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Bibliography

# THE RELATION OF CERTAIN PROBLEMS TO THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN THE UNITED STATES, ONTARIO, FRANCE, SCOTLAND, AND GERMANY.

## THE PROBLEMS.

'Teacher training consists in the provision of opportunities for a prospective teacher to acquire the requisite body of knowledge, the professional attitudes, the teaching skills, and capabilities for future growth, which are demanded by the specific requirements of the position to be filled.' This definition of teacher training has been accepted for this study because it implies specialization. It suggests that the teacher of industrial classes needs to have knowledge, attitudes, and skills which are particularly necessary for teaching that type of class. The teacher of exceptional children will need to have opportunity to acquire other knowledge, attitudes and skills.

The problems selected for study are diverse. There will be an attempt to study the adequacy of teacher training in certain countries to meet these problems. The general purpose of the study, then, is to observe, analyze, and interpret teacher training practices and policies that are related to the following problems: (1) Industrial Education (2) Education of Exceptional Children (3) Agricultural and Rural Education (4) Cultural Education (5) Religious Education (6) Education for Homemaking and Family Life. It is evident from the variety of the problems that all types of institutions for the training of teachers will be studied.

The five areas, the United States, Ontario, France, Scotland, and Germany were selected for the following reasons: (1) The educational systems are varied (2) They were affected in different ways by the Great War (3) The problems are accepted in various degrees of importance in the different countries (4) The writer has observed the teacher training practices of Scotland, France and Germany in 1930 and again in 1935 for a more definite opinion of the trends.

Although comparison will be made of conditions during the last ten years, at times, statistics will be quoted which include the years 1920-24. If the time-year period which has been chosen has not been the most progressive in educational history, it has, perhaps, been subjected to the most extreme economic conditions in the history of the countries of study.

The writer is aware of many difficulties. One of these is that teacher training does not begin nor does it end in a teacher training college. The candidate for the profession is a product of a primary or secondary school system. He is thrust into a world of professional change. Before and after his formal preparation period, he is a part of the system. Throughout his educational career, there are 'out-of-school' influences that affect his teaching. While all this may be granted, to try to judge the extent to which the training colleges have advanced, relative to educational and professional changes may serve a useful purpose. Do the training colleges supplement or deter life experiences in the teacher's quest

for knowledge, attitudes and skills? A specific instance of this would be the relation between the Normal School of France and the apprenticeship system.

The diversity of systems in certain countries makes comparison difficult. In the United States there may be forty-eight or forty-nine answers to each problem, as many indeed as there are states. Even in a single state, although there is state certification of teachers, local training colleges and those under State control vary in purpose, method and accomplishment. The Ontario study is not so difficult, because of the centralization of authority and administration. France also has a centrally organized system; yet its training colleges, although called Normal Schools, like those in Ontario, are peculiarly French. The National Committee for the Training of Teachers directs training colleges in Scotland (a body not found in the other systems studied). Thus the principal object of enquiry is to assess the importance of training colleges, in spite of varied administrative control and the variety of types, for the solution of certain national educational problems. A second object is to assess other national and geographic agencies which influence the training of teachers.

The difficulty of making quantitative comparison makes certain phases of such a study seem isolated. For example it is difficult to compare provision for instruction in Religious Knowledge in various countries. The subject

appears on Training College programmes in Scotland and is excluded from the greater number in the United States. Also, the number of hours devoted to music is greater in Germany than the number provided for training in this subject in Ontario, but the attitudes of the two authorities concerned are dissimilar. Certain statistical comparisons that seemed possible at first had to be discarded as the problems of the study were too varied to make the comparisons.

Realizing the many difficulties, the writer will attempt to analyze the problems separately for each country to discover their relation to the system of education and to learn the extent and nature of the training of teachers to meet the problem. An opinion of the adequacy of this training will be added.

Method of the Study.

The conclusions of this study gradually became clear as the study progressed and their definiteness determined the point of termination. What were opinions during the work became judgments so far as judgments could be made on such an extensive field. The judgments are comparative and personal and not advanced as criticisms.

It was necessary first to study the educational systems of the countries. This was accomplished partly by visitation in 1930 and 1935; partly by reading the literature of comparative education, which has been meagre until the last four or five years. Another method was to read the publications of the countries concerned where such were available for foreign distribution.

There was need then for a comparative study of social, economic, and political conditions in these countries, but the news that filtered through the daily press was not always an adequate guide. The reports of National and International Organizations, however, frequently gave a better estimate of the relations of education and living conditions abroad. Miscellaneous magazine articles, lectures and books gave additional material for completing the picture.

The problems of Industrial Education, Education of Exceptional Children, Agricultural and Rural Education, Cultural Education, Religious Education, Education for

Homemaking and Family Life, were those most frequently mentioned at home and abroad as affecting or being affected by education. Although very old problems, they seemed to be receiving new development and emphasis in the systems. Not all of them were considered to be of special concern in all countries, yet all have been mentioned frequently in the educational literature of these countries. The problems that have been met by the training schools in Ontario served as guides to possible problems elsewhere. A study of University Calendars, Training College Prospectuses, and School Journals of the last ten years revealed new courses and new emphasis on certain phases of teacher training.

The topics of study were finally selected and certain boundaries fixed. Industrial Education was thus made to include all Technical and Vocational Training. Exceptional Children were considered who were abnormal physically or mentally. Agricultural and Rural education had to be considered separately, in most cases, the former as a vocational problem and the latter as a social problem. Cultural education was limited to the training of teachers of Music and of Art. Religious education, it was discovered, was not allowed to trespass on laws of the state. The study of the training of girls for Homemaking and Family Life meant the exclusion of vocational and professional training for institutional posts.

For the purpose of studying the relation of the training

of teachers to the solution of these educational problems, training college programmes from the various systems were obtained. Where it was possible to secure them, copies of the programmes of ten years ago were obtained. Questionnaires were sent to principals of training colleges and to ministries of education. By conversation and letters opinions were received from teachers of the different subjects studied for statistics and the estimation of trends of opinion. Frequently there were reports from inspectors that gave interesting suggestions to the departments. A proposal to compare knowledge, attitudes and skills of teachers in different countries was rejected. From the training college courses, an estimate of the professional value of subjects was made. Comparisons of the numbers of hours for Observation and Practice Teaching were made. From the entire study conclusions were made.

The organization of the material includes a chapter of observations and conclusions devoted to each system of education studied, and a concluding chapter. Each chapter is divided according to the study problems with a summary of each part.

## UNITED STATES.

1. Teacher Training Tendencies.

A brief survey of the general field of teacher training may help to give meaning to some phases of the particular field. Many different kinds of institutions exist in different parts of the United States. As it is thus impossible to construct a composite of these schools, certain tendencies will be discussed.

In recent years, state departments of education have been assuming control of the certification of teachers. Whereas in 1920 about half of the States issued teaching certificates, in 1933 more than three-fourths had co-ordinated teacher training agencies and set the standards for certification. Progressive state departments are now urging that there be improvements in staff, accommodation and courses. A number of smaller institutions unable to comply with the regulations were forced to abandon their professional curricula and become purely academic or trade colleges. This disposed of a source of supply of poorly trained teachers. In spite of the attempt to standardize the teacher training college there exist at the present time, in the State of Michigan, the following institutions that are training teachers: 3 State Teachers' Colleges, the State University, a Land Grant College, and approximately fifty county normal schools. (1)

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(1) Report of the Michigan State Department of Education, Detroit.

'The assumption by the State of the responsibility and function of teacher preparation, involving also its support, constitutes one of the most significant chapters in the history of this basic educational activity.' (1)

The length of academic and professional training required for state certification is gradually being increased. For teaching in the elementary schools of each of twelve states the training must be of two years' duration after secondary school graduation. Other states are requiring that prospective teachers spend three years of formal training. The District of Columbia drew up a four-year course for elementary teachers at the beginning of 1933. The bachelor's degree has also become a standard requirement for teachers of academic subjects in secondary schools (high schools). The master's degree or equivalent training is a decidedly helpful asset for teachers wishing to secure positions in city or town schools. Studies made in 1922 indicated that the average amount of training of teachers in service beyond the high school level was definitely below two years. The National Survey of the Education of Teachers in 1931 revealed the amount to be nearly three years.

During the course of the evolution of teacher-preparing institutions, admission requirements have risen progressively from little more than the ability to pass an examination in reading, writing, grammar and arithmetic

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(1) Frazier, Benjamin W., Professional Education of Teachers, Chapter XIV -Biennial Survey of Education, 1928 -30.

to requirements that are the equivalent of those enforced by standard colleges and universities. (1) Entrance requirements of teachers' colleges and normal schools that are more or less selective in nature are indicated in a study in the year 1930. (2) One State requires all candidates to take an entrance examination if certain conditions, such as superior scholarship in high school graduation, are not met. Twenty-one States require a minimum age qualification, although high-school graduation, almost universally required, renders this practice superfluous. Twenty-six States require health qualifications of applicants for admission to training schools. Nine States require of the candidate that he declare his intention to teach. Thirty-nine States require specific high-school units or combinations of units. The best exemplification of definite and intensive programmes of selective admission is afforded by the municipal training colleges and normal schools,(3) most of which are confronted with many more applicants than it is possible for them to accommodate. The solution of the question of selective admission is the object of

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(1) Frazier, Benjamin W. - Professional Education of Teachers.
(2) McNeil,Millicent - A Comparative Study of Entrance to Teacher-training Institutions. Teachers College, Columbia University,1930.
(3) These are owned and operated by the local education authority for the preparation of local teachers.

much research. Psychological tests have not proved satisfactory. Little genuine progress too has been made in respect to the construction of personality tests, although the importance of personality in teaching is commonly admitted. Personality and general character records when kept by qualified faculty members over a period of years, appear to offer more valuable criteria for selection on this basis than almost any other method.

Another tendency in the training and certification of teachers in the United States is the abolition of the so-called 'blanket' certification and the provision of certification by subject or by fields of work. To a greater extent since 1924 teachers are being prepared to teach special classes for mentally defective children, kindergarten pupils, senior classes, etc. and are being given certificates to teach such classes only. Many are completing courses for the teaching of special subjects, such as Music, Art, Agriculture, Home Economics,etc. This tendency is particularly pertinent to this study and will be discussed later. Courses for supervisors, principals, school nurses, school secretaries, visiting teachers, rural directors are also receiving greater prominence in training college curricula. Six states have abandoned life certification entirely. Increasing restrictions are being placed upon this type of licence by other states which still grant it. The problem of inducing teachers

who hold life certificates to keep up with advancing scholastic requirements is a serious one and has not yet been solved, since most new certification requirements are not retrospective.

A very large increase in the number of teachers colleges has taken place, the gain being approximately 210 per cent in the last ten years. The growth of the number of departments of education in colleges and universities is another outstanding development of the decade. The number of normal schools, particularly of state normal schools, has decreased, as many of them have been raised to the status of four-year teaching colleges. In the past, the normal school has been a one-year or two-year training school for elementary teachers. Some such institutions have been organized by the state, others have been built by the municipalities and still others have been private schools. The following table will show the tendencies.

Number of teacher-preparing institutions and agencies of different types, 1920 and 1930. (1)

| Number in | 1920 | in 1930 |
|---|---|---|
| Teachers Colleges | 46 | 140 |
| State Normal Schools | 137 | 66 |
| City Normal Schools | 33 | 26 |
| County Normal Schools | 95 | 47 |
| Private Normal Schools | 60 | 52 |
| Departments of Education in Colleges & Universities | 491 | 623 |

(1) Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1928 - 30.

The fees of Training Colleges have been increased but the total income from this source is now lower because of the decreased enrolment. The chief source of income of these colleges is, of course, from public taxation. More than three-fourths of the income of State institutions for the training of teachers is from State taxes. About one-fifth of the income is from student fees. The remainder is secured from permanent endowments, local taxation, and Federal funds. Reduced receipts from taxation are general since 1930 and a number of institutions have been forced to curtail their programmes.

More attention has been paid in recent years to the appointment of the members of the faculties of teacher-preparing institutions. Better qualified instructors are now available. Specific professional preparation of junior and regular college teachers has become the work of a number of graduate schools, as:- Columbia University, University of Chicago, Ohio State University, Stanford University, George Peabody College for Teachers. The Association of American Universities has created a committee of its own members to study the professional training of college teachers. (1)

Several methods have been employed to improve the scholarship and professional training of teachers in service. Some of these are as follows:- Summer courses

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(1) Several recommendations were made in the report of 1932.

at Teachers' Colleges and Universities, intervisitation of teachers, exchange of teachers, teachers' meetings, supervision and inspection, demonstration classes.

## The Problem of Industrial Education.

The problem can be stated in the form of two questions, viz. (1) To what extent is Industrial Education a Problem? (2) What is the method of selection and training of teachers of technical subjects?

Until 1930, the chief problem facing school authorities was the provision of accommodation and the obtaining of teachers for increasing numbers of students of secondary school age, who did not want academic work, but demanded training for industry and business. To the familiar branches of education, elementary, secondary, and teacher-training, there was added a fourth, vocational schools, The rise of technical schools from 1920 to 1930 was very rapid. It was parallel to the growth in industry. There was a demand for skilled workmen. There was little or no apprenticeship. Promotion was rapid. Wages were higher, in many cases, than the salaries and earnings of those engaged in the professions.

In the early development of industrial training in schools, the courses were limited to trades that necessitated comparatively long periods of training. The training included the mastery of numerous highly skilled operations and a comparatively large amount of technical knowledge. Outstanding examples of this were the general machine-shop course and the general course offered in electricity. Teachers for these courses, as will be

explained later were men who had certain skill and technical knowledge and who could be induced to enter the profession for, at least, part-time instruction.

With the increasing multiplication of trades requiring a shorter period of training and a smaller amount of technical knowledge, school authorities seemed to think that these too should have places on the technical school curriculum. Equipment was bought and craftsmen secured for the teaching of such subjects as flower making, meat cutting, box making, window washing, hairdressing, and cosmetology. Such courses as radio, auto-mechanics, plumbing, aviation, printing, bricklaying, linotype and welding were added to the senior boys' trade school curriculum. An outstanding example of an industrial arts course in which girls are enrolled is the ceramics course in the Wheeling,W.Va.,High School. Excellent work is here done in designing and making chinaware and pottery products. Persons with experience and talent, both in the art and production phase of the work are employed as teachers. Several other successful attempts to develop high-school industrial arts courses in lines of work represented in the local regions, have been made. The provision of teachers has however been a problem.

Before proceeding to the study of the training of teachers of industrial arts, there should be an answer to the question, How has unemployment during the last four

years affected the technical school programme in the United States?

Unemployment has caused an increase in the enrollment in full-time classes for the upper school years and particularly for the commercial and technical branches of the Secondary School. This is due to two reasons: (a) to the legal regulations in many States which provide that youths between certain ages must be in school all day, if not employed; (b) to voluntary attendance upon full-time classes by youths beyond compulsory school attendance age, but who find it difficult to obtain or retain positions on account of the unemployment situation. (1) Enrollment in the evening classes for adolescents engaged in trades has increased in many localities. With keen competition for jobs, workers realize that, in general, jobs go to those who are best qualified. Hence they attempt to increase their qualifications by attendance at vocational evening classes.

Technological employment is also affecting the educational programme. Men thrown out of employment owing to changes in manufacturing processes or to the development of labour-saving machinery are seeking other training in new lines of work. They return to school, even though they are beyond school age and may have forgotten academic work. The schools too are in difficulties for they have only the equipment and teachers required for teaching the old manufacturing

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(1) Proffitt, Maris M. - Industrial Education - Bulletin of U.S. Bureau of Education.

processes. This equipment is now largely obsolete and must be replaced by new, and the teachers must be re-trained or they must adjust themselves to the new situation.

Unemployed young men, who have not yet lost their ambition, are seeking the most direct means of training for the purpose of obtaining a certain job as soon as possible. To be specific, a young man has heard of improvement in the building trade and wants to be a carpenter. He could begin as a workman or carpenter's helper, but he knows that only married men are allowed by the social service to take those jobs. He is not married. He registers in a technical school and wants a course in carpentry with a certificate in four or six months. Officials of vocational-industrial schools are aware that there is need for specific types of training for specific jobs. Short courses to meet definite needs in industry must thus be given.

So the selection and training of teachers of industrial courses have confronted administrators during the last ten years. Twenty years ago, when an industrial course on an elementary or high school programme was called 'manual training', the principal would select one of his teachers who was 'good at handwork' to give the course. Now manual training has for several years appeared on teacher training college programmes but it was not thought to be 'educational' in an academic age.

In 1917, the National Vocational Education Act gave

great impetus to technical education and to the training of teachers who wanted to teach industrial subjects. It provided for the reimbursement of salaries of those employed in the training of industrial teachers according to the plan of salary grants to teachers of vocational classes. To bring about improvement in the training of teachers of these classes, it included provisions for withholding Federal reimbursement for vocational education from those States that did not at a certain date meet the requirements for teacher training as provided in the act.

The first difficulty in the state's programme of industrial education was the selection of properly qualified applicants for enrollment in teacher-training courses. The first qualification for the teacher of a trade subject, as set forth in the Federal Act and in State Colleges, was that he should have had a number of years of experience as a journeyman workman in the trade he expects to teach. The developments in the teaching of technical subjects in the last ten years have justified that decision.

Having decided that candidates for teaching these subjects shall have trade experience, the difficulty during the years of high wages, 1924 - 29, was to induce skilled workmen to become teachers. The salary was not attractive to them. They would not leave their jobs to submit to a year's training in the practice of teaching. The result was that many teachers without professional training were

employed in the industrial schools during these years. In other cases, mediocre tradesmen took a short course of training and became teachers. These short courses were often vacation courses. Others were evening courses conducted by the training colleges. The chief subjects were Psychology and Method, i.e. Method of organizing work, material and classes, and methods of presenting the lessons.

There was a demand for evening technical classes in the same years. The teachers of these classes were skilled tradesmen, and, since the courses were attended voluntarily, the teachers were not required to have professional training. The practice varied, however, and many evening class teachers did take short courses in methods of teaching.

In the years since 1929, particularly during the years of unemployment of tradesmen, there has been a great influx into the training colleges. (1) What selective admission was there to be? (2) What subjects should be included in the teacher-training programme which would be most efficient in making a tradesman a teacher of his trade?

From a study of training college programmes, it is evident that many tradesmen are barred from entrance to the courses for technical teachers by lack of school certificates. Very typical of the entrance requirements are those of the Vocational-Industrial Teacher-Training Department of the State Teachers College at Buffalo.

'Students desiring admission to this department must be at least 18 years of age, free from physical defects, and must present evidence of having graduated from an approved four-year high school. Such a diploma must include: English, 3 units; history, 1 unit; algebra and geometry, 2 units; general science, 2 units; together with sufficient electives to complete the full four years' course as determined by the Commissioner of Education'. (1)

As admission requirements have been increased with the result that many skilled tradesmen cannot enter the training course, it is evident that the type of student entering is the young aspirant to the teaching profession who likes mechanical devices and manual operations and therefore decides upon this particular branch of teaching.

On the second question concerning the courses to be taken, there is greater diversity of opinion. Some colleges offer two year courses, some three, some four. As a rule there is no competition or rivalry in this, but the college conforms to state regulation. A college such as Ypsilanti in Michigan which was a pioneer in this field of training has an interstate reputation. The tendency is to increase the course to a four-year course for teachers of industrial arts in all schools of the secondary level.

The four-year programme of training for teachers of Industrial Arts, as presented at Michigan State Teachers

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(1) State Teachers College Bulletin, Buffalo, New York, 1934 - 35.

College, includes the following courses: Language and Literature, Science, Psychology, Social Science, Political Science, Education (4 courses), Vocational Education (60 hours), Industrial Arts (4 courses), Elementary Practical Electricity, Elementary Woodwork, Industrial Arts Design, Architectural Drawing, General Metalwork, Machine Drawing, General Woodwork, Practical Electricity, Printing, General Workship, Content and Organization of Vocational Education, Physical Education and Health, Rhetoric (3 courses), Handwriting, and Certain Electives. The terminology varies with different colleges and the emphasis varies, but the above is a typical range of subjects.

Recently there have been pronouncements against the character of subjects included in industrial teacher-training programmes. Such subjects as General Psychology, History of Education and General Methods, that appeared on certain college programmes were denounced by leaders in industrial education. They believe in the inclusion only of those subjects which have direct and immediate bearing upon the efficiency of instruction in industrial subjects.(1) The 1934 Bulletins indicate that many subjects have been omitted from the course.

To meet the demands of great specialization in industry, the training colleges have adopted the plan of training teachers in the use of materials rather than of

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(1) Proffitt,Maris M. - Industrial Education.

giving them specific training in specific activities. It would be absurd, perhaps, for a training college to give a four-year course in hairdressing. Operators for such occupations are taught in private institutions. However, from a study of the bulletins of 39 selected colleges, the following courses appeared on 25 programmes: Woodwork, Mechanics, Metalwork, Electricity, Jewelry, Cement Work, Glass Work. These might be called courses in the use of materials. Eighteen programmes show general courses; as: Industrial Arts, The General Shop, Handicrafts, Household Mechanics, Engineering. Nine advertise 'special skill training', as: Toy making, Printing, Drafting, Architectural Drawing, Woodcarving, Automobile Mechanics.

Much space might be devoted to the 'in-service' training of teachers, i.e. training of teachers in employment in technical classes. 'In-service' training is coming more and more to be looked upon as the supervisory responsibility of local and State officials. This is particularly true of evening-class teachers. Inspectors go about to advise the teachers as to methods in presenting their courses. Teachers' organizations, lectures, conferences, summer courses aid the teacher in his work.

The conclusions of the study may be briefly stated. Specialization in industry has increased the number of specific jobs. The schools have tried to meet the demand for young skilled workmen. The training college has not

been sufficiently impressed to give a short skilled training for teaching a particular trade activity. The training course has been increased and the courses show that a more general training is being given in industrial courses. The objective of training skilled workmen into teachers has failed to some extent because of the high scholastic attainments expected of prospective teachers. 'The purpose, now, is not to develop a particularly high degree of skill, but to emphasize a thorough understanding of the elementary shop activities such as would be covered by a group of boys in the Elementary and High School grades.' (1)

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(1) State Teachers College Bulletin, Buffalo,N.Y. - Vol.11. No. 2 - 1934.

The Problem of Exceptional Children.

State and city school officials in the United States are recognizing the importance of making exceptional provision for exceptional children. An idea of the extent of this problem may be obtained from the following estimates made in 1930. The White House Conference on Child Health and Protection selected committees to prepare statistics and the following were submitted. Of 21 Million elementary school children in the country, a half million are so retarded that they need special instruction; a half million are so defective in hearing that they should be taught lip-reading; a hundred thousand are crippled and need educational treatment; fifty thousand have impaired vision; three-quarters of a million are adjudged behaviour problems; a million children have speech defects; a million and a half pupils need special consideration because of exceptionally high mental ability. (1)

Hilleboe's investigation revealed that according to individual investigators "more than 11 per cent of the population deviate so much from the normal as to require special class facilities, and that over 46 per cent, in addition, deviate enough from the normal to make remedial attention in the regular classroom necessary". (2)

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(1) Report of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, 1930.
(2) Hilleboe, Guy L. - Finding and teaching Atypical Children, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930.

This, as well, is given as an estimate. Lack of standardization in the definitions of a "defect" and a "correction" makes a survey of the country difficult.

The people of the country were not aware that the problem was so serious, until the 1930 Conference. They were not aware either that there were 500,000 persons in prisons, hospitals for mental diseases, almshouses and institutions for the feebleminded; that 70,000 were admitted each year for the first time to hospitals for the mentally diseased; that 300,000 every year were committed to prison. Individual states began to seek ways of preventing an increase in this burden on state funds. They were told that one cause of anti-social adults was maladjustment in schools. So they asked what provision had been made for the special training of these atypical children. The answer according to a survey made by a committee of the conference was not very encouraging.

The following paragraphs are taken from the official Conference publication:-

"The average yearly totals of special class teachers trained during the past five years, 1925-30, are: 189 teachers for the mentally deficient, 81 for the auditorily defective, 44 for the visually defective, 16 for the speech defective, and 16 for the orthopedic.

A study of the work offered in special education by teacher-training institutions indicates that more than half

of the students preparing to teach mentally retarded children have pursued only a six weeks' training course. The majority of teachers of the orally defective are being given one year of special training, usually in private institutions. Most of the training of teachers of children with defective vision is being done in various colleges under the auspices of the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness in intensive six weeks' courses during the summer sessions." (1)

A survey was made in 1931 of the provisions for the training of teachers of atypical children. Of 30 States replying, 11 reported a total of 28 such institutions. Only 2 States - Massachusetts and Michigan - had facilities for the instruction of teachers of all atypical classes prescribed in their State laws. No special curriculum was reported for teachers of open-air, disciplinary, or gifted classes in any State. Seven States definitely reported the absence of institutions for the instruction of prospective teachers of special classes. (2)

During the years 1930 to 1934, many improvements have been made. The entire field of special class (3) education has been developed greatly, with corresponding changes in the teaching of teachers.

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(1) White House Conference, 1930, Century Book Co. New York.
(2) Kunzig, Robert W., Public School Education of Atypical Children, U.S. Office of Education, 1931.
(3) The terms "atypical" and "exceptional" are used interchangeably with the term "special" in such expressions as "atypical education" and "special classes".

It was recommended by the White House Conference Committee, and has been to a large extent put into practice by the training colleges for teachers, "that certain basic courses dealing with mentally and physically handicapped children be included in the curricula for all teachers, supervisors, and principals preparing for service in the elementary schools". (1) There are many reasons for this, and one is that a greater number of teachers with some knowledge of the problems of handicapped children be available. It would seem impossible to create enough state institutions for the training of teachers for these newly discovered children who cannot profit by regular class instruction.

The 1934-35 Bulletins from teachers colleges and normal schools in 30 states showed that, although 40 per cent of the institutions had no special course for a certificate to teach exceptional children they did give elective courses for the regular certificate, from which the following were chosen: Mental Hygiene, Intelligence Testing, Mental and Physical Handicaps of School Children, Social and Eugenic Phases of Mental Deficiency, Industrial Arts and the Teaching of Handwork, Voice Culture, Juvenile Delinquency, Clinical and Abnormal Psychology.

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(1) Special Education, The Handicapped and the Gifted, The Century Co.,New York, 1931.

The training of teachers of exceptional children has been given varying degrees of emphasis in the different institutions. The range of emphasis may be estimated from the following lines of procedure: (1)

(1) No provision for such training.

(2) All courses in education and psychology include consideration of exceptional children.

(3) One or more courses to cover the problems of all or most types of exceptional children.

(4) An organization of several groups of related courses designed to prepare a student to teach in any one of several related fields.

The programmes of the (3) type give a course in testing, segregation and care of exceptional children with references to literature and objective material to be used in teaching the different types. The students may become regular teachers or teachers of special groups and may take a summer course in another institution as extra training.

Some of the programmes of the (4) type, such as that of Ypsilanti, San Francisco and Columbia University, show extensive four-year courses. A department of special education has been operative for a number of years at the State Normal College at Ypsilanti, Michigan. Teachers are trained for instruction of (1) the deaf and hard of hearing;

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(1) These were grouped from a study of Normal School and Training College Programmes.

(2) the blind and partially sighted; (3) the mentally deficient; (4) crippled children; (5) children of lowered vitality. The specialized courses included in the curriculum in the various types of training are as follows:(1)

(1) Education of Exceptional Children - a general course on defects, detection, care, training, occupations.

(2) Courses in the education of subnormal children - (a) Mental deficiency (b) Methods of teaching exceptional children (c) Industrial arts for subnormal children (d) Observation and practice teaching of subnormal children.

(3) Courses on behaviour problems - (a) Juvenile delinquency (b) Behaviour difficulties and solutions (c) The Problem Child in school.

(4) Courses in the education of sight defectives - (a) Sight saving, anatomy and hygiene of the eye, diseases and eye defects (b) Teaching methods (c) Observation and practice teaching, case studies.

(5) Courses in the education of deaf and hard-of-hearing children - anatomy and hygiene of the ear, acoustics, training of residual hearing, theory and practice of speech reading, materials and methods,

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(1) The courses are given in outline from the Bulletin of the State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Michigan.

observation and practice teaching, industrial occupations.

(6) Speech correction - Study of symptoms and causes of speech defects, stuttering, lisping, nasality, clinical experience, practice teaching.

(7) Courses in the education of crippled children - Pathology, Physical reconstruction, equipment, adaptation of educational programme.

(8) The Fresh Air Class - History, management, educational methods, selection of pupils, case studies, treatment, games.

One of the most famous schools for the study of mentally subnormal children is the Training School at Vineland, New Jersey. A summer course for teachers is given. It is a private school. The Universities have led the way in research and training, the most extensive courses being given at Columbia University, University of California, Chicago University, University of Iowa, Yale, and Johns Hopkins University. National Societies have advanced the education of the deaf and of the blind.

The tendency has been in very recent years for State authorities to name a certain training institution as the official centre for special education. Instead of equipping rival local institutions for the training of teachers of sight-saving classes, one college will prepare all applicants from the state.

Two of such special centres visited impressed the importance of "socializing" the child, i.e. helping him to adjust himself that he may earn his living and mix with others, in spite of his handicap. The teachers are encouraged to teach deaf children, speech or lip-reading, rather than a sign language. Pupils who have never spoken are taught to speak. The teachers, too, are shown the importance of knowing the abnormal child and of understanding the abnormality, the mental background and the best type of training.

Every student who searches through college and university catalogues in order to make an analysis of courses finds a lack of standardization in terminology and classification. It would be less confusing for teachers and administrators, if there was a unified language for referring to exceptional children.

The conclusion from the study is that the training colleges have not made sufficient provision for the training of teachers of exceptional children. If 10 per cent of the 21 million elementary school pupils need to be cared for in special classes and 20 of these exceptional children of the various types were cared for in each class, 100,000 specially trained teachers would be required for this work. The exact number already trained or in special training schools could not be obtained, but the estimate falls far short of the objective. However,

excellent work is being done by a few institutions; state authorities are showing a genuine interest and within the next ten years great advancement will be made.

excellent work is being done by a few institutions; state authorities are showing a genuine interest and within the next ten years great advancement will be made.

The Problem of Agricultural Education and Rural Teachers.

(1) The Problem of Agricultural Education and the training of teachers of agriculture will be dealt with first. It is a vocational problem and involves certain provisions and methods that do not concern elementary teachers of rural schools.

In 1930, the number of high schools offering courses in agriculture was approximately 5000. Considering that there were about 15,000 high schools in centres of fewer than 25000, it can be roughly estimated that vocational agriculture has penetrated into about a third of the rural high schools. The increase of junior high schools has not greatly improved this proportion as the greater number of these have been introduced in larger cities. The extent of the programme for adult farmers and for employed farm boys is not great. In 1930 about 1 per cent of the adult farmers of the United States were enrolled in federally reimbursed evening classes(1)

Expansion of the federally aided programme was helped by the enactment on February 5,1929, of the George Reed Act which provided funds for agricultural and home-making education over a five-year period. Under the Act, agricultural education received $250,000 during the first year, and $250,000 additional each year, until the naximum of $1,250,000 was reached in 1933-34. The funds were to be prorated to the States on the basis of farm population. (2)

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(1) Biennial Survey of Education, 1928-30.
(2) Studies in Vocational Education in Agriculture, Publication No. 1060, February 1930.

This fund is used by different states for various educational purposes. The general tendency has been to emphasize the high school programme in vocational agriculture more than the programme for employed formers and farm boys. So, states give grants to high schools that will offer a course under certain regulations. The grant is used for laboratory equipment, farm equipment, farm plots,etc. Part of it may be a grant to the teacher of the subject, if he has a certificate in agriculture.

The Land Grant Colleges, pioneer colleges of agriculture and vocational training partly endowed by returns from the sale of Federal lands in the state, have been assisted, as an additional $100,000 annually was granted from the Federal treasury to assist in agricultural research and the training of teachers of agriculture.

Other state and local uses of the grants are as follows: (1) To employ teachers and buy equipment for farmers' evening and part-time classes (2) To employ agricultural representatives, "county agents", in the counties (3) To encourage the organization of The Future Farmers of America and other Clubs (4) To employ "master teachers" or supervisors of the teaching of agriculture in certain regions (5) To provide for research in agriculture (6) To establish 4H. boys' and girls' clubs (7) For prizes and gifts to encourage better selection of seeds and farm animals (8) For radio broadcasts to advise farmers on farm production.

Having provided this extensive organization for the education of farmers, the state must train teachers, county agents and research workers to carry out the scheme. The greater number of these receive their training in the Land Grant Colleges. In fact the boards of these colleges insist that there is needless duplication, if an agriculture department is established in a teachers training college. They say that they have the facilities for agriculture education.(1) The training college may admit this but deny that the agricultural college gives the training in professional skill. The matter is being adjusted. Some of the recommendations of the survey staff, appointed to suggest improvements in the Land Grant Colleges, have since been acted upon by the colleges. There have been increased facilities in these institutions for the training of teachers. Affiliations for observation and practice teaching have been made. In certain states such as Iowa the Colleges are expected to train approximately as many teachers of agriculture as are required by the State. Courses for teachers of agriculture have been extended to include four years of study. Degrees are being granted that are accepted as being equal in status to Arts Degrees.

Only 6 teacher training college programmes of 60 selected, showed courses in agriculture. Others showed that courses in rural science were taught. A complete survey of Land Grant College programmes was not made, but

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(1) Survey of Land Grant Colleges and Universities, U.S.Bureau of Publications.

of those studied, all were giving teachers' courses.

It may be fairly concluded that the provision for the training of teachers of agriculture has centred around the Land Grant Colleges; that the training colleges are scarcely touching the field; that there is need for facilities for training a greater number of agriculture teachers; that summer courses are helping teachers-in-service with practical phases of their work.

The presence of an acute agriculture surplus problem throughout has intensified the desire to put into the teaching more that will aid young farmers in co-operative enterprise. Those who have charge of night schools take special courses in co-operative buying and selling. It is being realized by those in charge of the training of teachers of vocational agriculture that a scientific knowledge is not sufficient equipment for teaching the subject. There must be an understanding of practical farming and farm problems or the teaching becomes very academic. So the teachers arebeing given courses in sociology, agriculture economics, farm accounting, the history of agriculture and economic geography. The teachers also are being given courses in teaching, psychology, general method and education. The result of the co-ordinating of this scientific knowledge, the understanding of farm problems, and professional courses in teaching should be quite satisfactory. Much indeed has already been accomplished, but State Boards of Education need

to work in unison with the Colleges to insure a greater number of teachers, and to insure that they aretrained in methods of teaching.

(2) Rural Teachers.

There are in the United States a total of nearly 217,000 schools which are located in rural communities. These enroll nearly 11 million children and are taught by more than 400,000 teachers. Forty per cent of the entire group are teaching in one-room schools.

Mr Walter H.Gaumnitz, Senior Specialist in Rural Education, Bureau of Education, depicts the training of these teachers as follows: "If we were to imagine the 153,306 one-room teachers recently reported by the States as standing side by side, one every three feet, their ranks would extend for a distance of 87 1/10 miles. If this army of teachers were arranged in such a way that the one having received the least amount of training stood at one end and the one having the greatest amount of training at the other, a person reviewing this great company would find it necessary to walk a distance of 14¾ miles before coming to a teacher with a training longer than two years of high school. He would have to walk nearly half the entire distance before coming to one with more training than high school graduation. He would have to continue his walk for a distance of 66 4/5 miles before reaching the first teacher with the equivalent of two years of normal school education". (1)

There are other phases of the rural teacher situation that are startling. Eighty per cent of these rural teachers

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(1) Status of Teachers and Principals employed in the Rural Schools of the United States, U.S.Bureau of Education, Bulletin No.3,1932.

are girls, whose average age is about 21 years. They move from one school to another school frequently. Their salaries are low. They may teach from one to five years and leave the profession.

During the last ten years rural schools have been taught by those who, because of inability, were not invited into a field professionally and economically more attractive. This handicap is increased by the fact that the rural school situation offers greater difficulties and limitations than city school teaching. The presence of several grades, the lack of equipment, limited supervision, short terms, and irregular attendance, all add profoundly to the teacher's task.

During the decade, 1918-1928, city school enrolments increased 22.4 per cent, while rural school enrolment decreased 9.6 per cent. This reflects the general trend of population movement from the country to the city during that time. During the last four years, 1930-1934, there has been a "back-to-the-land" movement but the rural school population has increased but little. Consolidated schools increased on an average of 1000 yearly from 1924 to 1930, but the building costs have reduced the increase. So statistics show that the training institutions have not been able to produce the type of teacher described by Edward Hyatt, formerly State Superintendent of Schools in California. He said: " The teacher must be able to take the

rural child in its own little world and lead it along the pathway of life, directing its native alibities, sentiments, and powers, and there develop in the child breast a sympathy with its environment, and in the child mind an understanding of nature's ways - then, once awakened to the surpassing beauties of the rural environment, the American boy and girl will no longer be in danger of deserting the farm for the man-made glitter of the city". (1)

What provision is made for the training of rural teachers? There are three types of institutions concerned in the answer to these questions and there are scores of different kinds of courses.

Many teachers arebeing trained, although inadequately, in high schools. This type oftraining originated in New York State in 1834, antedating the establishment of the first public normal school, in Massachusetts, by a period of five years. In 1922 approximately 1600 training classes were in operation in the high schools of the United States, with an enrolment of 30,000 students and an output of 15,000 graduates. (2) The curriculum covers a year's work, which is usually concentrated in the senior or graduate year of the high-school course. The instruction for the most part consists of a review of the common-school

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(1) Hyatt, E.-"How not to Train Rural Teachers" - N.E.A. proceedings, 1916, page 1026.
(2) Carney, Mabel - The Rural-Teacher Situation in the United States, Bureau of Education, 1923.

subjects and of brief courses in child psychology, the teaching process, and rural school management. Some observation and practice teaching is provided.

These schools are gradually expanding into full-fledged two-year normal schools with a practice school attached or are reverting to academic high schools. Some reasons for this are (1) lack of students, since there is an over-supply of teachers, (2) state regulations, (3) no grants except to central training institutions, (4) State certification demands.

The great number of rural teachers are now being trained at county normal schools. These local institutions have a one or two-year course for the preparation of rural teachers. They are quite accessible to rural areas, where rural practice schools may be reached. Some of these schools, following the recommendations of a conference of Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools present a double course, (1) Rural School Teaching (2) Rural Education. The problems to receive attention in the first are: (1) the combining of subjects and the grouping of pupils (2) unit teaching and the integration of subjects (3) materials of teaching (4) care of health, etc. Problems discussed in the second course are: (1) organization of rural schools (2) teachers' relationship to school officials (3) financing the rural school (4) social welfare agencies.

The Rural Teacher courses at the State Teachers College may be called the courses of the Specialists in Rural Education. The extent and nature of the course needs little comment. Graduates may become Principals, Supervisors, Visiting Teachers, or Class Teachers. The length of the course varies between two and four years. The programme of the Rural Course at Northern Illinois State Teachers College is typical. The subjects of study are as follows: (1) Introduction to Teaching, General Psychology for Teachers, Technique of Instruction, Reading for Rural Schools, Problems in Rural Education, Student Teaching, Composition, Literature, Art, Arithmetic, Music for Rural Schools, Games, Rhythm, Rural School Sports, Nature Study, Hygiene, Physical Science, Geography, American History, Regional Geography, Rural Sociology.

Graduate Courses in Rural Science are being given at many colleges. Most of these courses are professional in nature.(2) At Teachers College, Columbia University, the first specialized course in rural education was offered by Professor F.G.Bonser in the summer of 1912. There were 31 students enrolled. In 1934 there were more than 200 students. Cornell University, Ohio State University, and Peabody College of Teachers have large enrolments in

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(1) Annual Catalogue, Northern Illinois State Teachers College, De Kalb, Illinois.

(2) Miss Katherine Cook, Chief of the Rural Education Department, U.S.Bureau of Education gives interesting data in "Professional Preparation of Teachers of Rural Schools."

Rural Education courses, both in intra-mural and summer school courses.

In conclusion, it does seem that the problem of providing more adequate training for rural teachers will not be solved until teaching conditions in rural areas improve. Higher pay for the teacher, better status, more suitable equipment and community life, will attract to rural areas the proper type of teacher. With greater enthusiasm for these posts the institutions for the training of teachers will have little difficulty in providing suitable courses.

The Problem of Cultural Education.

A brief explanation of the word "cultural" should be made. For purposes of this study only Music and Art education will be discussed under this heading. It is not intended that a new meaning should be associated with the word "cultural" but merely that the word should serve to combine two subjects of the school course. It is quite evident that in the actual correlation of subjects in school, the art is more closely associated with the industrial arts and technical subjects.

(1) Art.

"Art education in the United States has never been on a firmer footing than at the present time. It faces a future secure in the knowledge that during the past 10 years its social, economic and educational values have been demonstrated and acknowledged and generally put into practice".(1) With this assurance from an Educational Art Director, writing in an official publication, the chapter may be devoted largely to the training of the teachers who have been so successful in the teaching of art.

Since the changes in the aims and methods of art teaching have influenced the training of art teachers, two periods of art history will be discussed briefly. Pioneer settlers in America were too much concerned about establishing homes as shelter to think about the decoration of them. The

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(1) Farnum, R.B. - "Art Education" -Biennial Survey of Education.

women contrived some simple decoration to relieve the monotony of bare, rough-hewn walls. When the school was built the master taught the young settlers to read and to write. There was some drawing of pictures and later some painting, but art was generally believed to be effeminate, and a "frill" to the school curriculum. For many years it remained thus, and until the period just preceding the World War a general recognition of the value of art in education did not exist. Numerous factors paved a way for present trends, among them the establishment of schools of art and design, national and international expositions, and the development of manufacturing industry in small communities having excellent water power.

After the Great War traditions in education began to be questioned and set aside. School surveys and curricula studies, often with a scientific expert in charge, began to advocate sweeping changes. The old drawing lesson in a segregated series of 3 thirty minute periods a week, with painting as the chief activity, was criticized. Art and music were given a new meaning and adopted into the enlarging fold of general school activities. Art was to be correlated with other subjects. The art teacher became the centre of a great field of activity; for example, school and community functions require the services of the art department for publicity and school dramatics require costuming, stage properties, curtains, posters, and lighting. Indeed

most projects devised by other teachers need the artist's advice. Thus a new era in art education began.

A new type of art teacher has helped to bring this new era. The art teacher must now specialize in art during training work but also requires a broad educational background. (1) The Federated Council on Art Education held in Washington, D.C. in 1930 accepted the following resolutions: (2)

1. In meeting the requirements of an art teacher in high schools, there should be personal qualifications as follows: Good health, attractive appearance, skill in oral expression, tactfulness, initiative, co-operation, and a definite interest in art education and the teaching profession.

2. There should be required a general culture and training as follows: Command of English, Literature, Sociology, Educational Psychology, History of Education, Principles of Education, Curriculum construction, etc.

3. There should be required a technical and professional training in the art field and this training and personal achievement should include (a) graphic experience (b) design (c) handicrafts (d) art appreciation.

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(1) Whitford, Wm G. -An Introduction to Art Education, D.Appleton & Co., N.Y. - 1929.
(2) Minutes of the Federated Council on Art Education.

A comparison of training college curricula was made. In the general courses which are intended to prepare students for a general high school certificate, art was an elective. Where the student did "major" work in a certain subject, that he might be a specialist, e.g. in mathematics or English, Art was an elective but was chosen by relatively few students. In many of the smaller high schools, a teacher would be required to teach more than one subject. Unless teachers had a special interest in art, they hesitated to accept this as a secondary subject. If the student did "major" work in Art to become an art specialist or a supervisor of Art, the course required at the training college was usually similar to the following: Art Orientation, Figure Composition, Colour Theory, Free-hand Drawing, Design, Art appreciation, Organization, Painting, Prints, besides certain Education, Psychology, English, and Social Science courses. In the larger training colleges four years of study were required.

The fact that art has been added to the Junior High School curriculum in the United States in the last ten years has stimulated art activity both in the elementary school and in the senior high school. Art work in junior high school courses varies from talks on art appreciation to shopwork and the application of colour and design to form in various materials. This may involve work in metal, leather, wood, paper, textile fabrics, and clay. So the

teacher of Junior High School art must have training in manual arts and in the practice of the Fine Arts, as well as in the aesthetic appreciation of art.

The greatest changes have been effected in art for elementary schools. It is generally recognized as a compulsory subject in all grades, Instead of being recognized as a recreational subject, there is usually a definite course of study directed by a supervisor who makes weekly visits to direct the work. The teacher of the grade, then, will receive assistance from one who has been specifically trained to direct the teaching of art. In certain schools, the classes according to a certain time table go to the art room where the lesson is conducted by a special teacher of art.

In preparation for the post of grade teachers, Art is a compulsory subject. The special art teachers take the grade teacher certificate and a special course in art at the training college. Further training is received at summer courses. The supervisor obtains his or her training at a training college with a four-year course for teachers of Art. If an art degree or certificate has been received from an academy or college of art, further training in teaching will be necessary to qualify as a supervisor of Art.

A few of the training schools that are doing special creative work and research in the teaching of art are:

The Woodbury School in applied observation, Ogunquit,Mi.; Brown University, Rhode Island; Cleveland Museum of Art; Berkshire Summer School of Art, Monterey, Mass. The Rhode Island School of Design has prepared teachers of Art for technical and industrial schools.

There has been a demand for teachers of commercial art for night classes. The school boards have appointed local commercial artists to teach these classes, but with an increased number of properly qualified teachers of art, day and night classes may be taught by the same teacher.

In conclusion, the training colleges and with them are all colleges of art, are placing art on a new plane in education. They are changing the subject matter and the aims of the course. Appreciation of the beautiful, art in industry, art in the home, art in dress, and free expression are taking the place of the old drawing lesson. Teachers are urged to encourage talent where it is found. The city areas with art galleries and modern shops provide a much superior art education for the pupils than rural areas.

Music in Education.

Prior to the World War, the piano in the home was considered an evidence of respectability, and every child of cultured parents was expected to "take music lessons". Nowadays, the automobile has become the token of financial standing, the moving picture supplies diversion and the radio provides music. Yet within the past few years music education in the schools has increased. There are many reasons for this new and changed interest in a very old subject. (1) A greater amount of leisure time calls for cultural interests, (2) The popular tunes of the radio are hummed, whistled and sung in the home and street. (3)School orchestras, bands, glee clubs and operas have developed to entertain and to provide funds for school activities and social functions. (4) Approximately 80 % of the colleges are accepting entrance credit in Music and offering instruction in Music. (5) Organizations of Music Teachers have established Research Councils and by radio and press popularized this subject. (6) Music foundations have been established for the advancement of the study of music, e.g. The Eastern Foundation, The Presser Foundation. (7) School graduates have found music helpful and necessary in radio posts.

State certification of school music teachers and supervisors now requires formal preparation in recognized institutions along definitely specified lines. While there is still wide variation in different states, there

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seems to be a gradual approach toward agreement as to the proportion of required academic education, and music studies.

Larger cities now insist that music teachers shall hold the bachelor's degree. The master's degree is expected of most musicians occupying important executive positions as supervisors in the schools. Higher qualifications are expected than for similar posts ten years ago.

A brief survey of music education in the schools may help one to understand the problem of training music teachers for these schools. There are three phases of the elementary school course in music; singing, appreciation, and playing upon instruments. Teachers are urged to pay less attention to sight-reading and technical points and more to the learning of beautiful songs for their aesthetic value. Within the past ten years, the entire subject of music appreciation has come to be accepted practically everywhere as an integral and vital part of music education. The technique of teaching music appreciation has been completely changed. Passive listening has been displaced by comparison, discrimination, judgment, and feeling, expressed by the student. The essence of the new teaching seems to be that the pupil must be led to inquire "What does the music say?" The advent of radio has brought about excellent opportunity for the subject of music criticism and appreciation. Teachers discuss with their pupils the selections

to be presented by Philharmonic and Symphony Orchestras, and a better appreciation of music and radio results. Instrumental activities vary from the toy band of the kindergarten to the school orchestra. The teacher of music in the school should now have some experience in orchestra work to meet this need. There is a growing tendency also to effect a co-operation between music and eurhythmics.

When junior high schools began to be organized, the place of music on the curriculum seemed to have been in doubt. This was partly due to the fact that teachers of music for pupils at this level were not available. A new demand confronted the teacher training institutions and several years passed before they were able to supply the necessary teachers of music.

There is now a tendency towards making general music in the seventh year (1st year J.H.S.) a compulsory study. In the eighth year (2nd year J.H.S.) classes are usually combined into larger courses with part singing, while still requiring general music. The ninth year seems more and more tending toward placing music on a purely elective basis, though the assembly period strongly emphasizes singing.

The most conspicuous development in high-school music during the past decade has been the work of orchestras and bands. In many places this has been an extra-curriculum

activity; but there has been steady progress toward placing it among subjects regularly scheduled during school hours and carrying school credit. Choral organizations have been developed in high schools in widely separate parts of the country. One other tendency in high school music should be noted, and that is toward placing all music activities on an elective basis. This included music studied with outside teachers.

According to a Survey of College Entrance Credits and College Courses in Music, many of these tendencies in music study and music teaching are being directed from teacher-preparing institutions. (It is true that National and local Music organizations have arranged contests to urge school orchestra, band and choral teaching.) One might judge from the courses in Normal schools and state training colleges that music is being adequately taught. This was not so in 1928. Then, the National Recreation Association undertook a project of developing music in small towns and rural districts. When requested by the New York State Education Department to develop a better system in this state, it was necessary to do four things:(1)

(1) To interpret to school boards in small towns the value of appointing teachers of music.

(2) To see that a sufficient number of qualified music teachers were trained.

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(1) Biennial Survey of Education in United States, 1928-30.

(3) To arrange for placing teachers.

(4) To establish festival centres.

Perhaps music has been a subject of most training college curricula from the beginning. The change has been in objective. Whereas at one time students were taught to sing by the rote and tonic solfa methods, that they in turn might teach their pupils to sing by the same methods, we now read of such objectives associated with music courses as: aesthetic, creative, disciplinary, emotional and ethical, leisure time, physical, social, and vocational. Music is compulsory for elementary teachers in the training college and they study: ear training, development of a sense of rhythm, care and development of the voice, the staff and its notation, music reading, song repertoires, appreciation of beauty in music and instrumental work For supervisors such courses are presented as: Elements of Music, Harmony, Choir, Voice Culture, History and Literature of music, Piano, Counterpoint, Orchestra, Band, Applied Music. The Michigan Normal College bulletin contains 47 music courses for 1934-35. In 1924-25 the Calendar of the same college contained four courses. Whereas two music Instructors presented the courses ten years ago, now there are two Professors, two Associate Professors, and four Instructors of Music with an affiliated Conservatory with nineteen teachers.

Music has many sponsors in its new career and one

of its most vital supporters in the United States is the teacher training college.

The Problem of Religious Education.

A nation of nations, whose population has been made largely from decreasing tides of immigration, suffers the dilution of the religious fervour of its pioneers. The United States in its growth has not developed a typical national religion. Puritans, Quakers, Methodists, Lutherans, Roman Catholics, Hebrews have been allowed to adhere to their religious beliefs, It would not be possible then to attach a denominational label to a composite American. He believes in God. He favours the inclusion of the Ten Commandments in the Statutes. He would not admit that the problem to be studied here is a national one and has been for the last ten years.

There are several evidences of the decline of the Christian Religion in the United States and the Training of Teachers has altered slightly to meet the problem. The rather delicate ground on which the writer treads will be supported by arguments advanced by Norman Woelfel in his very excellent study - "Molders of the American Mind".

Pragmatism and experimental naturalism have, during and since the war, been displacing Idealism. James and Watsonian philosophies of education are becoming philosophies of life. In these days of rapid communication, the thoughts of the wise more quickly influence the actions of the people. The University Professor of Philosophy is a writer and a public lecturer as well, whereas in the

early university he was a minister and often associated with the Theology Faculty. It is not suggested that is a retrograde step, but it may be evidence of the decline of the religious influence on life. It is not suggested that philosophers tell the people to give up their religious beliefs, but that the layman's reaction to his schooling, his reading, his association with others is a diminution of faith.

Whereas at one time his standards of conduct were bolstered by the Sunday sermon and the weekly prayer-meeting, now commercialized entertainment, the lure of quick transportation to new environment, and the seeming need for recreation make the Sabbath a day of outing. Standards of behaviour and conduct are influenced then by cinema, drama and magazine, and "people attend church and participate actively in religious undertakings in the degree to which they are touched by the genius of a pastor".(1) Social agencies are supplementing or replacing the work of organized religion. Social service associations, welfare organizations, red cross societies, 4H. clubs and community ventures are promoting charity and goodwill, while Service Clubs, and Lodges satisfy the gregarious urge.

A most serious phase of the trend, perhaps, is a fact that in many cases, organized associations of labour are anti-religious. A proletarian church may be secretly urged.

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(1) Wolfel, Norman -"Moulders of the American Mind", Columbia University Press, 1933.

If the working man builds his own church, it will disturb the very foundation of the middle-class church. The increasing insecurity of the life of the common man, the inward dissatisfaction with his lot and the failure of capitalistic ambitions have disturbed his soul. Church pews made empty during a glittering material advance are not being filled in a depression. "The resources of the Christian tradition seem inadequate to give the understanding and consolation essential to personal integrity." (1)

Perhaps incompetence in understanding social conditions may have magnified the view. At any rate, to estimate the awareness of the problem, it will be well to study the extent of religious training in teachers colleges.

Practically all of the States have constitutional or statutory provisions which expressly prohibit sectarian instruction or the teaching of religious doctrines or tenets in the public schools, and in all States such prohibition is either expressed or implied. It has been held that public funds cannot be used for sectarian purposes. However, Bible reading in public schools is now expressly required by statute in eleven States (also in the District of Columbia); it is specifically permitted by law in five States; and it is generally construed as lawful in twenty of the thirty-two remaining States whose constitutions and statutes do not expressly require, permit, or forbid it. (2)

With this background of legal information on religious

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(1) Wolfel, Norman, "Moulders of the American Mind" - Columbia University Press - 1933.

(2) Keesecker, Ward W., - Legal Status of Bible Reading and Religious Instruction in Public Schools - U.S.Bulletin, No. 14 - 1930.

education, we shall expect to find little provision in the training college. Private teacher training colleges with a denominational bias give instruction in the religion concerned. Public training colleges refer to religious activities in terms of clubs rather than courses. A questionnaire was sent to seventy-five colleges concerning chapel attendance. The questions asked of the institutions and a digest of the responses follows:

1. How often do you have chapel exercises?

14 colleges hold chapel 1 time per week.
16 colleges hold chapel 2 times per week.
6 colleges hold chapel 3 times per week.
3 colleges hold chapel 4 times per week.
1 college never holds chapel.

2. Is chapel attendance compulsory?

29 colleges make attendance compulsory.
14 colleges do not make attendance compulsory.

There is little hope that training colleges will contribute much to the extension of religious education, not because of lack of interest, perhaps, but because of legal objections. The teacher gets no training in the teaching of religion in the normal school or training college. He is not allowed to give religious education in school. He will, of course, give moral training, character training, and citizenship training, but there are educators who believe that there should be religious education as well.

Although this discussion of Religious Education is intended to be a general survey, mention should be made of the Yiddish teachers Seminaries that prepare teachers for

the 210 Yiddish secular schools in America and the Jesuit, Oblate and other Catholic orders whose seminaries prepare thousands of religious and lay teachers for Catholic separate schools. An interesting study of secular education was made by Confrey, in "Secularism in American Education". (1) There is a very definite controversy over the advisability of presenting Bible instruction in the public schools and it is not likely to be settled as long as there are distinct religious prejudices.

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(1) Confrey, Burton, - Secularism in American Education, its History - Catholic University Press, Washington, D.C. 1931.

The Problem of Homemaking and Family Life.

The recent report of the Bureau of Census of the United States shows that in ten years the number of divorces has doubled. Home life seems to have become less stable. Marriages increase, but their permanence decreases. It is estimated that in America to-day there is one broken home for each seven or eight families and one divorce for every six marriages. More than one of every eight children is reared to manhood or womanhood in a disrupted family which was wrecked by divorce or separation. Incompatibility is the plaintiff's plea. Perhaps those concerned married when too young. Perhaps they had never learned the seriousness of marriage. Perhaps they lived as unwelcome guests with relatives. Perhaps they were not suited. Perhaps they married in haste. Perhaps, in the stress of economic circumstance the wife must work to support the home. Perhaps the pioneer supervision and apprenticeship of the girl in the home have disappeared. Perhaps the girl was too busy getting an education to learn to be a successful wife.

Within the last ten years, the school has assumed a greater share of the education of home-makers. Detroit in 1930 had 213 specially equipped rooms in 85 elementary, 15 intermediate, and 2 vocational schools with 200 teachers offering instruction in this field. Home economics is required of every fifth, sixth, seventh and eighth grade girl in Philadelphia. For 1930-31 Baltimore reported that

home economics was taught in 150 elementary, 19 junior high, 5 senior high, 2 vocational, 13 evening schools, and 4 prevocational centres, with 184 teachers in all.

Perhaps impetus was given the movement for teaching home economics by this direction of Former President Hoover; "The unit of American life is the family and the home. It vibrates through every hope of the future. It is the economic unit as well as the moral and spiritual unit. For the perfecting of this unit of national life we must bend all of our material and scientific ingenuity". (1)

Dr Cooper, Commissioner of Education, recognized the change in American home life by directing the Supervisors and Teachers of Home Economics as follows: "Salvage from the old-fashioned home of yesterday all that will seem suitable to the new environment; and leave in the ruins the household drudgery and economic slavery of women". (2)

Educators, Economists, President and Press have stressed this as an educational problem. New objectives have been devised. With increased emphasis there is an increased demand and need for Teachers of Home Economics. Directors of this department in the Training Colleges have come to the conclusion that the main function of home making education is not merely to teach the girls to cook and to sew but to teach them to contribute towards home and family

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(1) The White House Conference on Child and Family Welfare - Proceedings, 1930.
(2) Fourth National Conference of Supervisors and Teachers of Home Economics - Boston, Mass. July, 1929.

life. Here a working knowledge of the processes carried on in the home, economy of foods, and desire to participate in a variety of unspecified, enjoyable, and fruitful spare-time activities are essential.

Whereas at one time the teacher of this subject was trained in a private girls' school, or in a School of Household Science, or in a Technical College that gave short courses in Cooking and Sewing, now the Training Colleges are offering courses that are more than trade courses in household skills. From reading the courses of study of the Training Colleges, evidence of the change of subject matter of home economics is shown in the following list: (a) knowledge of the planning, decorating, and furnishing of the house; of its care, management, and hospitality: (b) understanding of the wise budgeting of time and money to maintain the home with efficiency: (c) factors in purchasing the family's food: (d) principles in the selection and furnishing of the home from the standpoint of good design and cost: (e) principles in the selection and serving of well-planned meals: (f) family relationships: (g) food studies and health: (h) home nursing: (i) thrift and aesthetics: (k) education for parenthood.

A typical curriculum for teachers of Home Economics (selected from 40 college Bulletins) includes the following:

5 courses in Languages and Literature
1 course in Bacteriology
4 courses in Chemistry
1 course in Household Laboratory Physics
1 course in Psychology
1 course in Physiology
3 courses in Social Science
1 course in Economics
3 courses in Education
2 courses in Teaching Methods
3 courses in Fine Arts
9 courses in Home Economics
1 course in Lunchroom Management
1 course in Housewifery
1 course in Textiles
1 course in Marketing
2 courses in Home Management
2 courses in Physical Training and Health
3 courses in Rhetoric
1 course in Handwriting
3 Electives.

Considering that "homemakers" in the United States spend nearly $30,000,000,000 annually for foods, clothing, and household equipment, (1) the problem of preparing prospective homemakers for their work is an economic as well as a social one. Teacher training institutions are meeting the demands of the public for better trained teachers in this very important phase of education. It might be suggested that all teachers trained should share part of the training of the specialist in the field. Not all schools can afford specialists in home economics, but all must have grade teachers. These should receive some instruction in this work that they may deal with the problem in the smaller schools.

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(1) Vocational Education and Changing Conditions, U.S.Bulletin, No.174, 1934,

## ONTARIO

Introduction.

Canada has nine provinces each of which is autonomous in education affairs. The opening words of subsection 93 of the British North America Act are, "In and for each province the Legislature may exclusively make laws in relation to Education". These were repeated or made applicable in the constitutions of the provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta, so that there have grown up provincial systems of education with initiative and control, the prerogative of legislative assemblies.

In contrast the United States Constitution did not direct the attention of individual states of the union to education laws. Church, philanthropy and necessity fashioned early schools and the direction of these was later assumed by the legislatures while the Federal government's paternal concern occasionally took the form of land or money grants. Each state system, as it grew, learned from the pioneering successes of its neighbours which were assisted in turn.

Ontario, however, has not had immediate neighbours with similar educational problems which could be shared. The Federal Parliament of Canada has adhered closely to its Central affairs with no interference with provincial rights, (1) one of the most important of which was the

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(1) The Federal votes of money assistance to Agricultural and Technical Education have not been regarded as interference.

building of an educational system. The study of the history of education in Canada shows certain identical elements in the provincial systems which would suggest that there had been central influences even though they were neither constitutional nor tangible. If this be true they are tendencies which have developed since the control and direction of education became centralized in the Departments of Education.

Responsibility for planning and promoting the school programme is conferred by law "upon the Minister and his Department, who derive all authority from the Legislature."(1) Can the Training Colleges of the Province then be commended or condemned for their influence on social, economic and political problems with a closely supervised state control of their activities? If it is difficult to separate the institution from the State in tracing influences can we yet define the influences?

"The chief duties of the Department continue to be the training and certification of teachers, the framing of courses of study, the authorization of textbooks, the payment of grants from the Legislative appropriations of money in aid of education, and such general outlook on education as enables it to promote advanced legislation."(2) Does this acknowledgment of a minister in office invest in his

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(1) Report of the Minister of Education for Ontario - 1925.
(2) Report of the Minister of Education - 1927.

Department the influences as well as the authority? After a brief study of contacts between Central control and parts of the system, the tendencies of teacher training in Ontario will be discussed.

The elementary school teacher in Ontario is expected to perform many duties including: - maintenance of order, care of the pupil's health, organization of the school, inculcation of respect for religion and Christian morality and the highest regard for truth, justice, loyalty, love for country, humanity, benevolence, sobriety, industry, frugality, purity, temperance, and all other virtues. (1) His one and a half pages of "Duties" in the Public Schools Act set forth very definitely the standards of work that are expected of him by The Department of Education. The first of these duties and one required of teachers in the Secondary Schools as well, is, "To teach diligently and faithfully the subjects in the course of study as prescribed by the regulations....." (2) He must use definite text-books which are authorized. His pupils submit to an examination controlled from the Education Department. Because of the control over his activities it has been suggested in a recent study that the functioning of a teacher is limited to " 1) mastering the material in the text-book, 2) trying out methods he has heard of for handling the prescribed subject matter," (3) His problems,

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(1) & (2) Public Schools Act - 1920. Section 5, page 67.
(3) Langford, H.D. - Educational Service: Its functions and Possibilities - Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931.

then, are concerned with "(i) methods of presenting and reviewing the material, and (ii) methods of maintaining a type of classroom discipline which will enable him to present the material in an orderly way".(1) Another study points out a handicap to teachers who are a part of this system: "The Collegiate Institutes (Secondary Schools) number on their staffs many teachers of real ability, but these find little scope for their abilities and in the course of a few years they tend to become reconciled to the dull round and settle down to become cogs in the wheel. There is complete uniformity of method. The machine works but it has a tendency to get into ruts from which the overworked officers of the department (Education) have no time to spare from routine work to get it out". (2)

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(1) Langford, H.D. - Educational Service: Its Functions and Possibilities - Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931.

(2) Board of Education Pamphlets, No. 53. Secondary Education in Ontario. - Mr Savage, the author, "one of the Board's Inspectors of Secondary Schools" exchanged duties with one of the Ontario High School Inspectors in 1926.

Training College Courses.

The Department of Education plays the role of adviser as well as that of dictator. The founder of the system, Dr Ryerson, borrowed plans from many countries and incorporated these into regulations and school acts. The direction of the system was thus determined in its infancy. From the preceding evidence one may judge that there is yet much of state control, but there are many evidences of growing freedom in the schools and in school activities. Responsibility for examination of pupils at the Lower, Middle and Upper School levels has been returned to a large extent to the high school staffs. (1) The Examination for Entrance to High School has been reserved for those who have not been recommended by the Elementary School Principals. Suggestions and resolutions from teaching bodies frequently receive Departmental support and become regulations. Questionnaires were sent recently to Inspectors and Training School masters to guide the Minister in revision of the Normal School courses. The Ontario Educational Association, the great organization of teachers and trustees of the province has many open forums where discussions on many phases of school work are led by officers of the Department and teachers in service. (2)

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(1) Papers are set by the Department of Education examiners for those pupils not recommended for certificates by the staff.

(2) Proceedings of the Ontario Educational Association, 1924 - 1934.

Approaching the present study more closely the question is asked, "What amount of 'freedom' is allowed to the training colleges? A brief survey of the system of training in the province will be necessary in order to answer this.

The High School Assistant's Certificate necessary for teaching in a High (Secondary) School is obtained after the completion of a professional course of training of one year at the Ontario College of Education. (1) The academic qualification necessary to enter this course is a certificate of graduation as Bachelor or Master of Arts, Bachelor or Master of Science, Bachelor of Commerce, or Bachelor of Agriculture, from a British University approved by the Minister of Education.

The High School Specialist's Certificate is awarded to students who complete the Specialist's course at the Ontario College of Education, having previously obtained an Honour or Specialist's degree from one of the Ontario Universities or other University whose Honour Course is approved for this certificate by the Minister. The Interim Teaching Certificate may be made permanent after two years of successful service as a High School Specialist. Holders of High School Assistants' certificates may qualify through Summer Courses for Specialists' certificates in Art, Physical Culture, and Commercial Subjects.

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(1) The Interim Certificate obtained may be made Permanent after two years of successful teaching in a High School.

The High School Principal's Certificate is granted to persons holding a University degree approved by the Minister of Education, a Permanent High School Assistant's certificate, after having completed three years of successful teaching in a High School or Collegiate Institute.

A First Class Certificate, valid for teaching in a Public Elementary or Separate School or Continuation School, (1) is obtained from the Department of Education after successful completion of a one-year professional course at one of the seven Normal Schools of the Province, the academic qualifications being a five-year Secondary School course with certain compulsory subjects.

The Second Class Certificate granted until this year, to successful teachers having completed one-year of professional training at a Normal School after a course to middle School in the Secondary School (approximately 4 years), will not be issued by the Department of Education after the year 1935. (2)

The Kindergarten-Primary Course presented as a professional course at Toronto Normal School and as a series of Summer School courses at other Normal Schools is intended to prepare teachers for positions in Kindergarten-Primary, or Primary work.

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(1) Continuation School Regulations state that the First Class Certificate is valid for Principalship of a Grade C. Continuation School and as Assistant in Grade B. Continuation School, with Specialist Certificate.
(2) Normal School Regulations, Department of Education, 1934 - 1935.

Thus, there two types of training colleges in Ontario for regular teachers, the Normal School and the University College of Education. The Normal Schools, of which there are seven in the Province, follow the regulations and courses of study arranged by the Department of Education. A Director of Professional Training acts as Inspector of Normal Schools and advises the Department concerning changes he thinks necessary for the improved training of teachers. The Principals of the Normal Schools meet the Director and Officials of the Department once or twice a year to discuss Certification of teachers and any problems that arise in their work. All applications for admission to the Normal Schools must be made directly to the Deputy Minister of Education. There are no personal interviews with students. The student must, however, send a certificate of birth, a medical certificate, and a character reference.

The course at the Normal School may be divided into 3 parts, as follows: Lectures on Methods of teaching the different subjects and Principles of Method; Observation and Practice teaching; Instruction in special subjects, such as Art, Music, Manual Training, Physical Training, Household Science. Besides these there are extra-curricular activities including Literary Society meetings, Athletics, Orchestra, Choir, Social Events. Lectures in Methods are given in the forenoons, the students being

divided into sections which go from one Master's classroom to another in a certain order. All students observe lessons being taught by the teachers in the Practice Schools for one hour per week. Each student is required to teach at least one lesson per week and observe lessons taught by other students for criticism. The regular teacher of the class judges the value of each lesson taught by a Normal student, but the values of the last sixteen lessons taught by the student are averaged for a final mark in teaching. During the latter part of the school year each student is required to take complete charge of a class for continuous half-day or full-day teaching. From the above description there seem to be many regulations which must be followed. Actually the Principal of the Normal School can make many adjustments and many changes in the suggested courses. There must be certain reports and certain statistical information sent to the Department of Education. Otherwise the requirements are not extensive.

The organization of work in the College of Education for the training of High School teachers is similar to that of the Normal Schools. The Principal of the College has the rank of Dean in the University and of his staff four men hold the rank of Professor. The Professorships are Psychology, History of Education, Science of Education and School Administration. There are lectures on the

methods of each branch of Secondary School study and the specialist student is concerned with his own field of work. A large Boys' School in the same building provides facilities for Experimental work in Education and for part of the Practice teaching. For further practice teaching the High Schools of the City of Toronto are used.

Ontario is a large province with a scattered population. The cost of the training of teachers is borne by the Provincial Government, the students paying no fees. Perhaps it would be better to have fewer Normal Schools and have them located in University centres but the cost to pupils for transportation would be very great. Whether it is a virtue or a fault the different training colleges each serve a local area. Changes arebeing made in the courses for teachers, some of which will be described in the next part.

Teacher Training Tendencies.

The most significant change in the training courses presented at the Normal Schools during the last ten years was the rise and wane of the Second Year Normal Course. Made compulsory by Departmental Regulation in 1928 after a very careful study of teaching personnel, the oversupply of teachers, and the recommendations of Teachers' Federations, the new course provided:-

"Under the present regulations provision is made for a two-year Normal School Course leading to a teacher's certificate valid for life upon good behaviour. Candidates who complete successfully the course of the first year will be granted Interim certificates valid for four years. (1) The holder of an Interim certificate, who has taught successfully thereon for at least two years, may be admitted to the course of the second year to train for a permanent certificate." (2)

During the years 1931 - 1932, 1932 - 1933, courses for permanent certificates were offered to voluntary students at the Toronto Normal School. About 150 teachers availed themselves of the opportunity of improving their professional standing. The Second Year Course, introduced to all Normal Schools in the years 1933 - 1934, required the attendance of all teachers of the 1928 - 1929 class who wished to continue teaching. It was attended by approximately 800 teachers. The purpose of the course was

(1) Extended to five years by Regulation of 1932.
(2) Regulations and Examinations of the Normal Schools of Ontario - 1929.

to give the teacher a broader view of his work and of its problems and to assist him to improve his academic as well as his professional standing.

"The purpose of the Second Year Course is, therefore, twofold. First, by making use of his two or more years of practical experience, it is intended to give the teacher better appreciation of his previous training, to correct the possible errors in the methods employed by him, to establish what in his experience has proved to be sound and valuable, and to give him such added experience as his school-room practice has shown to be necessary. In the second place, it is intended to extend the work of the first year in such a way as to improve the professional and academic qualifications of the teacher. It will be both a refresher and an extension course." (1)

To improve the academic qualifications of the teachers-in-training of the Second Year, advanced work in English and History was presented. Optional courses in Science or Languages were added. Courses were offered to add to professional qualifications for the following Certificates: Elementary Certificate in Art, in Agriculture, in Music, in Physical Education, in Manual Training, and in Household Science. Formerly these were obtained from Summer School study. There was an attempt to divide the students into two groups according to their interest in rural education or

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(1) Regulations, Courses of Study and Regulations of the Normal School of Ontario, Second Year Course, 1933 - 1934.

urban education with a special course in each. The permanent certificates awarded however were valid for both rural and urban schools without regard to the particular course which the student had selected.

The Second Year Course was discontinued asfrom 1934. Interim Certificates continue to be awarded but with no definite directions as to the requirements for Permanent Professional Certificates. Many reasons are advanced for the withdrawal of the Second Year Course. The Political reason predominated as the withdrawal was coincident with the defeat of the Government party whose Minister of Education had introduced the course. The economic reasons were = low teaching salaries, expense of attendance, difficulty of obtaining new positions, lack of popular recognition of the certificate.

Was the course satisfactory in view of its dual purpose? From the answers to a questionnaire sent to 345 students in two Normal Schools in 1934 at the close of their course, it was learned that: (i) all students found the course academically and professionally beneficial to them, (ii) 68% believed the course to be difficult because of the amount of work to be covered, (iii) 71% preferred greater specialization, (iv) 29% believed that the course should be discontinued, (v) 65% were definite that the plan was more satisfactory from a training point of view than the plan of requiring two consecutive years of training.

This will serve as a statistical summary of student judgments. It is now possible to compare the merits of these teachers before and after their training. Reports from inspectors state that the most satisfactory teachers attended the course, and that the weaker teachers had withdrawn from the profession before the end of the five year probation period. The teaching of the Second Year group was consistently 10 to 12% higher than that of the First Year group in the same training school.

At present there is an excess of trained teachers in the province and a careful estimate after much investigation is that about two-thirds of the total number who attended the Second Year courses are this year (1935) unemployed. It is not a reflection on their ability but suggests that the preference that was expected was not given to these students by the school boards.

Another tendency in teacher training that is consistent with that of other countries, is the raising of the entrance requirements to higher levels. After the 1934-1935 course, candidates for admission to the Normal Schools must hold an Upper School Certificate obtained after five years of study at a Secondary School. No further Interim Second Class Certificates will be issued. As the Upper School work corresponds to first year University work in Ontario, it follows that all later graduates of the training school for elementary school teachers will have had

the equivalent of first year University academic work. The subjects are - English, History; any two of Algebra, Geometry, Trigonometry; and any two of Latin, Greek, French, German (or Spanish), Biological Science (Botany and Zoology), Physical Science, (Physics and Chemistry). (1)

The Report of the Minister of Education for 1931 proposed the establishment of "Intermediate Schools". Economic conditions have prevented progress in the re-organization of education in the province to include this type of school. The discussions that have resulted have brought to the attention of Normal Schools the necessity of requiring greater academic advancement of their students. The Fifth Classes (2) in Rural Schools have impressed this need. Whether the professional requirements for teaching in the proposed Intermediate Schools will be those of Secondary teachers or the qualifications of Elementary teachers has not yet been disclosed. Urban inspectors who have organized intermediate classes in their schools have selected many teachers who hold the B.A. degree and the certificate for teaching in elementary schools. The tendency seems to indicate a preference for graduate students.

The proposed Intermediate Schools will possibly provide the school education for all children between the ages of 11+and 15. They will have a three or four-year

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(1) Regulations and Examinations of the Normal Schools 1934-35.
(2) These are classes in Public or Separate Schools in sections where there are no secondary schools within reach.

"exploratory" course that will be partly academic, partly commercial and partly technical. So, provision for the training of the teachers of these schools is being planned. It is hoped that the new schools will not be too departmental in character and that the teachers will be trained to prepare their pupils for life rather than for particular occupations and professions.

The Problem of Industrial Education.

In order to assist the provinces in their efforts to develop vocational education, the Dominion Parliament in 1919 passed the Technical Education Act, (1) and voted a sum of ten million dollars to be expended over a period of ten years. Each provincial government was reimbursed, within the limit of its appropriation, to the extent of one-half of approved expenditures, to assist any form of vocational, technical or industrial education, or instruction deemed necessary or desirable in promoting industry and the mechanical trades or increasing the earning capacity, efficiency, and productive power of those employed therein.

In the Province of Ontario enrolment in day vocational schools rose from 24,513 in 1927-1928 to 36,938, an increase of 50 per cent in five years. The evening class registration that gradually grew to 45,338 suffered a drastic reduction to 33,860 in 1933. (2) The explanation is that day school population increases as employment opportunities diminish while the evening classes decline for lack of local support due to financial stringency.

The following table shows the distribution of gainfully employed in Ontario at the time of the 1931 census:- (3)

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(1) The Technical Education Act of 1919, Dominion Government.
(2) Fifteenth Report of the Technical Education Branch of the Department of Labour, Canada, 1934.
(3) Ages of the Gainfully Employed, Ten Years of Age and Over for Canada - 1931.

| Age | Total | Male | Female |
|---|---|---|---|
| All ages | 1,346,419 | 1,096,980 | 249,439 |
| 10 - 13 years | 638 | 564 | 74 |
| 14 years | 2,486 | 2,168 | 318 |
| 15 years | 7,396 | 6,050 | 1,346 |
| 16 - 17 years | 49,026 | 33,941 | 15,085 |
| 18 - 19 years | 79,620 | 50,994 | 28,626 |
| 20 - 24 years | 203,633 | 135,923 | 67,710 |

As approximately one-tenth of these young people are engaged in technical trades an estimate of the number absorbed in trades is given according to age. It is interesting to note, too, that the vocational schools have in attendance almost as many pupils as there are boys and girls under 17 years of age engaged in trades. The training, vocational guidance, and placement of these young people is an obvious problem. What contributions to its solution are being made by the training college?

The Ontario Training College for Technical Teachers began its first term in Hamilton on April 20, 1925. The purpose of the institution was to train teachers of shop or vocational subjects for technical schools and manual training teachers for public and high schools. Popular demand, the needs of industry, school building programmes, and governmental financial encouragement gave vocational education such an impetus that the Department of Education had to meet two problems, viz. how to obtain teachers for these new schools, and how to train them. The Technical Training College was the answer to one of these.

Ontario has decided that teachers of technical subjects should be recruited from the trades and trained in the arts of teaching. "The teachers obtained by this plan are acquainted with the actual working conditions of the producing shop, know the standards of skill and speed required in the trade, and, if properly selected, are masters of their trades or crafts, and esteemed as such by their fellows," says Mr F.P.Gavin, Principal of the College. (1)

The belief that a man who knows his subject can therefore teach it to others is not accepted and teachers are given a course of training, now consisting of twenty-five weeks or one school year of training. For a time, due to the rapid growth of technical schools, many untrained persons were placed in charge of shop instruction. These have since been trained or replaced by trained teachers. The improvement in teaching has been noticeable. (2)

Certain factors had to be considered in planning a scheme of training for teachers of shop and craft subjects. Some of these factors were: 1) Persons recruited from the trades had been out of school for a number of years and, as a consequence, had lost to some extent the habit of study; 2) they had, on the other hand, a maturity and background of experience. 3) They were probably married and had dependent families. 4) They were wage earners or unemployed. 5) The period of training must be short or the

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(1) Seventh Report of the Technical Education Branch of the Department of Labour, 1926.

(2) Report of the Director of Vocational Education, 1932.

students must be subsidized to take the course. 6) Supplementary courses would need to be given in Summer Schools that teachers could complete them. These factors decided to some extent the duration of the courses, the curriculum, and particularly the Summer Courses to be offered.

The subjects of study included in the curriculum of the Technical Training College are:- (1)

English
Principles of Teaching
History, Principles and Problems of Vocational Education
School and Class Management and School Law
Trade Analysis and Courses of Study
Study of Industries
Methods of Teaching Industrial subjects
Practice Teaching
Vocational Guidance
Shop Plans and Equipment
Mechanical Drawing
Costume Design

Special Summer courses were offered in 1933 with registrations as follows:- (2)

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | Specialist Vocational | 41 |
| | Vocational Guidance | 13 |
| | Sewing and Dressmaking | 18 |
| (3) | Elementary Manual Training | 13 |
| | Specialist Manual Training | 24 |
| | Elementary Household Science | 25 |
| | Special Students | 9 |

A problem faced by the Training College has been the training of evening class teachers. In 1925 the majority of these instructors were employed in their regular callings during the day time, and gave an evening or two a week to evening class work. In many cases they were the only

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(1) Bulletin of the Training College for Technical Teachers, 1933.
(2) Report of the Minister of Education - Province of Ontario, 1933.
(3) Manual Training and Household Science Certificates are valid for Elementary School work.

persons in the community sufficiently versed in their callings to give instruction. Often they did it as a matter of public duty, and at the earnest solicitation of the principal. Much valuable assistance and instruction was given to these craftsmen by the Training College instructors when not engaged at the College. Short, intensive, itinerant courses in convenient local centres were presented on such topics as the following: how to teach a lesson; how to arrange subject matter; how to motivate work; how to organize time and material; how to keep records and reports; the relation of the technical school to the community. From this work there was a better adaptation of the evening classes to the needs of the community, and improvement in the teaching methods, and consequently a greater efficiency in the evening class programme. Of 775 male teachers of evening vocational classes in 1933, there were 554 who taught in day classes as well. Of 398 female evening class teachers, 202 were also engaged for day classes. The proportion shows the degree of professional training of these evening teachers after ten years.

The Training College with the Provincial Apprenticeship Committee has attempted to prepare teachers for the co-ordination of apprenticeship and schooling of young men in the trades. It was hoped by encouragement and regulation to revive in Ontario something of the forgotten apprenticeship system and to give the young apprentice simultaneous

education and practical training. By this plan the young craftsman is required to attend school for eight weeks during the first and second years of apprenticeship. Classes have been organized covering the designated trades, namely: bricklaying, masonry, carpentry, painting and decorating, plastering, plumbing, steam-fitting, sheet-metal work, and electrical installation. The teachers aretrained and instructed in the socializing and cultural phases of the tradesman's education as well as in the skills. It is thus hoped to improve the standard of living of people engaged in trades. Unfortunately these apprentice groups have been small. When economic conditions improve sufficiently, teachers will urge upon the trades the need of their co-operation.

Vocational Guidance courses to direct teachers in this important part of the work have been presented at the Training College since 1932. The object is to help to establish a closer linking up of the schools and industry in a less haphazard placing of pupils and filling of vacancies than has been the practice. Properly trained teachers, then, in service, co-operate with municipal vocational guidance committees to direct the boy or girl into lines of activity best suited to himself and the community.(1) The basic principle underlying the present system of apprenticeship and vocational guidance is that the school should place its services at the

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(1) Historical Survey of Education in Canada - 1932.

disposal of industry. (1)

To show that technical teachers aretrained in adjustment that their work may be influential in various communities, illustrations of new courses to meet local needs are cited: 1) To prepare waitresses for large restaurants in a certain city, courses in table-setting, sewing, taking orders, accounting, foods, and English were added by a Household Science teacher in a large Technical School. 2) In Kingston, a Navigation School was in operation from 1928 to 1930 preparing men for positions as mates, captains, pilots and wrecking masters. (2) 3) A Telegraph School at North Bay reported that pupils werebeing trained as operators, assistant agents, and baggage masters. 4) Classes in English and Trades for New Canadians were conducted at 23 centres, with an enrolment of 3,587.(3)

The solution of another problem seems to have emanated from the Training College, and that problem is the provision for Technical Education in small communities. The Department of Education has arranged for the organization of Joint Vocational School Boards that may direct the Technical programme for a number of neighbouring communities. With the return of prosperity it is hoped that municipalities will unite for the purpose of furnishing practical instruction to the boys and girls at present receiving only an academic education. (4) Some progress has been

(1) Gill,L.W.,College & Secondary Section,Ontario Educational Association, 1931.
(2) Ninth Report of the Technical Education Branch of the Department of Labour,Canada.
(3) Report of the Director of Technical Education, 1930.
(4) Report of Technical Education, 1933.

made in establishing one-teacher shops, the instructor being an "all-round man", capable of handling the fundamental operations of wood and metal work, mechanical drawing, electricity, motor mechanics, etc. Coupled with the idea of the one-teacher shop is a course in homemaking for girls. No special course for such teachers in the rural areas has been presented, yet technical teachers have assumed responsibility in composite high schools and this technical branch of the hig school is becoming increasingly important in many villages an towns throughout Ontario.

The Technical Training College has been assisted in the Training of Teachers of Industrial Courses by the Universities and the College of Education. There are certain core subjects, English, Mathematics, Economics and certain cultural subjects, Art, Music, Literature, that are very necessary parts of the technical school programme. The teachers of these subjects receive the usual training for the teaching of such subjects in the high school.

To attribute all credit to the Training College of technical schools, and the excellent work of providing a practical education for 40,000 pupils a year, would be incorrect. Department of Education officials, Labour Organizations, Factory executives, Municipal School Boards have each contributed. The success of the programmes they devise or suggest is largely determined by the teachers. The teacher is not always selected because of his training.

During his training he develops interests, knowledge and skills that are so necessary to his work.

The Problem of Exceptional Children.

Statistical information for the school year 1932-1933 concerning backward and psychopathic children and those who cannot pursue the ordinary grade work, but who can be trained, and whose mental age is not less than the legal school age, is as follows: (1)

| | Number of Teachers | Enrolment at Inspection | Grants |
|---|---|---|---|
| Dull & Backward Children | 157 | 2,607 | 34,059,98 |
| Promotion & Special Classes | 96 | 2,031 | 8,746,58 |
| Oral,Lip-reading,Hard-of-Hearing & Speech classes | 12 | 920 | 1,772,04 |
| Sight-Saving classes | 8 | 111 | 1,617,22 |
| Orthopedic classes | 13 | 210 | 4,481,79 |
| Open-Air classes | 12 | 304 | 801,96 |
| Hospital & Sanatorium classes | 12 | 263 | 859,39 |
| Institution classes (Orphanages) | 4 | 160 | 163,56 |
| Rural School Home Instruction | 4 | 4 | 200,00 |
| Rural School Sight-Saving Unit | 19 | 21 | 84,36 |
| Rural Training Unit | 8 | 17 | 42,72 |
| Totals | 345 | 6,648 | 52,829,60 |

During the same school year 361 children were instructed and cared for at the Ontario School for the Deaf at Belleville. (2) A total of 134 blind children were trained at the Ontario School for the Blind at Brantford. (3)

The Ontario Auxiliary Class Act of 1914, providing for grants for the care of children with low intelligence has been interpreted within the last ten years to include

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(1) Report of the Director of Auxiliay Classes - 1933.
(2) Report of the Ontario School for the Deaf - 1933.
(3) Report of the Principal, Ontario School for the Blind - 1933.

the care of all physically, mentally and socially handicapped children. From surveys made, it is estimated, that about 80 per cent of such children are being cared for in part-time or full-time classes.

All teachers of Auxiliary classes are especially trained in a five-weeks Summer Course. The minimum qualifications of applicants are: 1) Normal School graduation, 2) three years' teaching experience, 3) a certificate from their Inspector of special aptitude in the work. Courses are provided for teachers in (i) Training, promotion and special industrial classes, (ii) Oral, lip-reading and speech-correction classes, (iii) Sight-saving, orthopedic and hospital classes. In the summer of 1933 courses in (i) and (iii) were given. Forty Six candidates enrolled for training and promotion classes, eleven for the special industrial course, and nine for the hospital and orthopedic course.

Besides the courses mentioned there is no special instruction for the teachers in the School for the Blind or the School for the Deaf in Ontario. The teachers are selected for these schools because of special qualities shown in carrying out their duties in elementary or secondary schools. In some cases they visit similar institutions in the United States for training. The Principals report that the training usually takes the form of in-service training. Frequent conferences, lectures,

discussions, and study help to interpret their experiences. There has not been the necessity of adding a special course at the Training College for prospective teachers for these institutions. As the number of teachers required increases, there will have to be further provision for their training. The former Principal of the School for the Deaf particularly impressed upon his teachers the importance of socializing the children. Public concerts, tours, exhibitions of work and games were arranged to prepare the pupils for life with other people and to establish a better understanding with the public. The children are taught to understand lip movement and to speak, rather than a sign language.

To estimate the kind of training necessary for teachers of Special Auxiliary classes, it would be necessary to discuss the objectives of the handicapped pupils' education. These are: 1) Health, 2) Social Values, 3) Personal habits, 4) Industrial values, 5) Academic work, 6) Physical activities, 7) Worthy use of leisure. These may not seem to differ from the goals of education set for normal children. The teacher of handicapped children must, however, discover that it is not a question of all children going to the same place at different rates of speed but that they are bent on achieving different ultimate goals and that education must be on the basis of qualitative differentiation in terms of goals that these children must ultimately reach. (1)

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(1) Anderson, Dr M.L. -An address before the Auxiliary Section of the Ontario Education Association - 1930.

Health training includes more than keeping the body free from disease; to many of these children it means conserving of energy, adjustment to abnormal forms of exercise in orthopedic cases, how to manage their bodies, how to play the game in group activities.

Teachers must direct these abnormal children in social habits, in personality adjustments, and if possible, in the method of earning a living. The process is slow and as yet only about 30% of the number of abnormal children in the schools of Ontario are receiving special training.

However, all teachers-in-training are being directed in the methods of recognizing abnormalities, in testing the pupils, and in grading pupils that they profit best by the instruction given. This instruction is being given as a part of the School Management course at the Normal Schools. A noticeable result of this training has been better school organization throughout the province. Dull pupils in rural schools are being taught individually rather than in the primary classes with pupils of their own mental age. A better understanding of atypical children is being given to all teachers.

The special care of gifted children has been delayed for lack of a programme. In two cities special teachers are instructing classes of children who are extremely bright. These teachers are experimenting with different methods of care. At the Normal Schools teachers are

directed to employ the time of gifted children in the elementary schools that such children do not obtain entrance to high school when too young.

The greatest difficulty in providing for the education and care of exceptional children has been persuading the trustees and school boards that certain children are in need of special care. In a certain rural school, for example, there were many mentally defective pupils. The Director of Special Classes for the Province, appointed by the Minister of Education, visited the school, gave Intelligence Tests to the children and suggested to the local school trustees that they should employ a teacher who had been trained to teach Special Classes. Her salary would be higher than that of a regular teacher so the trustees did not accept his recommendation. In villages and towns, too, the school boards refuse to buy extra equipment and to employ special teachers because of the cost. This difficulty will be disposed of to some extent when township or county education committees replace the trustees of small school sections. An Act for this re-organization has been passed in the provincial legislature but has not yet been made a law because of the opposition of school trustees who are jealous of authority. With the organization of county school boards, there may be regulations for compulsory special care of exceptional children and there will be a greaterdemand for teachers

with special training. One of the Normal Schools may then give an extra course of one year's duration for the special training of teachers who will be employed as special teachers.

Ontario has not had the charitable and philanthropic organizations in the past that have provided foundations for the care of physically and mentally defective children. There has not been the private interest in them that there has been in Scotland and Germany partly because education has been, from the beginning, a matter for the government. Bequests are made to churches and to hospitals but not to schools, so the Department of Education has the entire responsibility of providing schools and teachers for exceptional children.

The Problem of Agricultural Education and Rural Teachers.

Agricultural education is maintained in Forms III, IV and V of the Public and Separate Schools, as an optional subject where school boards decide to introduce it under the Regulations of the Department of Education. Grants to school boards and to teachers holding Agriculture certificates have encouraged a better acquaintance with the purpose and scope of the subject.

Teachers may become legally qualified to teach Agriculture in either of two ways: by attendance at two summer courses of five weeks each, either at the Ontario Agricultural College (Guelph) or at the Kemptville Agricultural School, or by following a course of four years with Agriculture as an elective subject in Collegiate Institutes, High or Continuation Schools. The teacher must be qualified as an Elementary School Teacher as well. In 1924, there were 2,285 schools in the province in which agriculture was taught as an elementary subject. In 1934 this number had increased to 5000.

In Secondary Schools Agriculture is an optional subject (1)in a four or five-year course which may lead to Entrance to Normal Schools or to Junior Matriculation or Upper School. A person who completes the four-year course in Agriculture is entitled to an Elementary Certificate for teaching the subject after he completes the Normal School Course. Regarding the popularity of Agriculture

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(1) Approximately 60% of Ontario Secondary schools give the course.

in Continuation Schools the Provincial Inspectors say: "At present the course of study permits an option between Agriculture and Science in both Lower and Middle Schools. Since the course prescribed in Agriculture is, in every way, at least as valuable for educational purposes as the course in Science, one might expect that Agriculture would be the more desirable option. But though the Agriculture option is taken in a few of these schools, there is little indication that it will become general. The difficulty lies in the lack of sufficent supply of properly qualified teachers. Frequently the option is taken for a year or two but when a change of teachers takes place, Boards find it impossible to secure a teacher competent to continue the work." (1)

An Intermediate certificate, a qualification for teaching Agriculture in a High School, may be obtained by a teacher by completing two summer sessions which are offered at the Ontario Agricultural College, Guelph. A Specialist certificate in Agriculture may be obtained by those who hold an Intermediate certificate and complete a third summer course in Agriculture and a course in Farm Machanics. A Specialist certificate in Agriculture may also be obtained by the holder of a B.S.A. degree (Bachelor of Scientific Agriculture) who completes a year's attendance and passes the examinations at the College of Education.

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(1) Report of the Continuation School Inspectors, 1933.

During the summer of 1924, there were 121 teachers and inspectors registered in Agriculture Summer Courses. In 1933 there were 322 students with a peak of 443 in 1932. (1) The four-year degree course at the Ontario Agricultural College has become more popular since it has been acknowledged as Academic qualification to teach the subject in Secondary Schools. Formerly this degree course was intended to train County Agricultural Representatives.

Instruction in Agriculture is given in each of the seven Normal Schools of the Province. The course includes the following: Dairying, Poultry, Insects and Birds, Fruit Growing, Gardening, Improvement of School Grounds, Experimental work, School Fairs and Clubs, Home Projects, Methods of teaching. All teachers-in-training receive instruction in subject matter and methods of teaching. According to the plan for Second-Year Normal Students in 1933-1934, Agriculture was compulsory on the Rural school option. (2)

The chief criticism of the teaching of agriculture which may be traced to the preparation of agriculture teachers is that it is too academic. It is an examination subject rather than a project and practical subject. Many teachers are doing excellent work in divorcing agriculture from books while many are creating little enthusiasm for the original and basic industry of Canada.

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(1) Report of the Inspector of Agricultural Classes - 1933.
(2) The entire Second Year Course has been discontinued.

"The primary need of Canada to-day, as stated by some of our leading statesmen and economists, is an intelligent cultivation of the soil and a permanent landed population."(1 It is difficult to satisfy this need because one of the greatest difficulties in the development of scientific work in Agriculture in the country has been the disposition to resist the application of new ideas. (2) The general intelligence of the community must be raised. Fear and mistrust must be overcome. There must be brought about a better understanding of the value of accurate knowledge applied to human affairs. This means better rural schools, better leadership, and a higher intellectual life generally. Ontario has not found a satisfactory cure for the second need. Boys and girls from the farms of rural districts are sent to high school to pursue the ordinary matriculation course. They proceed,if successful and the parents are financially able, to the University to graduate to the professions. Many of them drift into other occupations for which they are ill fitted after two or three years of indifferent high schooling. Those who remain on the farm do not always become farmers from choice but rather from circumstances.

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(1) Throop, A.B.C., "The Place of Agriculture in the Curriculum of the Public & High Schools.",an address, Proceedings of the O.E.A.,1933.
(2) Tory, Dr H.M.,Chairman, National Research Council of Canada, in an address in Toronto, 1930.

Teachers of rural schools and rural high schools should be specially trained for their work. Rural School Teaching Certificates should qualify for these positions, and a general teaching certificate should not be sufficient. Salaries should be adjusted to attract to the 5,670 rural schools the very best teaching talent of the province. Teachers and Boards should be trained to improve the conditions in rural schools.

The tendency has been for the 2000 graduates from the Normal Schools yearly to seek positions in the town or city graded schools. They endure a year or two of rural work for experience, hoping that soon they may obtain a "bigger job" with a higher salary in an urban school.

The Normal School should give more extensive training in the solving of rural education problems. Many of the students are aware of these problems because their homes are in the country. They go back to the country to teach as they have been taught. Of last year's class at the Ottawa Normal School approximately seventy-five city or town students secured teaching positions in rural schools. They had not lived in rural communities and in many cases had never seen the interior of a rural school until they were required to teach 3 practice lessons in one as part of their training.

An examination of the Course of Study for Norman Schools of Ontario reveals that there is little specific reference to rural schools. The School Management course includes:

Time-Table making for ungraded schools; Assignment of home and seat work for graded and ungraded schools; the relation of the school to the community; Rural school regulations. (1) A Reference book may be used, "Everyday Problems of the Country Teacher". The Agriculture course includes farm problems. Geography and Civics courses contain no reference to rural economic or political problems. Teachers-in-training must however do some practice-teaching in rural schools.(2 The above regulations have not changed during the last ten years. Farming conditions have changed in Ontario but the country teacher gets the same training.

The conclusions from the study are as follows:- Practical Agricultural education should be compulsory in rural elementary and secondary schools. Teachers should receive special training to prepare them to teach in these schools. The Normal Schools should make more adequate provision for this training since there are 7,000 rural classes and approximately 5,000 urban classes. Instruction should be given at the Training College in rural economics, including co-operative buying and selling. Special rural model schools owned and directed by the Department of Education should be built for observation and practice work. Direction in the organization of rural community activities would assist the teacher in this important phase of rural life. Rural sociology should have a place on the course.

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(1) As a lecturer in School Management for four years the writer has given a rural bias to many other topics.
(2) The number of lessons varies from three to several. The time planned varies from three days to two weeks.

The Problem of Cultural Education.

The place of music in Ontario life is very similar to a corresponding relation in the United States. Many of the same influences exist. Fewer private music lessons are being given to boys and girls because of lack of funds in the home or because the piano has been "traded in" for a radio. Moving picture theatres provide dramatic and musical entertainment and operas and symphonies cannot obtain audiences to support them. The child whistles or hums the radio tunes with little critical concern for their musical excellence. The jazz tunes satisfy a sense of rhythm. The church choir has a strong nucleus of professional singers. The singing schools of grandfather's day are no more. Dr Ernest MacMillan says: "One of the most tragic features of our modern civilization is its tendency to foster indifference to music. The hard-headed business man of the past surrounded himself with a protective wall against emotional expression. The serious study of music was something to be left to long-haired foreigners and women. Neither Pecksniff nor Babbit had a place for such frills." (1) His opinion is that the arts are not a luxury but are the natural expression of human minds.

In the schools of Ontario music has been an optional subject of the elementary school course and the high school course. (2) A recent announcement of the Minister of Education

(1) An address on the subject "School Life & Music" given at the Ontario Educational Association, 1934. Dr MacMillan is the Principal of Toronto Conservatory of Music, and was knighted by the King in 1935.

(2) A Minimum Course in Rote Singing is being given in most rural schools.

states that the study of music will be made compulsory in all schools. Until this proposal has been established as a regulation the training college instructor in music may be able to give such instruction and inspiration in the teaching of music that teachers-in-training will be able and anxious to teach the subject when in service.

Whereas fifteen years ago about 30% of the number of students at a Normal School were able to play elementary music on the piano or organ, recently only about 20% of the number attending can play a musical instrument. (1) It has been found, however, that a larger percentage of students can sing than were able to in the past. This has been due to increased interest and better teaching; many city school systems have conducted courses in Music in the Elementary School from Kindergarten to High School Entrance and in High School to Lower School or Middle School. Recently a Certificate in Music has been accepted in lieu of a certificate in Ancient History for Entrance to Normal School. A Certificate of having passed the examination of the Toronto Conservatory of Music in Junior History and Junior Harmony has been accepted in lieu of the Middle School examination in Music for Entrance to Normal School. These "option" regulations were intended to stimulate interest in Music in the High Schools but as yet the results have been disappointing. Only 2% of the applicants for admission to the Normal Schools presented Music certificates in 1933.

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(1) Cringan, Alex. T. - "Music in Ontario", an address before the O.E.A. - 1926.

Better progress in the teaching of the subject of Music seems to have been made in the elementary schools, as the following table will indicate.

| | 1924 | 1933 |
|---|---|---|
| Number of pupils at school | (Rural 220,207<br>(Cities 199,595<br>(Towns 99,469 | Rural 228,204<br>Cities 322,909 |
| | 1924 | 1933 |
| Number receiving some instruction in music (1) | (Rural 175,884<br>(Cities 188,706<br>(Towns 89,531 | Rural 207,608<br>Cities 306,506 |
| | 1924 | 1933 |
| Number of teachers of music (full time) | (Rural None<br>(Cities report-<br>(Towns ed None | Rural 3<br>Cities 27<br>Towns 35 |

The fact that teachers are voluntarily taking Summer Courses in Music, are taking private lessons, and are introducing some formal study of music in their classrooms is an indication of new interest.

It is interesting to note in passing that the method of the training of teachers of music was determined when Dr Ryerson in 1850 decided that music should be taught in the schools by the regular teachers rather than by visiting teachers who were specialists. Accordingly, he proceeded to secure a competent teacher who would instruct the students in the Normal School. (2) Since that time many cities have employed special teachers of music to supervise the music instruction but largely it was given by the class teacher.

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(1) Rote Singing is regarded as Instruction in Music.
(2) Toronto Normal School.

If the teacher felt incapable she (in a graded school) "traded" classes with her neighbour for the music lesson.

Music is a compulsory subject for all students at the Normal Schools of Ontario. A Notice in the Course of Study reads as follows:n "Teachers-in-training who, from any cause, consider themselves incapable of learning to sing should present their claims to the teacher of music at the beginning of the session. For such teachers-in-training special instruction, if likely to be effective, will be provided, adapted to their needs. The written examinations,however, are compulsory for all students. If a candidate is unable to teach music, this fact is stated in the certificate." (1)

It would seem that the musical training of all teachers was being cared for. Only two certificates without music have been granted to the students graduating from one Normal School, in five years.(2) Choirs and orchestras are conducted for students with special interests. Hymns and Songs atthe Morning Opening Exercises form part of the Course in Music. Each student must teach at least one lesson in Music in his practice teaching. Observation periods for learning methods of teaching are arranged.

The more formal instruction in music at the Normal Schools is arranged under the following headings: (3)

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(1) Course of Study of the Normal Schools of Ontario,1934.
(2) Ottawa Normal School Records.
(3) Course of Study of the Normal Schools of Ontario,1933.

Systems of Notation, tonic sol-fa and staff.
Major and Minor Diatonic Scales, Elements of Modulation and Transposition.
Vocal Physiology.
Tune, Time.
Ear Training.
Voice Culture, Tone Production, Vowel Formation, Enunciation of Consonants, Breath Control.
Songs suited for the different Grades, Part Songs.

Methods of teaching music are discussed. The place of music in leisure time and the importance in life is dealt with. The aim of the course seems to be to supplement previous training or to give an elementary knowledge of singing that the students may go out to teach boys and girls to sing rote songs, at least. A recognized Music text has this preface, "Improved teaching can only be looked for through an improved knowledge of the subject, and increased skill in the methods of teaching by the regular teacher". (1)

Speaking to the Music Section of the Ontario Educational Association, Mr D.M.Gerbert of the Baron Byng High School, Montreal, directed a criticism toward this emphasis upon the subject matter side of music. He said: "The aim of this subject is to cultivate a taste for good music". (2) The assumption on the part of those who have planned the Normal School course in Music, that a knowledge of the subject will cause a fervour for the teaching of the subject does not seem to be correct. A narrow survey in a rural area revealed that 82% of the teachers, all graduates of the Normal School since 1924, taught only rote songs and the number of songs

(1) Cringan, Alex. T.- Teacher's Hand Book, Music.
(2) Proceedings of the O.E.A., 1929.

per year varied from six to twenty-four. Eight per cent of the teachers had no music exercises in the school. Ten per cent of the teachers gave some tonic sol-fa and staff notation instruction.

A special Summer Course for those teachers interested in the teaching of music is presented each year by the Department of Education in Toronto. An Elementary Certificate in Music may be obtained at the end of the first Summer Course and a Specialists' Certificate at the end of the second Summer Course. To encourage teachers to attend these courses, special grants are dispensed by the Department of Education to teachers holding these Certificates. The Summer Courses are more extensive than the Normal School course. A greater study is made of musical appreciation, history of music and musical expression. (1)

There is no course definitely designed for the training of Secondary School Teachers of Music. One will be devised if Music is made a compulsory subject. Many High Schools, Technical Schools, Schools of Commerce have excellent school activities under the direction of professional musical directors. Bands, Orchestras, Choirs, Operas and other musical activities are organized. They provide musical expression for a small percentage of the school population who are particularly interested in music.

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(1) Announcement of Summer Courses, 1933.

In conclusion the following suggestions for the musical training of teachers in Ontario are offered:- 1. A more varied course based upon a compulsory elementary school course and a compulsory high school course: 2. Some provision be made for instruction in and appreciation of instrumental music: 3. Radio phonograph courses be given for appreciation of the best music: 4. Students be instructed in how to train pupils to be listeners as well as performers:(1) 5. Teachers of music for the schools be secured who have advanced musical training whether they hold teaching certificates or not.(2)

To the above list of suggestions may be added another that seems worthy for a province that does not have centuries of musical tradition. It should be possible to prepare an examination for certification of Music teachers that the best musicians might be enlisted as teachers of music in the public schools. A particular case may illustrate the necessity of this. The post of teacher of music in a certain school was vacant. There were two applicants for the position. One was a girl who had recently graduated from the Normal School but who had had no teaching experience. The other was a man who held the degree of Doctor of Music and had some years' experience as organist and director of a church choir. The girl was appointed because she had a Public School Teacher's Certificate. If these applicants

(1) It is estimated that but 2% of high school graduates will make amateur or professional use of musical training.
(2) All teachers are expected to have Professional Teaching Certificates.

had been given a competitive examination for the post there would have been very little doubt as to the superiority of the man's training.

It does not necessarily imply that one who holds many degrees will make a satisfactory teacher, but some sort of test could be devised for sorting out the teachers, from the men and women of known musical ability. There would, thus, be brought to the classroom, teachers who have had extensive training in music and they might develop a greater interest in appreciation and study of music.

Art in Education.

"The courses in Art and Constructive Work should be directed primarily towards developing in the pupil a facility in expressing his ideas by means of certain manual activities. Coincident with this training there should be gradually developed in the pupil an appreciation of beauty that will be expressed, not alone in the making of beautiful pictures or objects, but in the selection of the things with which in later life he surrounds himself..... The minimum courses for both rural and urban schools are to be taken in all schools without omission." (1) This outline of the aim and content of the Art Course for Public Elementary Schools, with Supplementary courses with greater emphasis upon technique, sets forth to teachers the wishes of Departmental officials concerning the teaching of Art. As a compulsory subject with no final examination it seems to have lost the academic flavour of many elementary school subjects.

In preparation for the teaching of Art in this manner all teachers-in-training must complete satisfactorily a course in Art that includes: Methods of teaching Art, Representation, Colour, Decorative Design, Lettering, Composition, Picture Study. This course is supplemented by a Manual Training Course with instruction in Handwork, Modelling, Woodcarving, Cabinet work and Mechanical Drawing.(2)

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(1) Courses of Study for the Public and Separate Schools, June 1934.
(2) Course of Study for the Normal Schools, 1934.

Practice lessons must be taught in the subjects of Art and Manual Arts. Correlations with other subjects are made when the students are required to do project work in such subjects as Geography, History, Arithmetic and Nature Study. Although the percentage of students who are not granted pass standing in the course in Art at the Normal School is small, yet students' certificates have been withheld for a year or two years until the artwork is satisfactory to the master concerned.

The Secondary School course in Art has the following aims:

(a) To train the pupils to draw.
(b) To cultivate perception of beauty.
(c) To teach the meaning of colour.
(d) To correlate the course with other departments.
(e) To aid those with special talent to specialize.
(f) To send students out aesthetically alive to their surroundings.

These are summed up in the Course of study for High Schools in the quoted words of John Ruskin: "Learn Drawing - that you may set down clearly and usefully records of such things as cannot be described in words....."

As Art is a subject of the Lower School part of the Secondary School, the course is planned for five 40 minute periods, or their equivalent per week for one year, under three headings as follows: 1. Freehand Drawing: 2.Design: 3. Appreciation.

For the training of high school teachers a course in the teaching of Art is presented at the College of Education. It is compulsory for those students doing the "Public School Option" course, but many students do not take this course.

If they wish to obtain a combined Elementary and Secondary School Teacher's Certificate they must complete the course in Art.

A new direction to the teaching of art as a cultural and utilitarian subject should be given and the training colleges seem to be the most suitable place for a beginning. The history of art, appreciation of good pictures, Photography, Home Decoration, Colour combinations for clothing, neatness and symmetry, Beauty in Nature, would be appropriate topics to include and the aim of the course would not be Ruskin's "Learn Drawing" but "Learn to appreciate things beautiful".

"There is perhaps no better definition of culture than that it is the capacity for constantly expanding the range and accuracy of meanings", Dewey tells in his book "Democracy and Education". Art, then, as a cultural subject should be for all rather than for a gifted few. It should be regarded as a compulsory subject with objectives of understanding and appreciation as well as utility. It should be correlated with so many activities that pupils feel its need in interpreting and seeing the beauty in the world about them. Gordon Grant, an American artist believed that "until Art is looked upon as a necessary element in every-day life we shall have accomplished nothing in our programme of education".

The aim of the teaching of Art in the training colleges is selective rather than universal. All students must com-

plete the course yet the course is not suited for all. A questionnaire was prepared and answers requested of 415 teachers-in-training. 86% of the number answering said that they liked Art and derived benefit from the course at the Training College. 14% of the students replied that they did not like Art "because they could not draw"; 42% found little value for Art in the labouring man's life; 34% regarded the subject as a "frill". To some extent the course had failed because "love and skill did not work together".

Greater emphasis should be placed on interpretation and appreciation than upon learning how to draw. Instead of trying to teach the large percentage of untalented pupils to draw, teachers-in-training should be instructed to teach pupils to appreciate the serious efforts of others. Literature is not directed to train pupils to produce Shakespearean verse, but to appreciate it. Teachers should be trained to develop consumers of Art as well as producers of Art. (1)

Recently, outstanding Canadian artists have been appointed to teach Art in Technical Schools of Ontario. One man, a portrait painter, teaches painting. Another, a commercial artist, teaches display advertising. Because there are not rigid professional qualifications demanded of teachers in the technical schools the principal may, within certain limits, choose his teachers. These teachers

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(1) Tacon, T.H. - An address, "The Trivial Subject of Art", at the O.E.A., 1931.

of Art mentioned above will teach pupils who have chosen the course, so t hey will have a special interest in the work.

Although many Canadian artists have received their advanced training in other countries there is in Ontario a College of Art with a staff of distinguished artists. This College is affiliated with the University of Toronto. The Summer School classes of teachers receive part of their instruction at the Ontario College of Art. Visits are made to the Art Galleries and Museums that the teacher may take back to her class room some knowledge of the best works of Art.

So, with a College of Art, Normal Schools, Summer Courses and a College of Education, Ontario has provided for the training of her teachers of Art. Theresults of their work compare favourably with that in other countries. A more intensive study of Art and teaching experience should help the teachers to do better work. Above all, any teacher should have a definite aim in teaching the subject. He should be trained to understand different objectives of Art teaching in different types of schools and of children.

The Problem of Religious Education.

The problem of religious education in Ontario is not the problem of inducing people to attend church, nor is it the problem of motivating the memorization of the Ten Commandments; rather it is the problem of interpretation of Christian principles that boys and girls may grow to think and act according to those principles. Statistics show that attendance at Sunday School is slightly lower than that of ten years ago. There have been organized however, about one humdred Youth Movement organizations that are religious in character, that have on their Club rosters teen-age youths.

The school law regarding Religious Instruction is an old one. "Every Public School shall be opened with the reading of the Scriptures and the repeating of the Lord's Prayer, and shall be closed with the Lord's Prayer; but no pupil shall be required to take part in any religious exercises objected to by his parent or guardian". (1) In a province with varied denominational beliefs it has been the policy of the education department to make provision for the religious instruction of children in the Public Schools by allowing clergymen of the different denominations to give such instruction in each school-house once a week, before the hour of opening or after the hour of closing the school. The statistical table, to follow, shows that the tendency is to neglect the permissive regulation for religious instruction.

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(1) Sec. 13. (1) (a) General Regulations Public and Separate Schools.

This may be due to failure on the part of teachers to encourage the necessary arrangement or failure on the part of ministers to arrange for the privilege. Clergymen believe that the time before or after school is not suitable on the child's part for religious instruction.

(1) Statistics of Religious Exercises & Instruction.

| | 1924 | 1933 |
|---|---|---|
| No.of schools in operation..... | 6,334 | 5,997 |
| No.of schools in which Bible selections are read..... | 5,796 | 5,527 |
| No.of schools in which passages from the Bible are memorized..... | 2,215 | 2,352 |
| No.of schools opened with prayer..... | 5,998 | 5,580 |
| No,of schools closed with prayer..... | | 4,397 |
| No.of schools in which religious instruction is imparted by a clergyman | 1,439 | 225 |

The regulations concerning Religious Instruction in Elementary Public Schools are identical for High Schools, Collegiate Institutes and Continuation Schools. No statistics are available as to the number of secondary school pupils receiving religious instruction as imparted by a clergyman. Inquiries at several schools revealed that no regular lessons are given by clergyman.

At each Normal School, one class period per week is devoted to religious instruction. Clergymen of the city in which the school is located present courses to their denominational groups. The students are taught Bible history rather than methods of presenting the Bible teachings to children. They need instruction in both matter and method

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(1) Schools include rural school and urban centres.

of the course. If religious instruction could be made compulsory in the schools of Ontario, the teacher should present that instruction. At present the instruction they receive in the Normal School has little professional value. There are elements of religious knowledge common to all denominations that could be presented to all children without bias, that would be of greater value to them than much of the knowledge learned at school.

This training would only become compulsory at the training colleges if the people of the various denominations in Ontario were agreeable to the teaching of certain elements of religious knowledge in the schools. The Roman Catholic schools are Separate Schools with separate school boards. They may teach and do teach religious knowledge to their pupils. Many of the teachers belong to religious orders. For certain ceremonies they are taken from the schools to church and are given special instruction by the parish priest. The children are taught that they should go to church on Sunday and they attend regularly. The religious education of Protestant children has been regulated to after-school hours. Denominational differences have caused this. Perhaps when the people have a common understanding of the ultimate of life, the school regulations will change.

The Problem of Homemaking and Family Life.

Ontario has not as yet felt the influence of such a conference as the White House Conference on Child and Family Welfare. However, an organization that has had much interest in the question of Homemaking and Family Life is the Association of Home and School Clubs of Ontario. The 5670 rural schools have been touched more slowly by the advantages of Home education because of lack of equipment, lack of funds, and lack of interest. Women's organizations have supplied Hot Lunch equipment to many rural schools. Some cooking instruction has been given by the rural school teachers in connection with the preparation of hot lunches. Of 224,669 pupils enrolled in rural schools in 1933, only 32,940 were receiving instruction in Household Science. Only 7 rural teachers were holders of Household Science Teacher's Certificates.

Greater provision for instruction in Cooking and Sewing is made in Urban Schools. 78,039 pupils were enrolled in Household Science classes of a total number of 311,752 pupils enrolled in Urban Schools in the same year. 88 teachers held Household Science Teacher's Certificates, a decrease of 27 for the year. (1)

Household Science is an optional subject of the elementary school course. It may be taught in Forms I to IV, but is usually presented, if at all, in Forms III and IV, i.e.

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(1) The decrease may be explained by the fact that many of these teachers were taking the Second Year Normal Course.

Grades 4, 5, 6 and 7. There are three chief courses: viz. sewing, household management and cookery. Special equipment is necessary for the cookery and the procuring of this equipment by the School Board usually determines whether or not the course will be given. The aims of the course in Household Science as set forth in the Course of Study are: 1) to secure a certain training of mind through the proper planning of work to be done, 2) to develop a certain motor control through the activities involved in the work. It is suggested that the course should be closely correlated with home life. The course itself is more enlightening than the aims and includes such practical activities as the following: Hand-sewing, Making garments, Mending, Cleansing, Cleaning, Care of the Kitchen, Preparing and Cooking common foods, Serving a Meal, Planning Budgets.

The Secondary School course in Household Science, extensively planned in detail for the two lower-school years, is used in comparatively few schools. Of 35,880 pupils in the Lower School in Ontario in 1933, only 2,281 students were given training in Household Science. 15 pupils in Middle School were obtaining instruction in Household Science. (1)

In the Vocational Schools there seems to be greater interest in Household Science. The numbers of pupils enrolled in the different courses in 1924 and in 1933 were as follows:-

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(1) Report of the Minister of Education for Ontario, 1933.

| | 1924 | 1933 |
|---|---|---|
| Cooking | 2,391 | 5,204 |
| Housekeeping | 672 | 1,773 |
| Household Mechanics | | 404 |
| Home Economics | 955 | 3,139 |
| Home Nursing | 538 | 1,956 |
| Physiology | | 5 |
| Dietetics | 1,525 | 3,309 |
| Bacteriology | | 220 |
| Laundry | 164 | 1,349 |
| Marketing | | 14 |
| Home Management | | 322 |
| Sewing and Dressmaking | 2,459 | 4,952 |
| Millinery | 1,770 | 2,398 |
| Embroidery | 111 | 1,116 |
| Textiles | | 2,114 |
| History of Costume | | 664 |

The new courses and the increase in enrolment show that an attempt is made to solve the problem of homemaking education. The fact that this special show of interest appears in the vocational school suggests that this subject has a vocational purpose rather than a domestic one.

In preparation for teaching elementary classes all lady students at the Normal Schools are required to complete successfully the course in Household Science, which includes a study of the following topics:- Equipment, The House, Foods, Feeding of Children, Cookery, Bacteriology, Sewing, Textile Materials. Men students have a short course in Cooking and Sewing. The teacher goes into service in a rural school and finds classes from Primer to Fifth Class that must be instructed in an extensive course of study planned by the Department of Education. She has little time for optional subjects so few teachers attempt to give instruction in Household Science. The training college

can do little to help the situation except to train the prospective teacher to adjust herself tothe situation and to train teachers to train boys and girls for life rather than to direct them to absorb knowledge for examination purposes.

In preparation for the teaching of Household Science in the graded urban schools special Summer Courses are presented each year by the Department of Education. 25 teachers attended the summer course in 1933. The limited teaching positions available in this work determine to some extent the number of teachers who do special training for this subject.

Of 305 students at the College of Education in 1933 to be trained as teachers of Secondary Schools, 15 chose the Household Science course. The report of the Principal of the Training College for Technical Teachers contains this statement, "Owing to the small enrolment in the course for the Ordinary Certificate in Domestic Arts this course will be suspended in 1933 for a time. The small enrolment was due to a slackening demand for Domestic Arts teachers in the Vocational Schools. As soon as any evidence of a possible demand for teachers appears the course shall be restored."(1)

Normal Schools, College of Education, Technical Training Colleges have been severely handicapped by a lack of popular demand for better training in Homemaking and Family Life.

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(1) Report of the Principal of the Ontario Training College for Technical Teachers, 1933.

In pioneer days the girl received her training in housewifery at home. Parents seem to assume that she is getting sufficient training at home in modern days.

The school is failing to touch so many necessary life activities that the young wife in Ontario must be commended for her adaptability.

The conclusions are that such topics as the following should receive greater emphasis in the training of all teachers in Ontario: Buying of Food, Family Budget, Nursing in the Home, Care of Children, Sources of Food, Economy in the Home, Care of Clothing, Labour-Saving Devices.

The course should be presented not with the aim of training in manual manipulation but with the purpose of domestic necessity.

The criticisms that have been made of various phases of the system in this chapter have been included for a purpose. The system of education is undergoing changes yearly. To describe conditions as they exist might suggest that they are static. The improvements that will be made will depend upon the economic condition of the future. The Department of Education has arranged for opportunities for training for special teachers of the subjects of this study. These will be extended when there is a demand from the public. Since public money is involved in the building and up-keep of these institutions the policy of progression will be conservative. It is not easy to convert the people to new methods in a generation. The aims of education have changed greatly in the last 20 years yet there are many old schools and old methods of teaching. The brightest hope for the future is a keener interest in educational matters.

So certain constructive criticisms have been made to suggest possible directions in which progress will be made. If they could be summed up in a few words, they would be, "The aims and content of the courses will change".

## FRANCE.

### The System.

"The French system of education is peculiarly national and rooted in the soil of French ideals, French Philosophy, and French culture". (1) With extreme caution France has preserved the subject matter and methods of the past while other countries have experimented with new. Logic, reason, culture, receptivity, assimilation, and authority are more familiar words in the language of Education in France than are such terms as growth, development, activity, project, and self-discipline. The "university monopoly" established in 1808 has not greatly changed. Its compactness makes it necessary to unfold the entire system to determine the place of the particular problems of study.

The Ministry of Public Instruction and Fine Arts controls education in France. Each school of whatever type is not so much under the Ministry as it is part of the Ministry. Control is held by a series of central and local appointees with a strong infusion of the pedagogic element in the administrative machinery. The teaching profession in both primary and higher levels is a highly organized body of national functionaries, trained by the state, selected by the state, and inspected and paid by the state.

France is divided into 17 provinces or "Académies" for purposes of education. At the headquarters of each

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(1) Kandel, I.L., Comparative Education, Houghton Mifflin Co. N.Y. - 1933.

"Academie" there is a University, and the Head of each University, called a Recteur, controls and co-ordinates all branches of instruction from the infant classes of the primary school to the highest stages of the University. He can appoint all minor educational officers in the schools and supervises the teaching work in the schools through Inspectors.

The unit of civil administration is the "department" presided over by a "Prefect" appointed by the central government for which he is the local agent. There are 87 departments in France and these are divided into "communes" for local government purposes. The Departmental Council of Primary Education presided over by the Prefect, with the Academy Inspector as Vice-President, is an important educational administrative body. It gives its views on the number and kind of primary schools that should be maintained in each commune, as well as the number of teachers required for them. It makes up each year lists of teachers to be promoted or given honorariums, It has the right to propose reforms that seem to it to be proper.

Each department has, at least, two normal schools for training primary teachers, one for boys and one for girls. The 179 primary normal schools, of which 88 are for women teachers, are maintained in accordance with a law of 1833 which required each department to set up a normal school and a further law of 1879 which made separate normal schools for

girls obligatory. These schools form an integral part of the primary system; that is, the primary teacher is trained within the primary system. The advocates of University training for primary teachers are not supported in France. In practice the French system makes greater demands upon prospective teachers than this hurried description suggests.

Each commune must maintain at least one public school. Instruction is free, lay, unilingual, generally separate for the sexes, and compulsory for children from 6 to 13 years of age. Many children enter primary classes at 5. Maternal schools and infant classes are maintained for those who are from 2 to 6 years of age. The 7 year elementary primary school is organized on a plan of a preparatory course of one year; elementary course 2 years; Middle course 2; and superior course 2. It closes with the examination for and certificate of primary elementary studies. Pupils who complete the primary school may attend complementary courses of one year or more, or superior primary schools that offer courses at least three years in duration and lead to the "brevet" of superior primary instruction (brevet d'enseignement primaire supérieur). Maternal schools and courses for adults may also be a part of the official primary school system and may receive subventions from national funds.

The teachers of primary classes are trained, as has been mentioned, in normal schools (école normal). (1) The

(1) The name has been borrowed to apply to the training colleges for elementary teachers in Ontario, Canada.

course is three years in length and is closed by an external examination for the "brevet superieur" with which the probationer teaches for about two years as a "stagiaire" and then submits to the examination for the "certificat d'aptitude pédagogique". If successful, he may be appointed as a regular teacher or "titulaire". All training and all examinations of teachers are strictly within the purview of the ministry of public instruction. It prescribes the special courses to be given to intending teachers in the supplementary courses or the superior primary school. It prescribes the examinations for admission to and the curricula of the normal schools. It controls the examinations for and the granting of the two "brevets" and the "certificate of pedagogic aptitude."

The Normal Schools of France do not confine themselves to the theory and practice of education only but impart general instruction also. Some of the subjects taught are French, a second European language, History, Geography and Mathematics, Physical and Natural Science, Drawing, Music and Singing, Gymnastics, Handicraft, and Sociology. Land Surveying, Levelling and Agriculture are optional. Besides the six subjects of general study students are required to take up one or two industrial and professional subjects. Different institutions specialize in different branches of study. Theory of Education, including Psychology, is a compulsory subject of study in the Normal School. Although more attention is paid to the subject matter than to the

methods of teaching, yet to say that" after leaving the Normal Schools the students are qualified to follow professions other than the teaching profession" is a misleading generalization.(1)Many students are accepted in business and industry yet the Normal School does not in many cases compete with apprentice, technical or commercial schools.

Each institution however has a practice school, Ecole Annexe, under the direction of the Normal School. Here the students observe methods of teaching and management, and each student must do 50 half-days of practice teaching.

The Minister or his representatives in the Academy and department select by the competitive brevet élémentaire examination candidates for the Normal Schools. There they are admitted free and do not pay even for board and lodging. At the end of the Normal School course, students are subject to a public examination called Brevet Supérieur, which qualifies a person to become a teacher in a Primary School, and serves as a record of educational attainment, being used under certain circumstances for entrance to the University. The method of examination is interesting and unique, with its oral and written tests, its emphasis on general fitness, the choice of questions, and the variations in subject matter according to the will of the Juries.

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(1) Zia Uddin Ahmad, Systems of Education, Longmans, Green and Co.,Calcutta, 1929.

Secondary education is typically seven years in duration and leads to the baccalauréat. There are two types of schools: lycées, constructed and maintained entirely by the nation; and collèges, built and maintained by the communes with national aid. Preparatory courses leading to these schools parallel the primary elementary courses, and the work of the superior school is somewhat similar to the sixth, fifth and fourth classes of the secondary school. Each lycée is controlled by a council of administration, which includes the rector of the academy or his delegate, the prefect of the department, and the mayor of the city; the elected representatives of the teaching and administrative personnel; and two persons chosen by the minister to represent the families of the public. The professional administrative head of the lycée is the provisor. The collège organization is similar to that of the lycée with the variation of a wider representation of local organizations. In general the duties of these councils relate more to supervision of "matériel" and hygienic conditions than to pedagogic functions.

The courses of instruction in the secondary schools are divided into three sections - Classical, in which both Greek and Latin are compulsory; Semi-Classical, in which Latin and either Modern Languages or Science and Mathematics are compulsory; and Modern, which specializes in Modern Languages, Mathematics and Science. Success in the

Baccalauréat entitles a student to join a University. Some students remain an extra year in secondary school to prepare for the admission examinations for higher normal schools, polytechnics, schools of mines, engineering schools, etc.

The coefficients or possible awards and the subjects of examination for the Baccalauréat are as follows:-

Written Examinations:

| | |
|---|---|
| 1. French Composition, 3 hours' paper | 2 |
| 2. Latin Translation, 3 hours' paper | 2 |
| 3. Mathematics and physics (or Greek) 3 hours' paper | 4 |
| Total | 8 |

Oral Examinations:

| | |
|---|---|
| 1. Latin Text | 1 |
| 2. French Text | 1 |
| 3. Conversation in a modern language | 2 |
| 4. History, one question | 1 |
| 5. Geography, one question | 1 |
| 6. Mathematics, one question | 3 |
| 7. Physics, one question | 2 |
| 8. Chemistry | 1 |
| Total | 12 |

Girls' Secondary Schools prepare for the "Diplome de fin d'études secondaires" as well as for the Baccalaureat.

Teaching work is separatedfrom the disciplinary work in French schools. The Principal (called Proviseur) is responsible for both teaching and discipline, but a special officer, called the Surveillant Général or Censor supervises the discipline. He has no teaching work but directs a discipline and boarding house staff, whose members are especially hired for the purpose of supervision. They are either old teachers or young graduates who are continuing

their studies at the University. The teaching staff is trained in the regular courses of the secondary schools and later in Higher Normal School for men at Paris and the Sèvres Normal School for women, or in the University, chiefly the latter.

The two Higher Normal Schools (Ecole Normales Supérieures) are affiliated to the University of Paris. The teaching is divided into Arts and Science sections and students on the advice of their tutors may attend the lectures of any professor in the University. They are eligible for University degrees and diplomas. The Ministry of Public Instruction fixes the number of students to be admitted every year, on the result of an admission examination which is similar to the scholarship examination of a University. Every candidate for admission must have passed the Baccalauréat. These Higher Normal Schools were planned at first to prepare professors for normal schools, but now no provision is made for any practical work in teaching.

The system of Universities in France was planned by Napoleon I in 1806. (The division of the country into Académies, each with a University; the Rector given control of Primary and Secondary education; a Higher University at Paris for research and advanced instruction, were his directions.) The courses of study have been extended but the scheme remains the same. The faculties of letters offer training in pedagogy, psychology, logic, morals, sociology,

Philology, literature, history and geography. They prepare students for the examinations for teaching positions in the secondary schools for boys, and to a lesser extent for places in the secondary schools for girls and in the higher primary schools. Two important teaching credentials (for secondary teachers) prepared for at the University are the "Licence ès Lettres" and the "Licence d'enseignement". Regular professors and professors without chairs in the universities are usually appointed from among persons who hold a doctorate granted by national authority (doctorat d'état) in letters, science, law, or medicine.

There are two important competitive examinations for teaching posts in Secondary Schools, 1) Certificat d'aptitude, 2) Agrégation. The certificate of fitness and the corresponding examination will vary with the post for which the student is competing. The "Certificat d'aptitude pédagogique" or "l'enseignement secondaire" is prepared for at the Higher Normal Schools or the Universities and may indicate a fitness to teach letters, geography and history, mathematics, or physical and natural science. Candidates usually attempt the examinations at the end of the third year at the Higher Normal School or the University. The agrégation is necessary for appointment as a regular professor in a secondary school and commands a salary higher than that allowed the holder of a "certificat d'aptitude". (1)

(1) Abel, James F., Official Certificates, Diplomas and Degrees Granted in France. U.S. Bureau of Education, 1932.

Recent Changes that Affect the Training of Teachers.

A description of the system of education in France has been given at the beginning as a background for the phases that have to be studied in detail. The system seems to be so compact and the elements so greatly co-ordinated that this research might seem trivial from the beginning. In order that their importance may be understood some recent changes will be discussed; changes which may lead to revolution in the philosophy if not in the administration of the French system of education.

These changes and proposed changes will be given in outline and discussed in the sections to follow. Some of them are, the apprenticeship laws, the extension of secondary education for girls, the changes in the curricula for lycée and collège, wider purpose of the normal schools, changes in the methods of teaching special subjects, new emphasis on the teaching of agriculture in rural areas, adjustments to the question of religious teaching in the schools.

Special Features of Ecoles Normales.

Since the variation in training programme from year to year is slight, a list of special features of "écoles normales" will be substituted for the usual section on training college tendencies, The word "special" is applied to these features, because they seem peculiar to the French training college.

The competitive examination for entrance was for many years unique but, at present, overcrowding in the profession in many countries has made more selective admission necessary. There is a very high standard of scholarship expected of these applicants in France, as may be judged from the number admitted in proportion to the number examined.

The normal school course is built upon the series of elementary courses. This is unusual and has its merits although criticised as being inadequate. M. Paul Lapie, who reorganized the courses of study in 1920, said,"Above all else the teacher must be an educated man".

The daily programme of a boys' normal school shows that, except on Thursday and Sunday, the students are occupied for ten hours a day. They live in residence and their routine from 5.45 a.m. until 9.30 p.m. is detailed. One might say that they have little freedom and too much hard work.

The Director has had experience as a teacher, professor and inspector, a very excellent training for his work. The professors may have the same certificate qualifications as

teachers of higher primary schools, but they have been selected for their present posts because of special abilities.

The curriculum of the normal school is not unique, perhaps, because of the variety of subjects but because of the weighting of these as indicated by the number of hours per week.

The following time-schedule gives the subjects and their distribution in a normal school for men:-

| Subject | Year 1st | Year 2nd | Year 3rd | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Educational Psychology, Education, Ethics, Philosophy of Science | 2 | 2 | 2 | 6 |
| French Language & Literature | 4 | 4 | 4 | 12 |
| History & Geography | 3 | 3 | 2½ | 8½ |
| Modern Languages | 2 | 2 | 2 | 6 |
| Mathematics | 3 | 3 | 2 | 8 |
| Physical & Natural Sciences - Hygiene, Laboratory | 4 | 4 | 4 | 12 |
| Theory of Agriculture | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 |
| Drawing & Modelling | 2 | 2 | 2 | 6 |
| Geometrical Drawing | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 |
| Singing & Music | 2 | 2 | 2 | 6 |
| Gymnastics | 2 | 2 | 2 | 6 |
| Manual Work & Agriculture | 4 | 4 | 4 | 12 |
| | 30 | 30 | 28½ | 88½ |

In the normal schools for girls the curriculum varies to include household science.

The demonstration lesson is not unique but the practice in the French normal school is slightly different. Every week, generally on Saturday, a class is brought from the training school or 'école annexe' . All members of the faculty and the students are assembled there and a third year student gives a lesson which is later open for general

discussion and criticism; as a rule the fellow students are the severest critics.

The examinations for teaching certificates, the "brevet supérieur" and the "certificat d'aptitude" are really taken in four parts. The brevet is obtained if the student is successful in the examination at the end of each of the three years of work. Permanent appointment and the "certificat d'aptitude" follow the successful completion of written examinations in professional subjects and an oral examination on educational practice and the teaching of a class for three hours before the primary inspector and two experienced teachers.

The Problem of Industrial Education.

In France the technical branch of education includes the practical schools of commerce and industry (écoles pratiques de commerce et d'industrie), which provide a theoretical-practical training; trade or apprenticeship schools (écoles de métiers), which are more practical in character; the national vocational schools (écoles nationales professionelles), which offer a four-year training for minor executives, foremen, supervisors, and superintendents in a small number of specialized trades.

The chief dates in the progress of technical education are 1919, 1920 and 1925. The Astier Bill of 1919 gave a charter to technical education. In 1920 the administration was assumed by the Ministry of Public Instruction and some attempt was made to legislate the technical branch into the system. The reform of 1925 gave a new objective to the work. Increasing attention was given to the problem of guiding pupils who leave the elementary schools into vocations better adapted to their inclinations and their physical, intellectual and moral characteristics, taking into account family circumstances and the status of the labour market.

The general method of vocational guidance in France is exemplified by the system in Paris (1), although the concentration of population causes greater variation in the

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(1) Outlying areas are copying many of the Technical Training plans of the Paris Chamber of Commerce.

"trades" taught than would be taught in smaller administrative units. The Paris Chamber of Commerce maintains fourteen "workship schools"(ateliers écoles), nine for boys, three for girls and two mixed, containing (in 1932) 1800 apprentices. The pupils enter at 12 years of age, if they possess the "certificat d'études primaires", which exempts from further compulsory education. Otherwise they enter at the age of 13. "The first period of from three to six months in the workshop schools is a sifting period devoted to ascertaining the pupils' bent (orientation professionnelle); the second six months is regarded as an apprenticeship period and the third period, varying from one to two years is devoted to intensive training which completes the pupil's course of apprenticeship." (1)

The French Apprenticeship Act of 1925 provides about 160 million francs for technical school purposes and urges that each industry provide some sort of apprenticeship training. Vocational guidance and technical instruction are co-ordinated in the trade schools. Teachers train more than 230 thousand students yearly. In giving a practical training to French youth beyond the elementary school period, the various chambers of commerce that have undertaken the work have three aims:-

(i) to prepare the child technically for work,
(ii) to assist the child in the choice of occupation for which he is best fitted,
(iii) to insure a better understanding among employers and employees.

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(1) The Yearbook of Education - 1933.

Since chambers of commerce in France may be stated to be official in character, it has been possible for them to make use of a number of buildings which had previously been given to primary instruction. As at present constituted, courses are offered in practically all lines of the clothing industry, including tailoring, shirt and shoe making, pattern cutting; the furrier's trade; paper and pasteboard making; the leather trade; trades such as plasterer, marbler; ceramics, plumbing, locksmith, hardware, drugs and paints. Practical instruction is also given to children seeking to become qualified bakers, butchers, delicatessen dealers, chefs, pastry makers, etc. (1)

The period of instruction is normally 2 years although the duration will depend to some extent on the type of trade being learned. In most cases the tuition is gratuitous since a special tax, called the tax on apprenticeship, was levied by Parliament in the Finance Law of July 13, 1925.

The purpose of the practical schools is to train employees for commerce and workers ready to enter employment in a workship. The curricula of the schools are not uniform and the organization of the schools is sufficiently flexible to enable them to be adapted to the needs of any locality or region. Trade schools have been established for rural artisans, the most important of these being at Gourdan-Polignan where boys are taught how to repair machinery and to care for farm equipment. So far as the

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(1) Apprenticeship in England, France and Germany; The United States Bureau of Education, June 1934.

establishment of trade schools is concerned the state intervenes only to study the plans of the buildings and to give financial assistance, not exceeding 50 per cent of the expenditure. (1)

There is in connection with each school an advisory committee selected from persons in the locality to draw up courses of study and to undertake the placement of pupils. Professional supervision and inspection are entrusted to departmental, regional and general inspectors. The departmental and regional inspectors are chosen from persons engaged in local industry and serve in a voluntary capacity. Thus there has been established a beneficial relation between industry and the trade schools.

The teachers vary in rank. The director and all who have the rank of "professors" or teachers of general and special subjects are appointed by the Under Secretary of State for Vocational Education. Provision has been made for the training of these teachers and some of the teachers of other vocational and technical schools at the "Ecole Normale de l'Enseignement Technique" located in the buildings of the "Ecole Nationale d'Arts et Métiers", Paris. Young men and women are admitted to this normal school on a competitive examination. There are two sections for each sex, the industrial and commercial. The courses given are not intended to cover training in all trades. The student selects a special field of study and specializes to a certain

(1) Finance Law of June 30, 1923.

extent but the actual instruction of the pupils in the manual work of a certain craft is given by the foremen in the school shops or special instructors under them. These craftsmen are selected for each school by competitive examination, are appointed for a year or less, and are considered as employees of the commune or the department, as the case may be. Thereafter they may be given permanent appointment, receive their salaries half from the state and half from the commune, and become entitled to a pension. The status granted to the foreman is such as to secure selection from the best workers of the locality. They are the guarantee of the quality of apprenticeship attained in the school. There are then on the staffs of the different trade schools trained teachers and skilled workmen.

Since the number of teachers who graduate from the Technical Normal School each year is inadequate to meet the demands of all the schools, the authority for vocational education invites applications from those who hold a degree in science, or those who have the permanent certificate to teach in a higher elementary school, or in some cases from very good elementary teachers who have the "brevet supérieure". Graduates of the national schools of arts and crafts or of some special institutes are employed to take charge of some practical work and designing. As there is a close relationship between art and craft work in France, the authorities select special designers as instructors particularly in girls'

classes for dress designing and millinery. The system of selection of teachers is being changed frequently but the applicant is chosen by examination and as the appointment leads to permanent employment there are many applicants. There has not been great stress placed upon professional training if the applicant is a master of his craft or subject.

A taacher who is able to secure successful results in general school work does not always succeed in training apprentices in the vocational courses for adolescent pupils in the more advanced trade schools. The pupil is older and does not tolerate the practices of the elementary classroom. The teacher must, therefore, have special skill and resourcefulness, must have frequent references to the trade in order to interest the apprentice, must use the sometimes specialized jargon of the vocation, must make efforts to raise questions that the apprentice should be able to answer, and must find topics and assignments that correspond to the objectives of the apprentices attending the course. (1) There must be teachers of general subjects and these must be able to present their subjects with a cultural as well as a vocational objective for the apprentice should receive general education as well as occupational training.

Special schools for the training of foremen, supervisors and superintendents of industry have been organized. They

(1) Directeur-adjoint H.Luc, "Vocational Training in France", Educational Yearbook of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1928.

are called "écoles nationales professionnelles". These are state-supported schools and serve a wider area than the smaller trade schools. A new national vocational school for spectacle making has been established at Morez (Jura) and one for the cutlery industry at Thiers (Puy de Dôme).

Pupils are admitted by a competitive examination and remain for three or four years. A special diploma, the same for all schools, is granted on passing a final examination. The courses are of a higher standard than those of the practical schools, and frequently are added to suit local industries such as weaving, ceramics, furniture making. These schools really serve as model vocational schools and they have standards to which the trade schools may aspire. The teaching staff appointed by the state after examination is drawn from the same sources as the staff of the trade schools.

The Problem of Exceptional Children.

In France, as in most countries to-day, abnormal children are divided into two large groups: 1) the educable abnormals, whom it is possible to improve and to bring into such a condition that they are able to care for themselves, and 2) the un-educable abnormal, who have to be cared for and controlled. Institutions such as the one organized by Dr Bourneville at Bicêtre have been provided to care for the un-educable. Their detection and care is directed by the State although a few of the institutions of care have been endowed by private citizens and directed by charitable organizations.

The abnormal educable children are divided again into two distinct groups: 1) the physiologically abnormal and 2) the mentally defective or backward children. This is, of course, the usual division. In 1905 a special commission instituted by the Minister of Public Instruction made an inquiry through the municipalities and educational authorities with the object of ascertaining the number of abnormal children. According to the terms of the inquiry the educationally backward were not to be considered abnormal. "In a population of 5,015,416 children between the ages of 2 and 13 years there were 31,791 abnormal classified as follows:- (1)

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(1) Kelynack, T.N. Defective Children, 1915.

| Defect | Total | Boys | Girls |
|---|---|---|---|
| Blind | 1858 | 1068 | 790 |
| Deaf-Mutes | 4349 | 2164 | 2185 |
| Medically abnormal | 7984 | 4696 | 3288 |
| Backward | 14200 | 8336 | 5864 |
| Unstable | 3400 | 1855 | 1545 |

The above table is not submitted to establish a comparison but to show the extent of the study of the problem that had been made at that time. Much of this study had no doubt been prompted by the work of Binet whose intelligence tests were the first to be generally used to give numerical ratings to intelligence. By a law of 1909 classes and special schools for abnormal children were established in France.

Special classes and schools are arranged by the departments and communes. The classes are attached to elementary schools and only deal with day pupils. The special schools may take day-pupils or resident pupils. The special classes are arranged for children tetween the ages of 6 and 13. Pupils may be selected by the headmaster and sent to the special class but usually an examination of the child in question is made by the medical officer who submits his report to a committee. The committee consists of a primary inspector, a director of a special school and a doctor. A member of the child's family is asked to be present at the examination. This may be a very fair way of selecting mentally-defective children for special institutions, but it seems to give too much publicity to the child's defect.

The most famous school for mentally defective children

and adults in France was founded by Dr E.Sequin in Paris in 1837. His "Treatise on Idiocy" remains a standard work. Much experimental work has been carried on and the intelligence tests of Binet are used in some form throughout the world. The big problems have been to find accommodation for the retarded children who could not profit by class teaching and to train teachers for the work of teaching them. When no special teachers were available, one of the teachers on the staff who showed special aptitude for teaching "dull" pupils was put in charge of the special class. With the growth of special schools in towns and cities, special instruction had to be given to teachers who spent at least one year at a training centre where they learned the types of defects, selection and care of defectives, corrective measures, psychology, speech defects, school subjects.

Schools for the deaf have been established for many years in France. In Paris in 1770 Abbé de l'Epée founded a school and a system of teaching deaf-mutes by a sign language that has been used in some schools until the present time. It was not so universally used as the system invented by Heinicke in Saxony in 1778. The French Government took over the school of de l'Epée and national care of deaf mutes has been an objective for many years. Other schools have been built to accommodate children in different parts of the country. Whereas the early school was a shelter as well as a school for adults, now inspectors of

schools report deaf mute children to the State and there is an attempt to train them in language, reading, arithmetic and vocation while they are young . Teachers are trained at the Paris School for the Deaf and other institutions of similar rank. The courses are practical rather than theoretical and by acting as probationary teachers for three years they learn the care of deaf children. Occasionally elementary school teachers take a course at one of these institutions and are appointed as teachers of deaf children in smaller schools. There has been very little special provision for "partially hearing" children in France except for some experimental work in Paris.

The Institution Nationale des Jeunes Aveugles was founded in Paris in 1784 and made a State institution by the First Republican Government in 1791. The care of the blind has been supported by private and state funds. It has been difficult to find places for blind graduates of the schools but they are able to make certain products for sale and many of them have been able to support themselves. The teachers of the blind learn the system of "braille" teaching after they have been trained as elementary school teachers. Certain teachers of craftwork are craftsmen who are selected because of special aptitude for teaching blind children. (1)

By a law of 1791 all delinquent children in France were to be cared for in industrial schools. As there were no such

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(1) Hans, Nicholas, A - The Principles of Educational Policy, 1929.

schools or homes it could not be put into practice at once but soon private and state schools for delinquents were built. Now delinquents are taught trades at "farm schools" or industrial homes. There is an attempt to study each boy or girl individually to discover his or her particular defect and occupational interest. The teachers of these industrial schools are selected by examination particularly on their ability to teach certain trades and subjects and to deal with boys and girls who are delinquent. The old prison reformatories have been replaced by this new method of socializing individual delinquents. There are now "colonies penitentiaires" for the less corrupted children, the "colonies correctionnelles" for convicted children. In France all orphans and foundlings are maintained by the State. By the law of 1889, to these groups of State children were added the morally abandoned children and children of criminal parents and since that time such children are either educated by the State in special institutions or by specially selected farming families under State supervision.

There has been as yet no special provision for the teaching of gifted children in special classes. The secondary school pupils are to an extent the "élite" of the country but even in these schools some children are able to progress more quickly than others. There is very little of intelligence grouping in the schools.

In conclusion, for this great variety of State schools

in France for exceptional children, viz. schools for deaf, blind, mentally-defective (1), delinquents, orphans, etc., there are chosen each year by competitive examinations a staff of teachers who have been prepared for the work. The older and larger institutions serve as training colleges for the teachers of the smaller. Special courses are given to supplement the work of the normal schools.

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(1) Schools or classes for mentally defective children may be supported by a commune or department.

The Problem of Agricultural Education and Rural Teachers.

One advantage of a centralized system of education is that, when a social or educational adjustment has to be made to a recognized problem, legislation can be introduced to make an adjustment in the schools. After the Great War when France was faced with the problem of reclaiming the war-torn areas and speeding up the production of raw materials and food at home, the thoughts of the people turned to the development of Agriculture as a National industry. With the development of this industry the Ministry of Public Instruction saw the need for increased facilities for the teaching of Agriculture in the schools.

In 1920 the National Assembly authorized rural schools to add a two-year course to their programme. There was to be a study of gardening, cereals, native food-producing plants; how they grow, how their production could be increased, destruction of weeds and insects, economic relation of plants to animal life, etc. In different parts of the country the instruction was to have a relationship to the local form of agriculture. Where the production of grapes is the chief rural activity the pupils were to learn of grape culture. Some schools in the south had in each a small vineyard for experimental work.

To teach this new subject in the rural schools it was necessary that the students take a special course in Agriculture at the Normal Schools. This course with

Land Surveying has been regarded as an optional subject at the Normal Schools, but with a demand for teachers who have a diploma or certificate for teaching Agriculture in rural areas the greater number of the students chose the course and received the special instruction during the period of their training. The former course in Agriculture was increased in content and in many of the Normal Schools a laboratory and experimental course was given. It tended to be scientific and vocational in character and with an extensive course of study it, in some cases, became "bookish" and academic. It was a beginning, however, and with some more recent changes the courses have become more experimental and interesting. The teaching of the subject in the schools has greatly improved. An additional grant has been given to teachers of Agriculture and some of the teachers have attended special courses at the Higher Agricultural Schools.

Besides the provision for the teaching of Agriculture in the rural elementary schools there are other types of institutions that provide instruction in this subject. The most widely spread throughout France are the Ecoles d'Agriculture which provide practical education for the sons and daughters of farmers. Boys and girls are admitted to these after they have completed the course at the Primary School, at the age of 13 years or 14 years. These are, as the name suggests, schools of practical agriculture and have been organized to help the future farmers to care for their

crops and animals and improve production. The courses vary in length but usually require two or three years. With these are frequently associated Continuation Schools for Agriculture, Farm Schools, and Schools for Apprenticeship in Agriculture. These may be separate institutions but all serve as schools for farm and village children. The instruction is seasonable and usually includes some scientific instruction, some arithmetic and accounting, and some direction as to the relation of farming to other industries. Attendance is voluntary and there are no particular admission requirements. Frequently short courses are given for those students whose services are required at certain seasons.

The teachers of these schools must of course have special training in the different phases of Agriculture that they are to teach. Since the courses are practical the instructor must understand the practice of farming as well as the science. The greater number of these instructors are graduates of one of the National Schools of Agriculture which will be described later. They have to sit special examinations if they are going to teach the subject of Agriculture and may be required to engage in Agricultural surveys or as local representatives of the Ministry of Agriculture. As the Higher Schools of Agriculture which they attend have large experimental farms the students learn certain features of practical farming there.

Students over seventeen years of age may attend one of

the French Agricultural Schools which are really of College rank. There are certain fees that must be paid but the qualifications for admission are not high. The courses extend over a period of two or three years. Research work is done and the instruction given is difficult so it is expected that the student will have some knowledge of science and agriculture before entering.

There are four such institutions which specialize in different subjects and provide instruction in agricultural economics and agricultural engineering. These four schools are:-

(a) Institut National Agronomique near Paris, which specializes in Agricultural Economy.

(b) École Nationale des Eaux et Forêts at Nancy, which specializes in Forestry.

(c) École des Haras du Pin at Orne which trains officers for the administration of an agricultural Department.

(d) École Supérieure du Génie Rural at Paris, which specializes in Agricultural Engineering and includes the study of Mathematics and Physics.

Besides these four schools which specialize in particular directions there are other Agricultural colleges which give general instruction in the theory and practice of Agriculture. They are called Écoles Nationales d'Agriculture. Such schools have been developed at Grignon, Montpellier and Rennes. The graduates of these schools do different types of Agriculture work. Some of them sit the special examinations and go out to teach in the provincial and

commune Continuation Schools. This type of training should be quite satisfactory for their duties as teachers of farmers' sons and prospective farmers. For the schools that are under the direction of the National Ministry of Public Instruction there is a special supervision to insure that the teacher is able to organize his work and present it to a class properly.

To satisfy the need for women teachers of agriculture and rural science one section of the National School of Agriculture at Grignon has been organized for the preparation of teachers and principals of household arts schools that have a rural bias. There is an agricultural section for women at Rennes, and a household arts section at Coetlogon and at Kerlwer. There have been difficulties in recruiting women teachers for the continuation work among the daughters of farmers. The Ministry of Agriculture has co-operated with the Education Ministry in providing facilities for short course and ambulatory courses throughout a section of the country. It is hoped that a complete system of training for future farmers and farmers' wives will be arranged in the future. At present the Ministries encourage the communes to provide accommodation for the classes and the State supplies the teachers. As the demand for teachers increases there will be greater supervision over their training and professional subjects and methods of teaching will be found more frequently on the Agricultural College curriculum.

Special programmes to guide the teacher in giving instruction in agriculture have been sent out by the Under-Secretary of State for Agriculture. These include notes on forestry, domestic animals, horticulture, rural economics and legislation, elementary notions of physical, chemical and natural sciences, French, mathematics, and agricultural book-keeping. They have been of particular assistance to older teachers who have not studied at the Normal Schools since Agriculture was introduced as a subject of study. The utility value of the subject is urged. The general inspector of agriculture receives annual reports from the district inspector and suggestions are sent out to the teachers through these inspectors. These programmes and inspections are intended to give further training to the teacher in service.

The interest in agriculture as a school subject has been developing rapidly. The teaching of agriculture is compulsory in rural areas and the teachers receive special training in the normal schools. The rural situation then is more satisfactory from an educational point of view than in many other countries. Teachers for rural schools are trained locally, that is, in the same "department" since there will be one or two normal schools in each department. The teachers are expected to teach for ten years in the department or municipality in which they are trained. They should understand the rural difficulties and try to improve them. There is this

disadvantage of the local normal school plan, the training for rural improvement may be too narrow. Never having experienced a better literary and artistic environment, the teachers may be content with what conditions they find and teach as they have been taught. The inspectors try to bring to the area new methods and have conferences with the teachers in rural areas to encourage them to improve their cultural and professional qualifications for teaching.

The Problem of Cultural Education.

1) Music.

Two aims of elementary education that were outlined in the course of study in 1887 persist in France. It must give its pupils at once a sum total of knowledge suited to their future needs; second and above all, good habits of mind, a receptive and awakened intelligence, clear ideas, judgment, reflection, order, and precision in thought and language. The schools have been reproached for being too utilitarian. Many foreign critics accuse the schools of "being exclusively preoccupied with the fate awaiting the majority of the pupils when they leave school". (1) This work is not concerned with the degree of correctness of that criticism but is concerned with the extent of provision for the "cultural" education of the children as explained in the introduction. French writers on the subject of education rarely mention this phase. They acknowledge the presence of music and drawing on the school curriculum, but they stress the point that these children who are in the schools must go out to work for a living. They are not going to be musicians or artists, except for a very few, but they must carry into life a store of ideas that will help them in their daily tasks. The subject matter and the methods of education have for many years followed closely the aims suggested in the course of study of 1887.

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(1) Gay, P.H.,and Mortreux, O. - "French Elementary Schools", translated by I.L.Kandel, Columbia University, 1926.

Although the course of study has not changed greatly in the last few years, the interpretation of the course has. The criticism in conferences, called to discuss different educational matters, has had some fruits in the methods of teaching. In no subject have the changes in method been more pronounced than in the teaching of music.

Music had been neglected in the schools. Many teachers, thinking themselves incompetent, taught it reluctantly or not at all. Others mistook theoretical and abstract instruction for musical instruction and the pupils' interest and joy in singing was lost. By a regulation of July 21, 1922, the order of presenting the subject was reversed and the direction was to train the voice and ear first, before beginning the theoretical study of music. No abstract definitions of musical terms were to be given before the children had sung a great deal, and until their musical experiences had been increased. Pupils were not to be taught the graphic symbols of musical language until they had acquired sufficient practice in the language. The pupils must now learn ~~new~~ to sing through hearing and singing.

The recommendation of a commission appointed to study the teaching of music in the schools is quoted from the report prepared by M. André Gedalge, "Musical instruction must be founded on musical training of ear and voice..... The knowledge of musical sounds, which is the basis of musical instruction, is itself a part of elementary musical memory, that is,

ability to recognize, differentiate and memorize the relations in pitch between two successive musical sounds; then to reproduce them, associate them vocally, and then mentally, with the graphic symbols which are their representation".

An attempt will be made to describe the new method of teaching singing in elementary schools in France, but there are s till many teachers "of the old school" who follow a traditional method with a corresponding loss of interest and enjoyment for the pupils.

The teaching of singing for children six or seven years of age is entirely 'by ear'. They sing as they play. The songs are simple folk songs and nursery songs. The Tonic Sol-fa notes are presented to them and they recognize whether the teacher's voice rises or falls, then sing the notes. After they have learned easy intervals, the teacher attempts more difficult intervals. In the second or third year they are given instruction on the staff, reading of notes, and the time-value of notes. They learn more difficult songs and part-songs. The lesson proceeds in three stages then, 1) reading of notes on the staff, 2) reading and beating time, 3) singing. Scales and chords and more difficult measures follow. By the time pupils have reached the end of the 'Middle Course' in school they have studied the more elementary language of music and have learned many songs. Their musical vocabulary is quite more extensive than that of the average Canadian child of the same age

for in Ontario particularly the emphasis is on Rote Songs and songs written in Tonic Sol-fa that pupils may learn many songs, appreciate music, and take their part in school, community and church musical activities. The Upper Course in the French elementary school contains besides more difficult songs, such musical terms as Intonation, Signs of duration, movements and nuances most commonly used, Sight Reading, Syncopation, Sharp, Flat, Natural, Simple and Compound Measures, Exercises for two voices, etc.

With the "Course in Music prepared for use in the elementary schools" which has been described above from the original, the writers add-"The programme and method we have just described are of such a nature as to remove teachers' fears concerning the difficulties of teaching singing". The elementary teacher in an American school would have grave fears if presented with such a course and told to teach it to her classes. It would be easy for a specialist but the teachers who will teach this course in France are to a great extent regular class teachers, for only in the large cities are specialist teachers and supervisors employed.

The course in music at the Normal Schools in France follows very closely the course laid down for elementary schools with an additional course that is more advanced and observation lessons and practice teaching. Many of the students have learned to play a musical instrument and as a result of the new interest in music education, they are

asked at their preliminary examination if they play a piano or violin. Some preference is given in selection to those who do play. During the course of three years at the Normal School the students spend two hours a week on the subject of singing and music. The time allotted to music is the same in Normal Schools for Men as in Normal Schools for Women. The Instructor in Music at each Normal School must pass a special examination in the Matter and Method of Music before being selected for employment. The students pass an examination at the end of each year of their work and since the work of the Normal School is very seriously followed, the graduates have a satisfactory knowledge of music and the new teaching methods.

The lycées and collèges, the secondary schools, have adhered rather closely to their original purpose of preparing the "élite" for university training and the professions. There have been recent changes and concessions to general education but music has not become a compulsory subject in schools for boys. By a decree of March 25, 1924, "Domestic economy, needlework and music constitute a compulsory part of the course in lycées and collèges for girls. The examination passed after the fourth year of studies will entitle pupils to the "certificat d'études secondaires". The decree of January 14, 1882 is repealed." (1) Temporary measures were

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(1) Kandel, I.L. - The Reform of Secondary Education in France, Columbia University, New York, 1924

arranged for the selection of teachers of music. Lady teachers who had special training in music were not available in sufficient numbers. Teachers from private institutions and from Academies of Music were pressed into service in the secondary schools, but they must first pass an examination for certification. There is a definite interest in the subject in the schools but the time allowed is inadequate from an American point of view and the results vary greatly from school to school.

2) Art

In describing the very severe competition for entrance to the "école normale" reference was made to a written examination based on the work of the higher elementary school and to a very searching oral examination later. During this oral examination questions may be asked of the candidate on any subject of the elementary school curriculum including Drawing. The candidate's school work in Drawing began at the age of 6, for it is a compulsory subject throughout the elementary school in all four courses (préparatoire, élémentaire, moyen, and supérieur). The nature of the questions on Drawing that may be asked by the examining committee may be judged from the fact that Drawing is taught throughout the elementary school with the very definite aim of developing a method of expression according to certain standards set up by the teacher. The object is not enjoyment but accomplishment. In the earlier classes there are definite directions as to proportions, shape, colour, etc. There is not much of free drawing, although in more recent years teachers have been attempting to make the drawing lesson a more enjoyable one by reducing standards and encouraging individuality. In the senior classes the boy has had very definite instruction and practice in mechanical drawing and design, in preparing drawings for models he will later make in wood, in the use of art in industry. The candidate for admission to the Normal School then will have

had instruction in drawing for one hour per week in the elementary school up to the higher stage when he may have two hours per week in Artistic Design and modelling and one hour per week in Geometrical Design.

Having been admitted to the Normal School the student must adjust himself to a very extensive programme of work in many subjects and instruction in Art cannot be extensive. Under the direction of an Art instructor who must pass a special examination to obtain his post, he devotes two hours per week to Artistic Drawing, Design, Painting, and Craft work. He is encouraged in creative work but much time is spent in lectures on the method of teaching Art. The student must do some teaching in the practice schools and he follows the methods outlined by his instructor. At the end of each year he must pass an examination and at the end of his three year course a final examination in all subjects. The training may not seem adequate for one who is particularly interested in Art but one must remember that these students are being trained as elementary teachers of all subjects, and when they go out to teach they may be expected to teach all subjects.

The French people with their great traditions in Art and Design have complained that there are so very few Specialist teachers of Art for the elementary schools. If Art is a compulsory subject in the secondary schools, teachers are employed who have had special training in one of the Art Schools of Paris or other large centres. The Secondary

school population in France, however, is comparatively small, with the result that unless elementary school pupils proceed to some type of continuation school later they receive a small amount of training in Art appreciation. Recent economies had the effect of interrupting a scheme for providing specialist Art teachers for the higher elementary schools.

There exists a Ministry of Fine Arts but the work, excellent as it is, does not to a very great extent assist the municipal schools. The care and preservation of national monuments; the control of national museums and galleries; and the management of the School of Fine Arts, the School of Decorative Arts, and the provincial Art schools throughout the country, are activities of this Ministry.(1) They have not the control of art schools and trade schools which cater for industrial requirements. In the Art Schools mentioned there is progressive training by excellent teachers and practising artists for the student of Art.

To begin at the top there is the very famous Paris School of Fine Arts with Professor Ducos de la Hachelle as Principal. There are some 40 professors, each of whom is provided with his own studio. In addition to the professors who are responsible for various groups of painting and sculpture students there are also professors for special

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(1) Industry and Art Education on the Continent, His Majesty's Stationery Office, London, 1934.

subjects such as drawing from the cast. The majority of the professors are past Rome-prize winners. The most interesting feature of this famous school from the point of view of the student of education is that the professors are selected particularly because of their merit as artists in a particular field. The pupils are admitted by competitive examination and the courses include Perspective, Modelling, Architecture, Sculpture and Painting. The graduates of recent years who have found the work of professional artist not particularly remunerative have gone to provincial schools as teachers of Art.

The provincial schools under the direction of the Ministry of Fine Arts are similar in organization to the School of Fine Arts but the work is less advanced. Several of the teachers are Rome-prize winners, a very high distinction. There is greater enthusiasm on the part of the students from this contact with great creative artists and these provincial schools have in this way produced some famous artists. The staffs of these schools have a complement of teachers who have attended other institutions and been awarded the "Certificat d'aptitude aux Enseignements Spéciaux". The Principal and the Directorate have the right to select their teachers by special examinations of the candidates which is the usual procedure in the greater number of special schools of any type.

Art as a separate subject was introduced in the course

of study for Secondary Schools issued in 1926. It is a required subject for all pupils in the fourth year and for pupils in two sections in the fifth and sixth years. The aim is neither to train specialists nor critics, which would indeed be impossible in the half-hour a week assigned to the subject, nor to give a systematic course in the history of art, but to develop appreciation and taste through a study of the great masterpieces of painting and sculpture since the Renaissance period. (1) This course in aesthetic appreciation includes not only painting and sculpture but architecture, furniture design, and contemporary decorative art. The method is rather the French "explication de textes" than practice. If the pupil has little practice and little skill, if he has not learnt the silent language of form and colour it seems that the instruction brings to the pupil only an academic knowledge of great art and famous artists. The courses in Art in the Secondary Schools in themselves are hindered by the course of study from accomplishing an artistic purpose.

Many of the teachers of Art in these schools have received their training at one of the various Schools of Art academies. There is no central institution for the preparation and training of teachers of Art for Secondary Schools. They must however pass one of the special examinations for appointment and frequently the examining committee is concerned more with securing a secondary school

(1) Kandel,I.L.,Comparative Education, George G.Harrap & Co. Ltd, London, 1933.

teacher than with securing an Art teacher. The work observed in lycée in Paris was well done but meagre in amount. In a country village collège it was not particularly well done. When a teacher was asked the amount of training that the pupils received in colour harmony for selection of clothes, for interior decoration of the home, for appreciation of the beautiful, he replied, "Unfortunately very little".

The difficulty with the teaching of Art in France as is the case in other countries is that it suffers from too much method because many of the teachers of the subject in the schools have not learned from the training the value of art in life. They teach it with an elementary school aim or a secondary school aim that their pupils all may move from standard to standard according to their age as they teach arithmetic. The provincial schools of Art do not suffer so much in this respect because there is greater freedom in method and a better atmosphere of interest and appreciation and individual effort.

The Problem of Religious Education.

"The neutrality of the lay school (école laique) takes away the basis of a moral education." (1)

"The suppression of God in the schools has swelled the number of young malefactors to such an extent that the statement may be made and supported by statistics in hand that to open a public school will call for the building of a prison at its side." (2)

"The half-hour of catechism each day is worth more than all the classes of science put together." (3)

Such propaganda for Church Schools (écoles libres) still pours forth upon the French people from pulpit and press. The arguments for Church Schools that are quoted in the first three paragraphs have frequently been repeated in parliament and in books. Every phase of the primary and secondary system has been attacked. In certain sections, particularly Brittany and Normandy, the lay schools are becoming depopulated because of the increase of "écoles libres". The "école unique" controversy diverted the popular attention from the question of religious teaching in the schools for a time but recent statistics show an increase in the number of elementary and secondary church schools. It would not be difficult to establish private church schools and many are now in existence, but the proposal is for church and state to share the responsibility for instruction of the youth.

(1), (2), (3) - L'Echo des Pyrénées, October, November, 1920.

Advocates of the lay school, who as yet have been in the majority, have two chief arguments in favour of the present system of "lay" schools. The first is that "the pupils of her (France's) public (lay) schools, who formed the great majority of her combatants during the Great War, had shown up very well on the battlefields of the Marne and Verdun".(1) They protected France in an emergency and showed exemplary bravery on a public school education. The second argument is that morality is taught in the schools and although it has not a religious bias, the pupils are formally and by example taught truth, virtue, honesty, and the elements of right living. The moral decadence, if it exist, cannot be attributed to indifference on the part of school authorities and teachers.

The conclusion of the argument has not yet been heard. Roman in his study of French education agreed with foreign critics that moral instruction in the French schools was formal but "less formal and far more interesting than the lessons on religion which it replaced". (1)

There is no provision for religious instruction or the teaching of religious knowledge at the Normal Schools. Attendance at church and the observance of church holidays in Catholic areas are expected. The hours for these observances are the usual hours required of out-of-school citizens. One compulsory course, however, is "l'instruction morale et civique" and in this course the students are instructed in

(1) Roman, F.W. - The New Education in Europe, George Routledge & Sons,Ltd, New York, 1930.

give their parents an opportunity to send their children to the churches where the religious instruction may be given. This instruction is, of course, given by the clergy who in their training for the ministry in the church are instructed in the method of religious instruction for children and adolescents.

The State schools provide moral and civic instruction. Some years ago this included some discussion or lectures in theism, but these were discontinued and now the moral instruction is intended to develop good characters rather than to attempt to direct the religious belief of the child. It seems rather academic and the methods used are not impressive to a follower of the Dewey philosophy of education.

Whether the State should provide religious instruction for its teachers or not can only be answered by an intensive study of the social and educational problems of the State concerned. France by laws that were passed as long ago as 1882 has tried to remain neutral in this matter. Whether she will ultimately reverse this legislation will be decided in the future. At present it seems that she will remain neutral. The teachers seem to prefer this arrangement and the parents may remain satisfied to have all forms of religious instruction reserved for the church in the church.

The Roman Catholic church in France insists that the children of each parish attend the services and take part in the ceremonies, festivals and sacraments. The belief is that

"Religion inculcates faith in the child by habit from the earliest age; it habituates to action, to prayer, for instance, as if the definitions of faith were true before giving the child reasons for and proof of this truth." (1) This church training is, of course, to be supplemented by lessons from the clergy and the moral instruction in the schools. For Catholic children this is a definite understanding and the teachers in the schools are aware that their work in character training is supplemented by the church.

There is a certain soundness in this entire policy of religious training that is lacking in many states in which there is no relation between the teaching of the school and the teaching of the church. The teachers of the school leave the problem to the church and if the children do not attend church a very important phase of their training is neglected. The teacher tries to build up a respect for truth, honesty and other virtues, but ideas of God, Christianity, and the development and influence of the Christian church are neglected. These school systems could very will take an inventory of the agencies for good and for evil that mould the life of the child. They might find in the French system of schools much that is to be commended.

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(1) Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1929 - "France" by Felix Pécaut.

The Problem of Homemaking and Family Life.

Girls in Primary Schools and in Advanced Primary Schools are expected to receive instruction in Domestic Science. The extent and nature of this instruction depends upon the locality. In the smaller schools of rural areas there is little or no equipment, so lessons may be given in needlework, or talks given on household activities. Whatever instruction there is, is given by the regular teacher, a graduate of the normal school. In the cities and towns Domestic Science rooms have been equipped in some schools. The work is both practical and theoretical but the emphasis is on the learning of certain manual activities such as washing clothes, ironing, sewing, washing dishes, preparing food, etc.

The Ministry of Public Instruction has not been satisfied with this training for girls. As many of these girls do not attend more advanced institutions except the vocational or "professional" schools, it has been proposed to provide a progressive course in domestic science throughout the schools. This will include 1) three periods a week of "domestic economy instruction" for girls from 11 to 14 years of age, 2) the creation of an intercommunal extension course for girls who have left school. Until this law is passed the State can only encourage the parents to let their children attend school longer that the girls may receive the instruction in domestic science in the higher primary school or the technical school.

There are now different types of vocational and trade

schools that include instruction for girls between the ages of 13 and 17. The girl students of the trade schools are given about 20 courses in cooking and 12 to 20 courses in the following:- washing and cleaning of clothes, ironing and mending, and tailoring. In accordance with local conditions various courses are also given on nursing, the care of children, and gardening. One of the most famous "professional" schools is that at Bourges. The rural areas have not accommodation and teachers for these schools but under the proposed re-organization, domestic science classes will be made compulsory in all areas.

Owing to the popular demand for an increased programme of Secondary education for girls, Domestic Science has appeared on the curriculum of girls' lycées and collèges in recent years. At first it was considered as just another school subject but with the employment of better trained teachers it has been given a new purpose. The teachers have been directed to correlate Domestic Science with Natural Science. From a study of precautionary measures taken when people are sick, the class is led to study Disinfection, Germs, Microscopic Organisms. From practical work in preparing foods they learn the chemistry of Foods. After learning the distinction between silk and artificial silk they study Biology and the chemistry of Dyeing. One teacher says, "Many a theoretic subject, which has not claimed attention before, becomes interesting if one recognizes its practical significance and its connection with daily life,

and realizes on the one hand that domestic processes rest on well—known facts". This is an interesting use for domestic science work, viz. to motivate and give practical significance to the sciences. It would not be accepted, perhaps, in Germany where the emphasis is placed on the practical preparation for life. These teachers in secondary schools of France have made an adjustment of the study of domestic science to an academic school. The girls whom they teach may become teachers or business girls and there may not be the same need for housekeeping training. The teachers themselves have examinations in the work of their subject before appointment.

Since October 1933, domestic economy extension or continuation courses have been organized by the local authorities (departments or communes). The National Ministry restricts its activity to the supervision of such efforts. It is hoped that valuable information will thus be obtained which will gradually make it possible to make this a part of the national system of education.

Teachers for the extension courses in domestic economy are prepared for their work in two schools, the National Domestic Economy School at Rennes-Coetlogon, and the Agriculture Institute at Toulouse. This education is supplemented by a period of practical training on a farm. To enter these training courses candidates must certify that they have taught successfully for three years in an elementary school. During

the one-year training course the candidates receive their salaries and their indemnities just as if they were in the regular service. The course is both theoretical and practical and the schools are equipped for teaching cooking, sewing, laundry and Care of the Home.

Changes in the normal school programme of studies for girls include reorganization of the courses in physics, chemistry and natural sciences so as to adapt these subjects to home economics, The students receive instruction for two hours a week in the practical work of cooking and sewing and in the methods of teaching them. The training qualifications of instructresses in the Normal Schools are being extended and they must in future have practical training similar to that of the graduates of the National Domestic Science School as well as teacher training and a further study of the subject they are to teach. (1)

Two advanced domestic economy schools in Paris, the school in Rue de l'Abbaye under the management of the Sisters of St. Vincent de Paul, and the "Institut Normal Familial Ménager" in the Rue Monsieur, train teachers of domestic economy, especially for the labouring sections of towns. These are private institutions but since there is, as yet, no regulation directing that teachers of domestic science shall be trained in certain schools, these schools have done very satisfactory work in preparing teachers for private schools and for certain trade and "professional" schools.

(1) Bertrand, Dr Paul, "Report of Domestic Economy Teaching in France", Fifth International Congress of Home Economics, Berlin, Aug. 21-26, 1934.

Another school that has provided training is the Advanced Agricultural Domestic Economy School of the Agricultural Syndicate (Unions) of the South East of Lyon. In addition to providing intra-mural courses it has been active in the field of travelling educational courses and correspondence courses. The newspaper that is has published, "The Woman in the Country", has been of assistance to rural teachers and to mothers in the homes.

This brief summary of domestic science teaching in France might suggest that the training of teachers is not uniform and that the subject is given a "bookish" bias except in the trade schools or private domestic science schools. The schools visited were not particularly well equipped for household science teaching, but the teachers were using the meagre equipment to the best advantage. There were not, for example, "housewifery apartments" but the girls were being told how to care for a home and were making sketches of homes, rooms, and equipment. There was a lack of uniformity and the poorer districts where, perhaps, the need for this instruction in cleaning and caring for the home was greatest, were receiving little or no instruction. The most satisfactory courses for teachers were those of the Normal Schools and the Private and Public Institutions for the study of Domestic Science. It is expected that the Ministry of Public Instruction will increase the facilities for Domestic Science training.

## SCOTLAND.

In Scotland the changes in the philosophy of education have not been so apparent as those in organization and administration. The man in the street may say that his children are receiving the same education as he himself received but that they go to a different type of school and have a different school authority. However, it will be apparent from this study that the Scottish reputation as a well-educated populace has been well maintained.

The history of Scottish Education reveals relatively long periods between revolutionary changes in system. The Parish (or Parochial) School instituted by the Act of 1696, aimed at providing elementary education for the children of the poor. It was administered by the Heritors and Ministers of Parishes. Measured by modern requirements, the act produced fair results. However it is estimated that in 1860 illiteracy was still common and that "parochial schools failed to grapple with the general problem of elementary education in Scotland". (1) The way was directed however by these. Their chief merit was to give a chance to the 'lad o' pairts'. Many eminent Scottish scholars came out of the Parish School.

In 1872 Education became compulsory by Act of Parliament, and Parish Schools were placed under the control of

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(1) Robertson, R. D. - Address delivered at the Annual Congress of the Educational Institute of Scotland in 1934.

School Boards, who were required to provide for the education not only of the poor, but of "the whole people of Scotland". The School Boards made themselves responsible for the provision of educational facilities for larger numbers of children , but public provision for secondary education and for the training of teachers was still inadequate. "By subsequent Acts and by Minutes of the Department, amendments of far-reaching importance and effect were gradually introduced, but the system of local administration instituted in 1872 - the Parish School Boards - has been kept in operation up to the present time (1917), although its utter inadequacy has for long past been only too apparent." (1) Thus did the Scottish Education Reform Committee sum up the progress of 45 years. The Act of 1908 establishing the Education (Scotland) Fund, and giving new powers to School Boards and Secondary Education Committees, was a definite advance, and the Provincial Committees for the Training of Teachers were active in providing better teacher training facilities during the succeeding years.

The Education Act of 1918 was most far-reaching and established county administration of all state-aided schools. It brought the Voluntary (Denominational) schools under the management of the new authorities. It made compulsory part-time attendance of adolescents (15 to 18 years of age) at Continuation Schools. It also made provision for

(1) The Report of the Scottish Education Reform Committee, 1917.

nursery schools and Adult education. According to new legislation in 1929, the ad hoc authority by the Act of 1918 was displaced in 1930 by County Council and Town Council Committees.

It cannot be said that these changes in administration were brought about without protest. Some teachers watched with growing concern the increasing centralization of authority. In 1926 this opinion was well expressed by Dr Boyd of Glasgow University in the following words:- "The freedom sought is not the right of the individual teacher to do what seems good in his own eyes, but freedom from the compulsion to do what seems good in the eyes of an outsider armed with authority". (1) This anxiety has possibly been due to misunderstanding and seems to have largely disappeared. The advantages of larger administrative units with greater provision for secondary schools were more evident during the period than the protests.

Education in Scotland is under the direction of a Central department called the Scottish Education Department. As a Committee of His Majesty's Privy Council, appointed by the crown, the Lord President of it is President of the Department, but the Secretary for Scotland is the political head and represents its needs in Parliament. The various Education Acts are administered by this Department and from time to time new regulations are added.

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(1) Boyd, Dr Wm., "The Scottish Teachers' Code of Professional Etiquette", in the New Era, October 1926.

The local unit of Education Authority is the county, and in the case of Edinburgh, Glasgow, Dundee and Aberdeen, the city. Whereas between 1918 and 1929 the education acts were administered by an elected ad hoc authority, now the local authority is a Committee of the County Council, or a Committee of the Town Council for each of the four cities. This committee has power to co-opt members in order to bring to this committee the views of various organizations interested in education.

To continue the parish tradition, and to give to each individual school or small group of schools, a local independence in some matters pertaining to buildings, bursaries and expenditure, School Management Committees have been appointed. "The usefulness of these committees is a matter of some doubt and there is a considerable body of opinion in favour of their abolition." (1)

For the inspection of schools the country is divided into four parts and a chief inspector and assistant inspectors are appointed by the Education Department for each division. In addition there are special inspectors for the teaching of art, domestic science, teacher training, etc.

The normal organization of a "primary" school is as (2) follows:- (a) infant division, providing instruction for children under 7 years of age; (b) junior division, providing instruction suitable for children between the ages of

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(1) Burns, Robert, "Scotland" - a chapter in the Educational Yearbook of 1925, Teachers College, Columbia University

(2) "Primary" is not an official name. It is used in contrast to Secondary.

7 and 9; (c) senior division, providing instruction suitable for children between the ages of 9 and 12; (d) advanced division, providing instruction suitable for scholars over 12 years of age, up to the school-leaving age 14, and for one or two years beyond this age.

It is the duty of the various education authorities to make provision for secondary education in their areas and that on a non-fee-paying basis. A secondary school shall, according to Regulations, have a "curriculum that shall extend over at least five years, and shall make provision throughout for the study of English and History." During the earlier years it shall include Geography, Mathematics, a language other than English, Science and Drawing. During the latter years there are combinations of subjects and there must be provision for the study of Latin, Greek, French and German. The aim of the curriculum is the successful presentation of the pupils at the leaving-certificate examinations.

The "leaving certificate" is awarded after examinations conducted by the Department, to successful pupils who have completed a five-or six- year course of post-primary instruction in a secondary school. Its possession permits the student to enter the university.

The "day-school certificate" (higher) is awarded after examinations conducted by the Education Department, to successful pupils who are about to leave school and who have completed an approved three-year course of instruction, after the

qualifying examination. This qualifying examination written by pupils after they have completed the work of the senior division of the elementary school, marks the end of purely primary instruction. Pupils then enter advanced division or secondary schools. More recently pupils have been directed to one or the other of these two forms of post-primary training according to their ability. In advanced division schools, pupils are prepared for handicraft or commercial careers, and girls are given a good domestic science training.

The Training of Teachers.

According to the "Regulations for the Preliminary Education, Training and Certification of Teachers for Various Grades of Schools 1924" there are three qualifications granted to teachers by the Scottish Education Department. The courses of training for these qualifications are given at each of four Training Colleges, located at Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen and St.Andrews including Dundee, maintained by the National Committee for the Training of Teachers. There are as well two denominational colleges, each managed by a committee of the National Committee and the college concerned. These latter colleges are for women students only; the two being Roman Catholic Colleges, Notre Dame R.C. Training College, Glasgow, and Craiglockart R.C. Training College, Edinburgh. St George's Training College, another with a separate management, is affiliated to the Edinburgh Training Centre. The Dunfermline College of Hygiene and Physical Education trains teachers for the Physical Education Certificate.

The State Certificates for which students qualify at the four Training Centres of the National Committee are as follows: (1)

(a) The Teacher's General Certificate, Chapters III and IV .

(b) The Teacher's Special Certificate, Chapter V.

(c) The Teacher's Technical Certificate, Chapter VI.

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(1) Prospectus, Edinburgh Provincial Training Centre, Moray House 1934.

The persons who may be admitted to the Training Centres to qualify for the General Certificate are as follows:- (1)

(a) Female students who hold a Leaving Certificate and and have had a preliminary training of three months in an approved school:

(b) Graduates of a Scottish or other approved university.

(c) Persons who hold a Leaving Certificate together with a Diploma recognized for training for the Technical Certificate.

Training Authorities may admit to training for the Teacher's Special Certificate applicants who hold the degree of an approved university with First or Second Class Honours in the subject to which their application relates. After successfully completing the Training College Course (of forty weeks'duration if combined with the General Certificate Course) the student is recognized as a qualified teacher of English, History, Latin and Greek, a Modern Language, Mathematics, Science, Geography, or Economics

The Teacher's Technical Certificate is awarded to students after a course of professional training in methods of teaching the following Technical subjects:- Art, Applied Science, Agriculture, Commercial subjects, Domestic Economy, Physical Education, Educational Handwork, Music. To be admitted to the professional courses, the student must hold a satisfactory Diploma or Degree relative to the subject, obtained at a recognized College or Institution, e.g. the Diploma of a Central School of Art. The Professional and the Diploma Course may be taken concurrently where time-table arrangements can be made in the two colleges concerned.

(1) The Regulations for the Preliminary Education, Training & Certification of Teachers of Various Grades, Statutory Rules and Orders, 1931.

Teachers may receive Permanent Certificates after two years of satisfactory service recognized by the Headmaster of the school in which he or she serves, and by His Majesty's Inspector.

However, the very concise description of the qualifications for teaching certificates given above does not present the whole story. Of the many sections and notes to the Chapters of Regulations two should not be omitted. Article 39 of these Regulations provides for special instruction to equip students for work in Advanced Divisions of the Primary School. Provision has been made at the Training Colleges for courses to be taken by students who wish to have their certificates endorsed with the qualification for teaching under the provision of this Article. Special courses in Domestic Subjects, Physical Education, Art, Music, Commercial Subjects, Industrial Subjects and Rural Subjects are given and courses in the teaching of these subjects may be taken along with the General, Special or Technical Certificate.

The General Certificate course may be combined with a special course for qualifying as Infant Mistresses under Article 51 of the Regulations. Training in Infant School Methods is given at the Training Centres to make this indorsement possible.

The chief changes in Training College regulations during the last ten years deal with qualifications for

admission and length of courses. In 1924, the Junior Student Certificate was abolished and all applicants for the Teachers' General Certificate course must now have at least a Leaving Certificate. The further demand was made that men students must have degrees. In 1931 the minimum course of training for non-graduate students who have had no preliminary training was extended from two years to three years. "To-day more than 37 per cent of all the teachers in Scotland are graduates, and the proportion rises every year."(1) The students entering the course for a General Certificate, who hold the Leaving Certificate only, must attend for three years at the Training College. Students who wish to be teachers of Handwork may be admitted on satisfactorily passing an entrance examination, if they have had experience in trades even though they have not the Leaving Certificate. In the near future it is expected that higher entrance qualifications will be required of those students.

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(1) Education in Scotland during King George's Reign, The Scottish Educational Journal, 1935.

The Problem of Technical Education.

The bequests of Scottish philanthropists have greatly assisted many plans for adult education. These benefactors have inspired educational organizations to keep their public services adequate to the demands of industry and life. The people themselves have shown a traditional respect for "learning", and the combination of these factors has brought about a system of public "Continuation" Education that is equal to any in the world. It may be argued that a description of a system so excellent should have another title than"The Problem of Technical Education". There are, however, two reasons for using the title. These are - it is needed for purposes of comparison with similar sections of other chapters in this study and principals, teachers and administrators in these days regard provision of training for industry a very definite problem.

The Mechanics' Institutes, The Science and Art Department and The Scottish Continuation Codes of 1899 and 1901, successfully administered funds and so built up two branches of Industrial education. One of these was specialized and paved the way for the present system of Central Institutions for highly specialized study. The other branch led to the foundation of the more elementary, but neverthless skilled Continuation School. A brief description of each will be followed by an account of the training of teachers for each type of work.

By section 34 of the Education (Scotland) Act of 1908, certain special Technical Institutions throughout the country were named Central Institutions. (1) These Institutions provide instruction in various branches, such as Domestic Science, Agriculture, Veterinary Medicine, Art, and Architecture, Engineering or Technology, Commerce and Nautical Instruction. With but one exception they are located in the four large cities, Glasgow, Edinburgh, Dundee and Aberdeen. Eleven of the sixteen Institutions are under the administration of the Scottish Education Department, while the other five which deal with Agricultural education were transferred to the Board of Agriculture for Scotland, under the Small Landholders (Scotland) Act, 1911. (2)

The following Central Institutions are under the administration of the Scottish Education Department:

Robert Gordon's Technical College, Aberdeen.
Technical College and School of Art, Dundee.
Heriot Watt College, Edinburgh.
Nautical College, Leith.
The Scottish Woollen Technical College, Galashiels.
The Royal Technical College, Glasgow.

In the four University cities degrees are conferred on Technical College students who fulfil the prescribed conditions, and the Technical College full-time day course diplomas and associateships approach and, when the courses are of equal duration, reach the standard of the University degree. Leith Nautical College is a school for prospective Mariners and Ships' Engineers. The Scottish Woollen

(1) Education (Scotland) Act, 1908.
(2) "Technical & Art Education in Scotland", The Year Book of Education 1932.

Technical College is closely associated with local textile companies in preparing skilled workers for the woollen mills.

There are affiliated with the advanced technical colleges, Day Continuation Schools, Technical Schools and Continuation (night) Schools. These affiliations are not institutional, but co-ordinating committees arrange syllabuses of study and fix standards of attainment, so as to facilitate the progress of students from all the technical continuation class centres in the area, either directly or through other centres more advanced, to the Technical College. In the West of Scotland "The Joint Committee on the Organisation of Classes in Science and Technology", consisting of representatives from the Central Institution and the various Education Committees and other authorities concerned, has this function. In the other Technical College areas, the Principal of the College co-operates with the Directors of Education and the continuation class teachers in selecting students for advanced technical training.

The Professors and teachers of the Central Technical Institutions have been selected because of their ability, knowledge, experience and skill; in fact because of their suitability for their posts. For the more advanced courses in engineering, the teachers of mathematics or physics have University degrees. They will not necessarily be graduates of a Technical College but they must have an understanding of the relation of their work to engineering.

Evening classes for those students who are unable to attend during the day are conducted by members of the Day staff or by selected engineers or tradesmen. The attendance at night classes during the winter months has always been higher than the attendance at Day Classes and there has often been some difficulty in obtaining suitable teachers.

Courses or classes in one or more branches of Technical Education have been established in practically every industrial centre in Scotland. As no one Education Act covers the organization or maintainance of these courses, they cannot well be grouped for study. They seem, to an outsider, to be overshadowed by the great secondary academic courses, and an extensive study of a small area is necessary to appreciate the comments of Lord Eustace Percy: "The structure of Scottish technical education represents the type in its most logical form. It has been, comparatively speaking, carefully planned and worked out in detail by the Scottish Education Department in close co-operation with the central technical institutions, to which all parts of the system are articulated far more systemically than in England and Wales." (1)

There are many types of day schools in which some form of manual, technical, or vocational work is being regularly presented. Many of these have been developed by the local

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(1) Percy, Lord Eustace, "Introduction", The Year Book of Education, 1932.

education authority; others have been taken over from Trade organizations or from the Technical College. More recently Junior Instruction Centres have been established for unemployed juveniles, and technical subjects are now taught. Apprenticeship classes in Day Schools are also supervised by the Education Authority. So, "technical" subjects may be found on the curricula of Advanced Divisions, Intermediate Schools, Secondary Schools,(1) Technical Schools, Day Continuation Classes, Junior Instruction Centres, Apprentice Classes. The latter three have no distinctive institutions and will be housed in the Authority school buildings.

What has been the training of the teachers who give instruction in the various schools for technical classes? To begin at the youngest class of the series given above - the Advanced Division - the teacher has a General Certificate for teaching (Chapter III) with an endorsement under Article 39 of the Regulations for teaching post-primary classes that are not of the secondary type. Many of these teachers, particularly men, are graduates of a University. They have spent a year at the Training College and, besides the regular course for primary teachers described elsewhere, they have during their Article 39 course spent 15 hours per week at Educational Handwork, 2 hours per week at Technical Drawing, 3 hours perweek at Mechanics (Practical and Theoretical), and an average of 3 hours per week at Methods and Practice in

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(1) Few Secondary Schools have a technical bias.

teaching Industrial subjects. Those teachers who have been awarded a Degree or Diploma from a Central Technical College for recognition as Teachers of Educational Handwork (Chapter VI) of the Regulations) have taken the following courses at the training college:-

Educational Handwork, including Methods and Practice
Education, including Psychology
Hygiene, including Physical Exercises
Technical Drawing
Applied Arts and Crafts
Physical Science and Mathematics
Nature Study
English (including Voice-Training)
Mathematics (Pure and Applied)
Drawing

In discussing the teaching of technical subjects in the Secondary schools it is necessary to refer to a controversy which will be understood from the following paragraph in "The Scottish Educational Journal".(1)

"What is the practice in Scotland with reference to Parallel Courses? As Professor McClelland has discovered, about one third of our Secondary Schools have no specially recognized Advanced Division Courses, though many present pupils for the Day School Certificate; about a third have a single (3rd year) Advanced Division Course; while about a third are of the omnibus type..... It is indeed a matter for consideration whether the name "Advanced Division" ought not now to be dropped and the designation "Secondary" made

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(1) Robertson, R.D. "Centralisation and Some of its Problems", an address delivered at the Annual Congress of the Educational Institute of Scotland, North Berwick, 1934.

applicable to all Post-Qualifying classes. The question of cost may be involved but so also is the education of the child!

Since only teachers of Honours Graduates' standing and a special subject certificate may teach secondary school subjects, it follows that a Secondary School with Technical subjects must have teachers with this Special preparation. In many cases however teachers with the General Certificate and the Article 39 Endorsement do teach such subjects in the secondary schools. Also Specialists in the subjects of Mathematics and Science do give a technical bias to their subjects for classes of boys who will later attend a Central Institution.

The Technical Schools cannot be so easily supplied with teachers direct from the Scottish Training Colleges. Such teachers need something more than a course in Handwork. The most adequate preparation seems to be technical training at one of the Central Institutions followed by a short course of professional training. Arrangement has been made for this and a few teachers in technical schools are qualified under Chapter VI of the Regulations which have been already described. (1) For giving instruction in special skills in these technical schools, such as courses for plumbing, printing, bookbinding, tailoring, boiler-making, sheet metal working, weaving, skilled tradesmen must be employed. This

(1) The majority of students qualifying as teachers of Handwork are admitted to the Training College by examination. Many of them have not the Leaving Certificate.

practice has been adopted with success in Scotland for three particular reasons:- 1) Thetradesman employed as a teacher has a better social status, so the position is attractive, 2) the tradesmen who have become teachers, have been carefully selected for ability, appearance and personality by Education Committees, 3) Training in teaching and lectures on method have been compulsory, after they have been employed. These lectures and observation classes take place after school hours on one or two afternoons per week for a period of six months. The type of training is similar to that of Continuation School Teachers.

That the development of trade technical schools has been rapid in recent years is evident from the address of Sir Godfrey Collins (Secretary of State for Scotland) at the opening of Stow College in Glasgow, October, 1934. He said, "This college will provide for about 1000 young men, instruct- them in the practice of the various crafts which the city demands. That the numbers attending trade classes in Glasgow have increased from 900 to 5500 in the last fourteen years is a striking tribute to the value and success of the work". (1)

It would seem to an observer that a greater number of graduates from the Central Technical Colleges could be attracted to teaching posts in these new trade schools. When officials of Technical Colleges were asked, "Why do not a greater number of your graduates enter the teaching profession?" they gave two answers, 1) The courses here are highly

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(1) An address at the opening of Stow College, Glasgow.

specialized, 2) The graduates know nothing about and have no interest in the management of children. The Universities could give the same answers and yet graduates from the Universities may take a course of professional training and make excellent teachers. The suggestions are offered, not by way of criticism, but because of a certain movement towards omnibus schools with trade classes parallel to the secondary classes.

A special feature of the Continuation School system since the war has been the provision made for unemployed juveniles. Compulsory classes have been conducted in various parts of the country for those in receipt of unemployment insurance benefit. Under the provisions of the new Unemployment Act, September, 1934, the insurance age has been lowered to 14 and it is the duty of local education authorities to make provision for the instruction of all juveniles between that age and the age of 18 years who are unemployed and not otherwise under some educational influence.(1) Accordingly Day Continuation Classes in connection with Advanced Division and Technical Schools are being conducted by the Authority and Junior Instruction Centres under the direction of the Ministry of Labour. During their brief existence, there has been an attempt to articulate these classes with Day School Classes under Certificated Day teachers and with Continuation (night) Courses.

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(1) Frizell, Jas.B. - Education for Commerce in Scotland, 1935.

The various Continuation Class Codes in Scotland from 1901 to 1926 have provided generously for the needs of students of every age, kind and calling. The various subjects of instruction arrange themselves naturally into six great divisions: Technical and Industrial Group, Commercial and Literary Courses, Domestic Science and Arts, Art and Art Crafts, Music, Agriculture and Rural Industries. It is in large centres of population that the Continuation School system naturally comes to its fruition. A study of the programme of classes offered by the city authorities leaves one astonished at the amazing variety of fare provided. So far as the city authorities are concerned, the demand for closer co-operation between education and industry is met as fully as evening continuation classes can meet it. (1)

The encouragement given to these classes by industry is interesting, Many engineering firms encourage their apprentices to attend evening classes in engineering science during their apprenticeship by offering rewards for regular attendance and progress year by year throughout the course. Some firms have established Work Schools within their premises in which continuation class instruction of a cultural as well as a vocational kind is given by competent teachers.

Evening continuation classes directed by the Education Authority on advice from Trades Unions and Captains of

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(1) "Continuation Classes", an article in the Scottish Educational Journal, October 5,1934.

Industry are usually conducted in Authority schools, especially fitted for the purpose. The big problem of supplying teachers has gradually solved itself. Certificated teachers employed also as day teachers, for extra remuneration, teach night classes in the subjects for which they have been prepared. For teachers of trades and crafts, the Headmaster of each continuation school must select the best applicants skilled in the trades to be taught. Trade Advisory Committees have been instrumental in bringing to the notice of the Headmaster competent tradesmen to teach in Continuation classes. The following are some of the trades for which Advisory Committees have been formed:-

Engineering and Allied Trades
House and Ship-Building Trades
Printing and Bookbinding Trades
Painting and Decorating Trades
Baking and Confectionery Trades
Pharmacy and Drug Trades
Watch and Clock-making Trades
Coal-mining and Rescue Work

The tradesmen selected for teaching the technical subjects are expected to attend classes of instruction in teaching methods which are usually conducted by the 'Method' staff of the Training College. There has been no great difficulty in enforcing this in recent years as there has been great competition for teaching posts in Continuation Schools. The course of lectures for tradesmen employed as teachers of Continuation classes is given one night a week for twelve weeks. Methods of organizing and presenting work to pupils are discussed and model lessons are taught.

The Problem of Exceptional Children.

"During the year ended 31st July, 1934, there were 10,348 physically or mentally defective children on the roll of special schools and classes (exclusive of mentally defective children in institutions under the administration of the General Board of Control for Scotland). Of these, 5,993 were physically defective and 4,355 mentally defective. Education was provided in 11 residential schools (for physically defective children), 34 special day schools (10 for physically defective children, 7 for mentally defective children and 17 for children of both kinds), and 47 ordinary schools containing special classes for defective children of one or both categories." (1)

There were, in the same year in Scotland, 3 residential schools for blind pupils, 5 for deaf-mute pupils, and 2 in which provision was made for both types. There were also 4 special day schools for deaf-mute pupils, and one for blind pupils; while 4 special classes providing for blind pupils and 3 for deaf-mute pupils were included in the organisation of ordinary schools. 6 of the residential schools were maintained by educational authorities. The total number of pupils under instruction was 948 (blind 262; deaf-mute 686).

No information about the number of gifted children was available. These children are taught in regular classes by the regular teachers, whether in primary, post-primary or secondary grades. In certain schools the pupils of the

(1) Report of the Committee of Council on Education in Scotland, 1934.

grades are divided into classes according to intelligence but there has been no extensive attempt at collecting "gifted" children from the entire school into a class-room that they may be taught separately. The opinion of headmasters seems to be that the bright child will succeed anyhow and it is better for him to succeed from general classes rather than in the "spotlight" of a special class marked "gifted".

According to the statistics of mentally deficient children cared for in special schools (mentioned above), of 845,386 children attending schools 4,355 were in "mental defective" classes. This may at first seem complimentary to the intelligence of the Scottish people, since only about .5% are represented as being defective. From reading the Education of Defective Children (Scotland) Act, 1906, and Mental Deficiency and Lunacy (Scotland) Act, 1913, one learns of further directions for care of such children and adults. Under the provisions of the latter Act, it is the duty of parents of children between 5 and 16 years of age, who are mentally defective, to make provision for the education or for the proper care and supervision of such children; but where the parent is unable by reason of attendant expense to make such suitable provision, the matter devolves upon the Education Committee or the Public Assistance Department, according as the children are found to be educable or ineducable. (1)

(1) Education of Defective Children (Scotland ) Act,1906.
Mentally Deficiency and Lunacy (Scotland) Act, 1913.

In brief, imbeciles and idiots are cared for in public institutions. Blind and Deaf-mute children are cared for by public and philanthropic agencies and their training will not be included in this study. Most cases for disposal are detected by teachers or Education Committee officers. The School Medical Service does a greater part of the work of detection of Defective children, a service performed in American schools largely by a Special Teacher.

When the mentally defective child should be sent to a special class is a question to which there seems to be no general answer. In most of the schools in which pupils have been given mental tests in Scotland a special Register of those pupils having an Intelligence quotient of 85 or less is kept. Not all of these, however, are placed in Special classes. A smaller percentage of these children is assigned to special classes than in American or Canadian systems. The practice in Scotland is to give the retarded and dull children every chance possible in the ordinary school class. If it is definitely found that he cannot profit by the instruction, he is sent to a special class. The following quotation from the Edinburgh Education Authority Handbook emphasizes this point. (1)

"Retarded Children: In general, it should be left to the ordinary class teacher to deal with retarded children and to make a diagnosis of the particular weakness and its cause,

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(1) Edinburgh Corporation Education Committee, Handbook, February, 1934.

and to apply intensive teaching methods.

"Dull children: The permanently dull children should be allowed to take their part in the normal life of the primary school, but in such a way that they will proceed within their own individual capacities.

"Older Backward children: Permanently dull children should be transferred at the age of twelve plus to suitable courses in the post-qualifying centre so as to ensure that these children will have approximately two years of instruction in such a centre before attaining the legal school-leaving age. These courses will be largely based on practical work, but the children will, at the same time, be receiving the benefit of the general life of the centre."

If special classes are established they may be regarded as a class of the school or the classes for a district grouped in a special school and arrangements made for the transport of the pupils. In the Special classes visited there was the usual provision for individual instruction, manual exercises with a trade bias, and a spirit of cheerfulness and encouragement. The teachers had been particularly selected and were doing good work.

Because of the practice of leaving dull and backward children in the primary classes, and because of the need of understanding and detecting such children in the schools, prospective elementary teachers in the Training Colleges are given instruction in mental testing and the grading and care

of pupils. The Psychology and Education course for the Teacher's General Certificate includes some experimental work. The problems of Dull Children and the provisions for their care are discussed. If the student takes the Diploma course in Education as well, he is required to do more advanced work in Experimental Education.

Courses of training for teachers desiring to qualify as teachers of mentally defective children (Special Classes) are held at Glasgow Training College.

The duration of the course is three months followed by a period of three months' probation in the service of the nominating authority with a special class and under the supervision of the lecturer in charge.

Teachers applying for admission to the course must have completed satisfactorily and without postponement their probationary period of teaching.

Usually teachers are nominated by the Education Authority and receive full salary during training. This is a special inducement.

"The Department of Education (Scotland) considers special training to be essential to all teachers who may be appointed to schools or classes for mentally defective children, and they urge all Education Authorities to take advantage of the course (at Glasgow) in order that they may have on their staffs a sufficient reserve of teachers to fill any vacancies that may arise in the Special Schools or classes." (1)

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(1) Circular No 85. Scottish Education Department, 1932.

The Problem of Agricultural Education and Rural Teachers.

"Whether the future occupation of the child should influence, in any considerable measure, the character of his education is arguable. In any case one is faced with the practical difficulty of uncertainty as to the pursuit which the child may eventually follow: a large number of rural children will be absorbed of necessity into the urban population, and there is the further consideration that education at the primary stage, in the main, must be concerned with fundamentals designed, primarily, to develop the child's personality, to beget in him an appreciation of his position in nature and in life, and to familiarize him with the materials and the tools through which he may arrive at self-expression and adequately come to play his part as a citizen." (1)

If an occupational analysis of the citizens of Scotland does give a clue to the number who should be prepared in schools for these occupations then 11 per cent of the children of the schools of Scotland should be prepared for rural occupations. According to the 1921 census, 169,984 people were engaged in Agricultural pursuits. There has been renewed interest in farm production for home consumption in recent years and the Scottish product is gradually displacing the foreign product in food markets.

Whether this gradual return to farm prosperity has caused

(1) Curriculum for Pupils of Twelve to Fifteen Years, Scottish Council for Research in Education, 1931.

a new interest in agricultural education may be argued. It may be that the principle of education, stated in the quoted paragraph above, has caused the tendency for a new bias to rural education. At any rate it should be interesting to study the provision for agricultural education in Scotland and the provisions for the training of teachers.

The investigator may expect to find no provision for the teaching of agriculture in the large centres of population. This lack of provision for agricultural instruction may be questioned by a student from an agricultural country. However, comparatively few students from city high schools choose an agriculture course at the University and few of them will, as adults, live on farms in Scotland so they will not need elementary agriculture instruction. They do learn in elementary and secondary schools many things about farm products and their growth, in the Geography and Nature Study classes.

In rural farming areas there has been a growing interest in agricultural education, Several schools visited outside the cities hadcourses of study with an agricultural bias. Directors of Education in the counties urge the Headmasters to make some provision for the teaching of Agriculture, particularly during the last four or five years of school life. Agricultural representatives, at the direction of the Department of Agriculture, have assisted the teachers in programmes of rural science.

One of the most outstanding schools that have specialized in rural science is the school at South Queensferry in West Lothian. The Headmaster has written a text-book (1) for use in schools in rural areas. It directs the post-primary child in the study of school subjects with a rural bias. It does not suggest that the study of agriculture should be purely vocational but that it should be educational. This approach to the teaching of Agriculture should be encouraged. Many teachers of the subject in the United States and Canada have been trained to teach children "how to farm". The children of rural areas know more about the practical side of farming than their teachers, and yet they are taught so-called "scientific" farming. This does not suggest that farming conditions should not be improved and the standard of productio raised but it does seem that the pupil of 12 is not ready to be taught "scientific" farming.

There are, however, many rural schools of Scotland that have teachers who use the methods of the city teacher. Many have not a particular interest in rural work and are forced to do rural work because of inability to obtain a city post. This has been the case in other countries studied and a method of improvement has been suggested.

Teachers who have taken special courses at the Training College and the College of Agriculture are quite enthusiastic about their work. Some have been able to secure additional

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(1) Mason, J. Dr. - Rural Science.

land for experimental plots, to build workshops and greenhouses, to develop courses in gardening, bee-keeping, orchard care, etc. The pamphlet on Rural Science prepared by the Committee of the Educational Institute of Scotland has been very helpful. (1) Prepared for use in Advanced Divisions of the Primary System, it presents in detail a three year course in Rural Science with suggestions for giving a rural bias to other school subjects.

If then the Scottish schoolboy decides that he should like to become a teacher of Agriculture, there are three methods of training that he may choose.

He may obtain his Leaving Certificate from a Secondary School, attend the University and after obtaining his degree take a course for a General Certificate for teaching, Chapter III, at the Training College. During this course of one year's duration he should take the Rural Subjects course for an endorsement on his certificate to teach these in Advanced Divisions of rural schools. By an agreement between the National Committee for the Training of Teachers and the Directors of the Colleges of Agriculture the students enrolled for the Rural Subjects' course will take special classes at the Agriculture College with College lecturers. The subjects are School Gardening, Rural Science, Rural Economy, Laboratory work. Lectures are given on the "occupational, cultural, and general social conditions in rural areas".

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(1) Rural Sciences - prepared by a Committee of Studies of the Educational Institute of Scotland.

Another method of obtaining a Teacher's Certificate for Rural Science and Agriculture is by taking the Diploma Course at a College of Agriculture and the course for a Chapter VI qualification for the Teacher's Technical Certificate. The Regulations for the Diploma Course at the College of Agriculture are briefly as follows:- (1)

1. Candidates for the Diploma must have passed the Day School Certificate (Higher) Examination: (a few candidates are admitted by an entrance examination). It is recommended that candidates be not less than 16 years of age before entering the course.

2. Before being awarded the Diploma every candidate shall produce evidence that he has, for a period of twelve months, worked on an approved farm or training centre, and taken part in all farming operations.

3. The course of study shall extend over two successive winter sessions, i.e. four terms; and, in addition, students will be required to attend for one month during the first summer.

4. The subjects of study for the Diploma are:-
   i. Agriculture I (Crop Husbandry)
   ii. Chemistry and Agricultural Chemistry (soils and manures).
   iii. Agricultural botany (general Botany and Botany of farm crops and Agricultural Bacteriology)
   iv. Agricultural Zoology (Elementary Zoology and animal Physiology; Entomology of the Farm)
   v. Agriculture II (Animal Husbandry)
   vi. Agricultural Chemistry (Feeding Stuffs and Animal Nutrition)
   vii. Veterinary Science
   viii. Agricultural Economics and Accounting
   ix. Agricultural Engineering, Building Construction and Surveying).

Few students have, as yet, followed this course for the purpose of entering the teaching profession. Again it seems unfortunate that such a small number of students enter

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(1) Calendar, 1934-1935, The Edinburgh and East of Scotland College of Agriculture, 13 George Square, Edinburgh.

Central Institutions with the purpose of teaching.

To those who wish to become teachers and who have successfully completed the Diploma course at the College of Agriculture, a special one or two-term course of training is given at the Training College. The course includes Education and Psychology, General Method, Observation and Practice Teaching, Personal and School Hygiene, English, Voice Training.

As a further method of training for the teaching of Agriculture and Rural Science the members of the faculties of the Colleges of Agriculture have arranged Saturday classes for teachers employed in the schools. This course has become quite popular with teachers in rural districts, teachers who are certificated but have not yet an endorsement on their certificates for rural science. They may in many cases be teaching the school gardening course in elementary advanced divisions and want to get further information about the subject. These Saturday classes are conducted at the College Gardens by the Agriculture faculty members from March until October. The students are required to plant and care for individual garden plots and lectures are given on such topics as Soil working, Fertilizing, Seed Sowing, Function of Parts of the Plant, Vegetable Crops,Horticulture, Care of Fruit trees and bushes, Insects, Farm Equipment, Rotation of Crops.

Similar courses are presented for teachers during the

Summer holidays. This vacation course organized by the Training College and the College of Agriculture is of three weeks' duration and requires attendance at the Gardens for two hours each day and at the Training College for four hours per day. "The aim of the course is to provide a basis of principles and methods in regard to the selection of a Rural Science Course, the organization of such a course, the co-ordination of subjects among themselves, and with the outside life-interests of the child." (1) The course is in two parts, one being presented each year. Success in the course merits an Article 39 Endorsement on the teacher's certificate, The subjects that are not common to the Saturday classes, mentioned above, are Rural Economy, Educational Handwork, Poultry-keeping, The aims and subject matter of the Vacation Course make it interesting and helpful to teachers and prospective teachers in rural areas. Lady teachers qualify in this course as well as men.

There has been a definite attempt to avoid statistics in this study but the following statistical information may serve as a suitable conclusion to this section. There were in 1934 two thousand eight hundred and ninety-nine primary schools in Scotland. (2) Practical instruction in Gardening was given in 647 schools, Agriculture was taught in 16 schools, and poultry keeping in 4 schools. Judging from the fact that there were

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(1) Courses under Article 55 of the Regulations for the Training of Teachers, Summer School Bulletin, Edinburgh, (1935.

(2) Report of the Committee of Council on Education in Scotland, 1934, H.M.Stationery Office, 120 George St., Edinburgh.

748 one-teacher schools, 630 two-teacher schools, and 343 three-teacher schools, most of which were in rural areas, there should be a greater number supplying instruction in rural science. The training colleges have the facilities for preparing the teachers for teaching this subject and the number of qualified teachers is increasing, but the supply will have to be greatly increased in order to reach an objective of "one Rural Science teacher to each school in rural areas". The suggestion may be offered that committees who are responsible for the selection of candidates for the Training Colleges should consider not only the question of the number of teachers needed in the profession but the number of teachers that need to be qualified in each department of teaching.

The Problem of Music Education.

Martin Luther said, "A schoolmaster must know how to sing, otherwise I won't look at him". His warning may have influenced the early Scottish schoolmasters for music has been a subject of the curriculum for many generations of Scots. Even in 1909, the Scottish Education Department gave the following estimate of the value of music in the schools, "It (music) would promote health, be a means of recreation, develop the sense of hearing, and train the faculty of speech as well as song. At the same time it would exercise an invaluable influence in the awaking of artistic taste, the refinement of manners, and the deepening and ennobling of the emotional nature". (1) There was, no doubt, an excellent attempt made to bring these conditions to the lives of Scottish children in music. The teachers were taught "Singing" in the various colleges and they in turn taught the children "to sing". The interest in music of the present generation is evidence of their success. Many professional musicians of to-day owe their success to the encouragement of their teachers in school. Scotland has a fine tradition in music and there is provision through the training of teachers for carrying on that tradition.

Music may be regarded as a "compulsory" subject in the primary schools and receives in time about an hour per week in each class. Several "schemes of work" prepared for

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(1) Memorandum on the Teaching of Music in Scottish Primary Schools, 1909.

Education Authorities have been studied and all seem to agree on the aims, methods of teaching, and time that should be devoted to the subject in the primary school. They agree that "Children should be taught (a) to read music , (b) to interpret music, and (c) to listen with intelligence to music". (1) To read music it is necessary to have both ear training and sight singing. Interpretation of music should include familiarity with a wide range of songs and "finish" in rendering a few. "Listening to music intelligently" is receiving greater attention in the course with the development of mechanical aids to teaching, the gramophone and the wireless set. In the Report of the Committee of Council on Education, 1935, this comment concerning Broadcasting was written, "The subject which has attracted the greatest number of listeners in the schools is music, under which head are included the course of lessons taken by pupils between the ages of nine and eleven, and concerts, which are listened to by pupils of various ages". These broadcast courses are a valuable aid to teachers of music and with the accompanying lessons provided by the broadcast committee have helped to produce a better appreciation of music in the schools.

In the Infant Department the main object of the teaching of music is to "stock the child's mind with lots of good tunes mainly drawn from the traditional nursery rhymes and and jingles of Scotland and other lands". In the two years

(1) Schemes of Work for Infant, Junior and Senior Divisions, Edinburgh Education Committee, 1931.

the children are taught Reading Music and Ear Training, Interpretation of Song and Appreciation. During the two years of the Junior Division more attention is given to Sight-reading, Phrasing, Voice training including Breathing Exercises, the Mechanics of Music, Speed, Rhythm, and the works of the classical Masters. When the pupils reach the Senior Division more extensive and complicated exercises in Tonic Sol-fa and Staff are given. Words, too, are made the basis of song-teaching that the pupils may do intelligent singing. The final year is "devoted to practice, with insistence on quickness of eye in recognising groups of notes, quickness of brain in giving the sol-fa names to staff notation symbols, and quickness of voice in giving the life of sound to the printed symbols". The pupils are taught to sing many songs and to appreciate the beauty of others. (1)

In the post-primary classes of the Advanced Division, Music is taught, each class usually devoting one hour a week to this subject. Many schools have a special teacher of music. The course is similar to that of the Senior Division of the Primary school.

The provision for the teaching of music in Secondary schools in Scotland varies. In girls' schools music is regarded as a compulsory subject for the first two or three years. Where girls show special ability they are allowed to continue and obtain a Leaving Certificate mark in Music. In the boys' schools Music is frequently an elective subject

(1) The Music Class, published by J.S.Kerr, 314 Paisley Road, Glasgow.

with Choir, Orchestra, Piano and Organ as special extra-curricular activities. In several Boys' High Schools visited, hymns were sung at morning exercises. In one school a new pipe organ had been installed. In another high school music was compulsory, and a well-known teacher of music had been employed to give instruction. Much publicity was given to this teacher's methods which were based on the view that boys need not discontinue singing lessons when their voices were changing at adolescence. Each city authority employs a Supervisor of Music who plans the music teaching programmes of the teachers of his area in the primary schools. When a teacher does not feel competent to teach singing in her own class, another teacher in the school will conduct the lesson in her class. In certain large schools and in advanced divisions special music teachers are employed. As music is regarded as an important subject in the training of primary teachers and infant mistresses these teachers when employed teach primary music.

At the Training Colleges all students who are qualifying for the General Certificate (under Chapter III of the Regulations) must take the course in Singing. The Masters of Music who present this course, realize the importance of the prospective teacher knowing how to sing and understanding, at least, elementary music. With this in mind the instructors devote much time to the students' practice, with additional time to individuals who have difficulty. Instruction

is given in primary school music, in how to deal with difficulties in organization of work, and in lesson procedure. The students are given opportunity to observe music lessons taught and to practice the teaching of music. Throughout the student's course one hour per week is spent in the class for "Singing".

As Education Authorities in making appointments give preference in many cases to candidates who are able to play the piano, the Provincial Committee have arranged for pianoforte instruction at the Training College. The subject is optional and a tuition fee is required, but several have taken the opportunity to learn to play the piano. There are similar arrangements for instruction in the violin but few students take the course. The Education Department has directed "that where the subjects of Music, Drawing, Needlework and Educational Handwork are regarded as compulsory in a school, the staff shall contain an adequate proportion of teachers whose qualifications to teach the compulsory subject or subjects are attested by relative entries upon their Certificates or who are qualified to teach such subjects in terms of Article 47",(Sec.VI Regulations). (1)

Accordingly students qualifying for the General Certificate usually select one or more of these Special subjects, according to their interest, to follow a Special course. Other students take a Special Course in Music for Advanced

(1) Article 37 (b) Regulations for the Preliminary Education, Training and Certification of Teachers, 1931.

Divisions, that their Certificates may be endorsed (under Article 39, the Regulations) to teach Music in post-primary classes. The Special Course is of greater difficulty and arranged to give direction in teaching older classes.

The course that seems to be most adequate for the training of special music teachers in the schools has the smallest number of students, According to this plan the student from the secondary school enters a College or Academy of Music or a recognized Institution for the study of Music. Here he follows a Diploma Course in the subject, and enters the Teacher Training College to qualify as a Special Teacher of Music (Teacher's Technical Certificate, Chapter VI). The Diplomas which are accepted for entrance to the Training Course are:- (1) The Degree in Music of a University or the Diploma of a recognised College of Music, such as that of the Royal College of Music (A.R.C.M.), or of the Royal Academy of Music (L.R.A.M.), or of the Royal College of Organists (F.R.C.O. or A.R.C.O.), or of the Scottish National Academy of Music (formerly the Glasgow Athenaeum School of Music), of of Trinity College of Music, London (L.T.C.L. or F.T.C.L.) or of the Tonic Sol-fa College of Music, London (L.T.S.C. or F.T.S.C.).

The practical and cultural training received by the students at these several institutions will vary but it will be very thorough. When the Degree or Diploma is obtained

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(1) Prospectus of General Information, National Committee for the Training of Teachers in Scotland, 1935.

the student must attend courses at the Training College for two or more terms. The subjects of study are:- Education and Psychology, 2 hours per week; General Method, 1 hour per week; Methods in Music, 1 hour per week; Personal and School Hygiene, 2 hours per week; English, 2 hours per week; Phonetics (Voice Training), 1 hour per week. Twelve hours per week are devoted to Observation and Practice Teaching. This entire training, along with an interest in his subject which must have prompted him to follow the course, should produce an excellent teacher of music. Since it has been intimated that certain of these Specialist Teachers have difficulty with class discipline, perhaps a further qualification should be added, an understanding of children.

Summer Courses in Music are offered at the Training Colleges in Scotland. These are intended for recent graduates or for teachers who desire a qualification in music. The Courses of three weeks' duration must be continued for three summers for qualification. All lectures are "practical" and vocal practice and ear-training occupy a considerable portion of each day's work (3 hours). The course, called Music (including Appreciation and Teaching) includes:- Ear Training in Rhythm and Pitch, Sight Reading, Song Selection, Folk Song, and Classical Song, Development of Children's Voices; Methods of Teaching Sight Singing, Choral Music, Voice Production and Song Singing, Schemes of Instruction, and Problems of the Classroom.

Appreciation; Simple Forms, the Suite, Sonata, Overature, Symphonic Poem, String Quartet, the Orchestra.

The provision for the training of teachers in the subject of music compares favourably with that of other countries. The work of the pupils in the schools is particularly satisfactory. The great numbers of pupils entering public competitions in music and the excellence of the performance of many of these is an indication of the very satisfactory teaching of music in the schools.

The Problem of Art Education.

In the Scottish schools there is a close correlation between Art and Craft work. In the smaller schools the subjects are combined in one department. It will be necessary to understand the aims in teaching these subjects and their relation before studying the training that students receive to qualify as teachers.

The primary teacher assumes that there are present in the children whom she teaches certain impulses which she should refine and mature. Four of these that are to be developed in the teaching of Art are: appreciation, criticism, self-expression, and creation. From these the teacher attempts 1) to train the child to observe carefully and appreciate differences in form and colour, 2) to inculcate a love for beauty, 3) to develop the child's power of self-expression, and creation. (1)

The teachers are directed to keep in mind the fact that very few of the children in the Art class will ever become capable of producing real works of art. It is necessary then to emphasize the appreciation of art. "The main function of the teacher may, therefore, without exaggeration be stated as the creating of an art-loving public, by fostering in every child a love of beauty in all its forms, with a reverence for and an appreciation of good work wherever seen". (2) The relation between Art and Craft work arises in this emphasis on "love of beauty in all its forms".

(1) & (2) Schemes of Work, Edinburgh Education Committee.

There is of course a technical side to craft work but the appreciation and manual expression should work together.

These points are mentioned here, also, because there seems to be a closer relation between art and artcrafts than exists in other systems studied. It may be due to the organization of the Central Colleges of Art which have developed from the affiliation of Schools of Drawing and Painting, Schools of Architecture, Schools of Sculpture, Schools of Design and Crafts. The fact that all of these schools have combined into a School of Art and that some teachers are receiving training in these institutions may have led supervisors of Art to combine into one department the following:-drawing, painting, design, modelling, stencilling, book-binding, leather-work, basket-making, brass and iron-work and stained glass-work.

Art is a compulsory subject in all primary schools. In the Infant Department Imaginative work takes a prominent place. Object work and Nature Drawing with Craft work in clay, paper, wool or raffia, complete the course. The work of the Junior Department is to retain the spontaneity of the Infant Room work, but with a growing correctness in the rendering of actual shape and colour. Project work is introduced, and pupils are encouraged to work in groups to make a seaside scene, a market, or a farm scene. The educational value of this seems important. In the Art Craft work the boys are taught Ruler Drawing since they are required to make plans

for the constructive work they do. The girls continue the work in "making things" in raffia, clay and wool where a higher degree of workmanship is expected than in the Infant Department. The pupils of the Senior Department are taught the use of more difficult mediums. Sketching, Figure Drawing, Picture Composition, Design, Decorative Colour work, Paper and Cardboard Modelling, Basket-making, are a few of the activities of the senior pupils. A greater degree of skill in the use of the different mediums is expected.

When the child enters the Advanced Division he is required to do a greater amount of Handwork than Drawing. Here again each may be regarded as a form of Art, although the Handwork suggests a different aim. Whereas in the primary school the art teacher may not have had special training for his subject, in the advanced division the teacher of art will likely have had, at least, special instruction for teaching in these classes. The course in art for the pupils of these classes may include the following:- Drawing from objects, Imaginative Drawing, Geometrical Drawing, Design and Colour, Plastic Crafts, Weaving and Textile Crafts, Book Crafts, Wood Carving, Leather Work. Needlecraft is taught with the Household Science Work for the girls.

Art is considered an important subject of the Secondary School curriculum. Usually it is compulsory in the lower forms and an elective course for those with a special ability in the higher classes. There may be a Specialist teacher of

Art who has charge of the work for the school. In several schools visited Drawing was taught. A few schools had special rooms and teachers for courses in craft work. It was rather disappointing to find that there was not as much correlation of Art with other subjects as in the American schools. Teachers used the blackboard very little to illustrate work in other subjects and pupils were required to make few drawings in the work of these subjects.

The regulations for the training of teachers of Art vary according to the certificate. In the case of students working for the Teacher's General Certificate a course of Art is required with particular emphasis on the method of teaching the primary school course. This is necessary because when these students obtain positions as teachers they may have to teach art in their own classes and it will be particularly necessary to those who will teach in Infant or Junior Departments. The students are instructed to use a method of teaching that includes guidance of the pupils' efforts and at the same time, a fair amount of spontaneity on the pupil's part. This is interesting because there seem to be in the world of Art teachers two types. There are those who insist upon the pupil following detailed direction in producing a piece of work. Pupils are not allowed to take a step in the procedure until the teacher has indicated the direction of this step. Then, there are teachers who believe that the pupil should receive no directions. "All he needs

is inspiration", they say."If he is able to do a piece of creative art, he will do it without your direction. Let him do it himself." (From personal experience as a student in the two schools of Art it would seem that the Artist prefers the second method.) The Scottish method is a combination of these two, if the directions of the training college instructors of Art are followed.

According to the Regulations for the Teacher's General Certificate, also, an adequate training in Art is necessary under Article 37 B, since a certain proportion of teachers in each school must be qualified to teach Music and Drawing if these are compulsory subjects in the school. There is a special inducement then for students to work for a good standing in Art, that it may be recorded on their certificates as a subject they may teach in Primary classes.

To qualify as a teacher of Art in an Advanced Division or Post-primary department women students who have preliminary training may follow a three year course from the Leaving Certificate stage. In the first two years a general course for teaching is taken with additional courses in Drawing, Educational Handwork, Appreciation of Art, and Teaching practice. In the third year, 20 hours per week are spent at the College of Art and 4 hours per week at the Training College. The subjects given at the Training College are Art Method and Teaching. The subjects of the course at the College of Art are Drawing, Painting, Modelling, Life Drawing, Design,

Theory of Colour, Historic Ornament, Antique, Animal Study, Geometry and Architecture. (1) This is, in all, an excellent training for Art teachers, The students receive a professional training and a practical training in three years.

To receive the Teacher's Technical Certificate in Art, a necessary training for teaching the subject in Secondary Schools, the students follow the Diploma Course of three or four years at a College of Art, after which they come to the Training College for two or three terms for professional training. They have thus qualified for a Diploma in Art, D.A., and Specialist Teacher of Art Certificate. To qualify for the Diploma in Art, the student must follow a General Preliminary course for one year, then choose a special field of work which will be either Drawing and Painting, Sculpture, or Design. Architecture is a special subject but not usually chosen by prospective teachers. Only students who have special ability are expected to enter the Diploma Course. A high standard of work is expected and many of the graduates of these institutions have produced excellent work.

Students who take the Infant Mistress Course or the Nursery School Course are given a course in Art for two hours per week and a course in Educational Handwork for two hours per week. The Art work is the method and practice of primary art.

Summer School Courses for teachers and graduates of the training college are given. Two indicated asbeing offered

(1) Calendar, The Edinburgh College of Art, 1934-35.

in a three weeks' course in the summer of 1935 are Advanced Art and Art Crafts for Infants and Juniors. The Advanced Art is a course in Landscape Sketching and Landscape Composition and will be regarded as a pro tanto qualification for teaching Art in an Advanced Division. The Art Crafts' Course is intended for primary teachers.(1)

There is no course given for teachers of Art in Evening Continuation Classes. A very extensive list of courses is available for students who wish to attend the Colleges of Art. Usually the teachers are the regular instructors associated with the Colleges.

The most outstanding features of the training of students for the teaching of Art in Scotland are: 1) the close relationship of Art and Craft Instruction, 2) the generous provision for the training of Specialists, 3) the methods advised which give encouragement to the pupil of special ability and guidance to the mediocre pupil. A criticism or suggestion would be that art should be regarded as a subject of study for all students doing the General Certificate. At present some Special Subject Students are attempting a three-fold course, Special Subject, Diploma, and General Certificate (Chapter III). Even though these students spend an extra term, their time-table shows one period per week of Primary Methods, with no reference to Art. Either they should not be allowed to attempt the three courses in one year or

(1) Summer School Courses at Edinburgh Training College, 1935.

classes in art might alternate with classes in Voice Production. It seems to the writer that appreciation of art and some skill in Art production is so important to all teachers that each should receive some training in the subject.

As a further thought, it seems that students should be instructed to make greater use of the black-board and that a course of black-board writing and illustration would be particularly valuable to all students whether they will teach in primary or secondary schools. In teaching history, geography, science or other subject if the teacher is able to make a sketch, a map, or a picture be can explain or illustrate many points more adequately than in words.

The Problem of Religious Education.

An Act of Parliament in 1693 provided"That all Schoolmasters and Teachers of youth in Schools are and shall be liable to the Trial, Judgement and Censure of the Presbyteries of the Bounds for their sufficiency, qualifications and deportment in the said office". (1) Since that time, the history of education in Scotland has been closely linked with the history of the church. This seems obvious in a country in which religion has been for centuries closely bound up with nationalism. There have been feuds and disruptions in the church, but the minister and the dominie have always worked together in educating the people of the parish. Public, free, compulsory education had its beginnings from church initiative and the joint efforts of church and state have built up the present extensive school system. A modern evidence of this relationship is found in the personnel of Education Authority Committees. The Constitution of the Committee reads in part as follows:- (2)

1.The Committee shall consist of the following, viz.:-

(3) (b) Four persons interested in the promotion of of religious instruction in terms of Section 1 of the Education (Scotland) Act,1918, to be nominated in accordance with the provisions of Section 12 (4) (b) of the Act.

(c) Three persons representing the churches or denominational bodies concerned with the schools in the city transferred or established under Section 18 of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1918

A circumstance that has been fortunate for the harmonious

(1) "Two Centuries of Dominies", The Scottish Educational Journal, January 11,1935.

(2) Edinburgh Corporation Education Committee "Handbook" 1934

development of the scheme has been the lack until recent years of denominational difference in religious belief. However, when minority groups of religious denominations arose, these co-operated with the church of Scotland majority in establishing a single State system of Education. So the transferred schools mentioned in (c) of the quoted constitution now form a part of the system and are subject to the same regulations as other schools.

It may be safely said that one subject of the curriculum that has survived the vicissitudes of changing philosophies of education in Scotland is Religious Instruction. From the early days of church schools when the Bible was, perhaps, the one and only text-book, until the present day when Religious Instruction employs a half hour a day of school time, children of many generations have supplemented their religious knowledge in the Day School. The spirit of the teaching for two and a half centuries may be summed up in the words of the last paragraph of the Report of the Scottish Education Reform Committee in 1917:-

(12) "The Person and Teaching of Christ should constitute the ideal and content of the ethical school code of a Christian nation." (1)

Some of the present provisions for Religious Instruction in the schools of the Edinburgh Authority will be given. These may be regarded as typical of the directions given to Headmasters by all Authorities in Scotland. From a study of several "schemes" and the provisions of the Education

(1)"Reform in Education", 1917.

(Scotland) Acts, the above judgment was made.

(The Regulations are quoted from the Authority Handbook.[1])

(2) The time to be given to Religious Instruction is
(a) half an hour daily in Primary Schools, and in the Primary Departments of Intermediate or Secondary Schools.

(b) Two periods weekly of 40 or 45 minutes each in all post-primary classes.

(3) Normally, the Religious Instruction shall begin in the first period of each day.

(5) The several teachers shall keep a record of the progress made in the class programme of Religious Instruction.

(1) The Syllabus used in the schools was drawn up in 1930 by a Joint Committee representing the Church of Scotland and the Education Institute of Scotland..... the aim of the Syllabus is to secure for the children Scriptural teaching by which life and character may be enriched.

(2) The fixing in the memory of texts and hymns forms an important part of the Religious Instruction of the school period.

(8) (a) Special arrangements will be made for the Religious Instruction of Episcopalian pupils in non-transferred primary schools by appointing an Episcopalian teacher to the staff of schools where Episcopalian pupils to the number of 25 or more are in attendance, and thereafter appointing a second teacher where there are 75 such children in a school.

In the case of the Episcopal and Roman Catholic Schools transferred under Section 18 of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1918, the time set apart for Religious Instruction is to be not less than that so set apart according "to the use and wont of the former management". The Education Committee appoints a Supervisor, without remuneration, of Religious Instruction for each such school. It is the duty of the

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(1) Edinburgh Education Committee Handbook, 1934.

Supervisor to report to the Education Committee on the efficiency of the religious instruction given in the school.

Further regulations remind the teachers that the instruction given in religion and morals to the pupils should be applied practically to their conduct and character and that the pupils should be trained "in the right self-respect and in reverent thought of God".

A Supervisor of Religious Instruction has been appointed for the city whose duty it is to visit all classes at regular intervals, to estimate the success of the teaching and to advise the teachers as to methods of procedure. He may teach type lessons from the Bible or examine the class in religious knowledge.

As class teachers areresponsible for the religious instruction of the pupils there is in Scotland a unique problem in the training of teachers, viz. the provision for their training in Religious Instruction. Accordingly there has been appointed by the National Committee for the Training of Teachers a Master of Religious Knowledge for each of the four large Training Colleges. He gives instruction in religious knowledge and methods of teaching such, to all General Certificate students and Special Certificate students. This course is given for one period per week to each group for the duration of the course. The Master of Religious Knowledge at Edinburgh Training College is, as well, Supervisor of Religious Instruction in the Authority Day Schools

so that there is an association between the professional training and the work in the schools.

At the Training Colleges, attendance at Morning Prayers is optional for the students, but the majority of the students attend. The Morning Service includes the singing of hymns and a Prayer led by one of the members of the Staff.

The courses in Religious Knowledge at the Training Colleges include the following:- History of the Bible, Study of the Old Testament, The Life of Christ, The Place of Religious Education in the Schools, Application of Christian Principles to the lives of children, Methods of conducting Bible Lessons, Observation of Practice Lessons.

Although attendance at these courses is not compulsory if the student has conscientious objections,yet nearly all students do attend and a mark of their standing in Religious Knowledge is written on their certificates.

The Problem of Homemaking and Family Life.

According to Chapter VI of the Regulations for the Training of Teachers a student may qualify for a Teacher's Technical Certificate in the subject of Domestic Economy. Candidates for positions as teachers of Sewing, Cooking, Laundry, or Housewifery in Elementary, Advanced Division, or Technical Schools are expected to possess this certificate. Brief mention of the Diploma and Professional Training necessary has been made earlier in this study. Provision for the training of teachers of these important subjects has been particularly well planned and the method compares very favourably with that of other countries studied.

The Diploma for admission to the professional course at the Training College must be obtained at "a recognised School of Domestic Economy". The best known institutions of this kind are The Edinburgh and Glasgow Colleges of Domestic Science., recognised by the Scottish Education Department as Central Institutions for providing instruction in all branches of Domestic Science. (1) A brief survey of the"Diploma courses leading to a teaching qualification" will serve as a basis of comparison with the provisions in other countries.

Students are admitted in limited groups of 30 in September, January or April. The duration of the minimum course is 8 terms. (2) The minimum age for entrance is 18

(1) Prospectus for Sixtieth Session, 1934-35, The Edinburgh College of Domestic Science,Atholl Crescent,Edinburgh.
(2) There are three terms in each school year.

years. The academic prerequisite is the Leaving Certificate. Students are examined during the first month of their training by the Medical Officer of the Provincial Committee for the Training of Teachers. The course of professional training may be taken concurrently with the training for the Diploma, and extends over two years of work. The professional training may be taken, as a whole-time Post-Diploma course, and it will extend to not less than one term of approximately ten weeks. Students are encouraged to take the courses concurrently.

At the College of Domestic Science, the first term (about three months) may be devoted to Laundry work, including the following:- Demonstration and practice in different methods of washing, starching, ironing; lectures on theory; chemistry of laundry work. Cookery is the subject of special study during the second term. The course includes, elementary, plain, and advanced household cooking; marketing; the theory of food and the principles of diet; personal and school hygiene; science applied to food and cooking. Opportunities for demonstrating cooking classes are afforded when pupils are brought regularly for classes from the city schools. In order to gain practical insight into household management students are required to be resident for at least two weeks in the Housewifery Flat during the third term. The Housewifery course includes demonstration and practice in household work and management, home upholstery, household book-keeping;

lectures on home sick nursing, first aid, and theory of housewifery.

The remaining two terms are spent in the study and practive of more advanced work, particularly Needlework, upholstery, Institutional work. Visits are made to factories and shops. Special responsibilities are assumed for various College activities.

The Professional Training given at Edinburgh Training College consists of the Theory of Education and Teaching practice. Diploma students visit the Training College for lectures on Elementary Psychology, Principles and Theory of Education, Phonetics, and Voice Production. Training in class teaching of adults andchildren in cookery, laundry work and housewifery is given in the College of Domestic Science and in some of the schools of Edinburgh by arrangement with the Edinburgh Education Committee. No candidate is eligible for a Diploma who does not show a satisfactory degree of proficiency in Theory and in Practice in each branch and in all subjects taken together. The Technical Certificate for teaching Domestic Economy is granted when results of examinations and practical work at both colleges have been adjudged satisfactory.

Students are urged to remain for an extra term or two to receive an endorsement on their certificates after completing satisfactorily special courses in one or more of the following: Needlework, Dressmaking, High Class Cookery, Millinery, Handicraft. A special combined course in Needlework, Dressmaking,

and Millinery with a course in Embroidery and Design at the College of Art is intended to prepare students for a Diploma II qualification. This too must be combined with a professional training course for qualification to teach.

The classes visited, both practical and professional, were found to be doing excellent work. The practical work was of a very high order and the students were interested. The fees for the practical course are high, £92 for 8 terms, which made it prohibitive for many prospective students. If the accommodation could be extended a larger group of students might be prepared annually. There was a very evident attempt to graduate girls skilled in the various branches studied. A greater stress on the economics of housekeeping might be suggested.

## GERMANY

### The National Socialistic Attitude.

"In the history of German thought during recent centuries, three successive periods can be distinguished; the age of humanism, the age of enlightenment and, finally, the age of realism or liberalism." (1) Dr Haupt thus summed up the history of education in Germany up to the time of the World War. "Since 1918 there existed in Germany no unity of educational ideals", he asserts. (2) Research and experimental schools were ineffective because of lack of purpose and lack of co-ordination. Many of the new schools were "content with the transmission of mere specialites and technicalities".

The German Revolution of 1933 and the victory of National Socialism brought to education as to German life a new purpose and new standards. It is difficult for non-German people to understand the transformation. The external signs are marching men, dismissal of opponents and disposal of obstacles to the Nazi movement, assertion of German rights in the world of nations, remodelling of the machinery of government, gradual development of a new school system. Any attempt to translate the German philosophy into English leads to the awareness of lack of English words with shades of meaning to interpret the National Socialist ideas. Dr Haupt and Professor Krieck of Heidelberg refer to the "call of the blood", and "blood and soil"

(1) & (2) Dr Haupt, Ministerialrat, "The Educational Ideals of the National Socialist Movement", The Year Book of Education, 1935. London.

which mean more than nationalism but which to us suggest patriotic fervour. There has developed in a few and spread to many the awareness of a national unity and a new German culture that is the essence of the best of the past.

An explanation of the new German education may serve to give concretely what is difficult to understand abstractly. If the proposed new system of education has identical elements in history, they may be found in the system of the Greeks with whom the Germans claim common inheritance. The classical subjects of "Gymnastics", "Music" and "Politics" supply the basic values for the new education. Gymnastic education finds its expression in a special emphasis on sport. Music finds its chief expression in the encouragement of artistic capacities and, in particular, of folk music. The political element is based on the law of nature, that man never can live to himself alone, and can only develop his own most intimate personality through the fulfilment of his duties in a community. (1)

The interesting experiment of weaving these branches of education into a system has begun with "unification" and "de-urbanization". The many different types of secondary schools are being converted into a more uniform German school. The elementary, secondary, technical and commercial schools are being brought into closer connection with the system according to the single purpose of "nationalizing"

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(1) Haupt, Dr, "Ideals of the National Socialist Movement".

the younger generation. The training of teachers which tended to become a University and Academic project, is being transferred to institutions in rural areas where teachers are made aware of the "soil" of their ancestors, free from the realism of the city. Young boys and girls of 15 years of age are receiving a "national political training" of about a year in special boarding institutions in the agricultural areas. Youths are receiving training in country sports, in community camp life, in folk music and in the importance of the National Socialist movement. The leader, Adolf Hitler, has set before the rising generation the ideal of "strahlender Geist in herrlichen Leibern" - "a radiant spirit in beautiful bodies".

The educational ideals of the "National Sozialistiche deutsche Arbeiter Partei" have been introduced to the German school system gradually for a number of reasons. The first, perhaps, is that the "Gemeindeschaft" spirit, the very essence of the new German nationalism, cannot be learnt entirely in school. It is something that must be felt by the youth through the inspiration of their "leaders," It cannot be written down in a text book and learned in an academic way. The youth must live together in camps, meet on recreation grounds, visit the homes of young Germans in other parts of the country to feel a comradeship and a singleness of purpose. In the second place, the teachers were not, in general, supporters of the National Socialist

Party during its rise to power. Although they changed their allegiance abruptly in the Third Republic they were not entrusted with the sole responsibility of developing young German nationals. The "leaders" of the new Youth movements were entrusted with a large share of this responsibility. Of the leaders of 20,000 Hitler Jugend in Frankfurt-am-Main there were no teachers. This is not entirely due to the fact that teachers are not trusted but rather to the belief that the average German teacher's age and personality prevents him from becoming a good "scout leader". The boys of the Youth organizations must have young men and the girls young women to meet with them each week to discuss their places in the future of their country; to go to camp with them to teach them the ways and importance of community life; to sing songs, dance and play games with them in an informal way. These facts are introduced because the foreign visitor in Germany might expect to find revolutionary changes in the system of education and conclude that, because much of the old system remains, the leader, Adolf Hitler, and his party are not interested in education. The chief changes so far have been in "out-of-school education" and in administration. Since this study is not concerned directly with these two phases of education they will not be discussed in detail. The former is of interest to the student who is studying the training of teachers because in his search for the ideal teacher of youth he may have set up certain standards for

measuring his powers of teaching in school, and his abilities to lead in out-of-school activities.

As yet no great educationist has risen above the teaching ranks and put into satisfactory words a philosophy of the new German education that is gradually taking form. The explanations of the movement, given early in the words of Dr Haupt and Professor Krieck, are correct and yet they do not seem to give the underlying principles implicit in the new national ideals. Dr Rust, the Minister of Education, has written the new philosophy in these words, "Sein geht vor Wissen" -"being comes before knowing". He is quite concerned that the youth should feel his responsibility to his leaders and to his country from infancy and that the knowledge side of his education should follow a will and desire to learn.

The German Schools.

German children receive their education at home or in Kindergarten Schools until the age of 6. With the improvement in housing conditions and the withdrawal of women from industry the number of Kindergartens is decreasing. From the age of 6 to the age of 10, all children are required by law to attend the Common School (Grundschule) irrespective of their social status and the income of their parents. From the Grundschule the majority of the pupils pass on to the upper section of the Volksschule for four additional years, the rest continuing their education in middle or secondary schools. In practice the Grundschule and the Volksschule constitute an unbroken unit under one administration. In most states advanced classes (gehobene Klassen) have been added for one or two years of study beyond the pupil's fourteenth year. Apprenticeship in the trades and instruction in day continuation classes for a certain number of hours per week until the age of seventeen or eighteen, complete the school education of the youth from the Volksschule. (1)

At the age of 10 plus certain pupils are admitted by examination to the Mittelschule, a unit of the elementary system, although the class work resembles that of the lower forms of the Secondary school. A small fee is charged but poor and intelligent children to the extent of about 10 per cent are admitted free. Pupils may receive instruction in the Mittelschule for 6 years, after which they may sit the

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(1) Kandel, I.L. - Comparative Education, George G"Harrap & Company, Ltd, London.

Lower Maturity examination. Very few then enter the higher forms of the Secondary School. The greater number follow a part-time Technical course at a Technical School and enter industry as apprentices. They may choose a Commercial Course and enter business as clerks, bookkeepers, stenographers, etc. Secondary education which has been the object of so many reforms since 1806 begins upon completion of the entrance examination at the close of the Grundschule period. The methods of admission vary but usually a committee of teachers from Grundschulen and Secondary Schools conduct a written examination in general knowledge, German, Arithmetic, and Drawing. Each pupil's school records must also be taken into consideration. Another method of selection is the cost of secondary education. The fees, about 250 marks a year, are comparatively high thus preventing children of poorer parents from entering. About 10% of the pupils are admitted with scholarships.

There are many types of Secondary Schools and they will not be discussed in detail. There is definite assurance that the number of types will be reduced under the National Socialist Ministry to 3 for boys - the Gymnasium, the Realgymnasium, and either the Oberrealschule or the Deutsche Oberschule. Each of these covers 9 years of Secondary education, having as objective the Maturity Examination which admits to the University, Teacher's College or other Higher Institution. The Secondary Schools for girls are the Lyzeum in which courses

of instruction extend over a period of six years, the Ober-Lyzeum with courses for three years beyond the Lyzeum, and the new Aufbauschule for girls or boys established to meet the demand of working classes.

The Gymnasiums are the High School of the oldest type, and although they are traditionally classical schools, instruction is given in German and one or two modern languages. In the Realgymnasium Latin is compulsory, with the additional subjects of French, English and Biology. The Oberrealschule is definitely a Science school with advanced courses in Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry and Biology. The Deutsche Oberschule, a nine-year school, created since the war, was proposed as a school for exclusive study of German language and culture, but as the Universities would not admit the graduates without foreign language study, two languages were added to the curriculum. This school could be an excellent medium for the development of the leaders of the new German nationalism.

It is obvious that small villages could not provide each of these types of secondary schools so, when pupils are unable to go to a town or city Secondary School, instruction is provided in some secondary subjects in the local village school (Dorf Volkshochschule). These are receiving special attention in the new education in Germany and will no doubt continue to have their agricultural bias, but on a secondary school level. They will be discussed

in the section, Agriculture and Rural Education.

Certain subjects are common to the curricula of most schools, both elementary and secondary. Religious Instruction is given in many schools, although children are not required to remain for the class. Music is receiving great emphasis in all schools. Drawing is a compulsory subject. All girls' classes receive some instruction in needlework, and housewifery classes are being added. German language and literature receive much attention and much stress is placed on proper oral speech. Gymnastics is compulsory and varies from the military physical training to the Eurhythmic exercises of Dalcroze at Dresden and more recently to the organized sports of the Youth Movements.

The Matriculation Examination atthe end of nine years of secondary education is called the Abiturienten Examen. The standard is higher than the Baccalauréat of France. The examination is in two parts, written and oral. Only one question is set in each paper. The student is expected to write an essay in answer. He is not examined in all subjects but only in the principal subjects, i.e. Languages in the Gymnasium, and Languages, Mathematics and Science in the Oberrealschule. (1)

The hours of study are unique in school systems. Pupils are required to attend school from 7.30 till 1 in the summer and from 8 till 1.30 in winter. The afternoons are devoted to sports and in some cases to special subjects or special

(1) Zia U.Ahmad, System of Education, Longmans, Green & CO.Ltd, 1929, Calcutta.

classes for weak students. There are few elective subjects and the fixed courses in each school make transference from one type to another difficult. The child chooses the course of his school career early and having persisted may graduate as a specialist in his field. There is adequate provision for commercial education and technical education. The Universities remain schools for study and research.

The above description of German Elementary and Secondary education has been given merely as a background for the study of particular educational problems and the training of teachers to solve these problems. No general criticism is intended. Flexner in the concluding paragraph of his account of German Universities said, "I am keenly aware, as I close this chapter, that my picture of German Universities is confused. It could not be otherwise: the universities and the nation at large are also confused" This is not quoted as a precedent for writing a "confused" picture but to some extent it does apply to the secondary school in Germany to-day. Its cultural tradition will insure for it a very important place in the new school system.

Teacher Training.

1) Elementary Teachers.

The training of elementary teachers remains, as in the past, separate from the training of secondary teachers. This has been necessary because of the social difference of the two types of teachers, because of the divergent aims of the two types of schools, and because of the separate administration of the two schools. While the elementary school has remained a local school with government grants, the secondary school has been more particularly a State school with State inspection. Salaries for secondary teachers are considerably higher and their University training has brought to them a higher status than that of elementary teachers. Whereas the elementary teachers are expected to prepare pupils for apprenticeship and for life, the secondary teachers are engaged in preparing pupils for the University and higher institutions.

The training of elementary teachers has been influenced by the changing purpose of elementary education that has accompanied great political changes in Germany. Before the Great War "Germany had succeeded in developing a system for the preparation of teachers which was probably the most efficient that the world has seen with the exception of that of the Jesuits, if efficiency is defined as the best adaptation of means to secure clearly formulated ends." The responsibility of the elementary schools was to train submissive and unquestioning obedience to authority and the

(1) Kandal, I.L. - Comparative Education.

duty of the teacher was to carry out the regulations prescribed by their official superiors. The regulations prescribed a certain amount of knowledge and information to be imparted to the pupils; the teachers were trained to impart this with the skill best adapted to secure the ends desired. The training of teachers at this time was almost entirely within the elementary system. After the completion of the elementary school course candidates for teaching were selected at fourteen years of age, did three years of post-primary work in special schools, then a three-year (or two-year) course at one of the Normal Schools (Lehrerseminare) maintained by the state and organized on denominational lines. Here the course was devoted to an intensive review of the elementary school subjects, professional subjects, and observation and participation in the work of the practice schools. Successful completion of the Normal School Course entitled the young teacher to probationary appointment and a permanent certificate was received on passing a second examination and completion of the required military service. Although the teachers in this system were not satisfied with their lot they were skilled craftsmen. Their training has been described in some detail because the new teacher training in Germany is in some respects very similar.

The Revolution of 1918 brought new aims to elementary education. The Federal Constitution redefined the aim in broad, general terms; Article 148 provided that "In all

schools effort shall be made to develop moral education, public-mindedness, and personal and vocational efficiency in the spirit of the German national character and of international conciliation."

The young Germans were now citizens of a Republic and must be trained to understand and exercise their franchise in public matters. Accordingly the Grundschule was established and the elementary system extended. Elementary teachers received a very different training from that of former years. They must now complete a full secondary school course after which their professional preparation was to be at the university level. The Constitution of 1919 stated (Article 143) "The preparation of all teachers shall be uniformly regulated for the Reich according to principles which apply generally to higher education". There was to be an attempt at nationalizing Germany through the medium of the elementary schools. For a few years it was expected that the Federal Government would issue regulations and suggestions to serve as a common basis for the organization of institutions for preparing teachers for these schools. These were not forthcoming chiefly because the Government could not afford to participate in the new system with financial aid. The States however proceeded to interpret the Article 143 of the Constitution in their own way.

The normal schools were abolished and teachers colleges (Padagogische Akademie) were established in many states.

The question of the preliminary education of students entering the Teachers College was settled in favour of the modern secondary schools, the Oberrealschule and the Deutsche Oberschule. Aufbauschulen were established in many discarded rural normal school buildings, and these provided preliminary training for country students. The Academies, to approach University standing were established in University cities. Frequently lecturers were borrowed from the Universities to present academic courses to prospective teachers. In Hamburg the Academy became a department of the University. The duration of the course in these new Academies varied from two to three years. "The aim of these colleges was not to be merely the training of classroom teachers but educators and teachers of the people, living in contact with them and with the realities of life, able to develop their cultural needs and to cultivate the intellectual, moral and aesthetic values ever present in their environment." (1) The curriculum of the Academies was usually distributed into four main divisions: 1) professional subjects; 2) materials and methods of instruction in elementary school subjects; 3) training in skill subjects, combined with observation and practice teaching; and 4) elective subjects.

By 1931 fifteen colleges had been established. With the exception of the college at Frankfurt-am-Main they were sectarian institutions and practically all co-educational,

(1) Kandel, I.L. - Comparative Education.

The clerical groups in their struggle for their hold on the children had much to do with the planning of the academies.

Now that the Revolution of 1933 has brought a new political administration to the country the elementary schools, the schools of the people, have a new purpose. They must now train the youth along the lines of the National Socialist programme for the development of Germany. In fact, it may be said that they are no longer to train young Republicans but young Nazis. So the system of training of elementary teachers has been changed. The Academies are closed and new institutions, Hochschulen für Lehrerbildung, are being opened for the training of the elementary school teachers. They are being established in villages and rural areas because of the environment and the proposed programme of studies. They will in many ways resemble the normal schools of pre-war days but with many improvements.

Before entering the new training school, the student must have a Maturity certificate from a Secondary School. The greater number of students will have attended one of the modern types of German Secondary Schools. By the new conscription law the boy must enter the army for a year at eighteen and as he must spend a year in a labour camp, the young man will, in the future, possibly enter the training school at twenty years of age. It is hoped that his training in the army and the labour camp will have improved his physique, made him aware of his duty to his leaders and the

German nation, and impressed upon him the importance of the "community spirit" in the nation.

The new training schools will be co-educational and non-sectarian, although this may depend upon the geographic area served. Students are expected to have some knowledge of music and skill in playing one musical instrument is expected. The two or three-year course is divided into professional and academic parts. The academic subjects tend to be studies of German life, literature, geography, and history. Philosophy, Psychology and Sociology are added. Students spend part of their time, from one to two days per week, in observation and practice teaching. Religious instruction is given and the subjects of music and gymnastics are stressed. The methods of instruction in elementary subjects are not stressed as much as they were in the former German normal schools. Teachers-in-training are given lectures in methods but are allowed to develop their own methods to a much greater extent. Some of the new experimental school methods seem to be favoured in some schools. The new "Reform School" method is explained to the students. By this the subject matter of education is not divided into compartments called geography, arithmetic, etc. but the work is taught by individual and class projects.

The new instructors in the training schools are successful elementary and secondary teachers (usually those who were supporters of the National Socialist Party). The directions

from the Ministry of Education as to the methods of instruction have not been given in great detail. There will be many adjustments before the schools assume a permanent form. They will continue to be in rural areas and will continue to be professional schools. At present students must pass an oral and written examination before being given a probationer's certificate, but their period of probation may be extended from two to three or five years, at which time they must pass a very thorough practical examination before obtaining permanent certificates.

Those who will become teachers of Mittelschulen must take a special course in the subjects they will teach, English, French, Science, etc. and then pass a special examination before being appointed. Some of these teachers come from the elementary teacher ranks and attend classes in their special subjects at the University before taking the Mittelschule teacher's examination. As these schools are to some extent parallel to Secondary Schools some special regulations may be made for the training of such teachers. In fact, the political situation is such that no phase of the school system in Germany is, as yet, permanent.

(2) Secondary Teachers.

The preparation of Secondary teachers has not varied so greatly as that of elementary teachers. There has been some variation in detail in the different States but the standards have been uniform.

In all states attendance at a University and professional preparation under state supervision and certification by the state are the prerequisites for appointment as secondary teachers. Before being admitted to the period of professional preparation, candidates must have spent at least eight semesters in University study and have passed the state examination (Staatsexamen pro facultate docenti). Candidates for the state examination must have attended courses in education and philosophy and in the subjects which they intend to teach; in the sciences they must have done work in laboratories. Courses in gymnastics are essential. For foreign language students attendance at a foreign university for two semesters is allowed.

The subjects of the State examination, conducted by selected University professors and secondary teachers are: (a) compulsory for all: philosophy, ethics, psychology, logic; (b) Electives as majors (Hauptfächer) or two majors and one minor (Nebenfach): Religion, German, Latin, Greek, French, English, history, geography, mathematics, physics, chemistry, botany and zoology. There are many other supplementary subjects including singing, drawing, history of art, handwork, history of religion. Two theses (1) are required of the student as well as a satisfactory written examination. The subject of a very interesting dissertation

(1) One of the examiners in Frankfurt, a secondary school principal asked the writer to assist him in judging the merits of a number of dissertations in the subject of English.

by a student at Frankfurt was "The use of the works of Shakespeare and of Browning in the English class."

The professional preparation and practical training of students who are successful at the State examination are given in two preparatory years (Vorbereitungsjahre) which are generally spent at two or more selected secondary schools. Two hours a week throughout the school year are expected to be devoted to conferences for the study of professional subjects. In actual practice the greater part of the first year is spent by the student as observer, assistant and supply or relief teacher in turn. The headmaster of the school and the teacher of the class give instruction in method. During the second year the student must attend 6 lectures per week at the Bezirkseminar, which is really a central meeting place for groups of students. The lectures and discussions are on psychology, philosophy, ethics, school methods. Criticism lessons are taught by students in turn, and the methods discussed later at the Seminar.

At the end of the second year, candidates who have been given satisfactory reports by the principals and teachers under whom they have trained and by a secondary school inspector are admitted to the professional examination (Pädagogische Prüfung). This is in three parts, an essay on some problem of education based on practical experience, an oral examination in the form of a discussion, and a practical examination in which one or two lessons are taught

before the examiners. All factors are taken into consideration in judging the student's success.

Studienassessoren, as successful candidates arecalled, may receive appointments to teach their subjects in a secondary school. They usually serve as Hilfslehrer or Auxiliary teachers for one year, and may not be awarded permanent appointment for five years. They are, when finally appointed, able to teach their subjects well and lessons observed in the secondary schools of Germany were excellent, particularly if the observer keeps in mind the purpose of the Secondary School, viz. to prepare pupils for the University or training school for teachers.

This description of the preparation of secondary school teachers has been given in terms of the methods of the past and the present for as yet there has been little change in the procedure under the National Socialist administration.

The Problem of Industrial Education.

The National Socialist Government has criticised the system of education for industry in Germany and has proposed certain changes that will bring hte "school in closer contact with industry." Speaking of the craft schools, the Prussian Minister for Home Affairs, said,"The feeble effort to become a small academy, attaching great importance to training in the field of sculpture, but at the same time entirely neglecting the industrial training of the stone mason, will not be possible in the future".(1)The whole system is to some extent in the melting pot and the form in which it will be shaped can only be imagined. One may be quite right in expecting that industrial education will assume even greater importance than in the past in this country that is depending upon a revival of industry for prosperity. Many of the factories that provided equipment for the Great War were idle for many years and their employees adjusted themselves into spasmodic employment in other factories whose goods were very slowly accepted in foreign markets.

The post-war years with unemployment, bankruptcy, and despair disrupted a well-organized system of apprenticeship and Technical Institutions. As German products began to compete again in foreign markets the plan was revived and improved. Tariff walls have prevented the import of the raw products so necessary for the factories so the ingenious

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(1) An article by Dr Schmitt in Der Deutsche, January 14,1934.

German turned to synthetic substitutes and the results have been only fairly satisfactory. The problem of industrial education can not be solved entirely by school legislation. Demand for German goods abroad and a new assurance of permanence in industry will bring to the German youth a greater enthusiasm in his enforced apprenticeship.

Trade Schools have existed in Germany for many years and compulsory attendance at some kind of day Continuation School has supplemented apprenticeship. In a book published in 1916, an English engineer, who had studied Apprentice Training in many countries, wrote,"It is well known that Germany possesses a more complete educational system for industry than any other country in Europe". (1) One who has had much influence on the development of a system of trade schools in Germany was Kerschensteiner of Munich. His schools have been copied in other parts of Germany. Kerschensteiner's great achievement does not consist so much in the provision of an organized body of schools with a common aim as in the evolution of a rational conception of the trade school and its relation to the community. He frankly accepts the position that it is difficult to persuade many artisans to appreciate any instruction which has not for them an immediate and practical value. These tradesmen need, as well, civic and cultural training. So the trade must be regarded as the basis of instruction and

(1) Fleming, A.P.M. - The Principles of Apprentice Training, Longmans Green & Co.London,1916.

cultural training and training in citizenship be given with a trade bias. (1) This conception of industrial education is important to this study because its spread brought the tradeschools a greater number of teachers of non-skill subjects than are found in other countries. The study of Scripture, Citizenship, German and a foreign language are not uncommon in these schools.

Technical education in Germany has been divided into three parts to satisfy the need for three types of persons required in industry. The Engineers or those who direct the industry may be prepared for their work at a Higher Technical School (Hochschule) or Engineering College. The Foremen or Overseers of parts of the factory may receive instruction for their work at the Fachschulen or Trade Schools which are on a Secondary School level. The Workman, whose duty is more mechanical than intellectual, will attend an Elementary Technical Institution (Gewerbeschule or Berufschule) for three or four years during his apprenticeship or until he is eighteen years of age. It is possible that the latter institutions may be combined to some extent under the new administration.

The Higher Technical Institutions or Technische Hochschulen such as those of Berlin, Breslau and Dresden have the rank of universities and the power to award the Doctor's degree. The condition of admission is the same

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(1)"Staatsburgerliche Erziehung der deutschen Jugend", von Dr Georg Kerschensteiner, Erfurt: Carl Villaret, 1901,

as that for universities, the Abiturientenprufung. The examination requirements for graduation will give an estimate of the courses offered. Candidates for the Diploma Examination, equivalent to the B.Sc. in Engineering in the British universities, must have 1) studied for four years at the Institution, 2) done practical work for one year, and 3) passed the two parts of the examination. The first part of the examination is held two years after admission: the subjects are Mathematics, Mechanics, Descriptive Geometry, Machine-technic, Physics and Chemistry, Electro-technic, Theory of Heat, Political Science, Factory Organization, and Electro-mechanics. The second part of the examination follows after the year's practical work and two further years of study. A student who has passed the Diploma Examination can be a candidate for the Doctor's degree in Engineering after a further study of two years,

No person is appointed as a Professor in a Technische Hochschule unless he has served for at least seven years in a factory or industrial firm. The status of Professor and the salary have been attractive to experienced men. The entire career of the applicant for Professorship is examined and only those with advanced scholarship and successful practice are accepted. Their association with industry is helpful to them in making their work practical.

The Trade Schools or Fachschulen are senior schools but not on the University level as the Technische Hochschulen are.

Those who are to become Master workmen and skilled mechanics obtain part of their training in the Fachschule. This is supplemented by apprenticeship. The boys and girls who join the trade schools have either studied for six years in a High School (Oberrealschule, Realschule, or Gymnasium) or have taken the course of a Middle School for six years or have done exceptional work at a Volksschule. The Trade School course usually covers three years with instruction imparted for thirty hours a week. The work is both theoretical and practical as may be judged from the following course of study of a Trade School for watch-makers at Glasshute, near Dresden.

Lessons )10 to 20 hours a week).

1. Arithmetic and Algebra, including the use of the slide rule, graphs and logarithms
2. Geometry
3. Physics
4. Electricity
5. German
6. Hygiene
7. Book-keeping
8. Political Science
9. Gymnastics
10. French and English

Practical Work (30 hours to 40 hours a week)

1. Filing, twisting, use of tools and machines
2. Use of micrometers
3. Mechanism and construction of a watch
4. Pendulums and Pendulum adjustment
5. Repairs, etc.

Every boy in this school must make the complete working parts of a watch before graduating. Then he may act as apprentice in a factory for a further period of three years when he may

concerned as well as experience in a factory. This, of course, is difficult because the young man chooses either teaching or industrial career. If the teachers of "school work" have not had experience in the trades they must become familiar with the trade from visits and private study. The teacher of Mathematics, then, would have attended University or Hochschule, served two years in practice and the Seminar and studied the place of the tradesman in industry. The teacher of French or English would have received a similar training in his own subject. (1) The selection and inspection of these academic teachers is controlled by the State, the City, and the Industry.

Since girls attend many of these schools there are certain women teachers appointed, but the number is small. The greater number of girls' schools have a majority of male teachers. With the new emphasis on house-wife training for girls it is expected that girls will not be admitted to many technical classes in Trade Schools.

The Day Continuation Schools (Gewerbeschulen or Berufschulen) provide training on the elementary level for the workmen and apprentices. When the boy or girl leaves school at the age of fourteen he becomes an apprentice for three years. He must during this time attend one of the Continuation Schools for a certain number of hours per week whether he is a cleaner-boy, a shop-assistant or a carpenter's

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(1) A young teacher of English interviewed at a Trade School had studied for two years at an English University.

assistant. No fees are required of the pupils at these schools but their masters have to make a small contribution. In some cases the schools are State or Government schools.

The pupils learn the elements of the work in their particular trade as well as Arithmetic, Drawing, Book-keeping, Gymnastics, Music and possibly a foreign language. Excursions and games are compulsory. The teacher of the trade subject is generally a master workman of the trade. Thus, master carpenters, master barbers and master bakers are appointed as teachers.

Following Kerschensteiner's policy of giving a cultural and citizenship training to these boys and girls in the trade schools, the compulsory course includes a greater amount of academic work than is found in corresponding courses in other countries. This academic work has a close bearing on the trades being taught, for the pupils are divided into groups according to their trades. Drawing , Arithmetic and Geometry are presented differently for different trades although there may be the same teacher for each throughout the school. If the school is a single-trade school it is called a **Berufschule** and in it the school work centres around a single industry.

Certain graduates of the elementary training schools for teachers are employed to teach the school subjects in these schools. In certain schools they must pass an oral and written test before obtaining appointment. Since

their services are required for one or two hours a day only, they frequently teach classes in a Volksschule or Mittelschule and do "part-time" teaching in the Continuation School. This is further facilitated by the closing of day schools at one o'clock each day. The apprentices work until afternoon at which time teachers are free to give instruction.

The organization of these Continuation Schools is not so thorough in country areas. It is being improved because of the new emphasis on cottage-trades in Germany. Farmers and their wives and children spend the winter months engaged in wood-carving, engraving and needlework for the shops and foreign markets. Classes in this cottage-work are being given in Fachclassen or Fortbildungschulen. These are frequently attached to the Volksschulen and teachers who have made a special study of these cottage-trades teach the pupils. Otherwise there is not a great deal of manual training in the elementary schools.

The lack of regulations for and the variety of training of Technical School teachers in Germany has not seriously impaired the efficiency of the schools. The emphasis has not been on the training of these teachers but on the selection and inspection of them. The schools vary, the trades vary, and the children vary so it is rather difficult to set up a central institution for the training of technical teachers. There are however many institutions for their technical training and many opportunities for practical work. The duty

of the directors of a school then is to select the teachers who seem best suited for the work. Years of practice and of carefully watched experiments have produced an expert body of trade teachers. The instruction given is not too narrowly utilitarian in motive and it is hoped that the new education movement will not make it so.

Training Colleges for Continuation School teachers (Berufspädagogisches Institut) were established in Prussia in 1931. Admission to these can be secured either through matriculation, supplemented by at least two years' practical training in the subject to be taught (i.e. architecture, engineering, electrotechnics, tailoring, domestic economy, etc.) or by proof that the candidate has completed a course of study at a higher technical school. The course at these colleges lasts two years, the students attending lectures at the universities in the relevant subjects (commercial, technical or agriculture) and receiving at the same time a training in pedagogical and other branches of knowledge of value for teaching and related to their particular specialty, such as citizenship, national economics or psychology. By providing special training courses for the teachers of vacational schools it was hoped to meet the very strong opinions of some parents and teachers that the vocational school did"approach to culture" and thus this type of school should become somewhat on the same level as the secondary schools. The Middle Grade Certificate was introduced partly

to give an objective to the schools.

Where trade teachers receive part of their training in universities there has been some criticism, not of the type of training received but of the lowering of university standards to train these teachers. An opinion that received support from University faculties was, "As irrelevant to university is the task imposed by some states of partly training trade (Gewerbe) teachers, who are required to attend the University for at least three semesters, taught apparently by assistants or "Privatdozenten" and examined not by University or teacher but by "Gewerbeschulebehörde". They are of course inferior intellectually and they would lower standards. Perhaps this is good for the trades, but it is very bad for the Universities." (1)

In Würtemberg artisans and professional elementary school teachers are admitted as candidates for appointments in vocational schools, but are given different kinds of training. For the artisans or technical men a training course of 15 months has been organized at Stuttgart. The first year of this course is devoted to a general review of special branches and study of correlated trades, business routine and pedagogy. (2) The last three months are spent in preparation for the teacher's examination which must be passed for certification. The elementary school teacher who desires to devote himself to vocational training is sent by the state to the Building Trades School at Karlsruhe in Baden. His

(1) Flexner, Abraham, - Universities. American, English, German. OxfordUniversity Press, 1930.
(2) Sandiford, P. - Comparative Education. J.M.Dent & Sons Ltd Toronto, 1927.

course here lasts three semesters. It is now essential that he have completed his army-year and his year in the labour service. Before completing the course, too, candidates must have had practical experience in some industry, one year for elementary school teachers and two years for those who come from secondary schools. The final examination includes for all candidates grammar of form and elements of the history and technique of industrial art, science of materials, and mechanical technology, applied drawing and painting, modelling, political economy and legal principles, book-keeping and cost accounting, and pedagogy and methods.

Although Würtemberg may have methods of training technical teachers that are different from other areas in Germany there is a noticeable tendency throughout the country to choose for training, teachers of elementary schools with trade experience or men with practical experience alone. The interesting feature for this study is that the training college preparation of elementary school teachers is accepted as a prerequisite for further training for vocational teachers, and that many vocational teachers are recruited from the ranks of elementary teachers.

The Problem of Exceptional Children.

Germany was a pioneer among countries in organizing institutions for care and training of defective children. In 1832 a private citizen named von Kunz founded a training school for crippled boys in Munich. In 1866 another school was organized in the north of Germany, inspired by the work of Pastor Kundsen in Copenhagen. The first school for "cretins" was formed much earlier, in 1816, in Hallein, near Salzburg, by a pedagogue called Guggenmoos . An asylum for idiots was established in Eisenach, in 1842, by Kern, an elementary school teacher. Kern published a book entitled "On the Combined Medical and Pedagogic Treatment of the Feeble-minded". This book was a guide to the treatment and care of such people for many years. Schools were built later for epileptic children, blind children and deaf-mutes. Many of these early schools were organized by private citizens, usually teachers who had made an objective study of a particular type of physical or mental defect in children. Charitable organizations supplied funds for the support of these schools and when statistics of cases of abnormality were brought to the attention of the State, some State aid was given.

In 1874 there were 30 special schools in Germany for the care of mentally defective children. There were 115 teachers who gave instruction to 1280 boys and 1010 girls. These institutions were partly philanthropic enterprises,

partly private or municipal or provincial undertakings. The number has grown with improved methods of discovering the cases and greater concern and financial support by the State. The children and adults of the idiot or imbecile type are cared for in each province in central institutions. If the parents can pay, fees are charged, if not they are cared for without charge.

The number of special schools for mentally defective children at present, could not be ascertained exactly because in many cities and towns these children are taught in a special class associated with a school rather than in a central "special" school. The reasons for this were the same as those advanced in the study of Scotland, that parents and children objected to the stigma of a school for defectives. The provision varies from city to city and in many rural areas in certain states there is no special provision for the care of abnormal children unless in extreme cases of idiocy when they are sent to a provincial institution.

The mentally defective child has ceased to be an object of charity in Germany. His teacher takes the point of view that he can be trained to do some work and live a moral life and he proceeds to give him such training. (1) Perhaps he does not always succeed but the visitor is impressed with the enthusiasm of the teacher over the work of his pupils. In the special classes they do weaving, painting, carpentry and manual work of various kinds. Where possible the class has

(1) Dr Demoor, Die abnormalen Kinder.

a workshop and a community room or classroom. They sing some songs, take part in dances and generally enjoy their school life. The difficulty arose as to when they should leave school since all young people were expected to follow some form of continuation instruction until 18 years of age. The Prussian Kultus-Minister since 1906 has required of the Directors of special schools or classes a report of the employment and degree of success of all pupils leaving their schools to follow occupations. Frequently a census is made of all feeble-minded persons in each state.

The method of teacher training for the instructors of mentally defective children has been of gradual development and varies to some extent in different states. The earliest teachers were recruited from the ranks of elementary school teachers. These teachers entered the field because of interest in the work. Frequently their only training was observation of the methods of teachers with experience in the care of mentally defective children. The new teachers were employed on probation and were directed to ask questions of experienced teachers and were allowed to attend the conferences of "auxiliary" special class teachers. The young teachers were advised "to familiarize themselves with the literature of the subject, and to acquaint themselves with all branches of scientific knowledge and technical skill which have any bearing on the subject, such as, "Demoor: Die abnormalen Kinder und ihre erziehliche Behandlung in

Haus and Schule." (1) The auxiliary school teachers were expected to familiarize themselves with the history and organization of the auxiliary school system. Also they were to follow certain courses of lectures given by University Professors on Psychology, Hygiene, Corrective Pedagogy, etc. It was very early decided that the training colleges for elementary school teachers should not and could not train specialists. Generally the same view is held to-day. There should not be an attempt to train special teachers of mentally defective children, special teachers for the blind, the deaf, the crippled children, etc. If the course at a Special Institution can be supplemented by the training college when they are near each other, there would be no objection to a combined course, but the training college in Germany has been for many years solely for the professional training of elementary school teachers.

The regular teachers receive a greater amount of information about exceptional children during their training than the French teachers do. Both in the older type of Lehrerseminar and in the Pedagogic Academy there were courses in Psychology, Anatomy and Physiology, Systematic Pedagogics and a certain amount of experimental education. Education is a subject for study in every University and many students who were to become Secondary School teachers chose Education as one of their two subsidiary subjects. So the average

(1) Maennel, B. Dr - Auxiliary Education, The Training of Backward Children. (Translated from the German) 1909.

regular teacher has studied psychological and educational problems which frequently touch the problems of the education and care of exceptional children. The State Departments of Education have regulated the training of exceptional children, then, to include all or part of regular teacher training. Realizing the importance of obtaining teachers who are well-fitted for their work there are usually examinations to test the young teachers' knowledge of the work of the particular type of special school to which he will be appointed.

The regulations for the specific training of "auxiliary" or special class teachers very in different states. The most common practice is to require teachers to take a course in a special institution. Here the teacher serves as probationer or assistant and is instructed in methods of teaching and care by an expert staff. Frequently as in Leipzig, extra lectures are given for these teachers at the University. If the teacher has had experience in the elementary school a course of one year at a Central Institution is followed by an examination for teaching. In the larger schools for the blind and schools for the deaf there are clinics and short courses for teachers. Many of the Rectors of these schools are teachers and and not medical doctors and there is emphasis given to the method side of the training.

The Association for the Care and Training of Mentally Deficient children in Berlin has studied the question for many years and by lectures and discussions on the instruction and training of defectives at home and abroad has given much assistance to the teachers of its organization. It has established a central bureau of information. Provision is made for the "after-care" and occupations of pupils. The Auxiliary School Association of Königsberg looks after those who have been discharged from the school, those ill in school, and mental defectives under school age. The State has since assumed many of the responsibilities formerly undertaken by these and many other associations organized for the education of defectives. The two mentioned above were selected to show the organization in a large and in a smaller centre. Much of the credit for the organization of special classes and of special schools is due to such organizations in Leipzig, Mannheim, Halle, Cologne, etc.

The care of crippled children in Germany is conducted on two distinct lines. Those who are not suitable cases for admission to hospitals receive clinical care. All others are given institutional care. The official definition of a suitable institutional case is, "One who in consequence of a congenital or acquired nerve, bone or joint disease is hampered in the natural use of his limbs to such an extent that his physical disabilities bring him into

total disharmony with his environment." This institution to which the child is sent must be at one and the same time an "orthopaedic clinic, a special school for defectives, and a trade and crafts school." This does not mean that the orthopaedic cases are housed in a school for mentally defective children, but that many of the children had both physical and mental defects, so that special teachers for the mentally defective were retained at the State institutions. So the curative treatment and the educational training of the crippled child were carried on together. The special "auxiliary" teachers usually teach the craft work. There are about 60 cripple institutions for children in Germany. The cost of these institutions is borne by State grants, local authorities from which the children are drawn, and by churches and private charities. (1)

There are as well as teachers of the mentally defective cripples, doctors and nurses, certain teachers of technical subjects especially trained to teach the work of different trades to the older children, Some of the boys remain in the Institutions until they have passed the State apprenticeship examination, the girls until they have completed a trade or household economics course.

There are many institutions which shelter and educate epileptic children. Some are established exclusively for the care of these cases, others are special departments of

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(1) Report of the German Association for Cripple Care, 1927.

general institutions. In addition to these there are also schools attached to institutions for the treatment of nervous diseases in which epileptics are taught. The teachers of these pupils too have had special courses at the universities or Institutions for the Training of Teachers of atypical children. Most of these teachers have had the elementary teachers' training as well.

The State has cared for blind children for many years in special blind schools. The plan of study in these schools closely corresponds to the work of normal children in the elementary and secondary schools, although it is learned at a slower rate. The schools for the deaf are old institutions that provide both care and training for children and "after-care" for adults. Teachers have received their training by probationary work and attendance at lectures. They are examined before being appointed to permanent posts.

Germany has a distinct advantage over a new state such as Ontario in that the care of exceptional children has had a long and progressive development in Germany and it is a comparatively new undertaking in Ontario. Schools have been established in Germany and institutions for training all sorts of defectives have been sponsored by charitable associations and the state for generations. Research work and clinics have established the best methods for the care of these unfortunates. So the teachers have available in the older institutions methods that may be used in the new

ones. Mr Hitler in a recent speech directed that all children should receive an education, the slow and the bright, so it is quite probable that the work of caring for exceptional children will be continued. There has been a definite opinion against segregating the gifted children although the method has been tried in experimental schools. The question of the special care of the gifted, sterilization of mental defectives, the new training of teachers of all types of atypical children will have to be worked out by the new generation of officials and teachers.

The Problem of Agricultural Education and Rural Schools.

"One of the most difficult problems that has faced the National Socialist Government is to find employment for the vast army of school graduates, these boys and girls who at the age of fourteen (graduates of the elementary schools) are thrown upon the world to fend for themselves." (1) One and a quarter million pupils left school at Easter, 1934. How to absorb them and occupy them for their own good and that of the community is a serious problem. One suggested solution is a "rural year" to fit them for a general "back to the land" movement. "Education is not merely book-learning", says Herr Hitler and he is putting this principle into practice by requiring these boys and girls to spend a "rural year". It is also a year of intensive instruction in National Socialist doctrine but it is as well an attempt to make Germany again a great agricultural country for it is hoped that these young people will acquire a liking for the soil from contact with it. "People must be trained by Nature", say the National Socialists.

A book written in 1880 on "Agricultural Education in Germany" describes the very extensive system of Agricultural schools that existed at that time. There were "Royal Agricultural High Schools", "Agricultural Institutes", "Veterinary Colleges", and"Technical High Schools for Agriculture", many of which still exist as University Departments.

(1) Hastings, Robert - The Changing Face of Germany, Frederick Muller Ltd,. London, 1934.

There were Lower and Intermediate Agricultural Schools in each state that served as Technical and Secondary Schools for the education of prospective teachers, farmers, surveyors and foresters. Many of these have been supplanted by more academic and vocational schools as Germany developed into an industrial country. It is possible that part of the old system will be revived to meet the new demands for employment of unemployed labourers and tradesmen.

There are many changes that will be made in the old system and the school will have to co-operate with other institutions in providing agricultural education for the young people. As has been suggested in the Introduction, exercise and discipline and training in the National Services such as the Labour Service, the Army, the Rural Year, and the Youth Camps are regarded as important in the preparation for life work as the "knowledge learned at school".

The "Law" which was passed on 28th March, 1934, defines the "Rural Year" so as to include as many children as possible. The State of Prussia takes the biologically fit and healthy children, first those of the large cities, then those of the smaller towns, and places them in homes in the country districts. Children of unemployed parents and those who have failed to find positions as apprentices receive preference. The children are organized as communities; each group has its own leader and assistant leader. Boys and girls are housed separately. For the first year 20,000

children were enrolled and established in 500 rural homes in the agricultural provinces of Pomerania, Grenzmark, Lower Silesia, Schleswig-Holstein, Hanover and Mark Brandenburg. This "rural" service is conducted outside the school system and curriculum, and does not exempt any child from attending the continuation school at the end of the year of training.

The teachers or "leaders", as they are called, had to be trained to direct the activities of these children during their rural year and as the number of children that can be accommodated increases there will have to be additional "leaders". Eighteen training camps were established in Prussia in different centres for leaders. During the early months of last year, 4000 young men and women were admitted for a four weeks' intensive training. Of the 4000 admitted only 1800 were passed as fit. The duration of the course has been extended and the selection has been more on the grounds of personal fitness than party enthusiasm.

The training is of a varied nature and includes instruction in local and national history, as also in the political history of Germany. Leaders are taught how to present these subjects to the children. Topography, surveying and methods of work are also included in the programme. The practical side is not overlooked, and a course in the theory and practice of agriculture and gardening must be followed by each candidate for leadership or assistantship. Great stress is laid on physical training, social accomplish-

ments and music.

One might regard this as a very elementary training for a teacher of rural science but these leaders have the additional duties of training the boys and girls in community enterprise, in patriotic duties, and in bodily development. The experiment has received the support of all States and the training camps are filled with University students, unemployed teachers, and young men and women interested in boys' and girls' organizations, who are anxious to do their their share of the Leader's project.

In addition to the "Rural Year" there are institutions which have developed for rural study. There are a number of experimental schools which up to the present have been permitted to carry on without interference from the Government. There are first the "Landerziehungsheime" or Country Home Schools called by the name of their founder Leitz homes. They are boarding schools and the pupils live in close touch with the peasants. They work with them and thus learn folk ways and acquire from them the joys of a simple life, the virtue of frugality and a knowledge of the ancient arts and crafts as practised in the cottages. A spirit of comradeship exists between teachers and pupils, and home life is the real foundation of their system. The school work is carried on at the elementary and secondary school levels and the pupils take the same leaving examinations. The teachers receive no special training for their work except the usual

teacher training and an apprenticeship in the methods of these schools. They are called "Educators" and forego the advantage of being government officials, as these institutions are not Government controlled, but are private undertakings.

Another "country" school is the Odenwaldschule, near Hippenheim in the Rhine Valley. It too is an experimental school under the leadership of Dr Gehieb, its founder. It is a co-educational boarding school and has been established more to explore the possibilities of co-education than to develop a school of rural science.

The changes in the regular school system that affect the problem of agriculture are chiefly the introduction of biology to the programme of studies in all State schools, school visits to the country and youth camps. The biology is German biology and is introduced to give a better understanding of animal and plant life in their economic relation to the country. In rural areas the subject is given a distinctly agricultural bias. The teachers are given suggestions for the type of instruction that is expected. The new elementary training school programmes stress the methods of teaching the subject. Since the training colleges have been moved to rural centres there will be better opportunities for the prospective teachers to study rural problems and to meet them in their teaching. Their year in the Labour Service too will bring them into contact with rural life.

There are many institutions in Germany for various

degrees of training in technical agriculture. Some of these are affiliated with Universities as in the case of Bonn, Jena, Munich, Leipzig. The graduates of these institutions of higher rank are able to teach in the Landwirtschaftsschulen and in the lower Ackerbauschulen (Farm Schools). There are possibilities for specialization in particular phases of agriculture as the courses at Halle include Entomology, Biology, Dairying, Forestry, Land system, Fruit Growing, Farm Economics, Engineering and Land Surveying, Diseases of Animals and Veterinary Practice, Experimental Physics, Experimental Chemistry, etc. There is a large farm associated with the College and research work is carried on here. Students must have a "Maturity Certificate" and must present a Certificate of practical experience on entering. The course that will prepare them for teaching lasts for three years. The prospective teacher must submit to an examination for certification. Many of these teachers are appointed to technical and vocational schools in towns as well as to Farm Schools. These Higher Agricultural Colleges are not intended solely for the training of Agriculture teachers. They give scientific courses for Foresters, Agricultural Agents, Farmers, Veterinaries, Distillers as well as teachers.

There are Forestry schools for the training of Foresters and Technical schools for the study of grape culture and wine making in different parts of Germany. Certain schools give

courses in Dairying alone, and farm helpers enter to study the methods of making butter and cheese at home. Both boys and girls attend these schools. So, there are many posts available for teachers with a knowledge of scientific agriculture.

Rural Teachers

Rural schools in Germany are rarely so isolated as many in America because the farms are seldom large or scattered. Village life unites the peasants whose houses cluster in a small area surrounded by their fields. The village school with its one, two or three teachers brings together many children in one district. Almost without exception the teachers in the rural schools are men who have taken up permanent residence in the community, who share the daily life and labour of the peasantry, and who hold a highly respected and influential position in local affairs. Frequently the teacher's residence is near the school in special grounds with gardens. Occasionally the teacher resides in special quarters in the school building. The assistant teacher may be a probationer who has not yet passed his second examination.

The village school does not become a community centre often, because that social purpose is already served by established inns, local organizations and traditional festivals that bring the villagers together for diversion frequently.

The large majority of schools in Prussia in 1927 had fewer than three classes; of 33,405 elementary schools, 14,076 were single-teacher schools, 6492 schools had two teachers, 4529 three teachers, 1808 four teachers, 959 five teachers, 851 six teachers, and 4790 had seven or eight

teachers. A rather unfortunate feature of the smaller schools is that teachers who are serving their two years of probation before their final teacher's examination may serve there. Usually they have enthusiasm and use good methods but they regard the rural schools as temporary posts and after serving for two years they leave to seek appointment in larger schools.

The most interesting phase of rural teaching at the present time is the "Rural Year" described earlier in this section. The fact that the "leaders" are given special courses in training camps and the type of training is of special importance to this study. In many countries young men from cities who have had no practical training in rural work learn agriculture at College and then become teachers of agriculture.

The Problem of Cultural Education.

1. Music

In 1932 Germany, together with all parts of the civilized world celebrated the centenary of the death of Goethe, one of the greatest literary geniuses the world has ever known. In 1933 the same world paid respect to two great German musical giants, to Wagner and Brahms. Haydn and Beethoven were great composers of the nineteenth century whose names are known wherever an orchestral band is played. More recent German composers have taken up the challenge of the past and are spending their lives in composing and interpreting great music.

As familiar to German people as the names of their great composers are the folk songs that have survived in the mountains and country side. Their composers' names have been lost in the past but the songs are a link with the past that is becoming increasingly strong. The German people are fond of singing and although all may not be able to understand and appreciate the internationally famous works of their great composers, all seem to be able to sing with great enthusiasm the songs of the past.

These references to the musical accomplishments of Germany are made to stress the importance of music in the lives of the people, to lead up to its significance as a school subject. The songs of students, the orchestras of of the cafés, the military bands, the "open-air" operas,

the songs of the Wandervögel, the singing games of children at play, all convince one that the participants and listeners in Germany have more than an academic or passing interest in music. They have learned songs in school and they have heard them frequently in public but there is a spontaneity to their music that other countries may envy.

Two illustrations may serve to prove either that music is well taught in schools or that it arises from a German natural tendency. Perhaps the conclusion may be a tribute to the school teachers. While passing down the Rhine on a steamer a recital was given by a German friend, of a legend associated with a certain rock on the shore. Immediately he collected 25 men from among the German passengers who sang the song of the legend in excellent voice.

On another occasion in the playgrounds of a Mittelschule the pupils of two classes who had recently returned to school from a camp in the mountains sang folk songs and demonstrated country dances that they had seen and heard there. Without any direction from an instructor the other pupils formed themselves into groups and proceeded to learn the new songs and dances. At the next intermission some groups were doing them well.

The Youth Movement has successfully brought a new interest in the folk songs. It has been so marked that contemporary German composers such as Hindemith, Jöde and others have specialized in musid for the young. They have written

rhythmic and melodious tunes that have caught the fancy of the young. Hindemith's opera "Cardillac" was particularly composed for young people and for "bodies of people who wish to discard the role of listener and to take an active part themselves." (1)

Music in the schools, or singing, as the subject is called, has not had the difficulties of other subjects in its school history and has survived political changes without loss of continuity. The methods of teaching have changed since 1919 partly through the influence of Fritz Jöde, formerly a teacher in a community school in Hamburg and later a Professor in the National Institute for Music Teachers. He recognized the influence of the Wandervögel in these words, "We, who bear within ourselves the impress of the Youth Movement, have had a musical experience and we are on our way to a new musical culture. We began with the folk song..... Then came the Wandervögel, and, without troubling themselves about music, they set up a new type of man and with him appeared a new folk song, unsought, but naturally developed. Once again real folk music. Men and music grew actually together." "We must feel music as a law of mind in us. The basis of all mental activity is creation". (2)

Jöde thus brought to music teaching a new purpose

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(1) Hastings, R. - The Changing Face of Germany, Frederick Muller, Ltd, London, 1934.
(2) Quoted from references in The New Education in the German Republic.

similar to that introduced by Lichtwark to the teaching of art. Pre-war singing lessons were too didactic in character. The teachers did not make much use of the Tonic Solfa method used in England. They taught songs from the Staff but children learned to sing. They taught singing as a school subject however, and Jöde taught it as personality development. Post-war teachers were impressed with his methods and particularly with the enthusiasm of his pupils.

The professors of music in the training colleges for elementary school teachers began to weave the new philosophy into their teaching. Music was a compulsory subject and the students were expected to teach it to their own classes when they became teachers. To be able to teach singing well they must themselves know music. Teachers-in-training were and are now expected to be able to play a musical instrument. They must follow a course in music practice, appreciation and teaching for three years while at the training school. With the new emphasis on German music in the schools and its importance in the Hitler Youth Movements it will receive increased importance in the future. In their teaching methods there is greater stress on learning to sing than on appreciation. It is implied that only when they can sing and understand music will they appreciate it. There is little attempt at developing solo artists, but part-songs, rounds, and community singing are taught. The teachers are directed to bring to the children a joy in music and not to burden

them or spoil this joy with the mechanics of music until they are old enough or anxious to learn them.

For teaching the mechanics of music, composing, orchestral work and other advanced stages of the subject to older pupils in Mittelschulen and Secondary Schools, the teachers must have special training and pass a special examination to teach the subject. There are several Academies of Music from which prospective teachers may graduate and at these they study not only musical theory, history, composition and instrumental work but teaching methods. School orchestras and Hitler Youth bands have flourished recently and frequently it was difficult to employ a young teacher with qualifications to conduct these bands. There were many band conductors but the youth themselves preferred the services of a young man who could go out into the country with them, march for many miles along the roads and camp out at night. Often the secondary school teacher of music was not suitable for this form of conducting. A number of young men who are assuming this as their part ofthe National Socialist advancement programme are taking the Academy courses in Music, that they may teach adolescent boys and girls in school and in camps. One may prophesy that the old music master in the secondary schools must, in the near future, relinquish his post to younger and more enthusiastic leaders. This is not because he is unable to teach singing for the character of the choral work, rounds, and part-songs heard in German schools

indicated very careful training. In the English and French classes too they learn the language to some extent by songs, and part of the training of the teacher of foreign languages is a study of music in the language being learned. (1)

A type of artistic expression which has rapidly gained popularity in Germany is the Sprechchor or speaking chorus, which is similar to the chorus in Greek plays. In the classroom or auditorium very interesting effects are produced as the chorus chants a poem which the actors interpret in rhythmic pantomime. Well-intoned verses give a beautiful musical effect and the group of speakers makes an interesting human background for the dramatic action. The Sprechchor has assumed a new significance in the new State because it expresses the feeling of the masses, "I cannot do it alone but together we can". The method of conducting the Sprechchor is recognized by Academies, and schools of Eurythmics and prospective teachers receive some training in the method of conducting it. There are as well several summer courses for teachers where different forms of musical expression are taught.

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(1) The writer assisted in the translation and preparation of small book of English, Irish, Scottish & American songs in Frankfurt for use by an English teacher in a Higher Commercial School.

2. Art

In studying Art Education in Germany, the student finds extensive reference to the work of Alfred Lichtwark, teacher, philosopher, and director of the Art Gallery in Hamburg. His writings and addresses on Art and the Teaching of Art must have greatly influenced the plan of education after the Revolution and after the Great War. "If we wish to develop folk spirit we must demand of education that it awake in all circles love and appreciation of our language, literature and art," he said. He illustrated the development of Art in the individual by a reference to Goethe who, when a youth asked him how he learned to write in such a beautiful style, answered, "I let things work upon me". Lichtwark became famous because of his philosophy of education and he helped to raise the work of the teacher to the dignity of an art, and he developed a new interest in Art when he made his museum a place where old and young from all classes of society loved to learn.

German artists had for many years protested against the overintellectual training given in the schools. "Up to the beginning of the twentieth century they had made little headway against the traditional practice of teaching art as systematically and coldly as one taught the multiplication tables." (1) Self-expression and appreciation were killed by the didactic method used in art. Drawing was compulsory in elementary schools but the teachers had in most cases

(1) Alexander, T. and Parker, B..The New Education in the German Republic, Williams & Norgate, Ltd,London,1930.

received no training in the subject and taught it according to lesson plans they had been given in other subjects.

The conferences on Art Education petitioned the States' Education Departments to give a greater emphasis and a newer meaning to the teaching of Art. There was not great improvement until the whole question of education was discussed after the war. Certain suggestions were offered by the successive conferences on Art and the new leaders of education began gradually to agree that, "Art education is not to be thought of as an external ornament for festive occasions but as the development of artistic tendencies affecting life. The basis of every healthy and strengthening pleasure in art is determined by the receptive capacity of the individual." More and more educationalists accepted the opinion of Lichtwark, "When art serves a weakened race as a mere means to charm and divert, it is a debilitating influence. We are deadly enemies of the popularization of Art. Raise the minds and souls of the people but do not drag art down to their level". (1)

An Art lesson is no longer a period for learning forms and skills at the master's dictation. Particularly in the new Reform schools it is a time for releasing ideas that press for expression through media that the pupil may choose and by methods that he may devise. "No longer does the drawing master in the new type of school place a stuffed bird before his class and watch pupils labour to make curves and shadows look real." Mr Alexander in his book "The New Education in Germany" relates

incidents of masters taking pupils on excursions and then, on returning, allowing them to draw pictures of birds. It is true that the relation of art to education has changed and that the methods of art teaching have greatly improved, but the writer observed in a German Mittelschule exactly what Mr Alexander suggested had disappeared. However, the younger teachers have followed the new school of Art teaching and are obtaining excellent expression and some very fine creative work.

As Art is a compulsory subject in the new Training Schools, the young teacher of elementary schools will be expected to teach drawing in their own classes. At present that is the custom, but in the larger cities, supervisors of Art are employed. The office of supervisor may be discontinued in the elementary schools, however, since the new teaching methods are unfavourable to the division of school subject matter into compartments. The teacher should be free to develop artistic ability and appreciation along with Nature Study, Geography and other subjects. A visitor to German elementary schools may not find beautiful drawings "done by the pupils" on the walls of a classroom but he may find very expressive works in the note books of the pupils.

In the Mittelschule, particularly in the sections with commercial or industrial bias, drawing receives from 2 to 4 hours per week of school time. The classes are divided into groups according to subjects and special teachers are

employed for the art work. There is not much of grouping of art and craft work here although the relation of art to the crafts is discussed. Some interesting lessons on German art are given and in the country villages some time is spent on home craft. The usual medium for the drawing lesson in the regular Mittelschule is pencil or water colour. There is not much evidence of a definite course in art appreciation.

The teachers of art in these schools may receive their training in different ways. In smaller schools a teacher of other subjects who has some special ability in art is asked to take the classes in art. In the large schools a special instructor is employed. He may have graduated from an Art Academy such as the rather famous one at Munich with a special training department developed through the enterprise of the late Professor Kirschensteiner. (1) Here the student spends three years of work under the direction of practising artists or celebrated teachers of Art. He learns painting, design, mechanical drawing and lino-cutting, etc. and has opportunity to follow, to some extent, his favourite field of Art.

One of the best known schools for the training of Secondary School Teachers of Art is the State School, Berlin. It is devoted solely to the training of future teachers of Art in secondary schools. The school is financed by the State and enrolls about 200 students each year. Students

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(1) Industry and Art Education on the Continent.

enter at the age of 18 after having passed their Maturity examination from a secondary school. In the future they will be expected to serve first in the army and the labour camp. The course at the school lasts for three years and is similar in content to that of the Diploma course at a Scottish College of Art. In Berlin, however, the student is required to do a greater amount of craftwork. This is because many of the students will obtain positions in Trade Schools of Secondary rank.

The first year of the course at the State Training School in Berlin is general, including painting, life-drawing, and craft work. After the first year the students (who are all on probation until the end of that year) can choose which phase of art or craft they will study particularly. Some choose toy-making, others sculpture, others cabinet-making. Good equipment is provided for women's crafts, and some of the girls choose etching, bookbinding or lithography. All students must take lectures in pedagogy and methods of organizing and presenting work. Children are brought to the school for experimental classes and students go out to schools for practice teaching. During the last year of study there are excursions, observation lessons, lectures on the history of art and opportunities for the student to do original work.

All professors at the State School have good studios of their own and when not engaged at the School, continue their own practice of Art. There seems to be a possible

inspiration as a result of this arrangement, which could not be obtained if mediocre artists or failures were employed to train the future teachers of Art in the schools. It is characteristic of the new artists of Germany that they allow themselves to be available to teach in such schools. There are other schools similar to the Berlin school in Germany. They are usually associated with an Art Academy in the smaller cities although the original plan was to develop them exclusively for the training of future Art teachers.

An interesting impression of the teaching of Art in Secondary Schools was that the Special Art Teacher "does not permit the art department to be called upon continually for service to some other subject of the curriculum, because, as he sees it, the connection with more highly rationalized subject matter is dangerous to the intuitive elements inherent in creative work". (1) It would seem from this that the teacher intended to develop an entire school of artists. The Secondary School will undergo changes in the years to come and it may be prophesied that art will receive increased prominence.

Art teaching seemed to be at its best in the Trade Schools. It was closely correlated with craft work, and some of the pupils' work was particularly satisfactory. The pupils saw a purpose for their art in moulding, design, decoration, and the teachers were developing a sense of the

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(1) Alexander, T. - The New Education in the German Republic.

beautiful that seemed to be lacking in the teaching of Art in the Secondary Schools. As many of the teachers have had a similar course of training to those engaged in Art teaching in the Secondary School, the conclusion is that the general school atmosphere is more favourable for the teaching of Art in the Fachschule.

The most impressive features of the training of Art teachers in Germany are :- 1) The elementary teachers learn to correlate art with other subjects and even to give it a moral significance, 2) Secondary teachers receive special training but find it difficult in the older secondary schools to give the subject more than an academic importance, 3) The Special Teacher of Art may in certain training schools learn from professional artists of fame and receive inspiration from these contacts, 4) The teaching of Art has changed greatly since the war and may undergo further changes to suit the Nationalism of the National Socialist Administration.

The Problem of Religious Education.

The teaching of religious knowledge in the schools did not develop as a national educational problem until new school legislation began to be drafted after the war. From the time of Luther, Religion was taught in the Protestant schools. The Roman Catholic sections of the country preserved their instruction in their own schools. There were obvious difficulties but the Scriptures continued to be taught in schools according to the beliefs of the people of the neighbouring church. When representatives of the people gathered to discuss the educational policy of the new Republic in 1919 and 1920 the two philosophies began to clash. The Jewish element added a further difficulty. It would have been quite easy to say,"We shall teach religion as before", but the new Grundschule and Volksschule were to be schools of "social levelling". To these conferences were brought the principles of education of such men as Paulsen from Hamburg who had organized Community Schools on non-sectarian lines. According to Paulsen's philosophy, any form of indoctrination "puts checks on freedom of thought and hinders the individual from arriving at his own decision in matters of faith."

The Gemeinschaftsschule had supporters among teachers and statesmen alike. It seemed to suit the purpose of a new republic and at the same time provide a satisfactory education for the masses. It did not discountenance

religious teaching altogether and, in the Community School that had developed, attendance at lessons in religion remained optional. It will be interesting to learn whether this type of school which was permitted but not encouraged by the Republic will become the National school of the National Socialist State.

Out of the conferences on the Republican form of education came only concessions to all parties concerned except the extreme radicals. Religion was to be taught in the schools by the teachers and if parents had conscientious objections the child might withdraw from the religious instruction. The Catholics were to be taught by Catholic teachers and the Protestant by Protestant teachers. "No teacher may be compelled to give religious instruction against his will" and "the supervision of schools shall be conducted by full-time officials who are properly trained" were articles of the constitution. (1) The former article gave some freedom to the teacher and the latter curtailed the control of the clergy over elementary school teachers. The way has been opened for the establishment of secular schools (weltliche Schulen) but few have been organized. Perhaps the vagueness of the wording of the Weimar Constitution has led to State difficulties in the settlement of the religious education question.

The co-operation between the State and the Church varies

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(1) Articles 146 - 149, German Constitution 1919, 1920.

considerably in different States. Two extreme cases are Bavaria and Saxony. On January 15,1925, Bavaria concluded a Concordat with the Holy See in Rome, according to which in all Catholic State schools only those Catholic teachers could be appointed who could prove their knowledge of catholic dogmas and religious customs (Art. 1 & 2 ) The Roman Catholic authorities have to be represented at the examinations of candidates for teaching posts in elementary schools. As the Academy that prepared these teachers for their work was denominational in character, the course of study included the necessary religious instruction to pass these examinations. With the transfer of the training school to rural areas and the Government "frown" on Church interference with State affairs there will probably be a change in the religious instruction of the training college. The private schools of religious orders may be closed and the appointment of members of religious orders in the public schools may be discouraged. The schools may continue to have teachers of religious instruction but the different school subjects will not receive a bias according to the particular denomination to which the authorities of the school belong. Bavaria too had its Protestant Schools, where the pupils were taught by Lutheran teachers trained in the religious belief of their own church. These two or three types of schools in the same state seem to be contrary to the spirit of National Socialism and some adjustment may be made.

The possible one is that all religious teaching will be required to stress morality, ethics and character development rather than the particular beliefs, ceremonies, ritual of one church in contrast with others.

Saxony on the other hand prohibited by law denominational schools (No.6, Law of 22 July 1919). It is interesting to note that the teachers' organizations opposed a complete secularization of the schools and an adjustment had to be made to conform to the Weimar Constitution. As a result of the controversy by a law of July 15,1921, parents could decide the religious instruction that their children were to receive. (1)

The results of the Federal legislation that refers to the question of religious education in the schools have been diversified. It seems to be generally recognized that religion should be taught,but many parents throughout Germany have registered objection to their children receiving such instruction. Elementary teachers who were trained in the Academies were required to attend courses of lectures on Religious Knowledge according to the denomination to which they belonged, The Roman Catholic Academies particularly stressed the importance of this subject. The new Training Schools, now located in small villages, do not particularly stress the teaching of religion, although the Directors have not been told that they must not, but it is taking on a more

(1) Hans, Nicholas, The Principles of Educational Policy, P.S.King and Son,Ltd,London, 1929.

non-denominational character. Frequent speeches by the leaders of the Party have indicated an unfriendliness towards the interference of churches in public affairs. There is no prohibition of any private or public form of worship so long as it does not tend to raise barriers between groups. So the new religious training in the elementary training colleges will include the History of Religion, the relations between church and state in History, Christian morals, etc. but it will probably omit Catechisms, Ritual and Denominational observances.

Religion has been a University course for many years. Each University has its Chair of Religion. The subject may be taken as a minor course by prospective secondary school teachers, since the subject is taught on the same basis as other subjects in the secondary school. The average University student regards the subject of religion as being a part of the Divinity rather than of the Arts Faculty, so that comparatively few take it. In the Catholic Universities there is a greater number in the Religion classes. If the student is to become a teacher of Religion in a secondary school, he must pass an examination in the subject and serve as a probationer with attendance at the Seminar. There are of course different types of secondary schools and variations from one state to another, so that it is difficult to generalize. In some of the larger and older schools of Germany, clergymen of whatever denomination the children may be,

give the religious instruction. These clergymen may in certain states pass the examinations for certification as teachers of religion and spend their lives as teachers of secondary school boys or girls.

It was interesting, in view of the rumours of the development of paganism in Germany, to note that at a camp for Hitler youth a definite hour of the morning was indicated on the daily programme for prayer. Some of the boys were Catholic and some were Protestant but all met together for prayer. This and other modern activities of a communal nature seem to suggest that the youth of Germany will continue to be given some form of religious education by regular teachers or by teachers especially trained in the work. One German writer has said, "The word 'striving' best expresses our (German) character, our leaning toward infinity; it also characterizes our educational philosophy more precisely than any other word. But it must be understood not only in the sense of conscious endeavour and struggle, but also in the sense of an instinctive wish". (1) He further says that this impulse leads occasionally to excesses, to exaggerations which arouse the desire for compensation, which again lead to other extremes. And this may to some extent explain the hostile attitude of a few towards certain beliefs, but the reaction after the excess will be a united and a Christian Germany.

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(1) Aloys Fischer, Professor of Education in Munich, contributor to the International Yearbook, 1929, Columbia University, New York.

The Problem of Homemaking and Family Life.

Until the last five years the importance of Domestic Science as a school subject in Germany was not recognized if extensive provision for teaching it be regarded as recognition. The only practical instruction in domestic work for girls in the Grundschule was Needlework. In the Volksschulen the 14 year-old girls have lessons for two half-days a week in Domestic Science. They learn cooking, sewing and needlework chiefly that they may have certain skills. It was expected that they receive further training at a technical school. This training has been extended and has been given a new aim. It will be discussed later. The Secondary Schools have great variation in the type of instruction in Domestic Science. Some give none at all, some only needlework or cooking, while in some, instruction in laundry work or in housekeeping is given. In some schools household questions are made the subject of examinations.The Higher Professional and Technical Schools for girls teach hygiene and housekeeping , nutrition, the care of children and invalids, and first aid . Special afternoon or evening classes are given for adults. The larger universities have affiliated Schools of Domestic Science and these are the training schools for teachers, institution workers, dieticians, etc.

The old (previous to 1933) provision for Domestic Science instruction is very meagre in comparison with the new National Socialist programme for the instruction of girls and

women. Since it will be the programme for the future, it will be described in detail and the plan of training of future teachers suggested. The enthusiasm of the women workers and the strong support it is receiving from the Central Government places the new plan beyond the stage of experiment. To understand it fully one must understand the new rural economy plan and the new place of women in national life. These can best be understood from a part of the report of Dr Mathilde Wolff at the 5th International Congress of Home Economics held in Berlin, August 26, 1934.

"The effect of rural economy in family life is manifold. Under Adolf Hitler we realize the significance of the land as the source of the German race and spirit. We need families with many children settled on the land. To take girls into such families and make them understand the life is helpful. It is also good to take young townswomen who may, perhaps, remain on the land and even if they return to the town, they will help to bridge the gap between town and country.... In a good rural economy apprenticeship we see then education for a farmer's wife and even, perhaps for a landed proprietress, which may be completed by a course at a trade-school of which we have many in Germany. But we prefer the apprenticeship because it leads into the family and natural surroundings, in which schools fail. The advantages of school are different"(1)

Frau Kaete Delius (Berlin) says in the same report,

(1) Report of the 5th International Congress of Home Economics, 26 August, 1934 - not published.

"The position of the peasant woman in Germany is now entirely different. If before she was the servant of industry, now all her work on the farm is so arranged that she may serve as the mother of our new race. Instruction in the rural Home Economics Schools must now also be governed by the new outlook. The central points of the new instruction are race and inheritance problems and hygiene. Also the girl must learn to manage in the home with the means given. She should learn how to attack her work and how to plan her day to gain time for her family. The cultural aspects will also be stressed in the Third Reich; the fostering of customs and tradition will play an important role in the schools for girls".

This very excellent work of training girls for domestic life particularly in rural areas is not entirely new as classes for young girls in the agricultural schools first began in 1927. They have now a new purpose and a new organization. The rural side of domestic training is stressed because the Leader is attempting to make rural life more attractive and particularly to bring to the country some of the unemployed families who are living from relief benefits in the cities.

Having given a brief outline of the new attitude towards rural life and towards the education and place of women in the nation, one should study the provision for the instruction of girls and young women. The agricultural schools which had their beginning in 1927 have almost doubled in number since.

During 1927 each school had only one teacher and she had an elementary school teacher's training. Now they have two or three active instructors who have had experience not only in teaching but in working camps, youth camps and domestic and settlement work. The teacher, except for economic advice given by radio in the form of lectures, is entrusted with the entire instruction of the peasant women of her circle as well. The direction of the rural school for girls is, in many cases, also entrusted to her, so that thus the entire training programme for peasant wives and daughters is unified.

The scattered schools of a few years ago are being unified too into a system. There were besides these agriculture schools, certain domestic science schools in various parts of the country and rural schools for girls. In the cities there were domestic science and technical schools for girls. The teachers of these schools had been trained in higher domestic science schools. Some of them had attended a famous school in Austria. There were no definite requirements although in some states the teachers of these subjects were required to pass an examination for appointment.

It is proposed now, and the scheme has been fairly organized, to give a more uniform training for family life to all girls in Germany, and that training is to be given by teachers who are teachers, social workers, patriots, nurses, and domestic economists. Regarding the management of the

schools, a favourable ruling has recently been made. The schools which formerly were under the Ministry of Agriculture, are now under the control of the Ministry for Science, Art and Folk-education. A close practical connection will be guaranteed, as in the Reichs Commission there is a well organized school directory which interests itself particularly with the further development of the peasantry and also with the domestic science schools. Much overlapping has thus been avoided. So there are being co-ordinated all forms of training for girls for life into a domestic science school system with teachers who have been trained in the Working Service as well as in school.

To understand the nature of this training one must learn the objects of the Working Service for Women. It began and grew up with the National Socialist Movement, but had a counterpart in 1924 when leaders of the Youth Movement in Eastern Germany gathered up unemployed youths and girls from the cities and took them out to the farms of the country where during the summer they earned their bread. The Society for Re-education grew up in 1931. Groups of young girls were organized for the purpose of cooking, washing and mending for men in the working camps. The Working Service for Women took on a new meaning under the National Socialist government. It is not economic reasons nor is it Military Service that makes the Working Service necessary. It is necessary in order to make the women think politically, not in a party way nor in the sense of struggles with other nations, but politically in that

she feels, thinks, and sacrifices in common with her people.

The girls who volunteer for the Working Service are usually housed in groups of 35 to 50 in vacant houses in farming districts. There they are instructed by trained teachers in a life of service and in co-operative living. They work six hours per day and the rest of the time is given to political schooling, sports, and physical education. Part of the work that they do is in the settlements, caring for mothers and babies; part of it is on the farms helping and directing the housewife. "The volunteer Working Service girls spend six hours daily with the wife, aid her in field, garden, stall, and housework. In addition to the accomplishment of this necessary work, the work with the peasant, with the people of another class is of great importance in the training of the young girl. The girl out of the city, out of the factory, the girl who formerly sat over books and thought only of herself, is led back to the strength of the soil. The young women acquire a new attitude toward work, they learn once more the value of a day's work and of a festive evening. The greatest advantage, however, is the palpable experiencing of responsibility."

There are now more than 10,000 girls in the Working Service, Lady teachers are expected to join at least six months. The training seems particularly appropriate for those who are going to teach domestic economy and better home life to the teen-age girls. The young ladies are enthusiastic in their work. They realize with most young

Germans that united service and united love for their country are necessary to build the new Germany.

Much could have been said about the higher Domestic Science Schools and other institutions for training teachers and leaders. These teachers are not expected now to teach the mere mechanics of cooking and needlework. Their task is to train the girls for service and family life. The work of these leaders of the Working Service and teachers of Rural Schools for Girls will be followed with interest by teachers of Domestic Science in other countries. The training of the Working Service seems to be an excellent form of apprenticeship for family life, training in the home for the home.

Briefly then, the training of teachers for agricultural domestic science has been planned to take place in the Teacher Training Institutions of the Reifensteiner Verband and lasts two years, apart from the year of agricultural training (Working Service), the year at the Domestic Schools for women in the country and the trial year of training following the state examination. The technical teacher's training requires the Maturity certificate of a nine-year secondary school or of a higher technical school for women's professions, and two years' practice in different types of households and then at least two years' study which may be in a training college or a domestic science school. The training of teachers for instruction in domestic science in Elementary and Middle

Schools is being remodelled.

Quoting the more or less standard state regulations does not do justice to the new system of training for domestic science teachers. The most important feature of their training is that it is not just a "laboratory" or a "lecture" training but it is a training under actual service conditions. It is a training that should fit them for the very important work of training young German housewives.

## CONCLUSION.

In the preceding chapters the methods of training teachers of 'special' subjects and teachers of exceptional children have been described. Recent changes made in each of the five systems of education studied were discussed to estimate future tendencies in these branches of teaching. The purpose of gathering and organizing these data on the preparation of special teachers was briefly outlined in the introduction: to discover, if possible, whether or not the regular teachers' training colleges have been contributing to the solution of certain educational problems and to discover what other agencies or institutions are engaged in the work of preparation of "special" teachers of technical subjects, Agriculture and Rural Schools, Music and Art, Religious Knowledge, Homemaking, and of Exceptional Children, and what types of training they are giving.

It was evident from the beginning that there would be great diversity in methods of training these teachers. The purposes of different types of schools vary from country to country. This influences the emphasis placed on different subjects in the schools with varying methods of preparation of teachers. The American High School, for example, is a Secondary School for all normal and bright boys and girls of the State. It will have then a general core of subjects with a wide range of electives. As the electives frequently give bias to the pupil's course there is need for special

preparation of teachers of certain elective subjects. That may be given as a reason why the American training college has tended to extend its programme in recent years to include special courses for the training of teachers of music, art, agriculture, exceptional children, etc. This specialization is not so marked in the training colleges of other countries with the exception of the traditional vertical division between elementary and secondary training.

Another reason for diversity in the training of "special" teachers is the type of administrative control of education in each country. The centralized system has been able to focus public attention on the problems of education and has been able to co-ordinate those agencies that may solve them. This has been a slow process and the degree of co-operation of the different institutions that have been preparing teachers of special subjects has depended to some extent upon the degree of centralization. France by establishing her national Ministry of Education has brought the facilities of Schools of Art, Agriculture, Music, Industry and Household Economics to her teaching staff. Germany is attempting to develop a more uniform system. The various State Departments of the United States are assuming control of the training of teachers. The working arrangements between the Department of Education and other Departments in Scotland has made Central Institutions available for the training of special teachers.

Ontario has within the Education Department Directors of the teaching of special subjects who are subordinate to the Deputy Minister of Education.

The Art Schools, Music Academies, Schools of Agriculture, etc. that are providing teachers' courses under various schemes of centralization have some tendency to adhere to their original purpose of developing Artists, Musicians, Agriculturists, etc. in the teachers' course. A special teacher of Art should be an Artist and a Teacher. Merely making him an Artist is not going to insure that he will be a good teacher. A professional course in pedagogy at the Art School or the Training College will help. Since there are certain personal qualifications that seem necessary for teachers it would seem feasible and beneficial to select in some way the candidates for the Art Teacher's course. The Art teacher has been used as an example to illustrate the necessity of making some selection of the candidates for teaching who are to enter the profession through Central Institutions. The Training Colleges have devised methods of selection of regular teachers but, as yet, the only qualifications demanded of candidates to the teachers' course in Central Institutions are an entrance certificate and enthusiasm.

1. Because of the great variety of occupations in each country and because of the comparatively recent tendency for education departments to supplement apprenticeship where it exists, the training of teachers of continuation classes varies greatly in standard and in method. There is general recognition, however, that these teachers should have trade experience. Technical Colleges and Engineering Departments of Universities provide quite adequately for the training of teachers of technical schools on the secondary or higher level.

2. The training programmes of technical teachers included very little vocational guidance instruction. It is not so necessary in the countries in which these teachers will teach apprentices who have already chosen their occupation. It is necessary in countries where organized apprenticeship does not exist and the teachers should be able to discuss with their classes questions of unemployment, labour unions, economic geography and to guide their pupils to choose occupations for which they are physically and mentally fitted. Since vocational guidance is an important phase of vocational instruction it is quite important that teachers of technical subjects have experience in industry. The craft or skill teachers are being chosen because of their experience in factories and it is exceedingly important that these be master workmen who have not only a particular skill but a broad knowledge of the factory and the industry.

3. The older countries have made provision in special institutions for the training of teachers of exceptional children. Scotland has provided a course for these teachers at one of the training colleges. Certain states of the United States have arranged special courses at central training colleges. Ontario provides summer courses for these teachers. In all of these cases the training colleges have not the facilities for training special teachers so instruction programmes have to include visits to or experience in institutions,

4. Provision for the teaching of the various types of exceptional children rests with the Education Authority. There is a general agreement that some sort of special instruction should be given. Rural teachers should be trained to teach these children. Many of them live in rural areas and have not the advantages of special schools or special classes. The teachers should be familiar with methods of detecting defects, the instruction best suited to the individual and methods of socialization.

5. Because of lack of guidance, teachers are not very sure what care the 'genius' or extremely bright pupil needs. Whether this is due to a deficient training college programme or to lack of educational policy is not definite. Young teachers need to be instructed in the treatment of these bright children who may suffer through poor methods of instruction. The policy too of forcing them at high speed

through academic courses frequently results in their contributions to civilization remaining in University libraries in the form of volumes of results of research. Some of these bright children should be directed to technical and commercial schools with the expectation that they will make their contribution direct to industry and business.

6. There is a tendency for Agriculture Departments of the governments of the United States, France and Ontario to hand over the work of training teachers of Agriculture to the Education Departments. This has been a gradual change consummated with some reluctance on the part of each Agriculture Department. It is now possible for the Education Departments to co-ordinate the work with the regular training of teachers under the new system. In Scotland and Germany the two departments do not compete. They work in close co-operation in Scotland, and in Germany their work is supplemented by the Labour Service. The tendency in these countries has been to require teachers of agriculture to obtain practical farm experience during their training.

7. Approximately one-half of the graduates of training colleges do their first teaching in rural schools. Few training college programmes include a study of rural problems or rural teaching problems. In the systems studied there is adequate provision for the training of teachers of agriculture but the removal of many inconsistencies between city and country life is not insured by teaching prospective farmers

better methods of farming. Raising of the salaries of rural teachers will make rural teaching more attractive but the training colleges cannot control this. The countries that have established local normal schools in each district may have solved the problem of rural sympathy and understanding at the expense of narrowness. The rural teacher should have an extensive training, but in certain respects it should be particular to the work he has to do.

8. The influence of the training college on the teaching of cultural subjects depends upon the aims of these subjects set up by the central or state Ministry of Education. If the aim of music instruction is to teach the pupils folk songs for political motives, then, those who are instructing teachers-in-training are expected to follow. In another country the aim is to teach the pupils the mechanics of music that they may have sufficient knowledge for appreciation and criticism. The variety of national aims in the teaching of Art is not so noticeable. It is unfortunate that the cultural objective of the subjects of Art and Music has to be coloured by national objectives. It restricts the use that the teacher may make of his institutional training.

9. Religious education of children is controlled by statutes and denominational prejudices. Teachers colleges have been hampered in their instruction in Religious Knowledge by these factors. If the churches could publicly agree on certain common elements of religious belief, these could be transmitted

through the training colleges to the children in the schools and the teachers could co-ordinate their work of character training with instruction in religious knowledge. Whether the schools should be secular or denominational is not an issue of this thesis, but it seems unfortunate that children should be grouped together for school subjects and separated for religious instruction into divisions the purpose of which the child is scarcely aware.

10. All systems of education studied make some provision in the schools for training girls for home making. The preparation of women teachers for this work varies but it has received a greater amount of attention in recent years. Domestic Science Schools that were founded to train institution workers have extended their programmes to include courses for teachers and teachers-in-training. Where there is co-operation between the Domestic Science School and the Training College, the one providing the young teachers with knowledge and skill and the other providing the attitudes, the results are quite satisfactory. A period of home apprenticeship would bring to this combination, sympathy and understanding.

11. Certain phases of homemaking education are receiving little attention. The training institutions have evaded them and yet their neglect leads to economic and social difficulties. Girls receive little instruction in such problems as home economics, family relations, the care of children, artistic home furnishings. When these are regarded as being of greater

## SUMMARY.

| Type of "Special" Teacher | Institutions for Training.* | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | THE UNITED STATES | ONTARIO | FRANCE | SCOTLAND | GERMANY |
| Industrial | Teachers Colleges (Special Courses) | Technical Training College | National Technical Schools | Central Technical College<br>Training College | Technische Hochschule<br>Trade Experience |
| Exceptional Children | Teachers Colleges (Special Courses) | Summer Courses for Teachers | Varied | Special Course Glasgow Training College | Central Institutions |
| Agriculture | Land Grant Colleges<br>Teachers Colleges | Normal School<br>Colleges of Agriculture | National Schools of Agriculture | College of Agriculture<br>Training College | Schools of Agriculture & Forestry<br>Labour Service |
| Cultural Subjects<br>1.Music | Teachers Colleges (Special Courses)<br>Conservatory of Music | Normal Schools<br>Summer Courses | Normal Schools | College of Music<br>Training College | Training Schools<br>Music Training Schools |
| 2.Art | Art School<br>Teachers Colleges (Special Courses) | Normal Schools<br>Summer Courses | Art Schools<br>Normal Schools | Central Schools of Art<br>Training College | Art Academy<br>State Schools of Art |
| Religious Knowledge | None except in Denominational Schools | Normal Schools | None | Training College | Training Schools<br>University |
| Home making | Teachers Colleges (Special Courses) | Normal Schools<br>Summer Courses | Normal School<br>Schools of Domestic Economy | School of Domestic Economy<br>Training College | Institutions of Domestic Economy<br>Working Service<br>Training Schools |

*Only the chief Institutions.

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