has been held to be more important than their schooling. Even now, with nearly two millions of adult workers seeking permanent employment, we are told that in some districts there is a "shortage of juvenile labour." This means only that there are employers who want the cheap labour of young people during the years of adolescence, with the accustomed privilege of turning them adrift as soon as they are old enough to claim the wages of adults. Many of these castaways drift into the ranks of the unemployed, where the shades of poverty and hopelessness gradually close round them. They are maintained, but can hardly be said to live, with the aid of public funds. Some nations are reducing their unemployment figures by putting their young men under helmets. We might reduce ours by putting our adolescents to school, thus giving to them the first-fruits of the new leisure provided by mechanical inventions.

PHYSICAL WELFARE

WE are promised that physical training shall be encouraged in the schools. The reform is urgent, but we must not humbug ourselves into believing that good physique can be fostered by drill and gymnastics. These exercises have their place, but they must be supplemented by decent housing, suitable feeding, and by a school equipment which provides facilities for maintaining good health. There are rural schools with no water supply, no sanitary accommodation worth the name, and no proper means of ventilation, lighting, or heating. There is something of grim humour in offering to children in such schools lessons on personal hygiene and a course of Swedish drill. In this, as in other features of our school system, we must clear our minds of the notion that education begins and ends with the process of verbal instruction. Schools should be places in which children live, with full means of practising, in a manner suited to their youth, those activities which are desirable and necessary in adult life. That is not to say that schooling is no more than a preparation for life. It is in itself a phase of life and it should be full of enjoyable activity. Our practice has been to treat it as an opportunity for inculcating our own ideas in a manner of our own devising.

THE INDEPENDENT SCHOOL

IT is somewhat strange that the plans for the future development of our school system contain no reference to independent schools. We know that these schools are dealing with at least one sixteenth of our young citizens. The number of independent schools is estimated to be in round figures ten thousand, and of these, there are eight thousand of which nothing is known beyond the fact that they exist. Nearly five years ago a Departmental Committee recommended that all schools should be inspected. This has not yet been attempted, but the time has now come for carrying out the recommendation. We should be surprised if the Board of Admiralty confessed that they knew nothing of the equipment, command, or crew of some of the ships in the Navy, but preferred to leave them uninspected, and to permit anybody to launch a warship if he wished.

As things are, the efficient independent schools are left to meet the competition of charlatans who know nothing of education but are able to draft a plausible prospectus. The obvious course is to fix a date after which nobody may start an independent school who is not a registered teacher. This requirement would introduce a factor of professional equipment and responsibility which would exclude the charlatan and strengthen the position of the many excellent proprietary schools.

MUSIC IN SCHOOLS

IN the current number of *A Music Journal* there is a report of an address on the position of music in preparatory schools. The speaker was Mr. Geoffrey Hoyland, Headmaster of the Downs School, Malvern. His views deserve the attention of all teachers, for he gives good reasons for regarding music as "one of the finest educational influences and activities at our disposal." He recommends the practice of singing as an exercise which co-ordinates and combines the senses of sight and hearing with brainwork and breathing and bodily posture. He says rightly that the boy is a singing animal, and he quarrels roundly with the statement said to have been made by the head master of a public school to the effect that no boy ought to learn music or any subject with a predominantly æsthetic import until he is over sixteen. This dictum would exclude music, art, and literature from the curriculum of all primary and preparatory schools, and from secondary schools up to the School Certificate stage. It is probably nothing more than a piece of unpremeditated nonsense, such as all public speakers utter at times. Music has never found its proper place in the school curriculum, mainly because it has been regarded as a form of æsthetics and therefore lacking in the attributes of a fortifying discipline.

EXAMINERS EXAMINED

THE International Institute Examinations Inquiry is the name given to an investigation covering the examinations held in England, France, Germany, Scotland, and Switzerland. The English section has been at work for some four years under the direction of Sir Michael Sadler, and a foretaste of its report is now published at one shilling under the title "An Examination of Examinations." More properly the title should be "An Examination of Examiners," for the uncertainties of marking are the main theme of the book. These uncertainties are to be ascribed to the human factor, and the examples given will surprise nobody who has acted as an examiner. It is many years since this journal printed the results of an investigation of marks awarded by different examiners of a simple exercise in penmanship. The marking of essays and written answers in general, may be expected to present many vagaries, unless an elaborate system of checking and counter-marking is adopted. Since we must have some means of assessing the abilities of students, we cannot dispense with examinations. It is therefore necessary to have examiners, but we ought to eliminate the human factor as far as possible. Also we should consider the possibility of allowing those examined to bring into assessment aptitudes and forms of ability which may not be represented in the orthodox curriculum.

THE BROTHERTON COLLECTION

THE late Lord Brotherton possessed a magnificent library, which included many books and manuscripts of great rarity and value. He was a munificent benefactor of Leeds University, and among the chief of his gifts was a Library building. It was well-known to his friends that he hoped to found in this building a collection of books which should be a kind of Bodleian Library for the northern counties, rivalling the quality and extending the scope of the Rylands Library in Manchester. He was especially desirous that the Brotherton Collection should be accessible to all serious students.

At his death he bequeathed £100,000 to the University, but left the books to legatees who knew his wishes and asked that the money bequest should be used to provide a special home and income for the Brotherton Collection. After lengthy negotiation the University has agreed to devote one-quarter of the bequest to this purpose and to provide for the books a special annexe to the Library. Provision is also made for extending the Collection by purchase and by gifts, and there is to be a Brotherton Collection Committee, including representatives drawn from other great libraries and from organizations of teachers and manual workers. The story reveals a strange lack of vision among the University authorities.

ACADEMIC FREEDOM

IT is generally agreed that no teacher is justified in attempting to convert his pupils to his own particular view of politics, although in the field of religion a similar undertaking is encouraged and even required very often. Outside the lecture room or classroom the teacher is an ordinary citizen, with a full right to take part in all civic enterprises and to make his private views known. The sole limiting condition is that in the exercise of this right he must not impair his efficiency as a teacher, nor undertake duties which involve neglect of the duties he is paid to perform.

In some quarters there is a demand that teachers shall be muzzled both inside and outside the classroom. It is a demand which should be resisted with vigour. There is no reason for it unless we are to suppose that teachers are to be gramophones, dutifully reproducing the views of those who happen to be in authority. In this country we have no liking for dictators, and the strongest safeguard against the arrogance of a Hitler or the bombast of a Mussolini will be found in freedom of speech and in the untrammelled exercise of critical judgment. At no point in our public life should this liberty be diminished, least of all among those who are training the citizens of the next generation, the inheritors of our traditions of freedom.

THE NAZI POLICY OF STATE INTERVENTION IN EDUCATION

By PROFESSOR G. H. TURNBULL, M.A.

ATTRACTIVE FEATURES

RECENT literature* on the Nazi policy of State intervention in education reveals a number of attractive features in the new scheme.

Adolf Hitler seems to know clearly that the decisive thing in any revolution is not the gaining of power but the education of man. The educational process is conceived of in terms of the influence of the whole environment upon the individual. The home is regarded as one of the important elements of this environment, and is therefore restored to something like its proper position as a factor in the educational process. The school, on the other hand, is rightly regarded as but one, and not the most important, agency of education. School, family, camp, country home, Saturday, and other spare-time activities—all these forms of community life are recognized as exercising an educative influence.

The avowed aim of the policy is to banish egoism and to train the individual to seek the welfare of the community rather than his own limited and selfish ends. He must realize that as he is, so will Germany be, and that the remedy for all the ills of the present time lies in the reformation of the people; for, if they will to become better, the whole situation will soon improve. Education should give the young the proud feeling that later they will be called upon to help their country to become the best that can be imagined. Children are also to be taught to believe that while each nation must live in its own characteristic way, at the same time all nations must learn to respect and to help one another.

It is considered most important that the child's training should adapt him to life, and the sound principle is accepted that freedom of personality is rooted, not in the mere independence of the individual, but in his acceptance of certain values, for which he is prepared to make sacrifices. A proper education will therefore train and develop will and feeling, and not appeal merely to the intellect and understanding. Social

* *Internationale Zeitschrift für Erziehung*. 1935. Hefte 1 and 2.

Gottfried Feder: *Hitler's Official Programme*. Allen & Unwin. 1934.

A. Thorburn: "Psychological and other aspects of recent tendencies in German education." *British Journal of Educational Psychology*. June, 1935.

K. von Dürckheim-Montmartin: "Education follows social change in Germany." *New Era*. September-October, 1934.

A. W. Fletcher: *Education in Germany*. Heffer. Cambridge. 1934.

education is of the utmost value, and it is in the life of small groups like the residential country homes that comradeship and loyalty are most easily developed, and the lessons of co-operation best learned. It is in these small groups, too, that leaders will emerge, and that their training, which is a desirable aim of State educational policy, can be carried on. Moreover, the social intercourse which normally takes place in the groups, and which often results in close friendships, and the co-operative efforts made in working for the common good, will ultimately, it is claimed, bridge over class differences.

The emphasis which is placed on the importance of sound bodily development by means of physical training, sports, and work on the land, is a noteworthy feature, pleasing to those who remember the position of inferiority to which physical education was relegated in Germany before 1914. The evidence available does not seem to justify the view, commonly held outside Germany, that more is intended here than the making of the young physically sound. We are told that military training is not included in this physical education, and that no military purpose is aimed at, even in the marching and drill that are indulged in; the possibility of having a soldierly bearing without being military is pointed out. The personal testimony of eye-witnesses is certainly to the effect that the physical results of the new education are already apparent in the young.

The manual work on the land has, however, a significance that goes beyond its physical benefits to the young. It reveals the capacity of the individual and indicates the kind of work for which he is suitable. Its great psychological importance is also recognized. It can lead to an appreciation of work and an understanding of the worker and his point of view. It may teach the moral value of work, its nobility—to use Hitler's phrase; and it may develop a feeling of independence in the individual by giving confidence in his own manual skill.

All these features of the new policy and system are interesting and praiseworthy.

QUESTIONABLE FEATURES

But other features do not make the same appeal.

An education seems rightly suspect which gives a definite political direction to family education, with occasions such as the State Youth Day and institutions like the country home and the labour camp, where the conscious purpose may be called social, but is easily recognized as political. The strenuous physical work demanded of the young may be justified on the ground that a hard and sturdy generation, which will stand the rigours of modern life, will help Germany in her struggle for self-realization. But we may ask what is to happen to those who cannot stay the course, and be far from satisfied with the answer

that "it is surely better that some weaklings should be left behind than that a whole race should be spoiled by a system devised solely for the benefit of the weak."

It is a strange policy, at once narrow and inadequate, that limits the function of the school to instructing and informing the pupil and makes education "in the real sense" the province of other institutions established for the young. Though it may be convenient to assert dogmatically that the subordination of the interests and life of the individual to the whole is in accordance with the laws of nature and is a copy on a small scale of the order which informs the Universe; but this assertion is open to so many different interpretations and subject to such important qualifications as to be unacceptable as a reason for State intervention in education.

The life to which the child is to be adapted by his training is a life, so runs the description, as it is to be in the German State. We may agree, using Kant's words, that one principle of educational policy is to educate children not for the present, but for a possibly improved condition of man in the future. But many of us would wish to add, with him, that this requires us to train children in a manner adapted to the idea of humanity and the whole destiny of man, and not only for life in a particular State and under a particular form of government. We may also doubt whether all men and women *can*, through leadership, develop their personalities to the full, even if leadership is taken in a very wide sense and not confined to the leadership of a social group. Some natures may find their fullest development in other directions and in other ways.

While education should train will and feeling, there is serious danger in the view that it should direct itself more to these than to the understanding, that the heart is the most important thing, not the head. It is an unwarranted assumption that the loyalty and comradeship which are learned in what Burke called "the little platoon in society," will easily and automatically transfer themselves to the larger communities, the nation and the State. Such a loyalty is only, as Burke said, "the first link in the series" by which one proceeds towards love of country. It is also an assumption, equally unwarranted, that the effects of the labour service, which have already been described, will be the same on all who undergo it. Just as well might one argue, falsely, that the manual labour which fell to the lot of the rank and file in the Great War was equally acceptable to all and educated all in the same way. Some of the young people might, for example, find the labour service extremely distasteful and irksome and come to hate it and all its associations. The results of an education that aims at creating a type do not, in spite of the Nazi assertion, permit of prediction, except in the sense that there will probably be many exceptions.

The Nazi theory contends that personal acquaintance with nature's forces during the year on the land from fourteen to fifteen gives the young ineradicable experience of true religious feeling. That this may be the result with some adolescents is not to be denied, but it is untrue to describe it as a universal or even as a general experience.

The theory that leaders must first learn to obey, and that only those who have learned to obey can ever hope to be good leaders, is not borne out in actual life and experience. There are leaders, and good successful leaders, who have never gone through the school of obedience. Nor is the theory psychologically sound, since the self-assertive instinct, which is the main root of leadership, stands opposite to the instinct of self-submission, which conduces to obedience.

The importance of physical education is over-emphasized when the taking of a course of physical training during the first year of university life is made a condition of further study and of admission to examinations. To base the selection of a suitable occupation solely upon the work done during the year on the land, which apparently is suggested as the right policy, is unsound procedure to adopt with many young people, and is against the interests and needs of many occupations.

In the school itself primeval Germany is to be studied, on the ground that it best reveals the soul and the religious attitude of the country. If a fancied Golden Age of heroes is to serve as the model for the German youth of to-day, and the modern achievements of civilization are to be ignored, the school curriculum will be narrowed disastrously in content, and seriously perverted in aim.

The conception of the function of the university in this scheme of State education is disturbing. The universities of Germany have in the past stood for a rigorous intellectual discipline, and their development has been marked by great achievements in the world of thought. It is true that intellectual education has been their dominant feature, and that probably too little attention has been paid to other aspects of education, especially, perhaps, to physical education. The university is now regarded as a training-school for the leaders of the nation, and capacity for comradeship is made an essential qualification for admission, on the ground that leadership is based on comradeship. Proved intellectual ability is therefore no longer the sole or even the main qualification for entrance. The candidate for admission must show that he has been a satisfactory member of a labour service camp for at least six months, and lecturers are appointed partly on the same qualification. One cannot but feel that this change will react unfavourably on the quality of the intellectual work and output of the university. It is perhaps significant that service is now regarded not as a pursuit for a number of isolated individuals, but as a fruit of the comradesly intercourse of a camp.

DEEPER ISSUES

These questionable features of the new educational policy are, however, but single, separate, and detailed instances of deeper, fundamental issues, two of which are particularly noteworthy. The one concerns the aim of the State in the education of the individual, the other the scope of State intervention in education.

To take the first issue. The whole purpose of the new education is that the individual shall serve the community. "Community comes before individual." "The general welfare is the supreme law." Such slogans as these show clearly that the activities of the individual must promote the general good and must not clash with the interests of the whole. Indeed it is claimed that only in service to the community does the individual awake to the higher life.

Objection need not be taken to these statements as they stand, since they embody an element of profound truth. Much depends, however, upon the way in which they are interpreted, and the Nazi interpretation of *community* is *nation* or *State*; it is actually even narrower than that, since it is intended to embrace only Germans who believe in German *Kultur* and in the common destiny of all Germans. From this point of view the folk-community, Germany, is for Germans the highest value in life. It would appear, therefore, that its claims on the individual have precedence over the claims of any other community, over even the church or humanity. Indeed it is asserted that National-Socialism does not desire to destroy the nation for the sake of a fabled "society" or "humanity," and that an education in the National-Socialist attitude serves the cultural tasks of Europe better than an education with an unreal humanity-ideal can. Nevertheless, it is alleged, as was indicated above, though it is difficult to conceive how this is possible in the circumstances, that children are taught to believe that all nations must live in their own characteristic way, and yet at the same time must learn to respect and help one another.

The inconsistency involved in identifying citizen and man seems clear to the outside observer, but is apparently ignored in German educational practice, which calls itself the education of the whole man.

The individual is thought of as being in organic relation to the State or nation, and the latter is recognized as the highest expression of a living, united whole, to which each separate part brings its own contribution. The value, therefore, of the individual depends on his value to the nation. The idea that the child is the aim of education is repudiated; the real aim of all true education is said to be to make every child a valuable member of his folk-community. The young are to be taught to understand the idea of the State; concrete political thought is to be awakened and developed by means of practical situations; patriotism and love of country are to be inculcated. Instruction

is to be given in the nature, causes, and effects of racial and hereditary problems, in order to awaken a National-Socialist spirit, to stimulate in the young a sense of responsibility to the State and people, to arouse pride in the kinship of the German people as a principal representative of Nordic inheritance, and to influence their minds towards conscious co-operation for the racial betterment of the German people.

Nevertheless, in spite of these proposals, it is asserted that the State should include the greatest possible number of free existences, that intellectually free human beings are being trained, and that there is liberty of instruction in the secondary schools. The inconsistency grows ever more pronounced.

On the other issue, the scope of State intervention in Germany to-day, it may truthfully be said that the State extends its control to all the agencies that are educative. Undesirable elements in the community are to be destroyed, and alien influences diminished. The State takes power to suppress all evil influences in the Press, in literature, on the stage, in the arts, in the picture theatre. In the service camp the individual is not allowed to do anything in his leisure time that may undo the educative life of the camp.

Such an extension of the State's educational activities is serious enough, but might conceivably be justified on the ground that without education the State cannot last. But it is infinitely more serious to find the rooted conviction that education takes its scope and aim from politics. The claim that education is a normative science is denied, just as the standard of action is no longer found in an order established by divine creation or by the intelligible world of reason, or in recognized values and principles. On the latter point it may be remarked that, if the arbiter of action and of what is harmful be not reason or principle, then presumably it becomes the opinion of a person or group. But for our present purpose this is only a side issue.

It is held that it cannot be the task of educational science to draw up prescriptions for education and to fix aims for real life. "What man may be, he experiences first in the development of his nature during thousands of years." From the particular constitution of a people's life, of the national *ethos*, arises the educational ideal that lights the way as the aim of all education.

Instead of being an education which seeks the sublimation of certain natural tendencies that are common to all men, in order to make man man in the sense of universal man, this education aims at developing those tendencies that are characteristic of the particular race, and at making man a German by surrounding him with a German environment. Hence arise the subordination of education to politics and the criticism of educational science, by which seem to be meant the scientific bases of education, and more particularly the science of psychology, which

describes man's general endowment on which education must be based. Rightly, education is held not to be derived from psychology. There is involved, therefore, rather a criticism of educational philosophy, and indeed a particular educational philosophy which claims to have universal validity and to determine the aims of education for all men.

There is much obscurity in the chain of thought, but the argument seems to be something like this. Form and organization are given to a community by the creative man, who obeys a "voice" within him, which is prior to all education, not acquired, but innate. This voice is no intellectual knowledge, no vision of the finished product, but rather an anticipation and selection by means of feeling. The fitting-in of the individual to this organization of the community is education, and so education is subordinate to politics. Political power makes education possible, and is at one and the same time its presupposition and its aim. Education guarantees the permanence of the nation and of the form which the Leader has given to it.

The Greek view of education, as being subordinate to politics, is here brought in for favourable comparison. One ventures to think, however, that the distinction which Aristotle draws in the *Ethics* between the good citizen and the good man, and the possibility at which he hints in the *Politics* of the good citizen not being a virtuous man, are pregnant with criticism of this conception of education. "A man," as Chase says in a note on the distinction made by Aristotle, "may move rightly in his social orbit, without revolving rightly on his own axis."

THE NEW ODIN

"Centuries which come later will judge the things going on in Germany in a more just light. They will come to the conclusion that Jesus Christ was a great man, but that Adolf Hitler was still greater."

Herr Willy Becker as reported in the "Frankfurter Zeitung."

TEUTON TASK

"So long as there remains in Germany any unpolitical, neutral, or individualistic art, our task is not complete."

Völkischer Beobachter.

HEROD JUNIOR HONOURED

"When Herr Streicher appeared he was given a terrific ovation and a bunch of pink carnations."

The Berlin Correspondent of the "News Chronicle."

ON LECTURES

By GABRIEL SEAL

TWO hundred years ago Dr. Johnson delivered what has always seemed to me a final and irrefutable criticism of the expository lecture as a method of instruction. "People have nowadays," he said, "got a strange opinion that everything should be taught by lectures. Now I cannot see that lectures can do so much good as reading the books from which the lectures are taken. I know nothing that can be best taught by lectures except where experiments are to be shown." "Lectures were once useful, but now, when all can read, and books are so numerous, lectures are unnecessary. If your attention fails, and you miss a part of the lecture, it is lost. You cannot go back as you can upon a book."

As a one-time University student, this problem has necessarily interested me. Several years ago I commenced studying for an Arts Degree at one of the larger provincial Universities. I remember spending an hour each day in travelling to acquire information which I very soon realized I could as easily, and more profitably, obtain from books themselves. I was obliged to attend lectures on the English writers. These consisted of short biographical summaries (obtainable in any text-book) and a critical estimate of the author's work delivered so rapidly as to make full and satisfactory note-taking almost an impossibility. Among the more intelligent class of students I found the lectures were regarded more as a hindrance than a help to their studies. Accordingly at the end of my first session I determined to leave the University and continue studying at home for a London External Degree—a decision I have never regretted, as it enabled me to master my subject far more thoroughly and satisfactorily than I could have done had I remained at the University and been hampered by compulsory attendance at lectures.

Unfortunately the majority of University students are more concerned in passing their examinations with a minimum expenditure of labour, than in pursuing knowledge as an end in itself; and to this class of person the University lecture will always remain the primrose path to graduation. The criticism of work submitted and the recommendation of courses of reading must always be necessary. But out of consideration for that *rara avis*, the genuine philomath, University authorities would do well, I think, to make attendance at lectures a matter for the student's own choice.

DESIGNS—DIFFICULTIES AND PITFALLS

By AGNES WINTER

IN the report of the Committee appointed by the Board of Trade under the chairmanship of Lord Gorell, on The Production and Exhibition of Articles of Good Design and Everyday Use, the hope is expressed, "That the problem will be faced in Public, Secondary, and Elementary schools of making the understanding and enjoyment of beautiful things an essential part of the day-to-day life of the school."

With the present interest in handicrafts, and the place they now occupy in the curriculum, teachers have, without doubt, a great opportunity to do much to raise the standard of artistic appreciation. Unfortunately we have lived so long in the midst of bad designs, that practically everyone, excepting those who have had definite training in the subject or studied it as a hobby, fails to distinguish good from bad. The difficulty is not lack of admiration for the good, but equal admiration for the faulty, and before any attempt can be made to train their pupils many will have to study the subject for their own enlightenment.

How many of the teachers who have had to add the teaching of a handicraft to their other subject have studied design? These teachers know that if they are to make the teaching of the handicraft of educational value, design must be studied, and they are apprehensive of the work this will entail. This work often takes up much more time than it need, because they fail to realize that an appreciation of good design is reached by finding out and understanding a few principles found in all good designs and then estimating all designs in the light of these principles and not through hours of *copying* patterns. Once certain of what is good, and having discovered that for children the good is always the simple, numerous drawing difficulties vanish, and the handicraft lesson becomes a joy to teacher and taught.

Therefore begin by studying the designs found in such traditional handicrafts as smocking and quilting in England, and various peasant crafts on the Continent. Then, not copying these designs but using the same simplicity in motifs, teach designing in the traditional method through the craft work.

Many of the present poor designs are due to the breach between designer and producer. No one can design satisfactorily for a craft who has not practical experience of that craft, so it is only to invite poor work to turn the designing over to another member of the staff who may be able to make patterns but never works them out.

When studying designs for suggestions novices are apt to be led astray on two points unless they give careful consideration to the essential principle of suitability. An article may be the treasured possession of



a museum because of its historic interest rather than its artistic value, or the type of design may be unsuitable for school work.

Another stumbling block is the confusion of design with pictorial representation, and with a number of children the desire is strong to embroider crinolined ladies, and herbaceous borders, paint farmyard scenes on wooden bowls, and colour sprays of flowers on leather. As for so many years such things have been accepted as designs the desire is natural, but it must be turned into other channels before progress can be made. As most children quickly adopt anything their teachers admire, the length of time before conversion is usually the measure of a teacher's enthusiasm.

Therefore if we are to help in raising the standard of appreciation of what is right in design, and make full use of the great opportunity found in the handicraft lesson, we must check every attempt to make elaborate patterns or substitute pictorial effects for designs, we must teach the children the "love of simple things," and thereby lay a true foundation that may go far in raising English design again to the position it once held.

BOTANY

Dr. Cloudesley Brereton sends us the appended verses, written by a pupil aged eleven, and published in the School Magazine of Fakenham Secondary School.

THERE should be no monotony
 In studying your botany.
 It helps to train
 And spur your brain—
 Unless you haven't gotany.

It teaches you, does botany,
 To know the plants and spotany.
 You'll learn just why
 They live and die
 In case you plant or potany.

Your time (if you allotany)
 Will teach you how and whatany
 Old plant or tree
 Can do or be.
 And that's the use of botany.

AUDREY GIDNEY.

THE SINGING CLASS IN FRENCH SCHOOLS

By EVELYN PORTER

THERE are two vital differences in the teaching of singing and musical culture in France and England; one, that no musical training is given in the *écoles normales* (the French Secondary schools), but only in the *écoles primaires* (Elementary schools) and the *écoles communales* (the equivalent of our Central schools), so reversing the general English policy of giving a wider musical education in Secondary schools, although there are, of course, Elementary schools which produce excellent musical results and Secondary schools in which music has very little place. An exception in France is the province of Bas-Rhin, where over thirty years ago, thanks to the efforts of Mademoiselle Amalie Munch, a scheme was inaugurated for the *écoles normales* in which she herself instructed the teachers.

The other great difference lies in the status of the teacher of music and the organization of the teaching staff. He (or she) is a specialist in music, teaching only the one subject but that probably in several schools, and having followed the usual course of study at a musical institution and qualified in a principal subject, which is generally, of course, singing, must then pass the very severe State examinations which give the right to teach in the State schools. In Paris the music teaching in the State schools is under the control of an inspector-general, who is at present Monsieur Roger Ducasse, the well-known composer, and under him are district inspectors who, because of their limited area, have time to visit the schools in their care frequently, and, instead of being considered dreadful ogres by staff and pupils alike, take the rôle of helpful friends who add joy and life to the lessons they chance to visit.

Classes vary in size, but the individual class may number sixty, while the school choir will consist of two or three such classes. All singing, whether of exercises, sight singing, or songs, is unaccompanied, the only instruments being a tuning fork and the teacher's voice. The sense of pitch, therefore, is very highly developed, and in observations of three classes, two at an *école communale* for girls, ages 12 to 13 and 14 to 16, and one at a boys' *école primaire*, ages 10 to 13, there was no noticeable sharpening or flattening; of course, the pitch was given at the beginning of each item.

The singing of songs in unison, two or three parts, was delightfully done, with a full, clear tone, good enunciation, and pleasing sense of interpretation. The junior class of girls sang "La Marseillaise" with full appreciation of the instructions of Monsieur l'Inspecteur to "sing with their heads well up and as though they were proud to sing this song," and showed it indeed to be one of the finest marching songs ever written.

The outstanding musical training in France is in the realm of *solfège*, that mysterious word which hides a method compounded of theory, aural training, and sight singing, which if explained detail by detail can sound very dull, but in results produces almost a nation of enthusiastic and competent sight readers. In the classes mentioned there was only a very occasional mistake in combined dictation, either in unison or two parts, by hand signs, of which different methods were used in each school, neither being that most generally adopted in England. Next followed sight singing in two parts of two-page exercises containing simple modulations and accidentals, in which the part work was by no means easy either in notes or rhythm, and this was done in all cases entirely without mistake in pitch or time, and with due attention to tone gradation, nuance, and style, and with scarcely any preliminaries from the instructor. The girls in both classes having read an exercise once, repeated it with silences on the word of command, resuming their singing at the point reached when the next order was given; this was done with complete unity and without hesitation, and there was no question of one or two very musical pupils leading the class; it was the general standard, an occasional mistake by an individual producing an amusedly self-conscious admission of the fault. The senior class of girls gave an excellent demonstration of transposition; this also the work of all the class and without error.

All sight singing and dictation is done to pitch names, but in France the syllables *doh*, *re*, *mi*, etc., are given to the notes C, D, E, etc., and "doh" is *always* "C." The result is certainly a nearer approach to a sense of both absolute and relative pitch than we can secure in England, and certainly a much higher standard of sight singing, which is a great saving of time. The usual time given to singing in the curriculum is an hour or an hour and a half each week, and a query as to whether those classes heard were exceptionally good was answered by the fact that such a standard was expected from all schools at the *concours* at which they all sang early in May.

BOTANY

PRACTICAL BOTANY. By WILLIAM LEACH, D.Sc. Pp. 160. Methuen. 4s.

MOST emphatically this is a *practical* course of botany intended for Intermediate and Higher School Certificate students, and therefore for others of similar status. Based upon Dr. Leach's experience with large classes, the greater part of the course is concerned with the structure of plants, typifying the various phyla, followed by a much shorter course of plant physiology. Very useful information is provided concerning implements and reagents, and the making of permanent microscopic section, the instructions throughout being very clear and reliable, and the work made possible even for those with limited equipment. A few new and improved methods are included, after having been carefully tested. Altogether a really excellent scheme of work, but one that is exclusively concerned with facts, the significance of which must be sought elsewhere.

F. H. S.

DEPARTMENT, LADIES, DEPARTMENT!

By HILMOR NORTH

A SHORT time ago I read with interest an article on department, in which subject the author's great-aunt had received a prize in her schooldays. Viewed over a space of some sixty years, the word and all it stood for had the air of being hopelessly Victorian and obsolete, yet it was still very much alive in at least one school in England after the war.

I shall never forget my amazement when, during one of the first meals I had in the school, I heard an old lady's voice from the door saying in an admonitory tone, "Department, ladies, department!" and instantly all the bent backs were straightened and all the bowed heads were lifted as if by magic, only to be gradually relaxed after the old lady had left the room. This incident I discovered was an almost daily occurrence. The old lady was the head of the school, and her insistence on department was far from being the only echo of the Victorian Age in this establishment.

Surprisingly enough the school was situated in the North of England, and the girls came from the busy progressive towns of Lancashire and Yorkshire. They found the place unbearably slow after their modern homes and nearly every one counted the days till holiday time and freedom. Obviously, the parents did not inquire into the drawbacks of a school which was healthily situated and where the girls' physical well-being was looked after. Besides, it was a good place to which to send spoiled and untractable daughters to be disciplined and become "ladies."

Think of all the possible regulations you ever heard of for decorous behaviour, and you will have a nucleus of the formidable list of rules by which these girls lived. Sensible enough though some of these were, the aggregate made an intolerable tyranny.

There was no talking allowed in the corridors or on the stairs, and only whispers in the bedrooms. There was no shouting anywhere, even at games. Anyone who shouted was sent into the schoolroom to do arithmetic. No elbows were to be seen on tables, no one must cross her legs, or sprawl in her chair, or lounge. Nothing but French was spoken at meals—result, a dead silence punctuated by painful attempts to ask for the salt.

For exercise there was tennis in summer, but in winter hockey was considered too rough and was replaced by skipping, which the whole school did, class by class, every day from the school gate up to a certain point on the road and back again. How the girls loathed the monotony of it! Walks were really as bad, for though we were in the depths of the country the school always went in crocodile, and if the way lay through the village, which was a mile long, there must be no talking.

The system of punishment was equally prehistoric. To sit in silence with hands behind the back or to do extra arithmetic (why stigmatize this exhilarating mental exercise?)—these were futile enough. But in addition, every Wednesday and Saturday the girls lined up alongside a cupboard supplied with private pigeon-holes in which was each girl's "tuck," the fruit, cakes, and sweets sent to her by parents and friends. Meanwhile, a rule book was consulted. Any girl who had exceeded a certain number of bad marks for breaking rules got no tuck, while the others retired each to her own desk in the schoolroom and gorged! No doubt some friendly sharing went on in the schoolroom, but the general effect was to promote unabashed greed—in between meals, too. Those who had been ruled out from this feast retired to their tasks. Not infrequently the same girls would incur this punishment two or three weeks on end, and their fruit and cakes had finally to be thrown away as uneatable.

The three ladies responsible for this seminary had had the school over forty years and were merely carrying on the traditions of their own school days. They were not educationists but they had plenty of character and the school was ruled with a rod of iron.

The eldest was the martinet, and she it was who insisted above all on good manners, good deportment, a little singing, a little drawing, and a smattering of the rest. The next, Miss A., championed the domestic arts. She would take a few girls occasionally to the bake-house to see bread being made, supervised the sewing and encouraged a little gardening. Miss B. was the scholar of the family. Her avowed aim was to make the girls familiar with "our classics," so that at dinner-table conversation, literary allusions would not find them lacking. She also encouraged French as a social accomplishment, of which no lady should be entirely ignorant.

When I say that these ladies were not educationists, I mean that they had not the most elementary notion of helping a child's nature and mind to develop. What they wanted was something much simpler and more easy of accomplishment—merely the satisfaction of turning out models of adequate behaviour and suitable to a certain sphere of social life. This ambition communicated itself to the girls, too. I remember remonstrating—most unfruitfully, I am afraid—with one of the flock on some delinquency or other, deceit or untruthfulness probably, and, in a despairing attempt at fostering self-criticism, asked her, "What do you think you are sent to school for? Why do your parents send you?" And all the reply I got was a simpering, "To be a lady, I suppose." One felt helpless in face of a system which placed externals before everything else, and where childhood's search for some harmony and purpose in life was directed to such a superficial goal.

Ladylike manners may have been achieved, but at what cost in some

cases ! A short time at the school was long enough to demonstrate the inevitable process. A new pupil of, say, nine or ten years of age would come to the school. She would be frank and natural in manner, disposed to affection, high-spirited, with an aptitude for mischief, but manageable enough if treated with trust as well as firmness. At the end of a term or two the metamorphosis was complete. Hedged in by too many rules, she became rebellious and deceitful. Looking on the staff as her natural enemies, the upholders of this iron discipline, she became either sly and servile or sullen.

Moreover, the actual school work was too slight and inadequate to hold the girls' interest, so their minds were only too often occupied with just those unladylike subjects which the management would fain have banished. The resident nurse used to complain of the morbid and unhealthy conversation of her charges. What I saw one day while on duty was enough to shock me. It was customary—and I feel sure that the worthy old ladies congratulated themselves on such a proof of broad-minded modernity—to allow the pupils over a certain age free access to the daily papers. They had a weekly lesson on current affairs, and this included the political events of the day. Unfortunately, however, very few of the girls had minds sufficiently trained or well-informed to read serious news intelligently. Instead, they gloated over the sensational items.

On the day I have just mentioned, it being wet, some of the girls were left to play in the schoolroom. I left them to their own devices until something attracted my attention and I asked what they were doing. One child was lying prone on the floor, another was sitting on a high table, and the others disposed around her. It appeared that they were enacting the coroner's inquest of a murdered Belgian woman whose case was filling the papers at the moment, and whose body had been found in pieces in a sack in a London square.

Lip service was paid to the prefect system—no doubt a startling innovation to the old ladies—by calling a few of the senior girls prefects ; but they were given no authority and had no special responsibility for the behaviour of others any more than for their own. Indeed, they were rather put upon, for they had to share bedrooms with some of the youngest instead of being with their own companions.

As might be expected, Sundays were observed with great strictness. Who can say to what heights a pious soul may rise in spite of, or perhaps aided by, an ascetic discipline ? No one can judge for another, but to me the enforced attendance at church, the long wait in orderly lines before we started, the severe silence observed all the way to church and back, the tedious Sunday afternoons spent sitting on hard chairs set round the reading-room walls, were all symptomatic of an atmosphere entirely devoid of spiritual freedom and growth.

GLEANINGS

DAIRY NOTE

“ Pure raw milk of good quality is probably the best food for mankind. The Creator of the universe holds the key to the secret prescription.”
Letter in the “Daily Telegraph.”

THE NEW THEOLOGY

“ Priest-in-Charge wanted for St. Mary’s, Ash Vale. Catholic essential. Fast bowler preferred.”
Church Times.

TEACHING NOTE

“ Why doesn’t ‘ Ubique ’ teach her children a prayer in Greek ? God would understand, and it would be an excellent beginning of a classical education.”
Letter in “Nursery World.”

THE NEW ECONOMICS

“ The world wheat situation is improving for the reason that there is less wheat to be had.”
City Editor of the “Evening Standard.”

THE AMATEUR

“ I am not an educational expert.”
The Principal of Hertford College, Oxford.

THE REAL AIM

“ It is the teacher’s task to teach children *how* to think, not to teach them *what* to think.”
Mr. A. A. Somerville, M.P.

PRIZE FIGHT RESULT

“ The fight has brought an astonishing spurt of prosperity to New York. Racketeers are making huge sums by selling counterfeit tickets, and other forms of fraud are flourishing.”
New York Correspondent of the “News Chronicle.”

PRECISE PRESCRIPTION

Speaking of the coal trade, Mr. Ramsay MacDonald said, as reported in the *Manchester Guardian* : “ What we have to do is to pile up and pile up and pile up the income of the industry in this way and that way and the other way.”

THE EDUCATION OF SOVIET CHILDREN

By A. RAMAIIYA

AN English translation, from a Soviet official source, of the recent Report of Joseph Stalin on the work of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, says that, "In the sphere of the cultural development of the country we have the following:— (a) The introduction throughout the U.S.S.R. of universal compulsory Elementary education and an increase of literacy among the population from 67 per cent at the end of 1930 to 90 per cent at the end of 1933; (b) An increase in the number attending schools of all grades from 14,358,000 in 1929 to 26,419,000 in 1933. Of these, the number receiving Elementary education increased from 11,697,000 to 19,163,000; Middle School education increased from 2,453,000 to 6,674,000, and Higher Education increased from 207,000 to 491,000. (c) An increase in the number of children receiving pre-school education from 838,000 in 1929 to 5,917,000 in 1933."

This progress is undoubtedly very remarkable. But for some time past the Soviet authorities have become restive about the present generation of children, and have begun to doubt the wisdom of some of their educational theories and innovations.

What has been the education of a Soviet child thus far? From the very first the Soviet school aimed to be as different from the hated Tsarist school as it possibly could. Formerly teaching was theoretical, abstract; therefore the Soviet school had to be made part and parcel of life; children had to acquire knowledge not so much from books as from visits to factories, from actually working there a certain number of hours each month, from visits to farms, city institutions, etc.

Rigid discipline and absolute respect for authority were characteristic features of a Tsarist school. Soviet children, therefore, had to be given the right to talk in class, to answer in groups, or individually, or all together, or not at all, as they wished.

The teacher at first dared not and later could not assert his authority. Children participated in teachers' meetings, and took an active part in shaping school policies and activities. Soviet children are now taught that there is no God, that religion is an invention of the rich for the exploitation of the poor, that class hatred must never be relaxed. They are encouraged at Christmas time to go round and convert those "backward" children who may still want to have Christmas trees and celebrate the holiday in the traditional manner. As a writer of authority, Mr. W. H. Chamberlin stated in the *American Foreign Affairs* (January, 1932), "Every teacher is obligated to give anti-religious instruction, not only in the classroom but through such media as excursions to anti-religious museums and the organization of atheistic skits, plays, and

carnivals. Then, too, a good dose of the Five Year Plan is inserted into every course of study, and a bust or picture of Lenin is to be found in almost every classroom. Children are politically propagandized in the schools from a very early age, even to the point of being pressed to vote approval for sentences of execution which are passed upon accused counter-revolutionaries and saboteurs."

"Again, fairy stories and even pictures of genuine animals, accompanied by jingling rhymes, are now frowned on; and children from an early age are supposed to concentrate on the problems of the Five Year Plan. Even toys are made with a view to turning children's ideas along definite lines. Military toys and models form a large part of the equipment of every school and kindergarten; every child knows about the aims of the Red Army, is taught the history of the revolution, the necessity of proletarian dictatorship, and similar Communist doctrines." The following excerpt from a symposium on the proper kind of Soviet toys is quite typical: "Show the children malignant caricatures of tsars, capitalists, policemen, priests. Show them the faces of saboteurs, bureaucrats, private traders. Show them proletarians of Europe, America, Asia, and Africa. And instead of carriages and phaetons we need toys that reflect our technical revolution: cranes, machines, tractors, motor-cycles, automats."

When Russia, under the Five Year Plan, began to industrialize, and the need for engineers, mechanics, chemists, became greater and greater, it was found that these children were lamentably lacking in concrete, factual knowledge. They could make a speech on the Communist International, but could not name some European capitals, and were vague about placing a decimal point. They read poorly and spelt worse. Their algebra teacher had to begin with lessons in arithmetic. A re-organization of the methods and curriculum was then ordered; drilling in the three R's was enforced; strict discipline was reintroduced together with the examination system.

But recently Soviet educational authorities began to feel that besides factual knowledge, Soviet children lacked something less tangible, though not less important. From mingling so much with adults, from having to face hard Soviet realities, from the materialistic education, children acquired traits that were not lovable. They were self-assertive, sure of themselves, aggressive, loud, practical; there was freedom and decision, but also sharpness in their manner.

Michail Koltzov, the gifted Communist journalist, recently discussed in an article in *Pravda* (Moscow) the present status of Soviet education in its various aspects. He says that a six-year-old girl, Ludochka, educated in a children's home, knew "that it was disgraceful to be a slacker, that God was only for the bourgeois, that there was no revolution abroad, that rabbits were killed by being struck on the head, that in

a certain store, felt boots were sold without special cards, that if a bag was stolen, the money was usually taken out, while the documents were left lying in a prominent place; she knew some swear words; she knew that if a nail was driven into a tyre the truck could not move on.

"She breathed heavily into my face in order to convince me that she had eaten onions. But she did not know that it was wrong to drive the nail into the tyre, that you should not eat from a knife. She and her older playmates knew about international solidarity, but did not think of offering a seat in the car to an old man or woman. 'Why should I yield my seat? He has a ticket and so have I—and I sat down before him,' was the children's argument."

"Our children," laments Koltzov, "are not taught sufficiently the simple rules of collective life." He affirms that "'bourgeois' rules constitute good proletarian ethics," and wants Ludochka to be taught these rules. He wants Ludochka, when she grows up, not only to surprise people by her dialectical, practical mind, but also not to breathe into people's faces, not to eat from a knife, be less angular, become, in short, a girl with whom one could fall in love.

But a Soviet teacher may anxiously ask, "If you teach children to pick up things dropped by elders, to help them in small things, politely to point out the way . . . will not that be teaching rules of the old régime?"

COMFORTING

"We can say without exaggeration that an attack by poisonous gas is another form of the effect of environment to secure the survival of the fittest." *Captain N. Hammer in "First Aid."*

INTELLIGENCE TEST

"We are at present selling more goods to Ireland than she is buying from us." *Daily Paper.*

NOTE ON MONARCHY.

"It is not altogether easy for anyone, even for a King restored to his throne, to give up the life of an English gentleman." *Evening News.*

BURNHAM COMMITTEES, PLEASE NOTE

"My plight is, alas, worse than that of your correspondent, for, instead of the £800 odd a year which he luxuriates, I cannot lay hands on more than £500, and that in this country spells mere existence, if that." *Letter to "The Times."*

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

PROBLEMS OF THE DEFECTIVE

DEAR SIR,

I have read Miss Sadie Harris's bright article with keen interest, and hope that my twenty-five years' experience in this work may further interest you and your readers.

A child is admitted to a Special School for mentally defective children when "he is unable to benefit by the teaching given in schools for normal children, but is not unable to benefit by the special teaching given in a so-called Special School."

There is little danger of a child's being pronounced mentally defective because he has had a year or two years' illness, unless, of course, some disease like scarlet fever or meningitis has caused brain damage. Moreover, a sick child is made well before being examined.

Mistakes in assessing intelligence quotients (I.Q.'s) very seldom occur, and in every case the mistake is realized before a whole year's attendance at a Special School has been completed.

For some time Special Schools for mentally defective children have been under a cloud, but there are signs of a lifting and a better understanding. The whole business has arisen from circumstances similar to those which have occurred within my own experience. Inspectors have noticed children in Special Schools whose work compares favourably with some of the work seen in schools for the normal. "Why, I can find you worse than this in such and such and such a school easily." They can. So can I, for I have been privileged to conduct an investigation in thirty of our normal schools, and have verified this experience.

Is this because my methods are superior to those of the teachers in the normal schools? I should be foolish to entertain the suggestion when I see the splendid methods (a few of them detailed so nicely by Miss Harris) employed by our best Junior Schools. No! The reason is, the subnormal brain requires these methods at the age of 11, 12, and even 13, while the normal scholar needs and gets them at 5, 6, and 7 years. What school, what class of forty children can hold back thirty-nine normal to "bother with" (I use the word deliberately) the one subnormal in its class. And to put a boy of 13 into a class of 6 years—that is unthinkable. The experiment has been tried.

Transferred, he does the utmost he is capable of doing, and his hidden talents (some quite considerable) are awakened and cultivated. He often, at the leaving age, compares favourably with a child of similar or slightly higher intelligence quotient who has not been transferred.

As to the stigma attached. I do sympathize with Miss Harris here, although I have voluntary pupils in my school, who are glad to pay well. But our Special Schools are not yet quite out of the experimental stage. Twenty-five years ago we in the ordinary course of things accepted idiots and imbeciles as pupils. We no longer do this. We adhere strictly to the demand of the Board of Education, that the child chosen must be able to benefit by the education provided, and must be examined every six months to satisfy this demand. This change has been very gradual.

We still suffer the stigma earned in those early days. We were then the "silly schools." The stigma will fade, is fading, as we earn the respect of our fellow teachers and the children's parents (some of these latter, by the way, being a problem in themselves).

Educationists in Secondary Schools now give us support and sympathy and Council members are invited to "come and see."

As to certification, I fear any alteration would be subversive to the child's interest. A workhouse is a workhouse, although we now must call it an "institution," and if the child is mentally defective, what sense is there in saying it is not? For as these mental defectives never quite grow up, increasing age accentuates the defect.

Suggestions of sterilization of the unfit are discussed in every Parliament and in every newspaper, and I for one hope they will be rejected by the nation.

What better protection, then, can the community have, than that of knowing who are its misfits? Surely that is not too much for the population to ask. Again I draw upon my actual experience. I have known a normal boy of good family to get entangled with a mentally defective girl. She is, as they often are, pretty, clinging, pathetic, and worshipping. The *dénouement* is not obscure. The man is beaten by repeated failures of his well intentioned efforts, and finally settles down, thinking that most women are like his, and makes the best of a very bad job, with, however, the addition of his three or four weak-minded children.

I wish I could deal with more examples, but of course I must not here.

As for the boys, they are the ones the normal girls have to fear in lonely places—railway carriages, etc. They commit the assaults, impulsive murders, etc., we see catalogued in the papers. They are the Special Schools' failures.

Certification is better than sterilization, because under control (not necessarily institutional) these people may do honest and useful work, as Miss Harris so carefully details, and for the socially well adjusted ones the outlook is definitely hopeful. These are our successes.

Certification or notification is at present attainable, while sterilization is cumbersome, ineffective, and may bring other dangers in its train. As soon as the nation understands, it will insist on *all* its mentally defective children (not 30 per cent of them as at present) being certified and trained in Special Schools, and for them the nation will demand more and more care.

And for those who fear a normal child may be certified by mistake there is this additional comfort. The child, on leaving the Special School for the world outside, becomes *automatically decertified*, according to the law, and unless it turns its activities in anti-social directions it is considered as normal as you or I. It is even given a vote, and I for one would not derive him of it. His individual soul's well-being and development is not the least important factor of this discussion, though apt to be lost sight of.

But should the child turn its powers anti-socially (as it so often does) its certification is at once *its* protection and the *nation's* safeguard.

Yours faithfully,

MARGARET WOMERSLEY, N.F.U., M.I.H., F.R.A.S.
(*Head Mistress, The Quarry House School, Halifax.*)

THE SCHOOL AGE.

From Dr. F. H. Spencer, former Chief Inspector of Education to the London County Council.

47, NASSAU ROAD,
LONDON, S.W.13.

October 30th, 1935.

SIR,

May I be allowed the courtesy of your columns to express a point of view which I believe to be commonly held among practical educationists, concerning the Government's proposal to raise the school age?

As embodying a principle, the proposal is of the utmost importance. It is based on the opinion that the child should "receive the best training of mind, of hand and eye, and of body, from which he is capable of profiting."

But the proposal is accompanied by suggested exemptions "for beneficial employment," and will hardly constitute a practical reform.

Not every authority which has to decide what is "beneficial" employment will be able to make its decision solely in the interest of the child. In practice children will be allowed to go to jobs suitable or unsuitable. Once they have gone to work it will be very difficult—indeed it may be undesirable—to get them back into the schools.

The education of the boys and girls who remain at school until fifteen, under the scheme proposed by the Government, will present great difficulties both for the administrative officers and the teachers. A four-year senior course for children from eleven to fifteen will have to be planned in accordance with the Government's now historic Hadow scheme for re-organization. But how can the final year be a success with an ever-shifting classroom population? The teachers will be faced with a continuously diminishing class; and troublesome staffing questions will arise.

As a school inspector of many years' experience in all types of schools, I think the Government's plan will not achieve the benefits it contemplates.

I do not suggest that all children from fourteen to fifteen would benefit equally from the same sort of training during that additional year. No informed critic would support such a contention. But all children can profitably be educated up to fifteen. The right method is not to send them into industry, but to devise the right school treatment; and this can be done.

Surely it is not too much to hope that should the next Government introduce this long-awaited measure they will not allow in it a loop-hole which will deprive many thousands of children of that "best training" which the National Government wishes to provide.

Yours, etc.,

F. H. SPENCER.

PSYCHOLOGY

THE FOUNDATIONS OF HUMAN NATURE. By J. M. DORSEY, M.S., M.D.
Longmans. 12s. 6d.

THE reader is twice warned that this volume is not, and is not intended to be, "light reading." The author has no intention, he tells us, of offering "sedatives to invalids." He has "tried to concoct a potent mixture for maintaining personal health." Since he speaks as doctor and as psychologist, the "health" with which he is concerned is no less of the mind than of the body. Later in the book we find him laying down four principles which we may here briefly paraphrase.

1. All sound thinking treats thought as a unity.
2. No statement can be dealt with logically except by an impartial comparison with its opposite.
3. Sound thought is always essentially a pulsation between extremes.
4. Sound thought has a pattern as well as a plasticity.

The "pendulum" idea expressed in No. 2 and No. 3 of these principles appears as a motif in the book, and in the conclusions at the end. In those conclusions, and at times in the book, the writer betrays a tendency to the truism. "The student must be warned against too wide or too rapid pulsations on the one hand, and too narrow or too slow pulsations on the other." But a warning on such terms has no value whatever. The student to whom it is addressed knows that he is being solemnly advised (or preached at), but the advice is too vague to be helpful. The Greeks put all that much better in a curt phrase: "Nothing too much."

There is an attractive definition of Determinism as "the hypothesis that the affairs of the world are cause-effect affairs"; but that definition would include many scientists and psychologists who prefer not to be classed as Determinists.

There are ample references, but a rather inadequate index.

R. J.

THE SCHOLARSHIP CHILD

By FLORENCE L. WICKELGREN, M.A., D.èsL., M.R.S.T.

(A reply to the article, "Forced Rhubarb," by R. C. Smith, M.R.S.T.)

POOR Freda! The transition to the Secondary School has always been difficult for the scholarship child. As Alphonse Daudet said many years ago, "lorsqu'on est boursier . . . il faut travailler deux fois plus que les autres pour être leur égal." The failure of the scholarship child is an ever-recurring theme. The failure of the fee-paying pupil is rarely discussed. It would be interesting to know if the "B" Forms and "C" Forms have an undue proportion of scholarship pupils—if the hopeless cases for "General Schools," and "Matric" are, in the main, the scholarship failures. Statistics on these points would be useful. What is the cause of Freda's failure, if failure it is? From the facts stated it would appear rather to be the failure of the first year's teaching in the Secondary School. "Bravo, Freda!" one may well say when, at the end of the first half-year, her position is twelfth. The foundation was evidently sound. Enthusiasm was not lacking. Twenty-fourth at the end of the first year! Not yet a failure, but something has happened! What of the scholars No. 25 and below? Are they also scholarship children, the sad products of a forcing process? The causes need examination. Let us still follow Freda. Her difficulties are well pointed out by the writer of "Forced Rhubarb." They are mainly psychological. What a happy little triumph it was for Freda to be praised at school and at home for having won a scholarship! For some months, no doubt, Freda had enjoyed a careful watching of her progress, and much encouragement. Now she enters, full of hope, into a new environment. A stranger in a strange land, she enjoys first the novelty of her surroundings. Then, little by little, the freshness passes, and Freda is conscious of the lack of that personal interest of her old teacher, who, she feels, was so proud of her. She pays many visits to her old school in these days. Now is the crucial time for her new teachers. Freda is unconsciously questioning within herself if her change is for the better. A word of praise or blame from her new teachers has an effect beyond the normal. Why does Freda hate French? Why is Drawing lacking in interest for her? These are serious questions for her teachers, and for the Head Mistress. The latter, finding Freda's progress disappointing, will surely watch anxiously the psychological reactions between teacher and scholar. The parents, too, are following the change. Full of hope and expectations at the outset, they are wondering if their expectations will be realized.

Before me is a letter from the parents of a real "Freda." It is dated 1905, and runs as follows:—

L

" DEAR MADAM,

" I beg to express to you, on behalf of myself and my wife, our most sincere thanks for the great interest and care you have taken in our daughter . . . which has enabled her to be successful in L.C.C. Scholarship exam., for we feel it is greatly due to the trouble and interest of yourself that enabled her to succeed. We are naturally very pleased at having two children holding the scholarship, and we sincerely hope they will make good use of the splendid opportunity given to them, so that their future life will be a credit not only to themselves, but their parents and also their teachers.

" Again tendering you our heartfelt gratitude,

" ———."

This is the attitude of the keen, thoughtful parent.

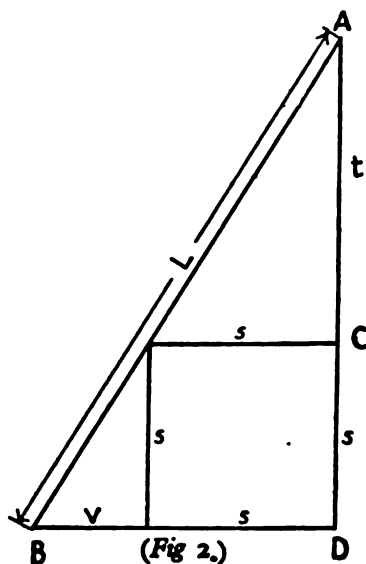
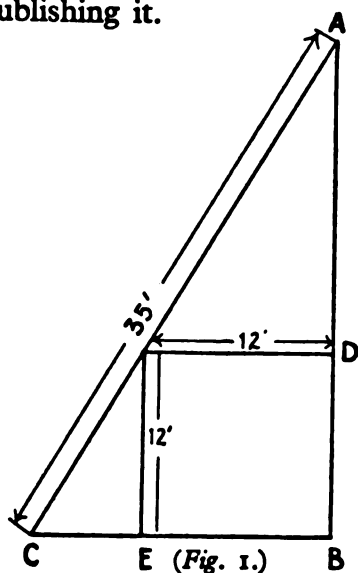
Thirty years after, now in 1935, it is well that we should consider if the system has succeeded in its purpose, if the hopes of such parents are being fulfilled. The question is wide. It is not merely a matter of entrance to the Secondary School, but is part of the problem, at present under consideration, of the education of the senior child. The Secondary School is insistently asking for a revision of the General School and Matriculation Examination, in order to provide for the non-academic pupil. On the other hand, there are still, in the Central Schools, scholars capable of following an academic course, but compelled, by present restrictions, to limit their ambitions. The real solution of the problem is free secondary education for all. The "Senior" School, properly equipped, could provide for the very varied education needed by the practical and the "backward" child, whether found, at present, in Elementary or Secondary School. The Central School could specialize in technical and, or, commercial training, and the Secondary School concentrate on the more academic work. Under a unified system, governed by the same authority, classification would be according to ability, and not according to social circumstances. Transition from one school to another, as varying abilities develop, would also be possible. The problem, we know, is at the same time social and financial. Socially, the value, both to the child in favoured circumstances and to the one in unfortunate circumstances, would be great. The yearly camp, arranged under the patronage of the Duke of York, for Public School and factory boys, has proved the value of such a combination. Financially, the reform would be just. Public grants, at present proportionately larger for the child in the Secondary School, would be more equally divided for the benefit of all. With unity of the educational system would come unity of the teaching profession. A free interchange of teachers in the varying types of schools would soon dispel misunderstandings as to "Forced Rhubarb," and other apparently abnormal products.

PUZZLES AND PROBLEMS

By J. TRAVERS, B.A., B.Sc., M.R.S.T.

THIS month we trust our readers will forgive us for being somewhat prolix in our introduction, but the merits of the problems supplied coupled with their history, will, we feel sure, be ample apology for us.

1. The first problem propounded may be called the Ladder Problem, and although it is over twenty-five years since I first met it, it seems to have cropped up again in Bristol, and the very neat solution given to it by Mr. Russell, Head Master of East Central School, Bristol, and well-known to the teaching profession as the mathe-magician, is my excuse for publishing it.



A ladder 35 feet long leans against a wall, and touches a square lean-to shed 12 feet high, as in the diagram (*Fig. 1*). Find the height of the wall.

2. A man in Mexico ran short of cash, and approached the hotel proprietor saying that he would like to deposit his gold chain as a security for his monthly hotel bill, but the proprietor told him that he must pay by means of a link a day until his money arrived. The tourist did not wish to cut up his chain too much, and so he hit upon a plan by which he was able to pay by means of a link a day for sixty-three days, and yet he cut but very few links of his chain. Can you find the least number of links actually cut if there were exactly sixty-three links in the chain.

SOLUTIONS

1. This problem is generally solved either by a graphical method or a bi-quadratic equation. We will now give a general solution.

Let L = length of ladder (AB), $t = AC$, $v = BE$, and $s =$ side of shed. Then we have $t/s = s/v$ or $s^2 = tv$, or $2s^2 = 2tv$; (1) Again $(t + s)^2 + (v + s)^2 = L^2$; (2) Simplifying (2) we get $t^2 + 2ts + s^2 + v^2 + 2vs + s^2 = 12$, and substituting for $2s^2$ its value from (1) we have $(t + v)^2 + 2s(t + v) = L^2$; (3) Solving this as a quadratic for $(t + v)$ and using (1) we finally obtain the values of t and v .

Mr. Russell's solution is much neater. Here it is: At the point (3) above, Russell adds s^2 to both sides and gets $(t + v + s)^2 = L^2 + s^2$ (Fig. 2). This readily gives by extraction of square root of both sides the value of $t + v$. In our case the wall is 28 feet high.

2. Without entering fully into the solution of this problem we will just remark that only three links need be cut. Next issue we will point out the method in full.

THE STRAND PROBLEMS BOOK. By W. WILLIAMS and G. H. SAVEGE. Newnes. 2s. 6d.

This little book will well repay the reader who even skims over it. The teacher can find many little teasers to while away the odd moments, and the expert will find numbers 14, 26, and 60 very entertaining. Number 39 is interesting, but the solution is not so good as it might be. One word more. For those who like a neat word-puzzle, number 121 is both witty and interesting. J. T.

MATHEMATICAL NUTS. By S. I. JONES. Nashville, Tenn., U.S.A. 3½ dollars.

WE have before us the revised edition of this splendid book, and we trust every teacher of mathematics will secure a copy. We believe that there is nothing on the English market that can vie with this work. The author has collected his material both wisely and well. He caters for all shades of mathematicians, and it is worthy of note that the problems run from the most elementary to the most difficult, and we feel confident that the class of problem presented, coupled with the very neat and accurate way in which the book is printed, is bound to win the admiration and gratitude of the reader. J. T.

A PUZZLE BOOK

IT IS ABOUT TIME. By G. KAUFMAN. Methuen. 5s.

THE present volume is an attempt to collect together all puzzles relating to Time, and the first thirty pages strike a sensible note in presenting us with a series of observation tests where Time is the key-note, but most of them are too difficult for children. The Jumbled Sentences from pages 34 to 53 are excellent for children, and form a good training in the ordered sequence of sentence building. There is little of interest from pages 60 to 79, while the method given for finding the date is not only old and clumsy, but a much better method is to be found in many other text-books. The Time problems from pages 84 to 90 are all very old, and can be found in other puzzle books of a cheaper nature, and that too with much less padding.

The material given on pages 92 to 128 possesses some interest, but the whole of it could be cut down to eight pages without any loss to the reader. A set of solutions completes the book, but we fear that its price will be the means of killing its sales, and it is to be hoped that the authors will see their way to cut out the padding and let the public have the book at about 1s. 6d. a copy. J. T.

BOOKS AND THE MAN

HISTORY WITH A BACKGROUND

MRS. H. A. L. FISHER has published through Victor Gollancz a noteworthy volume entitled *An Introductory History of England and Europe*, which I desire to commend to all teachers of the subject in schools as a successful attempt to relate the history of this country to a background of events abroad. We are frequently reminded that he knows little history who only English history knows, and more recently we have been told that the frontier of England is on the Rhine. Without taking this statement too literally, we may realize that it is no longer possible to pursue a policy of isolation or even to think of the ocean as a bulwark against aggression from abroad. The need for understanding our neighbours becomes more imperative year by year.

Mrs. Fisher's purpose is to make this understanding more easy of accomplishment by presenting us with a history of wide texture, in which events at home and abroad are neatly interwoven with due regard to their relative importance and to their mutual effect. In her preface she tells us that she has written the book because she wanted to write it, and every page reveals the skill of a practised writer and of a true historian, that is, one who has a story to tell. An easy flowing narrative style runs through the whole book. I hope it will be widely adopted as a text-book in secondary schools and as a quarry for material for lessons in primary schools. The price is 8s. 6d. net.

SELIM MILES

REVIEWS

SCHOOL HYGIENE

A SCHOOL COURSE OF HYGIENE. By R. A. LYSTER, M.D., Ch.B., B.Sc., D.P.H. Pp. 266. University Tutorial Press. 3s. 6d.

SOME METHODS IN HEALTH EDUCATION. By M. B. DAVIES, and L. WILKES, M.A. Pp. 112. Longmans. 2s. 6d.

THESE two books are in a sense complementary. As an adaptation of his deservedly popular First Course in Hygiene, Dr. Lyster's School Course has already proved its worth. It provides a course of study which could scarcely be bettered, and which within limits should be compulsory in the school life of every child. For this edition new type has been used, new diagrams added, and the sections dealing with artificial respiration have been revised.

To teachers making use of Dr. Lyster's valuable course, but not to them alone, may be commended the second of the above-mentioned publications, whose purpose it is to indicate the best methods of approach to the teaching of health rather than to provide a detailed course. The authors are respectively lecturers in hygiene and education at the North Wales Training College—a valuable collaboration, seeing that the method and the attitude adopted in connection with any subject are matters of primary importance. The four chapters deal with the aims and values of health education; the content of the course, methods of treatment, and various teaching aids. Altogether an admirable contribution to educational literature.

F. H. S.

SCIENCE

FURNEAUX'S HUMAN PHYSIOLOGY. Revised by W. A. M. SMART, M.B., B.S. B.Sc., etc. Longmans. 4s.

MANUAL OF HUMAN PHYSIOLOGY. By SIR LEONARD HILL, F.R.S. Fourth edition. Pp. 470. Arnold. 6s. 6d.

In judging the merits of a book it is necessary to take into account its purpose; and if it serves that purpose well it must to that extent be judged a good book. That is the case with *Furneaux's Human Physiology*, which has been completely revised and issued by the publishers as a standard edition—whatever that may mean. The revision has been rendered necessary by reason of the great advances made in our knowledge of physiology since the publication of the previous edition, and more attention is paid to the broader aspects of the subject than ever before. Nevertheless it is still very obviously a text-book for the use of examinees, including those taking the Second M.B. Examination of the University of London, for whose especial benefit are given a very useful number of questions actually set by the University examiners. That renders more astonishing the fact that the book completely ignores sex and reproduction, as though such subjects are either unclear or of no importance.

We notice among the few printing errors that choroid is consistently spelt chorioid, and osteomalacia is converted into osteomalachia.

A much more pleasing and generally useful type of book is that of Sir Leonard Hill, the fourth edition of which is before us. The author is acknowledged as one of the greatest living authorities on his subject, his presentation of which cannot but prove of uncommon value to students as such. But better still, it makes a strong appeal to the intelligent layman who desires to obtain some insight into what are truly the wonders of the human body. A certain amount of revision has been deemed necessary, and a short chapter on Reproduction has been added, though it is difficult to conceive just why the gifted author should have waited so long before breaking away from the absurd practice of ignoring what, after all, is one of the central and most vitally important facts of human life. For the rest it may be said that in addition to a deep and wide knowledge of his subject, Sir Leonard possesses a gift of lucid exposition, and he constantly illumines the more ordinary details by references to what examiners apparently regard as the romance of physiology.

F. H. S.

PRINCIPLES OF BIOLOGY. By G. WADDINGTON, S.J., Ph.D., and MONICA TAYLOR, S.N.D., D.Sc. Pp. 350. John Murray. 5s.

DR. WADDINGTON set himself the task of supplying such mental pabulum as can be assimilated by young students of biology, assimilation being an essential process, as in the case of physical, body pabulum, if it is to serve any vital purpose. That task he has accomplished with distinct success, always assuming the competence of the "boys and girls"—for whom the book is admittedly intended—to grasp the facts and follow the arguments advanced by the author. The course of study is not only an excellent one, but the treatment is fresh and stimulating, more space being given than is usual in text-books to the critical examination of the many biological problems that inevitably present themselves to the thoughtful mind, more especially those concerning life and its origin, and the development of living things individually and racially.

The author confessedly belongs to the vitalistic school of thought; and regards the racial evolution of living things as evidence and outcome of a pre-ordained plan. In some respects, therefore, he differs strongly from the great majority of authoritative biologists. All things considered that is but natural; but it is rather a pity to find Dr. Waddington setting up "men of straw" to be forthwith knocked down. By way of example it may be mentioned that it is not the fact that Darwinians, old or new, hold that all variations,

chance or otherwise, must be favourable to account for the development of new forms by descent with modifications. On the contrary it is agreed that the great majority of the myriad variations that are occurring and have occurred during vast ages are such as to doom the variants to extinction, only the few being favourable to survival and their handing on from one generation to another. Moreover it is astonishing to find Dr. Waddington advancing the complaint that natural selection offers no explanation of how new variations, and therefore new species, have originated—the equivalent of disbelieving in the effective action of a sieve because it cannot account for the size of the particles which it separates into such as can or cannot pass through its meshes. And there are other arguments that we think are confutable, did space but allow.

But, then, as has been often remarked, there are spots on the sun ; and we gladly acknowledge the very sterling merits of this freshly written account of living things ; and cordially commend it to all who are desirous of thinking about them as well as imbibing a certain amount of knowledge.

F. H. S.

HOW DOES A PLANT GROW? By SIR CUTHBERT GRUNDY, F.L.S. Pp. 170.
John Murray. 2s. 6d.

IN some score of simple talks to children the author deals very clearly with plant life in its varied aspects. It is pleasing to find that scientific accuracy is not sacrificed to simplicity, and that technicalities are not deemed necessary in order to impart definite, sound information. It is possible that some of the author's young readers will be disappointed with the total lack of illustrations, although actually the text is such as to be readily followed and understood without them.

F. H. S.

THE TEACHING OF BIOLOGY. By M. E. PHILLIPS, B.Sc., and L. E. COX, B.Sc., F.L.S. Pp. 156. University of London Press. 4s. 6d. net.

WE have already had the pleasure of reviewing two previous volumes dealing with biology by these two very capable and experienced lecturers upon a subject which, on its merits, should find a place in the curriculum of every school. To justify that place biology must stand revealed as a worth-while subject, possessing interests and values that have no necessary reference to the passing of an examination ; in short, as a subject to which very definitely applies the old motto, *Non scholæ sed vitæ*. Both what is taught and how it is taught are matters of importance ; and the authors very wisely insist on the importance of duly recognizing the æsthetic, ethical, logical, and practical values of a school course in biology. It is to help in securing the worthy treatment of a worth-while subject that this very stimulating volume has been prepared—a volume to be very warmly commended to all who are engaged in the study of living things.

F. H. S.

GARDEN SCIENCE. By JOHN GRAINGER, Ph.D., B.Sc. Pp. 265. University of London Press. 4s. 6d. net.

THERE is, of course, a science as well as an art of gardening ; and a knowledge of the principles underlying and conditioning the practice of horticulture cannot but make for success and add very considerably to the interest and pleasure attaching thereto. Dr. Grainger's book is based upon a sound knowledge of both aspects of horticulture, and considerable experience in lecturing thereon ; and he has wisely availed himself of the help and advice of such authorities as Professor Priestley and Dr. T. W. Woodhead in rendering his work thoroughly reliable. The scope of the book is indicated by the titles of the various chapters : the seed, the green plant, the plant in relation to the soil, vegetative propagation and pruning, the flower, fungus and virus diseases of plants, and insect pests ; while in two very useful appendices the author supplies valuable aid in planning experiments and school gardens. It only remains to add that the beautifully clear type and excellent illustrations leave nothing to be desired.

F. H. S.

QUALITATIVE CHEMICAL ANALYSIS: ORGANIC AND INORGANIC. By F. MOLLWO PERKIN, C.B.E., Ph.D. Fifth Edition, revised by JULIUS GRANT, Ph.D., M.Sc. Pp. x + 377. 1935. Longmans. 9s. net.

THE fact that this is the fifth edition and that in each edition there have generally been several impressions, is in itself sufficient evidence of the popularity of this book, the conception of which is due to the late Dr. Mollwo Perkin. For this edition the book has been thoroughly revised by Dr. Grant, who has incorporated the elements of micro-analysis, and crystal tests and drop reactions for most of the inorganic ions. The inorganic section is made more complete by including the so-called "rarer elements" in their appropriate groups. Additions have also been made to the various organic sections, especially to that on alkaloids. The various individual tests given are satisfactory and well set out, but after having performed them the student is still left in the lurch as to the best method of procedure in tackling "unknowns." It is true that the outline of a scheme is given on pp. 355-6, but this is far from being sufficient.

T. S. P.

GENERAL SCIENCE

AN INTRODUCTION TO SCIENCE. By P. E. ANDREWS, B.A., B.Sc., and H. G. LAMBERT, B.Sc., A.I.C. Pp. 166. Longmans. 2s. 6d.

FIRST published in 1929, this enlarged edition contains three new chapters dealing with the quantitative aspect of several subjects—refraction, reflexion at curved surfaces, and heat quantities. The course, which includes the usual branches of physical science, is not only practical but interesting and stimulating, dealing as it does with things that matter because commonly met with in everyday life, but which are by no means so commonly understood.

F. H. S.

ENGLISH

COLERIDGE AND S.T.C. By STEPHEN POTTER. Jonathan Cape. 8s. 6d.

CHARLES LAMB was probably nearer the truth than anyone else when he described Coleridge as an "archangel a little damaged." In this study, a mental autopsy, if such a term be permitted, of the dual personality of the poet-philosopher, Mr. Potter essays with considerable critical insight to unravel the Jekyll and Hyde story, leaving to his readers the task of finding for themselves their own interpretation of what must inevitably remain an insoluble problem. A legendary character is a doubtful legacy for anyone to bequeath a posterity. It is doubly so in the case of a man such as Coleridge, whose mind was more often revealed in his talk than in his writings. With his *Mariner* he will always be "alone on the wide, wide sea." Those content with their cherished memories of the choicest among the comparatively small content of Coleridge's verse may possibly find little to interest them in Mr. Potter's searching study of the opposition between the poet's character and personality. For those, however, wishful for further insight into what his hours of sleep meant to him and his work, when "my dreams became the substance of my life," Mr. Potter's critical analysis should be of no little assistance.

ENGLISH FOR SENIOR SCHOOLS. A new approach to the study of English. Book I, Book II, and Book III. By W. B. LITTLE. Harrap. 1s. 6d. each.

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MODERN ONE-ACT PLAYS. Edited by PHILIP WAYNE. (Heritage of Literature Series.) Longmans. 2s.

THIS is a very well chosen and interesting selection of modern one-act plays, which are competently edited by Mr. Wayne. We can confidently recommend it. J. W. B. A.

HISTORY

EUROPE: THE REVOLUTIONARY AND NAPOLEONIC ERAS. By GRANT and TEMPERLEY. Pp. 187. 3 Maps. Longmans, 5s.

THIS most readable work is a reprint of Part I of *Europe in the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries*, with slight alterations, and an Epilogue summarizing the work of the Congress of Vienna: a comparison is suggested with the Peace of Versailles and the settlement which followed the Great War also. Teachers will find the volume of great interest and service. H. C.

LANDMARKS OF WORLD HISTORY. By C. S. S. HIGHAM. Pp. 152. Illustrated. Longmans. 2s.

THIS is a simple introduction to world history from the Palæolithic to the present eras. Many chapters are linked to the stories of great persons, but the later chapters show the country of to-day against its own historical background. H. C.

HISTORY THROUGH FAMILIAR THINGS. By J. R. REEVE. University of London Press. Book I, 124 pp.; Book II, 148 pp., 1s. 8d. each limp; 1s. 10d. board. Complete 270 pp., 3s. 6d.

MR. REEVE uses a simple yet satisfactory method of teaching history by retelling the story of bread, knives, ships, wheels, clothes, and houses. Children should find much fascination in these two volumes, and thus absorb economic history with enjoyment. H. C.

GEOGRAPHY

THE BRITISH ISLES. By MORLEY DELL, M.A. Pp. 360. 3s. 6d.

A GEOGRAPHY OF EUROPE. By H. ALNWICK, M.C., B.A. (Cantab.). Pp. 416. Harrap. 3s. 6d.

HARRAP'S New Geography Series have gained a deservedly high reputation as one that embodies the facts that matter and the most approved methods of dealing with them; and these two new volumes are well up to the high standard set by their predecessors in the series. This, however, is not to say that we regard them as ideal from the highest educational point of view. They are frankly intended to meet the needs of pupils taking the School Certificate Examination, a fact that inevitably narrows their scope and outlook, necessitating the inclusion of many data that will be promptly forgotten, while excluding other aspects that appeal to those who have no use and no desire for the School Certificate.

Within the limits thus drawn the authors have done admirable work on lines we have already warmly commended. Causes as well as effects, explanations as well as facts, receive due recognition; but we think that the latter are too often given when they could be discovered by the pupils if only they were given adequate practice in reading good maps.

The text throughout is commendably accurate and reliable; but Mr. Dell should not allow his pupils to understand that all fish spawn on the sea-bed, it being the fact that with the exception of the herring and shad the eggs of all our British food fish are buoyant and float at or near the surface, where they drift about at the mercy of the winds and currents. F. H. S.

GEOGRAPHY FOR PREPARATORY SCHOOLS. By C. E. W. V. REYNOLDS.

Pp. 228. Blackie. 3s.

SPECIALLY written to meet the requirements of the Public Schools Common Entrance Examination in Geography, this book deals lightly but adequately with mathematical geography, maps, physical and political geography; the British Isles and the Empire are detailed briefly, and the continents in outline. This is essentially a pupil's book for preparation and revision. It can be commended.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE. By E. J. DAUGHTY. Pp. 270. Maps and Illustrations.

Heinemann. 2s. 6d.

THIS work consists of a series of attractive studies intended for children of from 13 to 15 years, the emphasis being placed on man's response to his environment. Geographical principles are stated and illustrated clearly, and the material should provoke intelligent class discussion. The author, like many other geographers, suggests that the Indians of America made little progress because native sheep and cattle were not available. Actually progress, according to our ideas, was retarded because the Indian regarded the accumulation of private property as an offence against his manitous and mankind. The book should be of high value in schools.

H. C.

A SYSTEMATIC REGIONAL GEOGRAPHY. Part I, The British Isles. By J. F.

UNSTEAD. Pp. 292. Maps and Diagrams. University of London Press. 6s.

CONSCIENTIOUS students are sometimes awed by the great complexity of the subject matter of geography, and despair of ever reducing it to a comprehensible system. Dr. Unstead has come to their assistance with an extremely interesting work. In this book geography is presented as "the study of areas of the earth's surface in their entirety, i.e., as entities whose characteristics are determined by the interaction of all their living and non-living components; second, the study of the smallest regions or unit-areas is regarded as the basis of the work, which then proceeds by combining these into larger and larger areas, regions of higher orders, until the major regions of the world are reached." In this manner, geography is reduced to a manageable system. Part I introduces fundamental ideas, and offers a generous study of relatively small areas, the emphasis ranging as the characters of the regions differ. Students in training college and geography specialist teachers cannot afford to overlook this series.

H. C.

SENIOR PRACTICAL GEOGRAPHY (Pupil's Book). By E. J. ORFORD. University of London Press. 2s. 2d. limp; 2s. 4d. boards.

THIS well-printed, well-illustrated book, is on more or less conventional lines, but is distinguished by its diagrams and lucidity and above all by details of that home-made apparatus for which Mr. Orford is so widely known. The book fully justifies its title of "practical."

E. Y.

UNROLLING THE MAP. By LEONARD OUTHWAITE. Constable. 16s.

THIS is an elementary story of explorers and explorations, illustrated by a number of maps, and fifteen drawings of famous ships. It is not quite certain for what class of reader the book is intended. The information is elementary but the language is sometimes too difficult for a young reader. One can, however, recommend it as a library reference book chiefly for its short, bright accounts of individual explorers of whom all the chief are mentioned with the exception, amongst modern ones, of Mawson. If a new edition is called for the term "below" for "south" should be corrected. The date of La Salle's departure for France (p. 141) was not 1863, and on p. 196 the term "westward" should be "eastward." These are minor errors in a work that shows the result of much wide reading and some skill in arrangement.

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THE ideal beginner's course will fulfil the following conditions: it will be easy enough for the dull boy, interesting and full enough for the bright boy, adaptable to ancient or modern methods of teaching; and the French used must be *French* from Lesson I onwards. The present Course approaches as near to this ideal as most, and a great deal nearer than many. Perhaps we may without impertinence suggest one or two modifications for subsequent editions:

1. In the pronunciation Notes, *auf* and *bœuf* are given as examples of the close vowel.
2. In verb-paradigms pronouns are given capitals (including *je*), and the second singular is translated "thou."
3. The vocabulary rule "*le* or *la* before a noun, *un* or *une* if it begins with a vowel" is not observed.
4. Both types of quasi-regular verb are introduced rather early (Lesson VII).
5. Lesson XVI is a gargantuan mouthful—the Perfect Tense, and the rule for agreement of Past Participle.
6. *C'est* seems to have been overlooked in the early stages.
7. P. 27, *des beaux cadeaux*—misprint or intentional colloquialism?

But of these objections perhaps only (1) and (5) are very serious. On the whole it is a very competent piece of work, written with an eye to the average or dull boy. The lessons are short in the First Year (an important point), the grammar is simply and clearly explained, and the exercises show an amusing variety. Phonetic pronunciation is given with lesson vocabularies.

In Volume II the lessons are still short enough to allow time for an additional reader (another important point), but begin to have some historical or literary significance, without, however, being unpleasantly didactic.

The whole work is based on sound principles. We recommend it and wish it well.

A. B. G.

FRENCH PLAYS FOR TO-DAY. By MAURICE THIERY. Longmans. 1s.

WE can unreservedly recommend the adoption of these four easy and attractive plays, both for boys' and girls' schools. They would certainly be read with interest and could moreover be quite easily staged and acted by children from twelve to fourteen years of age. A full vocabulary is given.

J. W. B. A.

SPANISH

SPANISH FOR ADULTS. By E. B. EASTWOOD and A. H. STEVENSON. Harrap. 2s. 6d.

THIS book should prove very useful, as intended, to adult students of the Spanish language, whose time and opportunity for study are limited. The subject matter is very well chosen and arranged.

J. W. B. A.

PRINCIPIOS DE ESPAÑOL. By J. P. DARR, M.A., and J. E. TRAVIS, M.A. Illustrations by WYN GEORGE. Harrap. 2s. 6d.

THIS will doubtless prove a suitable text-book for use in schools and evening classes. The grammar is very well arranged and explained, and the reading matter should prove very interesting and amusing—especially the essays contributed by Spanish school children.

J. W. B. A.

SHORT STORIES BY EMILIA PARDO BAZÁN. Edited by A. SHAPIRO and F. J. HURLEY. Harrap. 3s.

THIS book contains eighteen very interesting stories by the eminent Spanish lady novelist, Pardo Bazán. They cover a wide and varied field of subject matter, and give picturesque accounts of various aspects of Spanish life and customs. The appended "Direct Method" exercises, notes, and full vocabulary should prove most helpful. We can strongly recommend this book to all students and schools who are studying Spanish, and concerning the statement that it will much interest and profit them—*no cabe duda!*

J. W. B. A.

CITIZENSHIP

INDUSTRY AND SOCIETY : HOW WE WORK AND HOW WE ARE GOVERNED. By F. H. SPENCER, D.Sc., LL.B. University of London Press. 2s. 6d.

THIS might be considered as a companion volume to two of Dr. Spencer's earlier books : *Simple Economics* and *The Government of our Country*. Still more accurately, it can be considered as a book covering much of the ground of both these predecessors, and written for adults rather than for children. But the happy effects of the double hand remain—the hand of the education and of the economics expert. Dr. Spencer indeed divides his book into two parts, Work and Government ; but the two make a related sequence.

Such a book, equally informative and interesting in treatment, should find its place not only in evening institutes, junior or middle secondary forms, senior central school classes, but also at the elbow of John Citizen, when he is conscious of a vagueness of background for the home news of his daily or weekly newspaper.

R. J.

SOME BOOKS RECEIVED

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THE CHEMISTRY OF THOUGHT. By C. A. Claremont. 8s. 6d. net.
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June, 1935.

By order of the Senatus.

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Royal Society of Teachers

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As a preliminary to formal application, those who intend to apply are invited to submit a brief statement of their qualifications, which should not be accompanied by testimonials or by names of references. Such letters should be sent not later than January 31, 1936, addressed to The Chairman, Teachers Registration Council, 47, Bedford Square, London, W.C.1. Those from whom further particulars are desired will receive in due course a Form of Application with information concerning the duties of the Secretary, and directions as to the return of the completed Form. Canvassing will be a disqualification.

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THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF TEACHERS AND REGISTRATION

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 authorized 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 over 91,000 teachers to Registration, all of whom are Members of the Royal Society of Teachers. 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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