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EDUCATION IN GREAT BRITAIN
AND IRELAND

By I. L. KANDEL

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By I. L. KANDEL.

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INTRODUCTION.

The educational movements that have been taking place in Great Britain during the past two or three years have aroused widespread interest among teachers and publicists in this country. The following report is an attempt to analyze these movements and to indicate their significance in the broader movement for reconstruction. The educational reforms that have already been introduced and the developments that are promised for the future are not merely the result of an emotional reaction induced by the war. Their meaning will be entirely lost unless their position in the wider program is realized. Nor are the mere details of the new acts of great significance in themselves, however striking the promised increase in educational expenditure, or the raising of the school age, or the increased supervision of adolescent welfare may be. For the student of education the feature that is of profound significance is the recognition that a sound educational system is the best foundation for the social and political reconstruction that must follow the war, and since the keynote of this reconstruction is the improvement of the position and opportunities of every man and woman as an individual and as a citizen, the educational reforms must be considered as a contribution toward the further development of the aspirations of democracy and humanity.

The present report aims accordingly to give in broad outline the general features of the developments of the past few years. It makes no attempt to deal exhaustively with the course of educational thought or progress during this time. In many cases this would be impossible. The influences of the war on education have not yet spent themselves, and to that extent it has not been deemed wise to deal with certain topics that will bear fruitful study at a later

date. It is premature, for example, to consider the effects of the war on university education. The universities have practically been depleted, and the energies of those who remained in them were devoted to war work in the main. It would be mere guesswork to attempt to predict their future course. The same arguments apply to the effects of the war on the education of women. To the extent that the educational reforms already considered aim to extend the opportunities for general education, to that extent the opportunities are open to boys and girls, to men and women equally. But what influence the increased participation of women in general public activities during the war will exercise on education, it would be premature to decide. Technical and vocational education in general will undoubtedly be profoundly affected both in their administration and in their underlying pedagogy by the new methods of training in which the demands of efficiency and speed had to be met. At present, however, any interpretation of the developments in training for war work must be postponed until sufficient data are at hand to warrant adequate conclusions or to afford reliable guidance for normal practice.

The following pages deal with the course of education and school medical inspection during the past few years, with the proposals for the reform of secondary education, with the various Government reports on different branches of education, and finally with the developments that led up to the passage of the education act in England and the significance of the act itself. A similar but briefer account is given of educational conditions in Scotland. Ireland is included, although her educational system is unlike those of England and Wales or Scotland, mainly because the stirrings for reform are noticeable there and are directly influenced by the events on the other side of the Channel. Indeed, no part of the British Empire will remain unaffected by the Fisher Act. Recent educational reports from Canada, Australia, and New Zealand indicate that attention had already been directed to England before the Fisher bill was placed on the statute book.

Much has been attributed to the education act that is not contained therein. The act must be read in connection with the act of 1902 to obtain a picture of the English educational system, but it must always be remembered that the Board of Education has the power to modify or extend the system by administrative regulations and that its annual codes have the effect of law when presented to Parliament. The system thus combines a legal minimum with the flexibility and elasticity that insure progress. In general the act of 1918 makes the following provisions:

1. Extension of the age of compulsory attendance, without exemption, to 14; or to 15 and even 16 by local by-laws.

2. Provision for medical inspection and treatment and physical welfare before and through school to 18.
3. Establishment of nursery schools for children between 2 and 5 or 6.
4. Establishment of compulsory continuation school attendance from 14 to 16 and ultimately to 18.
5. Promotion and support of poor but able pupils, with free tuition, scholarships, and maintenance grants.
6. Concentration of supervision over the activities and welfare of children and adolescents in the hands of education authorities, e. g., child labor and employment, labor bureaus, recreation and health.
7. Inspection and supervision of private schools.
8. Preservation of the independence of local authorities, extension of their functions and powers, and insistence on minimum standards with encouragement through grants to advance as far as possible.
9. Equal distribution of the cost of education between local rates and national taxes.

The act does not define the character of advanced work in the elementary schools nor the nature of the work in the new continuation schools; it barely refers to secondary schools which are undergoing many changes through administrative regulations; teachers' salaries are only indirectly touched upon. The most serious omission not only in the act but in the general discussion of the educational needs of the time is the absence of all reference to the training of teachers. The only guarantee for the success of the reconstruction program is the teacher, and yet the means by which he is to be trained have not been discussed. Improved salaries and pensions will undoubtedly produce a large number of good candidates, but in themselves salaries and pensions can not make good teachers. The existing system of training was regarded as inadequate for the needs of the elementary schools; for the secondary schools a very small percentage of teachers had specific training for teaching; while for the new continuation schools a new type of teacher must be developed. Parliamentary procedure is not required for the reorganization of the whole system and methods of training teachers; it rests with the Board of Education, and it remains to be seen how these needs will be met.

For the American student peculiar interest attaches to the educational reforms of Great Britain. They represent a genuine attempt to realize the ideals for which the war has been fought. As a contribution toward a definition of democracy through the schools, they will command the attention of English-speaking educators the world over. But in the present crisis in American education, the principles on which these reforms are founded deserve particular attention. Whether they will be realized in the near future or not, the hopes of those who desire to see increasing participation of the Federal

Government in the educational procedure of the United States are inevitably bound up with the consideration of such questions of administration as Great Britain has already determined. Such problems as the relation of the central to local authorities in educational affairs, the reconciliation of centralized supervision with the promotion of local initiative and progress, the due apportionment of central and local expenditure for education, have been settled by that genius for compromise that characterizes the British Government. In this country these problems still call for decision within State boundaries, and have barely been hinted at in the larger program that is now before the public. Those who fear bureaucratic control, as well as those who apprehend local indifference as a consequence of external action, may study both the English and the Scottish systems with profit. In addition some of the concrete provisions of the English act, as analyzed above, afford an indication of some of the needs that still remain to be met in this country on a wider scale than at present. For the rest both British and American students can to-day cooperate in promoting the world cause of democracy by learning to understand each other, and by carefully observing the contribution that each is making through the education of future generations toward the common cause.

ENGLAND.

THE SCHOOLS DURING THE WAR.

The past two years will prove to be the most notable in the history of English education. They will bear testimony to the awakening on the part of the whole nation to the value of a comprehensive national organization of education. The enactment of a new educational law August, 1918, is but the culmination of a period of activity and thought in the field of education that is almost unparalleled in the annals of English history. The most striking feature of the movement is not the volume of literature or the number of reports by professional organizations and Government commissions on different phases of education, so much as the popular interest in the subject as reflected in the current press and magazines. For the first time, probably, a welcome has been given to the various discussions of education, hitherto reserved only for reports of scholarship and examination results or of speeches at prize distributions. Events have fully justified the statement in the Report of the Board of Education for 1915-1916 that:

The war is giving new impetus and vigor to many movements for national reform and is enabling them to gain an amount of support which under normal conditions could only have been won after many years of slow progress, and

one of the most significant manifestations of its influence is the great development of public interest in education.

Public sentiment was aroused to the recognition that "a progressive improvement and development of public education is more than ever essential to the national welfare." The most hopeful sign of the present movement is that it is fundamentally a movement of the people. Without disparaging the efforts of the numerous professional bodies and other associations, it is not too much to claim that the representatives of labor and the Workers' Educational Association have played the most important part in stimulating public opinion, which only three months before the outbreak of the war received with very little interest the announcement of the Chancellor of the Exchequer that plans were being prepared for "a comprehensive and progressive improvement of the educational system." The movement is based on the profound conviction that the further development of democracy depends upon a more adequate education than has hitherto been provided. There is not associated with it primarily the purpose of improving the educational system to furnish better tools for economic competition at home or abroad. It is animated wholly by the aim of providing the best opportunities for equipping the individual with the physical, moral, and intellectual training that makes for good citizenship, that prepares for the freedom and responsibilities of adult life. Less conscious, but no less profound, is the patriotic motive to establish a memorial to those who have died that democracy might live, a national tribute to their self-sacrifice and devotion. Speaking at the conference on new ideals in education, in August, 1917, Mr. Fisher emphasized this conception and pointed to an interesting historical parallel. He said:

I will conclude with one reflection, which you will pardon me for making because I make it in my character of the historical pedant. I remember in old days reading the story of the foundation of the University of Leyden. The University of Leyden was founded in the year 1574 by the Prince of Orange to commemorate the triumphant issue of the great and heroic siege of Leyden, when, as you will remember, the gallant burghers of that starving and beleaguered city managed to hold out against the overwhelming forces of Catholic Spain. The memorial of that heroic event was the foundation of a university, a university which in the course of a generation achieved for itself the renown of being one of the most famous centers of light and learning, the University of Scaliger and the University of Grotius, and I suggest to you, ladies and gentlemen, that our memorial of this war should be a great University of England, which should be the means of raising the whole population of this country to a higher level of learning and culture than has hitherto been possible.

It is not claimed that what has been accomplished is either the most or the best that could have been achieved, but considering the

Report of the Conference on New Ideals in Education, 1917, p. 131.

conditions under which the progress has been made, and remembering the pre-war attitude to education, there is little cause for criticism. The point that needs renewed emphasis is that public opinion in England has been changed and the history of the past two or three years furnishes a guarantee that whatever measures have been introduced to reorganize education represent but the foundations for a greater future. Education is but one of the many proposals contained in the broad reconstruction program, the realization of any one of which must necessarily and inevitably exercise a powerful influence on the others. What has been achieved so far is only a beginning of that self-conscious democracy which is the basis of any progressive system of education.

It is pertinent to review the course of English education in the four years between the outbreak of the war and the passing of the education act of 1918. The outbreak of the war found England wholly unprepared to meet the conditions arising out of the emergency. No provision existed for housing the new army, nor were there any plans for securing the large amount of civilian aid necessary to maintain the military services. A large share of the new burden fell upon the schools, many of which were commandeered by the Government for barracks or hospitals. Plans had to be improvised to take care of the dispossessed pupils at a time when numbers of teachers were either flocking to the colors or entering other civilian occupations that seemed to promise greater scope for national service and always carried larger remuneration than teaching. The situation, described in the Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1916,¹ remains unchanged and is thus summarized in the Report of the Board of Education for 1916-17:

The continuance of the war has inevitably imposed an increased strain upon the public educational service. Further calls have been made upon the administrative and teaching staffs of local education authorities and school governing bodies for service in Your Majesty's forces, and an increased burden has been placed on those who have remained to carry on the work of the schools; difficulties of school accommodation have been intensified, owing to shortage of labor and materials; supplies of school equipment have had to be still more severely restricted; and in many other ways sacrifices have been required which are bound to react unfavorably upon the work of education. But the extent of these sacrifices only emphasizes the admirable spirit with which the school authorities, teachers, and children have cooperated to mitigate their ill effects.

The ease with which the schools have adjusted themselves to the new demands and the emergency conditions, constantly becoming more serious because of the decreasing supply of teachers, bears excellent testimony to the flexibility of the system and the initiative of the local authorities. The educational loss, except for those pupils

¹ Vol. 1, pp. 552ff.

who by a misguided policy were released from school as early as the age of 11, has not been very great. Double sessions were introduced where the dislocation caused by the military occupation of schools was severe; nonessentials were eliminated from the curriculum; more organized games and plays under suitable supervision were added; and wherever opportunity permitted, classroom work was replaced by visits to museums, art galleries, and the country. Indeed, the readjustments may prove in the future to have been beneficial, if only because they have succeeded in breaking down some of the academic and bookish formalism in the schools.

But even if the pupils had wholly missed any part of the traditional curriculum, such a loss has been more than compensated for by their participation in national activities and by a quickened sense of patriotism resulting from their sacrifices in the common cause. The Report of the Board of Education, in giving emphasis to this aspect of the school progress in 1916-17, states that:

The year has been noteworthy for its demonstration of the advantages which can be derived from enlisting the cooperation of the educational institutions of the country in the promotion of various national movements.

Not only have the pupils been stimulated by the part played in the war by alumni, or by their appearance in the school, but also by practical work that supplied some of the war needs. The boys, for example, have made splints, crutches, bed boards and rests, screens, rollers, and trays; the girls have knitted socks, mufflers, and gloves; both have cooperated in making up and sending parcels for soldiers and prisoners, and even in preparing sandbags and candles for the trenches. More significant even than this work done in the schools and by the pupils is the new position assumed by the schools as community centers. The schools have been found useful and convenient centers for distributing public notices, disseminating information on food conservation and war recipes, the promotion of thrift campaigns, and the sale of war loans. The Board of Education's Report cites a number of instances of the successful war-savings campaigns conducted by schools. One school of 1,400 pupils in three months purchased war certificates to the value of \$2,925; another with 500 pupils joined the War-Saving Association and bought certificates to the value of \$1,170; and still another with 400 pupils invested \$7,785. Out of 25,000 war-savings associations in existence at the end of June, 1917, about one-third were connected with elementary schools. In promoting food economy the lessons imparted to the children have not been lost on the parents, especially when these lessons were practically demonstrated in the domestic economy classes; in some instances such classes were also conducted for parents and adults, and exhibitions have been held in cookery and housecraft. Not only have the schools proved to be effective agencies in inculcating the new economy in the matter of

food, but they have participated in no small degree in increasing the supply. School gardens and vacant lots have been developed in constantly increasing areas.

In the County of Durham the area of school gardens has increased by 40 acres, in Hertfordshire by 27, in Buckinghamshire and Lancashire by 16 and 10, respectively. The largest number of new school gardens known to have been worked during the year were 330 in the West Riding, 240 in Durham, 145 in Buckinghamshire, and 102 in Northumberland. The development of gardening in certain towns, where the conditions of climate and soil are often unfavorable, is equally striking: 26 of the 32 schools in Birkenhead now have gardens; and all the schools at Bkeston and Kendal have taken up land; so have 11 out of the 11 public elementary schools at Southend, and 9 of the 11 at Winchester. More than half the schools in the county boroughs of Leicester and Nottingham have started gardens during the year; Manchester has 18 school gardens, Sheffield and Tottonham have each 12, while London has about 100 gardens with 3 acres of land in all.

In addition, older pupils in elementary and secondary schools have assisted with the harvests and in fruit-picking, and in the collection of horse chestnuts for certain industrial processes conducted by the ministry of munitions.

The credit for this "quickened consciousness of personal and national ties, the keener sense of common sacrifice and common duty," is in no small part due to the teachers, who have risen in a remarkable manner to the great task of national service. More than 25,000 of the teachers joined the colors, and of these some 2,000 have already made the supreme sacrifice. Positions that were left vacant were filled in part by married women and teachers already retired from service. With an inadequate supply and the constant drain to other occupations where the desire for what appears to be more immediate service is satisfied and increased remuneration is offered, the burden made increasing demands on the energy and devotion of those who remained. By their service in and out of the schools teachers have assured themselves a position in the life of the nation that they have never enjoyed before.

When peace is restored the teachers of England need have no fear. If any one asks them what they did in the war, they offered themselves freely, and whether they stayed in the schools or carried arms, they did their duty, and the service of education is richer for their own practice and exemplification of those principles of civic duty and patriotism which in times of peace they taught, and not in vain, by precept and exhortation.

The repute and status achieved by the teaching profession will react both upon the general belief in education and on the efficiency of the public system of education. In concrete practice the awakening of the national conscience to the inadequate remuneration of teachers and the poor outlook offered to teaching as a career was slow to

¹ Board of Education, Report for 1914-15, p. 4.

manifest itself until the rising cost of living and the prospects in other occupations demanded drastic measures. Local action, dilatory at first, was stimulated by state grants, and the reports of the departmental committees for inquiring into the principles which should determine the construction of scales of salaries for teachers in both elementary, secondary and technical schools promise a new era and open up brighter prospects for the profession.¹ It is not without significance that the appearance of the first volume of the New Register of teachers issued by the Teachers' Registration Council, one of whose main purposes is to build up a unified national teaching profession with well-organized training, qualifications, and standards, should have coincided with the beginnings of this new movement.

Important as the developments in education have been during the past few years, and however bright the promise for the future, the war has had its bad effects, all of which were noted in the Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1916, pages 551 to 560.² Conditions have remained practically unchanged in the matter of the military occupation of buildings both for elementary and secondary school purposes. The call on teachers for military service has also remained approximately the same. Owing to the suspension of the collection of statistics by the Board of Education, exact figures can not be given as to the number of children of school age absent from school for employment in agriculture and industry. The probability is that the number has been considerably reduced for a number of reasons: The Board of Education has strongly opposed the early withdrawal of children from school, and remonstrated against the abuse of the school attendance laws; the boards of trade and of agriculture have taken steps to meet the shortage of labor; wide publicity was given to the subject both before and during the consideration in Parliament of the Fisher bill, which aimed to raise the age of school attendance to 14 without any exemption. But the evil effects of the early release of some 600,000 children from school in the first three years of the war, some permanently, under the plea of war emergency, may only be realized in the future, for the new act is not retroactive, and many children will never again come under formal educative influences of any kind. The alarm aroused in 1916 by the great increase of juvenile delinquency during the war had the salutary effect of turning public attention to the problem. Whether the number of juvenile offenses has decreased or not, it is impossible to say, but the remedial and preventive measures have been increased. Wide publicity was given, for example, to the report of an unofficial cinema commission appointed by the National Council of Public Morals at the instance of

¹ See pp. 572.

a number of firms interested in the cinematograph or moving-picture business.¹ The report deals with the physical, mental, and moral effects of the moving-picture and recommends that:

For its own protection, as well as for the insuring of its continued-suitability to the Nation, the cinema should have the support and the official countenance of the State. We want to place it in a position of real dignity. We want it to be something more than a trade; in fact, we wish it to be one of the assets of our national entertainment and recreation. We are anxious that the cinema should be beyond all suspicion in the mind of the average member of the public.

To attain these objects the commission urges the establishment of a State censorship, but admits that much progress has been made within the trade for the improvement of films. The Board of Education, recognizing that much of the delinquency among school children is due to lack of parental control and discipline in cases where the adult male relatives may be at the front and the mothers engaged on war work, has taken steps to encourage the development of evening play and recreation centers for public elementary school children, along the lines successfully inaugurated in London by Mrs. Humphry Ward, by offering to pay a grant equal to 50 per cent of the cost of maintenance of such centers incurred either by the local authorities or by the voluntary agencies. During the session ending July 31, 1917, 71 such centers had been recognized for purposes of the grant. For older children who have already left school the Board of Education has, at the request of the Home Office, issued a circular urging upon local education authorities—

the importance of getting into close touch with boys' and girls' clubs and brigades and similar organizations concerned with the welfare of children, and suggesting that they might offer to place schoolrooms at the disposal of such bodies in order to enable them to extend the scope of their work.

The Home Office also appointed a juvenile organizations committee to consider—

1. What steps can be taken to attract boys and girls to become members of brigades and clubs.
2. The possibility of transferring a boy or girl from one organization to another when this seems desirable.
3. The steps to be taken to prevent overlapping of work.
4. The strengthening of weaker units.
5. The difficulty of obtaining officers.
6. Difficulties in securing the use of school premises as clubrooms or play centers, and other matters relating to the effectiveness of brigades and clubs.

Another aspect of the problem was considered and a report issued by the departmental committee on juvenile education in relation to employment after the war, while considerable activity has been mani-

¹ Report of the Cinema Commission, London, Williams & Norgate, 1917.

festated by a number of local education authorities in establishing or reorganizing juvenile employment bureaus under the education (choice of employment) act of 1910. Here again public sentiment has been prepared by a revelation of the urgent need of some measures to safeguard the physical, moral, and intellectual welfare of adolescents, and to accept the inclusion in the new act of the compulsory continuation school and the extra-curricular activities recommended in connection therewith.

In the absence of statistical reports it is impossible to measure the effect of the war on educational expenditures accurately. There was undoubtedly a tendency toward retrenchment in the first few months of the war, just as there was to a laxer administration of attendance laws, a weakening of discipline, and the premature release of children for wage-earning occupations. In 1916 the committee on retrenchment in the public expenditure stated in its report that:

There is a special difficulty in economizing on educational expenditure, as there is a feeling in many quarters that educational economies are dangerous and may in the long run be unremunerative. But, nevertheless, we are strongly of the opinion that every step should be taken to effect such reductions as are possible without a material loss of educational efficiency, and we are glad to learn that many education authorities have already taken steps accordingly by postponing or reducing capital expenditure on new buildings or alterations (which might normally amount to as much as £3,000,000 a year) and expenditure on decorations, repairs, furniture, apparatus, stationery, etc. Similar steps should, in our opinion, be taken by all authorities without delay.

The committee's recommendation that children under 5 should be excluded from school, and that the age of entrance should be raised to 6, does not appear to have been effectual, since during the war more than ever before mothers who were compelled to enter some form of employment needed some place in which to leave their young children. The Board of Education and many local authorities suspended much of the clerical and statistical work, reduced the amount of inspection, and, wherever possible, prevented overlapping of functions between the central and local bodies. But with the best intentions it was inevitable that the cost of education should increase, owing to the necessity of increasing salaries partly to cope with the increased cost of living and partly to keep teachers within the profession. Evening schools and classes were closed, but the amount saved here was offset by the increased attendance in secondary schools and educational activities called for in connection with the war. For the present there are available only the figures showing the expenditure of the national treasury. These indicate a constant but unequal rise, and it may be safely concluded that the local authorities spent at least as much again on education.

National educational estimates in England and Wales.

	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16*	1916-17	1917-18	1918-19
Board of Education.....	\$72,571,555	\$73,631,105	\$77,406,890	\$73,919,690	\$95,075,900	\$96,043,525
Scientific investigation.....	489,340	539,185	577,010	588,733	500,930	271,250
Department of scientific and industrial research.....			125,000	200,000	5,100,250	7,111,750
Universities and colleges, Great Britain, and intermediate education, Wales.....	1,571,500	1,574,000	1,581,000	1,600,000	1,600,000	1,648,500
Universities and colleges, special grants.....			725,000			159,000
Total.....	74,021,595	75,130,590	80,415,890	78,228,413	102,275,980	98,804,980

* Based on the Statement's Yearbook. Estimates have been chosen because they afford a better basis of comparison up to date than the incomplete reports of expenditures.
† Actual grants at the end of the year.

It will be noticed that the expenditures show a tendency to increase. The drop in 1916-17 was due to certain retrenchments in the administration of the Board of Education office, to the closing of some training colleges, to the reduction of evening schools and classes, to the decrease in the number of children receiving free meals, and to the suspension of the special grant to universities and colleges. The striking rise in the estimates for 1917-18 was due mainly to the addition of about \$18,000,000 to the grants to be devoted primarily to the increase of teachers' salaries throughout the country. It is also partly accounted for by the extraordinary grant-in-aid of about \$5,000,000 to the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, which was not renewed in the estimates for 1918-19 and accounts for the decrease for that year. The finances here discussed do not as yet show the effect of the act passed in August, 1918, which may in time more than double the share of educational expenditure borne by the national treasury. Some of the new burdens assumed since the outbreak of the war, but as yet not exerting much influence, are as follows: Half the cost of maintaining adequate schemes for medical treatment; half the cost of evening play centers, schools for mothers, and nursery schools; half the cost of salaries for trained organizers and supervisors of physical training and games; increased grants to secondary schools for general purposes and for approved advanced courses; the increased cost of pensions to teachers already retired, which were raised in 1918 by almost 50 per cent; and the payment of the pensions granted under the superannuation act, 1918. The directions of future increase in the national expenditure for education are indicated by the promise of the new act. The Board of Education will pay grants equal to half of the local expenditure, which will show a rapid rise in numerous directions—the further expansion of medical inspection and treatment, the introduction of advanced work in elementary schools, increased provisions for secondary schools and higher education, the establishment of continuation schools, increased extra-curricular activities in connection with all types of

schools, and the adoption of new scales of salaries for teachers based on a minimum considerably higher than that which prevailed before the war, and a maximum from 50 per cent to 100 per cent higher than the present and within the reasonable reach of most teachers. Consideration has not yet been given to the extension of technical education, the improvement of the training of teachers, and the increasing needs of the universities. Mr. Lloyd George at least intimated to a deputation representing the interests of the University of Wales that the treasury would consider an increase of State aid to universities.

The vast and unproductive expenditure demanded for the conduct of the war has awakened the country to a realization of its tremendous financial strength. The solidarity essential to the war has developed a National and State consciousness that has perhaps lain dormant hitherto. The revelation of the extent of her social defects has turned the attention of the nation to the desirability of dedicating the financial strength of the State to the task of reconstruction. After the war England is likely to present to the world an example of a nation that fosters, encourages, and subsidizes local development in all directions without interfering with the initiative and variety of experimentation that are of the very essence of progress in a democracy. Standards will, of course, be maintained, but only the minimum will be insisted upon by the State; uniformity will no doubt be required in carrying out the minimum standards, but for the rest local authorities and private bodies will be allowed free scope for development. Nothing that has occurred during the war has shaken the English faith in the principle of freedom in local government; but the war has had the effect of arousing that sense of responsibility and the social conscience that are the corollaries of freedom. No better illustration of this can be found than the history of the Fisher bill, which began its career in Parliament in August, 1917.

MEDICAL INSPECTION OF SCHOOLS.¹

In an admirable report, which like its predecessors may well serve as a model of what a public educational report should be, the chief medical officer of the Board of Education presents an account of the progress of the school medical service during 1916, and continues to emphasize the importance of this work, not merely for the physical and intellectual welfare of the children concerned, but as the foundation for social progress. While the war has interfered in no small degree with the complete working of medical inspection and treatment, it has had the effect of emphasizing the importance of the child as a national asset.

¹ Annual Report for 1916 of the Chief Medical Officer of the Board of Education. (Cd. 8740.) London, 1917.

The future and strength of the nation unquestionably depend upon the vitality of the child, upon his health and development, and upon his education and equipment for citizenship. Great and far-reaching issues have their origin and some of their inspiration in him. Yet in a certain though narrow sense everything depends upon his physique. If that be sound, we have the rock upon which a nation and a race may be built; if that be impaired, we lack that foundation and build on the sand. It would be difficult to overestimate the volume of national inefficiency, of unfitness and suffering, of unnecessary expenditure, and of industrial unrest and unemployability to which this country consents because of its relative failure to rear and to educate a healthy, virile, and well-equipped race of children and young people. There is no investment comparable to this, no national economy so fundamental; there is also no waste so irretrievable as that of a nation which is careless of its rising generation. And the goal is not an industrial machine, a technical workman, a "hand," available merely for the increase of material output, and the acquisition of a wage at the earliest moment, but a human personality, well grown and ready in body and mind, able to work, able to play, a good citizen, the healthy parent of a future generation. If these things be true, as I believe they are, no reconstruction of the State can wisely ignore the claims of the child.

The national belief in the value of school medical inspection and treatment is best indicated by the efforts to maintain them in spite of the inroads made by the war emergency on the supply of doctors and nurses. The result of an experience of less than 10 years since the system was established as part of the school system is summarized in the following statements:

To-day hundreds of thousands of children are healthier, better, and brighter for its labors. In large towns and small country villages there has arisen something of a new understanding of the child. He is coming steadily into his kingdom into his individual birthright of health and well-being. Even in time of war, when the preoccupation and exigencies of the military situation have made exceptional demands upon the staff of persons, officials or voluntary, who have devoted themselves hitherto to the welfare of the child, the claims of the school medical service have been sufficiently valid and obvious to secure the maintenance of an irreducible minimum of its working.

So great is the value attached to school medical inspection that its extension voluntarily to secondary schools has been encouraged in recent years and has been assured by the new act both for secondary and continuation schools.

The full operation of the act and regulations bearing on medical inspection requires four inspections of children—at entrance, in the third and the sixth year of school life, and at the time of leaving school. Owing to the curtailment resulting from the war, provision was made in 1915 and 1916 only for the inspection and treatment of children who appeared to be ailing and for the maintenance of any treatment already undertaken. Of the 5,306,411 children in average attendance, 1,446,448 were medically examined in 1916, instead of the two millions who would normally have received attention. In spite of this decrease the total expenditure on the school medical service amounted to \$2,089,350, an increase of 28 per cent over the

expenditure for 1913-14. Approximately half of the cost was met by grants from the central authority. The scope of the work is indicated in the employment of 772 school medical officers and assistants and 441 medical officers employed on such special work as ophthalmic surgery, aural surgery, dental surgery, X-ray work, and administration of anesthetics. The medical officers were assisted by 1,527 school nurses, and in a number of areas arrangements were made with local nursing associations for the services of their nurses. Since the work was limited to ailing children, the burden of discovering children who appeared to need medical attention fell upon the teachers, who have always cooperated heartily in the work since its establishment, and in a number of areas memoranda were issued by the school medical officers for their guidance. The following outline, drawn up by Dr. J. T. C. Nash, of Norfolk, should be of service to teachers interested in school hygiene:

Routine school medical inspection being in abeyance, the following notes have been drawn up by the school medical officer to guide teachers in detecting some defects, which should secure amelioration. The attention of the local care committee should be called to any cases discovered, so that they may be "followed up"; particulars should also be sent to this office:

I. Defective eyesight may be suspected when a child—

- (1) In a back row can not read what is written on the blackboard.
- (2) Can not tell the time by the clock at a little distance.
- (3) Fails to keep to the lines when writing.
- (4) Misses small words when reading.
- (5) Habitually holds a book nearer to the eyes than 12 inches when reading.
- (6) Complains that the letters run into one another.
- (7) Squints, even if only occasionally.
- (8) Complains of tiredness of the eyes or of frontal headache after reading or sewing.

II. Defective hearing is often present when a child—

- (1) Is a mouth breather.
- (2) Has a "running" ear.
- (3) Looks stupid and does not answer questions addressed in an ordinary voice, though otherwise intelligent.

Such a child should be tested for deafness by a forced whisper, beginning at 20 feet and gradually lessening the distance until the "forced whisper" is heard. Report the distance at which this is heard.

III. Inflammation of the eyelids, with scabs or discharge from the eyes, should receive attention from a doctor.

IV. Earache. This should always receive attention from a doctor.

V. Gumbolls. These should receive attention from a qualified dentist.

VI. Enlarged tonsils and adenoids may be suspected when a child—

- (1) Is stated to snore or breathes noisily during sleep or when eating.
- (2) Is a mouth breather—open mouth.
- (3) Is frequently troubled with nasal discharge.
- (4) Becomes deaf when it has a cold.

VII. Loss of flesh and frequent cough should receive attention from a doctor. These symptoms may be due to many different causes and are by no means peculiar to consumption.

VIII. Heart disease should be suspected if a child—

- (1) Is always pale.
- (2) Has palpitation and shortness of breath on exertion.
- (3) Is blue in the face.

IX. Rheumatism. Children who often have sore throats and "growing pains" should be suspected of rheumatism. They require to see a doctor.

An important conclusion that has resulted from the experience of the last 10 years is the emphasis "on the fact that the problem of school attendance is, in the main, a medical problem." Since the teachers and school attendance officers have cooperated closely with the medical service, the number of absences from school for causes other than medical has decreased, while the average percentage of school attendance has increased. This situation has necessitated the development of a new type of attendance officer and the suggestion is put forward that "the most suitable visitor to send to the home of a child absent from school on alleged medical grounds is a woman health officer," who would be in a better position than an attendance officer to discover the nature of the ailment and to advise the parents. In the Borough of Taunton, where no men attendance officers have been employed for the past five years, there was an increase in the percentage of average attendance, and a decrease in the number of absences on grounds other than medical and in the frequency of prosecutions.

Not the least valuable part of the work of the school medical services has been the number of special inquiries, which were begun in 1909 and of which 350 have been made. These, as their titles indicate, are of great practical value not merely for the medical service itself but also for teachers and principals of schools. Many studies conducted in this country by the departments of school administration have been undertaken in England by the school medical officers. The only studies in England on retardation, for example, have resulted from such inquiries.¹

Although the school medical inspection has necessarily been curtailed, the provision of medical treatment showed some progress even during the war. Of the 319 local education authorities, 219 had established 480 school clinics, all of which are extensively used. The more progressive authorities, like Birmingham, Bradford, and Sheffield, have provided comprehensive schemes with clinics available for medical inspection, and the treatment of minor ailments, teeth, skin, and X-ray operations, eyes, ears, and tuberculosis. A number of authorities cooperate with hospitals either as a supplement to or as a

¹The study of this subject by the director of education of Blackpool came to the author's attention after this was written.

substitute for school clinics. Considering the immense importance of medical treatment in the scheme of a school medical service, it was found that the provision was still inadequate, and in 1917 the maintenance of an adequate system of medical treatment was made one of the conditions of the grant paid by the Board of Education. According to the latest regulations the standards of an efficient scheme of school medical service, on the basis of which a grant will be paid at the rate of one-half of the expenditure, are as follows: Arrangements must be made for the medical inspection of the four groups referred to above, for following up cases of defect and securing medical treatment where necessary, for coordinating the work of the school medical service with the work of the local public health service, and for rendering the school medical service an integral part of the system of elementary education. The whole tenor of the report is to emphasize the preventive aspect both of medical inspection and of medical treatment.

To provide spectacles, to excise adenoids, to cleanse verminous children, to extract decayed teeth is good but not the best. It is part but not the whole. It is palliative but not preventive. It is imperative in the time of reconstruction lying before us that we should turn off the tap as well as remove the flood, that we should stop the production of disease and prevent what is preventable.

The national value of the medical service which is now in its tenth year of operation is shown by the improved health of the older children. "It is significant," says the report, "that while the health and personal condition of entrants shows little or no betterment, that of 8-year-old and leaving children shows a steady improvement" in clothing, nutrition, and cleanliness of head and body. Fortunately there has been a continuance of good health during the period of the war as a result of the improved economic conditions; there have been fewer cases of malnutrition and insufficient clothing than in previous years. But that the situation is not yet one for congratulation may be gathered from the fact that:

The records of its findings (of the school medical service) show a large amount of ill-health, of bodily impairment, and of physical and mental defect. Of the children in attendance at school (six millions) we know by medical inspection that many, though not specifically "feeble-minded," are so dull and backward mentally as to be unable to benefit from schooling, that upward of 10 per cent of the whole are at a like disability on account of uncleanliness, and that 10 per cent also are malnourished. Then we come to disease. Perhaps the largest contributor is dental disease, which handicaps children almost as seriously as it does adolescents and adults. Probably not less than half the children are in need of dental treatment, and a substantial number (not less than half a million) are urgently so. Again, upward of half a million children are so defective in eyesight as to be unable to take advantage of their lessons. Many of them need spectacles, some ophthalmic treatment, others special "myopic classes," and all of them careful supervision and

attention. Next we must add diseases of the ear, throat, and lymphatic glands involving another quarter of a million in a relatively serious condition. Then there come skin diseases, disorders of the heart, infectious disease, and tuberculosis.

The recognition of these facts, serious though they are, represents the awakening of a national conscience, which "finds its origin partly in the fuller appreciation of the importance of saving life, and partly in a larger understanding of the necessity of preserving and equipping the life we have."

How extensive the ramifications of a national system of school medical service are is indicated by the attention given in the report to all those agencies and activities essential to its successful operation. Extensive as the list of these agencies is, it can be supplemented by welfare supervisors, probation officers, children's care committees, juvenile employment committees, scoutmasters, leaders of boys' and girls' clubs and brigades, to whom only passing reference is made.

The safeguarding and protection of early child life may be promoted by the training of mothers in prenatal and infant care and management, the foundations for which may be laid in lessons in mothercraft to the older girls in the elementary schools. Under regulations of the Board of Education, issued in September, 1918, grants will be made to efficient schools for mothers at the rate of one-half of the approved expenditure. Day nurseries, *crèches*, and nursery schools are important cooperative factors in preserving the health of young children in the preschool period, particularly in crowded urban and industrial districts. Their importance has been recognized by the payment of grants-in-aid up to 50 per cent of the cost of maintenance by the Board of Education and more recently in the act by the incorporation of nursery schools in the national system of education. "The purpose of nursery schools is not to teach the three R's, but by sleep, food, and play to provide the opportunity for little children to lay the foundations of health, habit, and a responsive personality." For the children of elementary school age medical inspection and treatment must, in the words of the report, be supplemented by—

(a) the feeding of the child, by the parent or under the education (provision of meals) act, or otherwise; (b) the supply of fresh air for the child by means of open-air schools, playground classes, or adequately ventilated schoolrooms; (c) the exercise of the child's body by the adoption of an effective system of physical training; (d) the warmth and protection of the child, by requiring that it shall be sent to school properly clothed and that the schoolroom is sufficiently heated; and (e) the maintenance of the cleanliness of the child, by insuring that dirty and verminous children do not contaminate clean children at school, and, that for the school itself, bath and lavatory accommodation is available.

All of these agencies are now more or less adequately provided. A significant fact refuting the fears that the public provision of meals

would pauperize the parents is the decrease in the number of children receiving free meals from 422,401 in 1914-15, a large figure due to the industrial disorganization consequent on the outbreak of the war, to 117,901 in 1915-16 and 63,930 in 1916-17. Open-air schools are supplemented by classes conducted in playgrounds, parks, and open spaces, by school journeys, holiday and night camps, and open-air classrooms. The war has had a special influence in drawing attention to the value of life in the open air, and its extension is to be promoted and encouraged under the new act. To stimulate the further development of physical training, play, and games, the board in 1917 undertook to meet half the cost of the salaries of trained organizers and supervisors of these subjects and half the cost of maintaining evening play and recreation centers for children and young persons. Finally, to insure cleanliness, many schools are providing for school baths and showers in new buildings—an addition that is inexpensive.

The twofold aim of the school medical service—to enable the child through improved physique to benefit from instruction in school and to lay the foundations for the physical well-being of the nation—finds expression throughout the report. One of the most serious menaces to the success of this work is found in the engagement of children on leaving school in employments dangerous to their health. For this reason emphasis is placed on the medical inspection of children immediately before leaving school on the basis of which advice can be given on the choice of employment.

The physical injury (of a wrong choice) which manifests itself is insidious and inconspicuous but far-reaching. Malnutrition, anemia, fatigue, spinal curvature, and strain of heart or nervous system are conditions the discovery of which generally calls for clinical investigation and careful inquiry. They do not catch the eye or arrest the attention of the casual observer. But they are profoundly important for two reasons; they lay the foundations of disease, and they undermine the physiological growth of the child at a critical juncture in life. . . . It is the conditions rather than the character of employment which tend to injure the child.

Such conditions will no doubt be improved by the restriction imposed on child labor by the new act and the extension of the medical service to embrace pupils in secondary and continuation schools. The last provision closes the gap which existed hitherto between the medical inspection of children in the elementary school and the protection of wage earners under the National Health Insurance Act.

As soon as normal conditions are again restored, England will have established the broadest and most far-reaching system of health supervision, one that will affect every member of the population. Beginning with the maternity centers and unifying all the agencies both public and private for the promotion of health through childhood, adolescence, and beyond, the system will not only give every child a better chance of surviving but will through improved measures pro-

mote the physical and thereby the intellectual and spiritual well-being of the nation. The next few years will not only see the extension of the program in the schools but the application of the lessons of the war to industry. New light has been thrown on the relations between health and economic production that will prove as significant and far-reaching as the experience of the school medical service during the past 10 years.

In this country, where only a beginning has been made with the medical inspection and treatment of school children, parents, teachers, medical profession, and organizations for social service can have no better lesson brought to their attention than England's example. For those interested in establishing national standards of health there can be no more profitable subject for study than the irreducible minimum of a school medical service presented in the report here discussed:

- (I) That every child shall periodically come under direct medical and dental supervision, and if found defective shall be "followed up."
- (II) That every child found malnourished shall, somehow or other, be nourished, and every child found verminous shall, somehow or other, be cleansed.
- (III) That for every sick, diseased, or defective child, skilled medical treatment shall be made available, either by the local education authority or otherwise.
- (IV) That every child shall be educated in a well-ventilated schoolroom or classroom, or in some form of open-air schoolroom or classroom.
- (V) That every child shall have, daily, organized physical exercise of appropriate character.
- (VI) That no child of school age shall be employed for profit except under approved conditions.
- (VII) That the school environment and the means of education shall be such as can in no case exert unfavorable or injurious influences upon the health, growth, and development of the child.

EDUCATION OF WORKING BOYS AND GIRLS.

The departmental committee on juvenile education in relation to employment after the war was appointed by Mr. Arthur Henderson, then president of the Board of Education, in April, 1916—

To consider what steps should be taken to make provision for the education and instruction of children and young persons after the war, regard being had particularly to the interests of those (1) who have been abnormally employed during the war; (2) who can not immediately find advantageous employment; (3) who require special training for employment.

The committee of 16 members, representing educational administration, social workers, and the teaching profession, met under the chairmanship of the Right Hon. J. Herbert Lewis, and issued its report, generally known as the Lewis Report¹ in March, 1917. The

¹ Final Report of the Departmental Committee on Juvenile Education in Relation to Employment after the War. 2 vols. Cd. 8512 and Cd. 8577. (London, 1917.)

committee took the evidence of a large number of representatives of industry and commerce, labor and education.

The committee recognized that their problem was really "the standing problem of the adolescent wage earners," similar to that which the consultative committee had considered and upon which a report upon attendance at continuation schools had been issued in 1909. On the basis of statistics for 1911 it was found that, of 650,000 children between 12 and 13 enrolled in public full-time day schools (elementary, secondary, junior, and technical), only 13 per cent are likely to have a full-time education after the age of 14, and that this number would dwindle to less than 1 per cent between the ages of 17 and 18. Of about 2,700,000 young persons between the ages of 14 and 18 in 1911-12 about 81.5 per cent were not attending any kind of school, and of the remainder very few completed the annual courses for which they registered in evening schools. The decline of apprenticeship, the development of a large number of initially attractive but ultimately blind-alley occupations, the increased industrial opportunities created for young persons by the war demands, together with high wages and relaxed discipline and control, all combined to bring about a serious situation for the country, which would be intensified by the inevitable dislocation of industries at the close of the war. The solution of the problem demanded a new outlook.

Can the age of adolescence be brought out of the purview of economic exploitation and into that of the social conscience? Can the conception of the juvenile as primarily a little wage earner be replaced by the conception of the juvenile as primarily the workman and the citizen in training? Can it be established that the educational purpose is to be the dominating one, without as well within the school doors, during those formative years between 12 and 18?

The committee strongly urged the raising of the elementary school age to 14 without any exemptions whatever and compulsory attendance at a day continuation school between the ages of 14 and 18 for 8 hours a week for 40 weeks in the year. Broken terms both on entering and leaving school should be avoided by having definite times in the year for each. Criticizing the work of the elementary schools, the committee found that too frequently pupils in upper grades were merely marking time, and recommended the introduction of more practical education in place of the prevalent bookish type. "No child should feel on leaving school that he has attained to the fully independent status of wage-earning manhood." In defining the scope of the work to be offered in a continuation school the committee urged the postponement of specialization to the last two years (16 to 18), the first two years (14 to 16) being general in character.

We do not regard the object of establishing continuation classes as being merely an industrial one. The industries stand to benefit amply enough, both directly through the beginnings of technical instruction and indirectly through the effect of education upon the character and the general efficiency of those who come within its influence. But we are clear that the business of the classes is to do what they can in making a reasonable human being and a citizen, and that, if they do this, they will help to make a competent workman also. Though this is wholly true, it is also true that education must be approached, especially at the adolescent stage, through the actual interests of the pupil, and that the actual interests of pupils who have just turned a corner in life and entered upon wage-earning employment are very largely the new interests which their employment has opened out to them.

Local adaptation would accordingly be essential in both stages of the four-year course, with a vocational bias and a number of alternative courses. In the second stage some emphasis might be placed upon technical subjects bearing on the students' special work.

A liberal basis is still essential, and the English teaching should now tend toward a deliberate stimulation of the sense of citizenship * * *. Music, art, local history, home industries, first-aid, natural history, will all afford an opportunity for the skillful teacher, and can be treated suitably both for boys and girls.

Physical training should form part of the work of all adolescents for not less than one hour a week. Over and above the studies the continuation schools should become centers for the social and physical activities of the adolescent boy and girl; schools should be open in the evenings for recreation and games, and should be available for clubs, debating and other societies, study circles, concerts, and other organizations.

The committee did not feel that any opposition would be encountered by its proposals; parents were beginning to realize that the advantage would be in favor of the child, while employers were recognizing their responsibilities and the value of education, and the suggestions were warranted by the success of experiments in "works" schools. Assuming that the plan could be inaugurated in 1921, there would be about 2,600,000 pupils between 14 and 18 needing the service of some 32,000 teachers. The cost would be from \$35,000,000 to \$45,000,000 a year, without including the cost of providing buildings.

So far as young persons who had entered industrial life prematurely because of the war demands for labor were concerned, the committee suggests the possibility of providing special courses and the opening of technical schools as well as for those who might be thrown out of employment as a result of the dislocation of industries that might be expected to follow the war. The committee emphasized the new opportunities and responsibilities of juvenile employ-

ment bureaus at this particular crisis. The Board of Education, cooperating with the Ministry of Labor, issued a circular (No. 1072) in November, 1918, urging local education authorities to establish centers for the educational supervision of young persons who might be thrown out of work at the cessation of hostilities. It is proposed that the Government unemployment grants, payable to young persons between 15 and 18, be made conditional on attendance at such instructional centers.

The recommendations are summarized in the report under the following headings:

- (1) That a uniform elementary school-leaving age of 14 be established by statute for all districts, urban and rural, and that all exemptions, total or partial, from compulsory attendance below that age be abolished.
- (2) That a child be deemed to attain the leaving age on that one of a reasonable number of fixed dates in the year, marking the ends of school terms, which falls next after the date upon which he reaches 14.
- (3) That steps be taken, by better staffing and other improvements in the upper classes of elementary schools, to insure the maximum benefit from the last years of school life.
- (4) That difficulties of poverty be met in other ways than by regarding poverty as a reasonable excuse for nonattendance in interpreting section 74 of the education act of 1870.
- (5) That the factory acts be amended in accordance with the amended law of school attendance, and that the law of school attendance be consolidated.
- (6) That the Board of Education and the Home Office do consider the desirability of transferring the work of certifying as to the physical fitness of children for employment under the factory acts to the school medical officers.
- (7) That it be an obligation on the local education authority in each area to provide suitable continuation classes for young persons between the ages of 14 and 18, and to submit to the Board of Education a plan for the organization of such a system, together with proposals for putting it into effect.
- (8) That it be an obligation upon all young persons between 14 and 18 years of age to attend such day continuation classes as may be prescribed for them by the local education authority, during a number of hours to be fixed by statute, which should be not less than 8 hours a week for 40 weeks in the year, with the exception of—
 - (a) Those who are under efficient full-time instruction in some other manner.
 - (b) Those who have completed a satisfactory course in a secondary school recognized as efficient by the Board of Education and are not less than 16.
 - (c) Those who have passed the matriculation examination of a British university, or an equivalent examination, and are not less than 16.
 - (d) Those who are under part-time instruction of a kind not regarded as unsuitable by the Board of Education and entailing a substantially greater amount of study in the daytime than the amount to be required by statute.
- (9) That during the first year from the establishment of this system the obligation to attend classes extend to those young persons only who are under 15, during the second year to those only who are under 16, during the third year to those only who are under 17, and subsequently to all those who are under 18.
- (10) That all classes at which attendance is compulsory be held between the hours of 8 a. m. and 7 p. m.

(11) That it be an obligation on all employers of young persons under 18 to give them the necessary facilities for attendance at the statutory continuation classes prescribed for them by the local education authority.

(12) That where there is already a statutory limitation upon the hours of labor, the permitted hours of labor be reduced by the number of those required for the continuation classes.

(13) That in suitable cases the young persons be liable to a penalty for nonattendance; and that the parent or the employer be also liable in so far as any act or omission on his part is the cause of failure in attendance.

(14) That the local administration of the employment of children act of 1903 be transferred to the local education authorities; that it be an obligation on every local education authority to make by-laws under the act; that the statutory provisions of the act be extended; and that the Board of Education be the central authority for the approval of by-laws under the act.

(15) That the curriculum of the continuation classes include general, practical, and technical instruction, and that provision be made for continuous physical training and for medical inspection, and for clinical treatment where necessary, up to the age of 18.

(16) That suitable courses of training be established and adequate salaries be provided for teachers of continuation classes.

(17) That the system of continuation classes come normally into operation on an appointed day as early as possible after the end of the war, and that the Board of Education have power to make deferring orders fixing later appointed days within a limited period, where necessary, for the whole or part of the area of any local education authority.

(18) That the obligation to attend continuation classes be extended to children who are under 14 when the act comes into operation, although they may already have left the day school.

(19) That the attention of local education authorities be drawn to the possibility in certain cases of providing special full-time courses for children and young persons who have been abnormally employed.

(20) That in areas where maintenance allowances from public funds are available for the relief of unemployed young persons after the war, attendance at any classes that may be established for such young persons be a condition of relief.

(21) That the system of juvenile employment bureaus be strengthened and extended before the termination of the war, and that further financial assistance be given to local education for their maintenance.

(22) That in areas where there is probability of juvenile unemployment, teachers and other suitable persons explain to children and their parents the difficulties of obtaining work and the advantages of prolonged attendance at school.

(23) That the State grants in aid of present as well as future expenditure on education be simplified and very substantially increased.

The recommendations of this committee attracted widespread attention, comparison with the education act will indicate that most of these suggestions have been incorporated, that, indeed, the report of the committee furnished the general framework for the act.

SECONDARY EDUCATION DURING THE WAR.

The outstanding features in the field of secondary education are the increase in the number of pupils and the revived interest in the purposes and functions of higher education. There is perhaps no problem in the whole range of education that has been more minutely criticized and discussed than that of the place of the secondary school in a democracy and the nature of the education that it should provide. The increase of opportunities in which all may have their share is the keynote of the discussions on one side; on the other, a clear-cut definition of the boundary that separates general from specialized, technical, or vocational education is made. The demands that will be made in the new social order upon the trained intelligence of the citizen, whether as a member of society or as a member of a trade or profession or as an individual, are accepted as the proper measure of educational values. The unanimity with which these have been accepted by specialists, officials, statesmen, and the average citizen may furnish food for reflection to those who are concerned with the task of unraveling the tangle in which secondary education is at present involved in this country. The experiments that the two great democracies on each side of the Atlantic are making in this common effort to promote human progress are fraught with profound significance.

In striking contrast to this country, where the effect of the war has been to cause a reduction in the attendance at high schools, the increased prosperity in England has led to a considerable increase in the enrollment in secondary schools and an improvement in the length of school life. So great has been the pressure that in many areas schools are overcrowded, and many have a waiting list. Since the building of new schools has been stopped, and since a few are still under military occupation, overcrowding is accepted as inevitable, and the Board of Education has been compelled to relax the rules as to size of classes. At the same time the number of teachers absent on military service or war work has contributed to increase the difficulties, which have been met by the employment of women teachers in boys' schools and of such additional men as were available. "But the withdrawal from the schools of their younger and more vigorous masters, and their replacement by others of lower physique, of more advanced years, and often of inferior qualification, is an educational loss for which there can be no effective compensation." The schools have participated extensively in war work. Of the 1,056 schools on the board's list of efficient schools, 894 have given effective help in food production, in harvesting, and in producing details of munition plants and of hospital equipment.

The following table gives the statistics for secondary education from the last normal year preceding the war up to 1916-17:

Statistics of secondary education, England and Wales.

Year.	Schools on the grant list.				Schools not on the grant list.				All schools.	
	Schools.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Schools.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Schools.	Pupils.
1913-14	1,027	99,225	58,679	157,904	121	13,618	8,928	22,546	1,148	209,850
1914-15	1,017	105,079	93,788	198,867	129	14,185	9,253	23,438	1,146	222,322
1915-16	1,019	108,354	100,336	208,690	129
1916-17	1,049	113,214	105,644	218,858	129	1,178	244,599

¹ Statistics are not available since 1914-15 for the number in the schools not on the grant list. The figures here given are based on an assumption of an increase of 10 per cent over the figures for 1914-15.

During 1917 the Board of Education issued new regulations for secondary schools in England increasing the State aid to schools on its grant list and making provision for additional grants to schools developing advanced courses for students above the age of 16 who might be desirous of specializing in certain subjects. Separate regulations were issued for Wales, more suitable to its special conditions and, while maintaining the same general standards of efficiency, basing the grants on an age-range of pupils from 12 to 18 instead of 10 to 18 as in England. Grants are also made payable for the encouragement of experimental or pioneer work. To qualify for the grant, schools must, besides submitting to inspection and offering a certain proportion of free places to pupils entering from elementary schools, provide a progressive course of general education of a kind and amount suitable for pupils of an age-range at least as wide as from 12 to 17. An adequate proportion of the pupils must remain in school at least four years and up to and beyond the age of 16; these figures are subject to modification in rural areas. The grants, based on enrollment at the beginning of each school year, are increased mainly "to secure a higher standard of efficiency in the schools, and in particular to enable them to provide more adequate remuneration for the teaching staff." The consideration of the whole question of salaries of teachers in secondary schools was intrusted to a departmental committee for inquiring into the principles which should determine the fixing of salaries and technical schools, schools of art, training colleges, and other institutions for higher education.

For the present no definite requirements are imposed as to qualifications and training, except that "where the board think fit, they may, on consideration of the teaching staff as a whole, require that a certain proportion of all new appointments shall consist of persons who have gone through a course of training recognized by the board."

(See pp. 61 ff.)

for the purpose." Revised regulations¹ were issued in 1915 for the training of teachers in secondary schools, but conditions have not been favorable to their enforcement. The regulations recognize three methods of training teachers for secondary schools: (1) The first, in which a training college or university training department assumes the whole responsibility for instruction in both theory and practice of education. (2) The second, in which the training college is responsible for instruction in theory of education and an approved secondary school assumes the responsibility for training in practice. (3) The third, in which training in both theory and practice is given in an approved secondary school by one or more qualified members of the staff. In each case no candidates may be admitted to the course of training of one year except after graduation from a university.

For purposes of recognition as an efficient secondary school the board requires that the curriculum shall meet with its approval and "provide for due continuity of instruction in each of the subjects taken, and for an adequate amount of time being given to each of these subjects."

The curriculum must provide instruction in the English language and literature, at least one language other than English, geography, history, mathematics, science, and drawing. A curriculum including two languages other than English, but making no provision for instruction in Latin, will only be approved where the board are satisfied that the omission of Latin is for the educational advantage of the school. The instruction in science must include practical work by the pupils.

The curriculum must make such provision as the board, having regard to the circumstances of the school, can accept as adequate for organized games, physical exercises, manual instruction, and singing.

In schools for girls the curriculum must include provision for practical instruction in domestic subjects, such as needlework, cookery, laundry work, housekeeping, and household hygiene; and an approved course in a combination of these subjects may for girls over 15 years of age be substituted partially or wholly for science and for mathematics other than arithmetic.

By special permission of the board, languages other than English may be omitted from the curriculum, provided that the board are satisfied that the instruction in English provides special and adequate linguistic and literary training, and that the teaching staff are qualified to give such instruction.

At present the majority of pupils remain in school up to about the age of 16. There is a consensus of opinion, as will be pointed out later, that a course of general education consisting of the subjects here mentioned shall extend from about 12 to 16. In the regulations for 1917-18 the Board of Education recommended the development of advanced courses for pupils who intended to go on to the universities and other places for higher education and research as well as

¹ Board of Education, Regulations for the Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools, Cd. 8009. (London, 1915.)

those who planned to proceed to commerce and industry. It was thought that such opportunities for specialization would serve as inducements to boys and girls to remain in the secondary schools beyond the age of 16. The suggestions contained in these regulations were subjected to criticism and are issued in their revised form in the regulations for 1918-19. The advanced courses will be founded upon the general education offered to boys and girls up to 16 and will consist of specialization for two years, on a group of coordinated subjects along those lines in which a pupil has already shown ability. "In every course there must be a substantial and coherent body of work taken by all pupils and occupying a predominant part of their time, the remainder being given to some additional subjects." Three groups of subjects are contemplated: "(A) Science and mathematics; (B) classics, viz, the civilization of the ancient world as embodied in the languages, literature, and history of Greece and Rome; and (C) modern studies, viz, the languages, literature, and history of the countries of western Europe in modern and medieval times." The courses are further defined as follows:

Course A should normally include work in both science and mathematics; but this requirement may be waived for pupils who do substantial work in the biological sciences if the course is otherwise suitable and includes work reaching an adequate standard in the physical sciences.

Course B must provide for all pupils substantial work in the language, literature, and history of both Greece and Rome.

Course C must include the advanced study of one modern foreign western European language and literature with the relevant history, together with the history of England and Greater Britain. It must also include either the study of a second modern foreign language or work of good scope and standard in English language and literature.

In all advanced courses, adequate provision must be made for the study and writing of English by every pupil either in connection with the main subjects of the course or otherwise. In other respects, full freedom is left in the choice and arrangement of additional subjects, so long as the syllabus for an A course provides for some substantial work in language, literature, or history, and that for a B or C course some substantial work in subjects other than language, literature, and history.

English must be included in all the groups; in group A, the scientific work must be offered in language, literature, and history; in groups B and C, the linguistic and literary subjects other than these must be provided. The courses will not be rigidly defined; the board will, for example, approve courses in ancient history from the Babylonian era to the complete organization of the Roman Empire in place of the history of Greece and Rome, as well as Old and New Testament history and the origins of Christianity. In the modern studies group it was intended originally to require the inclusion of Latin, but this compulsion has now been withdrawn, and at the same time English

language and literature may be substituted for a second foreign language. The study of the first modern language must be carried to the stage where the pupil can use it as an instrument for the study of literature and history as well as higher linguistic training. It will be noticed that commercial subjects and geography are not provided for as separate groups; it is the intention of the board that geography be made an essential part of the study of history or be given as an additional subject, while commercial studies may be covered under the third group.

Grants of \$2,000 a year will be made for each advanced course that is approved by the board, and no restriction is placed upon the number that a school may organize. The grant is intended for efficient staffing and equipment. Up to November, 1917, between 270 and 280 applications had been made, mainly by schools in large urban areas, for the recognition of advanced courses of which more than half were in science and mathematics, and about two-thirds of the remainder for modern studies. Of the applications, 63 were approved in science and mathematics, 13 in classics, and 19 in modern languages.

Considerable criticism has been raised against the introduction of advanced courses on the ground that it penalizes the smaller schools, where the number of older pupils is as a rule not adequate for the organization of special work. It is felt that older pupils who desire to specialize will leave the smaller schools for schools where advanced work is offered, and it is objected that not only would the first schools be deprived of their more able product and of the grants for their attendance, but that the withdrawal of those who would normally become prefects or leaders would militate against the development of corporate life in the schools, while the transferred pupils would find difficulty in adjusting themselves to their new surroundings. It is replied in answer to such objections that the new development of education looks to the effective organization of educational facilities in an area and not the treatment of each school in isolation; since the new note is cooperation and not competition, some sacrifices must be made. There is much truth in this contention, but there is little doubt that the corporate life of some schools may suffer, although not quite to the extent claimed by the opponents of the scheme, since the withdrawal of older boys would leave a more homogeneous group behind.

The movement for the establishment of advanced courses so closely resembles that for the development of junior colleges in this country that the parallel need not be pressed. It may be pointed out, however, that the general education planned for the four years between 12 and 16 in England corresponds closely to that provided in Ameri-

can high schools to pupils between 14 and 18. The necessary conclusion must be that at the close of the advanced courses at the age of 18 a pupil in England would certainly have reached the stage of a college junior or even of a senior in America, allowing for the fact that classes will be small and methods adapted to encourage as rapid advancement as possible. The movement is one that deserves the attention of educators in this country who feel, as many do, that somewhere on the educational highway two years are lost by the American student.

The organization of advanced courses and the implications arising out of them will contribute in large measure to define the scope of the English secondary schools. Closely associated with this problem is the vexed question of examinations. The existence in England of many examination bodies without unanimity as to standards has for a long time exercised a detrimental effect on secondary education. In 1911 a report was issued on the subject of the consultative committee of the Board of Education, and in the following year the board¹ prepared the outline of a scheme upon which conferences were conducted with the universities, examining bodies, and representatives of local education authorities and secondary school teachers. In July, 1914, the scheme had advanced sufficiently to be submitted for further criticism and suggestions from those interested in secondary school examinations. This scheme proposed that examining bodies appointed by the universities should conduct two examinations, the first of those classes in secondary schools in which the pupils were about the age of 16, and the second at about the age of 18, with necessary modifications in the case of girls. The first examination, it was intended, should test the results of general education in English subjects (English language and literature, history, and geography), foreign languages, and science and mathematics, and should be of such a standard as to be accepted for entrance to the universities. The second examination was directed to test the results of specialized study of a coordinated group of subjects combined with more general knowledge of subjects outside this group; in other words, the results of the advanced courses that are now established.

The chief criticism of the examination system has always been that it was conducted by men who were out of touch with the schools, and that the examinations tended to be the goal of school work instead of a test of its results. To obviate these defects the board proposed that examining bodies should keep more closely in touch with the teachers, either by appointing representatives of the latter on their boards, or permitting them to submit their own syllabuses, or taking into consideration the teachers' estimates of the merits of candidates.

¹ See Board of Education, Circulars 840, 933, 996, 1002, and 1010.

It was further recommended that an authority be appointed to co-ordinate the standards of the examination, and it was proposed that this function be exercised by the Board of Education, assisted by an advisory committee representing universities, examining bodies, teachers, education authorities, and professional and commercial bodies.

In December, 1915, the board indicated in Circular 933 that their proposals had met with considerable approval, except that it was generally urged that the additional expenditure that would result from the scheme should be borne by the State. It was also insisted that provision should be made for the inclusion of such subjects as manual instruction, housecraft, music, and drawing in the proposed examinations. Owing to the war it was felt to be impossible for financial reasons to proceed with the plan, but the following educational points as a basis for future action met with general agreement:

- (a) Limitation of external examination to two examinations at the age of about 16 and 18, respectively.
- (b) Recognition of the principle that the group rather than the individual subject should be the unit on which success or failure is determined in the first examination.
- (c) Concentration in the second examination on a special group of studies with one or more by-subjects.
- (d) Inclusion of subjects such as drawing, music, manual instruction, housecraft, or some of them, in the scheme of examination; and
- (e) Provisions for securing the cooperation of the teachers with the examining body.

A return was made to the proposals in Circular 996, which was issued on May 25, 1917, announcing that the board intended to put the system into operation on August 1, 1917, and would serve as the coordinating authority. A secondary school examinations council was established to act as an advisory council, consisting originally of 18 and later 21 members, and including representatives of examination boards of universities (9), of the teachers' registration council (5), of the county council association (2), of the municipal corporations council (2), of a newly created standing committee of professional bodies (1), of the association of education committees (1), and of a secondary school headmaster as supernumerary. Officials of the board may attend meetings of the council, but have no vote. The functions of the council are to deal with the following matters:

- (a) The recommendation of examining bodies for approval by the coordinating authority.
- (b) The maintenance by each approved examining body of an adequate standard both for a pass in the examinations and for a pass with credit.
- (c) Investigation of complaints made by school authorities with regard to examinations.
- (d) Promotion of conferences with examining bodies and others as occasion arises.

- (e) The form and contents of the certificates granted on the result of the examinations and the arrangements for their issue.
- (f) Negotiations with universities and professional bodies for the acceptance of the examination certificates as exempting the holders from certain other examinations.

The council will act in an advisory capacity and make suggestions for reform to the board as the coordinating authority, but "the council will consult the board before committing themselves on questions of principle or policy which are controversial or specially important." No examination scheme will be approved unless it provides for bringing teachers into touch with the examining board, for examining a school on its own syllabus, if it so chooses, and the syllabus is, in the opinion of the examining body, adequate in scope or character and the estimates of candidates as reported by their principals are taken into account. The board have undertaken to pay \$10 for each pupil in a State-aided school who takes an examination as a member of his class.

The new scheme should have an important influence in reducing the existing situation to some sort of uniformity. English education has been too much subject to a system that disturbed the development of secondary education in this country in the latter part of the last century. Not only will it reduce the numerous examining bodies to a reasonable size, but the requirement that closer contact be maintained with schools will have a salutary effect in removing from the school the necessity of sacrificing the real ends of education to the examination goal. A similar attitude is developing in the matter of the award of scholarships. More and more, narrow specialization for ends that are not inherent in sound education is being eliminated, and examinations will but serve as tests to be taken in the ordinary course of developments. The problem that still remains to be solved relates to the nature of the examinations. Something has been done to discount cramming in the present regulations and to take into consideration a student's record as reported by the teachers. The next step will undoubtedly be a consideration of the reform of the character of the examinations themselves. The probability is that more attention will be given in the future to oral tests and that in the written examinations mere repetition of information will be discouraged.¹

THE POSITION OF SCIENCE IN THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

The controversy that began almost at the outbreak of the war over the relative merits of the classics and the sciences in secondary edu-

¹See Hartog, P. J. Examinations and their Relation to Culture and Efficiency. (London, 1918.)

²Report of the committee appointed to inquire into the position of natural science in the educational system of Great Britain. Cd. 8011. (London, 1918.)

education, combined with the recognition of the inadequate attention given in schools and universities to applied science, led in 1916 to the appointment by the Prime Minister of a committee—

to inquire into the position of natural science in the educational system of Great Britain, especially in secondary schools and universities, and to advise what measures are needed to promote its study, regard being had to the requirements of a liberal education, to the advancement of pure science, and to the interests of the trades, industries, and professions which particularly depend upon applied science.

The committee, consisting of 17 members, was under the chairmanship of Sir J. J. Thomson and issued its report in 1918. Evidence was collected from schools and universities, representative men of science in the fields of agriculture, chemistry, geology, engineering, and metallurgy, and a number of leading firms engaged in engineering and the chemical industry.

After a brief reference to the history of science teaching and the prejudice against its introduction both in schools and universities, the report emphasizes the need of a wider extension of the subject:

Now it is the war and its needs that have made us once again conscious of the nation's weakness in science. But it is for the sake of the long years of peace, quite as much as for the days of war, that some improvement in the scientific education of the country is required.

With regard to the controversy between the classicists and scientists, it is pointed out that the humanizing influence of science has too often been obscured. In urging the recognition of the educational value of science, its place in education is thus summarized:

It can arouse and satisfy the element of wonder in our nature. As an intellectual exercise it disciplines our powers of mind. Its utility and applicability are obvious. It quickens and cultivates directly the faculty of observation. It teaches the learner to reason from facts which come under his own notice. By it the power of rapid and accurate generalization is strengthened. Without it, there is a real danger of the mental habit of method and arrangement never being acquired. Those who have had much to do with the teaching of the young know that their worst foe is indulgence, often not willful, but due to the fact that curiosity has never been stimulated and the thinking powers never awakened. Memory has generally been cultivated, sometimes imagination, but those whose faculties can best be reached through external and sensible objects have been left dull or made dull by being expected to remember and appreciate without being allowed to see and criticize. In the science lesson, the eye and the judgment are always being called upon for an effort, and because the result is within the vision and appreciation of the learner, he is encouraged as he seldom can be when he is dealing with literature. It has often been noticed that boys when they begin to learn science receive an intellectual refreshment which makes a difference even to their literary work.

This quotation has been made at length, in spite of what will be regarded by many as faulty psychology, because it furnishes the keynote of the report and in one form or another recurs many times.

and because it is representative of the type of thought on education that is frequently found in England. The report nowhere enters into a detailed discussion of the humanizing influence of science, but here and there deprecates the fact that many of the ablest boys and girls leave the secondary schools with little or no idea of its importance as a factor in the progress of civilization or of its influence on human thought.

Science teaching in secondary schools for boys—

is in general confined to the elements of physics and chemistry; botany and zoology are, as a rule, taught only to those boys who intend to enter the medical profession, while geology, so far as it is taught at all, is taken in connection with geography, or informally as part of the activities of the school scientific society.

Under the regulations of the Board of Education for grant-earning schools, science must be included in the curriculum, unless exceptions are permitted in special cases. But although science thus occupies a position in no way inferior to that of any other subject, the committee found a number of conditions that militate against successful work in science. Among these are: (1) Late entrance into secondary school, the assumption being that 12 should be the normal age for entry. (2) Early leaving, after less than three years in school, due to "(a) the parents' inability or reluctance to forego the wages which boys of 11 can earn; (b) the want of appreciation of the value of secondary education, even from the point of view of success in after life; (c) the tradition of beginning work at as early an age as possible; (d) the desire of the boys themselves to escape from the restraints of school life." (3) Lack of advanced work for those remaining at school to 18. (4) Inadequate staffing, equipment, and time. (5) Restricted scope, with the result that "in some cases physics up to the age of 16 means little more than practical measurements and heat, while in chemistry the theoretical foundations of the subject are often neglected." (6) Inadequate provision of university entrance scholarships for boys who have specialized in science. The situation is still less satisfactory in the public schools, many of which are not inspected by the Board of Education and in which the literary and classical traditions are more influential. It frequently happens that little or no science is offered in these schools to boys who specialize in classics, even though adequate provision is made for the subject on the modern sides. The public schools in turn exert an adverse influence on the preparatory schools because science carries hardly any weight either in the entrance or scholarship examinations.

In the secondary schools for girls the conditions are less favorable and there is even less definiteness than in the boys' schools as to the nature of education to be provided and the relative importance

of subjects. The Board of Education, in its regulations for grant-earning secondary schools for girls, permits the substitution of a course in domestic subjects for science and mathematics after 15, and in the period preceding this age the time assigned to science is quite inadequate. In a large number of private schools the subject is omitted entirely.

With reference to secondary education in general the committee is in agreement with the present trend of thought in England that:

The best preparation for any occupation or profession is a general education reached by the average boy at the age of 16, followed, where possible, by a more specialized course on a limited range of subjects. This general education should provide normally for the study of English, including history and geography, languages other than English, mathematics, and science; each of these subjects should be regarded as an integral part of the education of both boys and girls, and a fair balance should be maintained between the time allotted to them.

In a four-year course from 12 to 16 not less than four periods a week in the first year nor on the average less than six periods a week in the following three years should be given to science. Efficient teaching of the subject should be promoted by a system of State inspection and by its inclusion in the first school examination¹ which should come at the completion of the general course at about the age of 16.

The further recognition of science in a secondary education must in the opinion of the committee be accompanied by a revision of the curriculum, which has tended to become too narrow and to be out of touch with many of its applications. "The course should be self-contained, and designed so as to give special attention to those natural phenomena which are matters of everyday experience; in fine, the science taught should be kept as closely connected with human interests as possible." The committee finds general agreement that the best preparation for the study of science in secondary schools is a course of nature study up to the age of 12, and suggests that the work of the first year might include physiography, practical work involving measurements of simple physical quantities, and serving as an introduction to some important physical branches in connection with the making of such things as electric bells, small induction coils, telescopes, pumps, and so on; where laboratory facilities are available the committee favors, in addition to physiography, "a course of elementary general science, including work of an introductory kind on hydrostatics, heat, and the properties, both physical and chemical, of air and water."

The systematic study of science, beginning at about the age of 13, should include physics, chemistry, and biology, not with a view

¹ See on the question of secondary school examinations, pp. 328.

to training specialists, but rather to give as good a mental discipline as possible and an acquaintance with the principles involved in the phenomena of daily experience in each of these branches. The report emphasizes the responsibility of the science teacher for the English in which the work of his class is written, and the excellent opportunities for teaching clear writing in connection with everyday laboratory work and for instilling the habit of reading books in science. Some modifications would be essential in the case of girls. Hygiene, for example, should be well taught in girls' schools, but preferably at the 16 to 18 stage:

Where this is impossible, definite teaching on the laws of health and on personal hygiene may well form part of the work of the lower forms, but it can not be properly considered as a part of the science course. Similarly, lessons on the everyday affairs of the household are obviously of practical importance, and they form a part of scientific education if they are given by a teacher who has a real background of scientific knowledge. But much of the domestic science taught in schools has no claim to the name of science at all; it would be less pretentious and more accurate to call it housecraft and find a place for it outside the hours allotted to science.

At the age of 16 students may begin a more intensive study, usually for two years, of some special subject, but without neglecting other branches of the general course, especially English and mathematics, and frequently enough French and German to be used as tools. The specialists in science will carry forward to a higher stage the work in two or more of the sciences—physics, chemistry, or biology—the choice depending somewhat upon the future career of the students. The fact may here be mentioned that under the new regulations for advanced courses in secondary schools the Board of Education in 1917 recognized 63 courses in science and mathematics out of a total of 95 approved, the remainder being distributed between classics (13) and modern languages (19). At the same time it is recommended that a course or courses be offered suitable for students specializing in other subjects than science. The following courses are suggested tentatively:

A. (1) A course on the outlines of cosmo-physical physics and astronomical principles of general interest, such as the measurement of time, the calendar, the size and mass of the earth and sun; the applications of spectroscopy to elucidate the composition of the stars, nebulae, etc.; (2) a course on the general principles of geology, without too much technical detail, illustrated by local examples and the use of geological maps; (3) a course on physiology and hygiene, which would include a discussion of the part played by bacteria and other lower organisms in fermentation and in the spread of disease; (4) a course on physical meteorology: the composition and general circulation of the atmosphere, relation of wind to pressure, storm, clouds, rain, snow, thunderstorm, the aurora, weather-mapping.

B. Courses on the history of science, e. g., (1) the history of astronomy from the Greeks to Newton, including some account of the geocentric and heliocentric

systems; (2) the history of mechanics on the lines of the earlier portions of Mach's Principles of Mechanics.

C. Courses on the development of scientific ideas, e. g., the constitution of matter; the conservation of energy; the doctrine of evolution; heredity; immunity.

D. The lives and work of scientific men, e. g., Leonardo da Vinci, Galileo, Newton, Lavoisier, Cavendish, Faraday, Clark Maxwell, Kelvin, Pasteur, Darwin, and Helmholtz.

E. The bearing of scientific inventions on industrial progress, e. g., in connection with the history of farming or other local industries; methods of transport by land, water, and air; means of communication, such as signaling, telegraphy, telephones; methods of lighting.

F. Courses of a more practical kind than those mentioned above on the particular applications of science, e. g., on the internal-combustion engine or the dynamo; such courses would appeal to boys with a mechanical turn of mind.

G. A course on the method and philosophy of science, historically treated with special reference to the work of Aristotle and his predecessors, Archimedes, Galileo, and Bacon, and the later experimental philosophers.

The committee recommends that, if a second school examination is adopted in accordance with recent proposals of the Board of Education, candidates be examined in the group of subjects in which they have specialized, together with at least one other general subject. Thus a student who has taken an advanced course in science should be examined in that subject as well as in history or an ancient or modern language or English literature. Candidates who pass the second school examination might properly be exempted from the intermediate examination which in some universities comes at the end of the first year.

The committee recognizes that any progress in the teaching of science depends on the adequate supply of teachers well trained in academic and professional subjects, and that such a supply is dependent on the payment of considerably better salaries than at present and on improvement in conditions of service. It is suggested that, in addition to university study of science, teachers be required to have one year of training, spent partly in actual teaching in a secondary school and partly in attendance at professional teachers' courses at the universities. Such training should later be supplemented by further study and visits to other teachers and schools. Other essentials to successful advancement of the position of science are suitable laboratory accommodation, equipment, and libraries, with apparatus and books, periodically renewed and supplemented.

Turning to the universities, the committee recommends an increase in the number of scholarships, especially for students of science, but based on an examination that does not encourage overspecialization in the schools. Since the need of an increased number of trained scientific workers could not be met by an extension of scholarships, it is suggested that university fees be lowered. The normal age at

which boys should pass from the secondary schools, at least to the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, should be 18 rather than 19, the usual age before the war. More adequate opportunities should be offered for students who do not intend to work for an honors degree to take a continuous course in science for a pass degree corresponding more nearly to the B. S. in this country. But the committee is opposed to one-sided specialization, since—

the increase of specialization in all branches of knowledge at the universities has brought about that students of one branch of knowledge have little opportunity of hearing anything about other subjects. It is therefore very desirable that there should be given at the universities courses of lectures of a general character on philosophy, history, literature, science, and economics.

On the completion of the undergraduate course the committee urges the introduction of a year's research work, not so much for the sake of getting new results as for the training afforded in independence of thought, maturity of judgment and self-reliance, and for the gain in critical powers and enthusiasm for service. The committee recommends a uniform and comprehensive system of research degrees in accordance with the resolutions passed at the Universities' Conference held on May 18, 1917. Far larger provision should be made by means of scholarships for the encouragement of postgraduate research, since "no expenditure of public money on scholarships holds out more prospects of valuable returns." For the promotion of original research by students and members of university faculties the committee recommends an increase of State grants to insure the efficient equipment of laboratories and a reduction in the amount of time required by routine duties.

The report also considers the relation of science to medicine, engineering, agriculture, the Army, the civil service, and its importance in the preparation of students for these professions. With reference to technical education outside the universities the committee recommends an increase in "the provision of instruction in pure and applied science in technical schools and institutions of all grades," including junior and senior technical schools and evening schools, all of which need to be adequately coordinated so that students can pass from one to the other. "Science, both in its general aspects and in its bearing on industry," should find a place in the courses of the proposed continuation schools, and might properly be more extensively introduced in schemes and systems for adult education. The committee declares with reference to the latter that:

We are by no means sure that popular interest in science is as great to-day as it was 30 years ago. Until this general interest in science is extended and increased and the deficiencies of adult education in this respect are made good, an important piece of work in national education remains to be done.

The report closes with a consideration of the supply of trained scientific workers for industrial and other purposes which the committee regards as a matter of the utmost gravity and urgency, for—

It is agreed on all sides that it is absolutely necessary for the prosperity and safety of the country after the war that the development of the resources of the Empire and the production of our industries must be on a scale greatly in excess of anything we have hitherto achieved. Schemes of reconstruction and development are being prepared and discussed; each one of them requires a supply of trained workers, and the proposal will be futile unless a large army of these is forthcoming.

The work of the Department for Scientific and Industrial Research, established in July, 1915, has already stimulated a new attitude among employers to the need of well-directed research, better training, and the more skillful use of scientific methods. An extensive movement has been inaugurated toward the formation of research associations in the larger industries, some working independently, some in connection with universities. This movement will lead to a demand for more trained men and will offer better recognition and higher remuneration for their services than hitherto. To meet this demand the supply on the basis of prewar statistics was inadequate. After canvassing the possibilities the committee concludes that:

It is of the utmost importance that ability should not be wasted, and if it is not to be wasted, measures must, as we have said, be taken to insure (1) that no pupil capable of profiting by a full secondary education should miss the opportunity of receiving it; and (2) that the leakage from the schools should be so far as possible stopped.

For these the doors to the universities and technical colleges must be thrown open by means of scholarships and maintenance grants, and the development of sufficient and attractive careers for trained skill and knowledge. No small factor in the movement is the dissemination of a knowledge and appreciation of the need of reform.

If science is to come by its own, the Nation as a whole must be brought to recognize the fundamental importance of the facts and principles of science to the right ordering of our national life. The more closely the work of our legislators touches the life of the people, the more intimately it is concerned with questions of food supply, housing, transport, the utilization of natural resources, and the conditions which make for bodily health, the more dependent it becomes on the skilled advice and assistance of those who can bring their knowledge of science to bear on social and economic problems. Certainly we must provide the requisite training and opportunities for those who are capable of advancing natural knowledge or acting as scientific experts. But it is no less important that we should secure for all who are of an age to receive it an education which will enable them to realize the vital need of a knowledge of science both for the individual and national well-being.

POSITION OF MODERN LANGUAGES.¹

The committee to inquire into the position of modern languages in the educational system of Great Britain was appointed by the Prime Minister in 1916, under the chairmanship of Mr. Stanley Leathes, and reported in 1918. Considerable unrest has existed for some time on the neglect of modern languages and dissatisfaction has arisen with the assumption that English alone is an adequate medium for conducting the ever-increasing world intercourse of the country. As in the case of the neglect of science the uneasiness has been not a little stimulated by the greater attention devoted to such matters in Germany. The work of the present committee must, therefore, be considered in relation to the whole movement for reconstruction in English education that will have its effect not merely on the schools but on commerce and industry as well. The province of the committee was as follows:

To inquire into the position occupied by the study of modern languages in the educational system of Great Britain, especially in secondary schools and universities, and to advise what measures are required to promote their study, regard being had to the requirements of a liberal education, including an appreciation of the history, literature, and civilization of other countries, and to the interests of commerce and public service.

The committee followed the same procedure as the committee on the position of natural science and heard witnesses representing industry and commerce, educational institutions and associations, and the public services. Questions were also sent to similar representative organizations.

An account of the history of modern languages in Great Britain indicates that the modern subjects have received adequate recognition in the schools and universities only during the past 30 years, but that public interest has not been strong and the supply of teachers with appropriate qualifications has not kept up with the demand. Several reasons, obvious to the American educator, have militated against a better appreciation of modern subjects, not the least valid of these being the richness of English literature and the extensiveness of the repertory of knowledge in most fields, as well as the insular situation of the country. Foreigners, too, have taken the trouble to learn English, so that this language served as an adequate medium of intercourse the world over. "The need of modern language study was not clear and insistent before the war." In the schools modern subjects have suffered, as most new subjects, in competition with those that have a traditional place and are encouraged by the granting of scholarships and other incentives.

¹ Report of the committee appointed by the prime minister to inquire into the position of modern languages in the educational system of Great Britain. Cd. 9030. (London, 1918.)

In competition with the classics, modern language studies suffered from uncertainty of method and of aims, from lack of established traditions and standards: teachers needed exceptional qualifications, involving unusual length of training and expense; many were accepted as instructors whose attainments were frankly insufficient. Those of the highest attainments and ideals were discouraged by indifference, sometimes by contempt and hostility.

Much progress has been made in recent years; any further advance depends on the cultivation of sound public opinion. With this end in view the committee has defined the many-sided values of modern studies, that is, "all those studies (historical, economic, literary, critical, philological, and other) which are approached through modern foreign languages":

Modern studies subserve the purposes of industry and commerce; they are needed for scientific instruction and information; by them alone can be gathered and disseminated that more intimate knowledge of foreign countries which is necessary for the wise conduct of its affairs by a democratic people; they are required for the public service of the country at home as well as abroad; through and by them our people can learn what is best and highest in other countries. Some of us may attach more importance to one, some to another of these elements, but all together must combine to supply such motives as can unite and mobilize a nation in the pursuit of worthy knowledge.

The relation and place of modern studies for each of these ends and purposes are considered in some detail. But in addition to the practical values, modern studies it is claimed are an instrument of culture—

and by culture we mean that training which tends to develop the higher faculties, the imagination, the sense of beauty, and the intellectual comprehension. Clearer vision, mental harmony, a just sense of proportion, higher illumination—these are the gifts that culture ought to bring. It can not bring them to all; in their fullness they can be possessed by few; but in some measure they may be shared by all who desire them.

If modern studies are to meet with the same success that has attended the study of the classics—

We need an ideal such as inspires the highest classical studies. The best work will never be done with an eye to material profit. We must frame our ideal so that it can be consistently pursued through the whole course of school and university life and even beyond. The first object in schools must be to lay the foundation of scholarship and skilled facility of expression and comprehension. The "more or less," the "there or thereabouts," is not good enough in language, or in any other instrument of culture or information; the standard of accuracy and of form can not be too high. Early we should also aspire to make some of the boys and girls understand that foreign languages are not learned as an end in themselves, but as a means to the comprehension of foreign peoples, whose history is full of fascinating adventure, who have seen and felt and seen and made things worthy of our comprehension, who are now alive and engaged in like travail with ourselves, who see things differently from ourselves and therefore can the better help us to understand what is the whole of truth.

After discussing the general aims and purposes underlying the study of modern languages, the report takes up the question of the

relative importance of the several languages—European and non-European. French, from every point of view, is declared for English purposes to be the most important living tongue, the standard being as follows:

The importance of any language may be judged by the significance of its people in the development of modern civilization, by the intrinsic value of its literature, by its contribution to the valid learning of our times, and by its practical use in commercial and other national intercourse.

Germany, Italy, Spain, and Russia deserve a first-class place, after France, in the modern studies of the universities, and all but Russian, which is apparently not yet sufficiently organized or valuable for such purposes, should find a place in the schools. With reference to the vexed question of German, the report leaves no room for doubt as to its importance from the point of view of information in a large number of fields of human knowledge. But by the standard quoted above the report believes, that:

The time is hardly propitious for their dispassionate consideration. No doubt, as a factor of the first importance in shaping the destiny of Europe during the last hundred years, Germany must retain a permanent and compelling interest to the historical student, though the estimate of the causes which have raised her to that position may undergo changes in the opinion of succeeding generations. And on this also there will be general agreement. After the war the importance of German must correspond with the importance of Germany. If Germany after the war is still surprising, industrious, highly organized, formidable no less in trade than in arms, we can not afford to neglect her or ignore her for a moment; we can not leave any of her activities unstudied. The knowledge of Germany by specialists will not suffice; it must be widespread throughout the people. A democracy can not afford to be ignorant. We may indicate one point in particular, which is likely to be of importance at the end of the war. It will in any case be impossible to oust the use of German in commerce, even for our own purposes at home, apart from any question of competition in neutral countries. The mere settlement of pre-war accounts with Germany will be a long and difficult matter. If we are not ourselves able to supply men who have sufficient knowledge of German to conduct the necessary correspondence, strong incentive will be offered to the old practice of employing qualified German clerks for the purpose. This is only one of many considerations which lead us to the conclusion that it is of essential importance to the Nation that the study of the German language should be not only maintained but extended.

Besides these five languages for which adequate provision should be made in all universities, the study of other European languages and of non-European languages should be promoted in various centers, determined partly by commercial needs, partly by other interests. London it is recommended should become a center for an institution for the study of the minor European languages similar to the School of Oriental Studies. In general, however, "the prospects of modern studies depend on the esteem of the public."

The nature of instruction in foreign languages must vary according to the needs, age, and training of the students. Home instruction by skilled governesses may lay a sound foundation for the future, and it is suggested that kindergartens conducted in a foreign language might serve the same purpose. Systematic study in school or university is essential and should be supplemented by residence abroad, especially by those who intend to teach. Facilities for foreign residence and the exchange of teachers and pupils should be systematically organized and encouraged.

The systematic study of modern languages should be begun in the secondary schools: the committee does not consider it advisable to introduce them in elementary schools, although the phonetic study of English might well be begun there and serve as a starting point for foreign languages. The committee does not commit itself on the question of the right age for beginning foreign-language study, but prefers to define its position in general terms:

The position of reformers is that it is neither expedient nor profitable to begin the systematic study of a foreign language in school until the child has reached a stage of intellectual development which admits of his having already received a sound training in the use of his mother tongue, as well as a reasonable discipline in the essentials of a wide general education.

The scope of modern subjects will vary somewhat according to the type of secondary school attended, and the continuity of study. The chief aim should be to give a sound training in the principles of language, and a firm basis on which a pupil can advance by private study. Intensive work on one language is much more to be commended than the sacrifice of thoroughness by the study of two or three at the same time—a practice not uncommon in England. This principle is warranted by the fact that success in one language is the best preparation, not only for its further study but for the study of a second or more languages. In a four-year course, that is, from 11 or 12 to about 16, the energies of the pupils should not be dissipated. "It should be possible in a four-year course to bring one language to a useful point with the majority; only with the minority can a second language be begun with any advantage." The economical minimum for the study of the first language is four hours a week, preferably for two years, when a second language may be taken up. Specialization in language studies should not begin until a student has passed his first school examination, at about the age of 16. The advanced courses, as defined by the Board of Education, should cover as wide a range as possible, and private study should be encouraged.

The chief essential for the improvement of the status of modern studies is to secure well-qualified teachers, and this end can only be

achieved by improving the pay and prospects of those who must necessarily undertake, in the case of modern languages, an unusually long, laborious, and expensive training. "It is desirable that every teacher of modern languages in a secondary school should have a university degree, should have spent not less than a year abroad under suitable conditions, and should have undergone definite training for his profession." The committee recommends that professional training should consist of a period spent in a school recognized for the purpose, where a teacher—

would at first employ his time in observing the methods of skilled teachers, and studying the scheme of work and the elements of his art, and would thus gradually come to understand the principles he was to follow and the difficulties he would have to meet. After a sufficient period of initiation he might begin to teach under supervision, receiving frequent advice and practical hints; and before his period of training was over, he might begin to run alone.

The committee accepts the conclusions of the Modern Language Association that qualified British teachers are superior to foreign teachers, partly because the latter are found less effective for discipline and for the exercise of a salutary influence over the pupils, partly because the training of foreign students has tended to give them an "excessive philological and antiquarian bias," and chiefly because "it is natural to suppose that the studies themselves will be more successfully presented to the classes by teachers who approach them from the British point of view." Foreign exchange assistants, however, are a most valuable supplement.

But "the universities are the keystone of the whole structure of higher education." At present the arrangements as to staff, equipment, and expenditure for modern languages are defective in the British universities. The committee urges that action should be taken by Parliament to adopt a policy embodying—

a scheme providing for the establishment, within 10 years from the conclusion of the war, in addition to all the posts that already exist and those that may be founded by private or local initiative, of, say, 55 first-class professorships—15 for French studies, and 10 each for the studies concerned with the four other principal countries of Europe—and double that number of lectureships.

Such a scheme must be accompanied by a considerable increase in the number of scholarships for entrance to the universities and post-graduate studies. In 1911-12 only 8 out of 440 entrance scholarships at Oxford and Cambridge were awarded to modern languages. Assistance should also be afforded to students to spend some time abroad.

In addition to organized study in secondary schools and universities the report emphasizes the importance of providing facilities for the study of modern languages in later life, especially for those who discover the need of such knowledge for commerce or industry. The

local authorities are urged to extend the provisions already made in evening classes by the organization of other part-time and even brief whole-time study. But the pursuit of such study can only be stimulated if adequate pay and prospects are held out for specialization, a condition not prevailing at present.

For the specialist in modern language teaching the sections on method and examinations will prove of particular interest, especially the carefully elaborated consideration of the merits and limitations of the direct method, of the importance of oral tests, and of the place of translation from English into the foreign tongue. The report contains a summary of conclusions and recommendations, an appendix on the hours of work, salaries, and pensions in a number of foreign countries, and a letter from 31 professors and readers of modern languages in British universities representing their views on the subject of the committee's reference. The report represents the substantial consensus of the whole committee; the exceptions are certain reservations on the questions of the educational value of French and Latin, compulsory Latin at the university, languages in the first school examination, modern sides, the age at which foreign languages should be begun, preparatory schools, and the classification of schools. The report will, like the corresponding report on the position of natural science, exercise an important influence on the development of higher education in Great Britain. The general position of the committee may well be summarized in its own words:

The due advance of modern studies appears to us to require in the first place a change of spirit. We do not underrate, we may even be held by some to have unduly emphasized, the practical value of modern studies as affecting the material fortunes of the Nation, its classes, and its individual citizens. But no department of knowledge can obtain its highest development unless it be inspired by an ideal. That ideal of humane learning concerned with the thought, the life, the achievements, the psychology, in fact, the entire history of modern nations, we have endeavored to indicate and define; and we have found an encouraging example in the highest results attained during many centuries by the culture based on the records of ancient civilization. What has been done through the study of the dead people of Greece and Rome, can be done, we conceive, through the study of the living peoples of the habitable globe in proportion to their several contributions to the art of living. Modern studies must for such purposes be pursued with like intensity of purpose, with like faith and sympathy, with like seriousness and accuracy, and with like ideal of scholarship.

TENDENCIES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION.

EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES.

The education act gives no special treatment or attention to secondary education. Local authorities are encouraged to devote more money to higher education by the removal of the existing restriction on the amount that can be levied from the local rates, and the law

specifically requires that "adequate provision shall be made in order to secure that children and young persons shall not be debarred from receiving the benefits of any form of education by which they are capable of profiting, through inability to pay fees." Although the law does not require the establishment of secondary schools, the Board of Education is empowered to withhold its refusal of schemes submitted by local education authorities unless they make adequate provisions for education in the area as a whole. Indirectly, therefore, considerable pressure will be brought to bear to increase the opportunities for higher education that are at present limited. The question of free secondary education was not entirely lost sight of, and it was proposed, during the course of the debate on the Fisher bill, that fees be abolished in State-aided secondary schools. The proposal did not meet with much response. Mr. Fisher pointed out that 67 per cent of the pupils in the State-aided schools had come from the public elementary schools; instead of abolishing fees, and losing \$5,000,000 of revenue, it was wiser to encourage local education authorities to provide more secondary schools, to apply for more State grants, and as a natural consequence to provide more free places in such schools. The legal requirement quoted above would insure that no pupil of ability would be deprived of his opportunity of securing a higher education.

No action has accordingly been taken by the State to secure the establishment of free secondary education as a part of the national system. There is, however, a pronounced body of opinion throughout the country in favor of free higher education for those who have the ability to profit by it. The British Labor Party had something of this kind in mind when they demanded in their program public provision "for the education alike of children, of adolescents, and of adults, in which the Labor Party demands a genuine equality of opportunity, overcoming all differences of material circumstances." The Workers' Educational Association adopted the following resolutions on full-time secondary education as part of their program for educational reconstruction:

That all children admitted to a secondary school should have reached an approved standard of education, the ground of transfer being the fitness of the scholar for the broader curriculum.

That free provision should be made for all who are eligible and desirous to enter such schools, such provisions to include a satisfactory maintenance allowance where necessary.

That the number of secondary schools of varying types should be largely increased, and that the curriculum be made more variable to meet the interests of individual scholars.

The sense of the Education Reform Council, a large and representative body appointed at the instance of the Teachers' Guild, was that

scholarships and free places "should be provided in such numbers as will admit to secondary schools those pupils from elementary or preparatory schools who can profitably undertake a full secondary course." It also urged that "the number of efficient secondary schools of varying types should be increased," a view shared by the Incorporated Association of Headmasters, which declared in its educational policy that "there should be a considerable increase in the number of secondary schools, i. e., schools which provide some form of whole-time general education as distinct from technical training up to the age of 18." The Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools also declared it to be part of its educational policy that "no child who has shown capacity to profit by a course of secondary education should be refused admission to the schools, even if the child has to be fed and clothed at the public expense to enable him to attend." This view was slightly expanded in the educational policy of the National Association of Education Officers, who declared "that no child who is qualified to receive secondary, technical, or university education should be debarred therefrom for financial reasons." Finally, the Teachers' Registration Council supported "the principle of abolishing fees in secondary schools for the maintenance of which a local education authority is responsible, and also the principle of a due number of free places in secondary schools which are partly maintained by State grants."

The *Athenaeum* and the *Times Educational Supplement* went beyond this program and urged the establishment of a system of universal free secondary education based on a common elementary education. The common basis would continue up to the age of 11 or 12 and would be followed by a general secondary education adapted to individual ability and interests up to 15 and 16. It is hardly probable that these proposals will take concrete shape for some time. The principle that differentiation should take place at the age of 11 or 12 is very generally accepted and is undoubtedly the age that will be universally adopted. The accomplishments of an elementary school or its equivalent up to that age will become the basis upon which will be developed the advanced work in the upper grades and the central schools required by the act and the lower secondary school courses.

It may be generally assumed that the opportunities that are demanded will be extended and increased in public and other State-aided schools. In addition to these schools there has been a supply of private schools ranging all the way from the great public schools and other endowed schools to their private venture or proprietary school. At the present time neither the Board of Education nor any other authority knows the extent of this supply. Under the

new act, however, the board is now empowered to secure a description of all schools "in order that full information may be available as to the provision for education and the use made of such provision in England and Wales." Together with local education authorities the board may inspect schools that desire to be recognized as efficient for certain purposes. The Teachers' Registration Council will also affect the status of private schools indirectly in so far as a teacher's eligibility to be registered will depend in part on the character of the schools in which he has served. Further, private schools will be subjected to severe competition for various reasons: the schools established by local education authorities will command more money from the State and their localities; such schools will offer higher salaries and pensions to teachers; the board will grant additional aid to the larger schools for advanced courses; and, finally, it is proposed that there shall be some differentiation between public and private schools in the certificates awarded as a result of the secondary schools examinations. On the other hand, the influence of competition, inspection, and some public supervision may well stimulate the private schools to take a very real place in the national system. The private schools have always played an important part in English education, and, if they have not fully measured up to the claims of those who have favored their existence on the ground that they serve as experimental stations, they have furnished opportunities for secondary education that would otherwise not have been available. Many will disappear under the full light of publicity, but many others may win a new place for themselves as the result of the revived interest in education.

THE MEANING OF A LIBERAL EDUCATION.

Complete unanimity prevails on the broad question of the function of secondary education. The opportunities will undoubtedly be democratized, and access to the secondary school will become more ready. There is no intention, however, to confuse the functions of secondary education by introducing into it elements of technical and vocational training. Those who charge the European secondary school with being the haven of aristocracy would be somewhat astonished to find liberal and conservative, democrat and aristocrat, employer and employer united in complete agreement on the principle that "a secondary school exists to provide a liberal training, and it is no part of its task to furnish specific or technical instruction in the rudiments of professional studies or commercial routine." (Schoolmasters' Yearbook, 1918.) The Workers' Educational Association expresses the same view in its resolution:

That the requirements of a liberal education should be regarded as paramount in the organization of every type of secondary school.

That in the interests alike of education and of economic efficiency a sound general education in childhood and adolescence is the necessary foundation for any specialized course of technical or professional training, both in town and country, and that therefore a technical education should be regarded as supplementary to secondary education.

The Incorporated Association of Headmasters urges that:

The essential characteristic of post-elementary education should be the development of various types of schools so as to give the best possible chance to the most varied kinds of ability. The one common feature must be that the aim is primarily educational—the harmonious development of the mental, moral, and physical powers. The imparting of the technical elements of a trade is not in itself an education, but to say this is not to deny that a great deal of the knowledge that lies at the foundation of every sort of trade and practical pursuit can be and ought to be laid under contribution for the building up of various sorts of educational courses.

The functions of liberal and technical education are thus clearly separated. Before entering upon a discussion of the meaning and content of a liberal education, the general aim of secondary education that a liberal education is to promote may be considered. Again it is illuminating to quote current English thought. The Schoolmasters' Yearbook, 1918, thus describes the purposes of secondary schools:

They have to foster learning as a necessary element in life, and this they do by giving instruction which aids the pupil in his efforts to understand the things about him. To realize this purpose the schools need a wide curriculum. Literature, science, mathematics, art, and practical work all have their place, since each in its own sphere helps to cultivate that power of interpreting life which is the result of sound education.

Similarly the Athenæum in endeavoring to combat what appeared to it and many others efforts on the part of employers united into a Federation of British Industries to direct education into vocational channels, sums up the needs of the day as follows (Mar., 1918):

But man can not live by bread alone. He is a member of a family, a trade-union, a club, a city, a nation, a church. He is a human personality, with something more than a pair of hands condemned to toil at the will of another. He has intellectual and æsthetic taste (only too often cramped and undeveloped) and moral principles. He believes in liberty, justice, and public right, and goes to give his life for these things. The worker is much more than a worker; he is a citizen. And every citizen, regardless of his social position or wealth, has claims which are prior even to the claims of industry itself—claims of opportunities to enable him to fulfill his manifold responsibilities as a producer, as a member of various social groups from the family to the State. His responsibilities are no less if he be a ship's riveter than if he were a ship-builder. The engine fireman is no less a citizen than the railway director or the railway shareholder.

The detailed definition of the content that should make up a liberal education depends on these points of view. Democracy will make more and more demands on the intelligence of its citizens, both as

individuals and as members of society. The school should prolong rather than restrict the opportunities for that general education that is the foundation of the well-being of man as an individual and as a citizen. Those who look into the future see that for the work-classes a new era is opening up in which more leisure will be provided; it should be one of the functions of education to train for the enjoyment of that leisure. Further, the extension of the franchise will require a more general dissemination of education than hitherto. There is also a genuine and sincere belief that technical and vocational training will be improved if based on a broad general education, a belief that is shared both by teachers and specialists alike. Industrial and commercial success and progress, it is felt, will depend on well-trained and well-educated leaders rather than on the early specialization of boys and girls. Finally, it is not improbable that the importance of vocational training for the masses of industrial workers may be proved by the experience with such training during the war to have been exaggerated.

The question of educational values was raised soon after the outbreak of the war and discussion was bandied to and fro on the merits of this subject or that, now classics, now the sciences, and from time to time modern languages. For a time it seemed that no advantages could be claimed for one subject without disparaging another. It was many months before it was recognized that the problem involved was much broader than that of the value of this subject or that, and that no settlement could be obtained unless the larger view were taken and the question approached from the standpoint of the needs of the boy or girl to be educated. If any progress was to be made, the curriculum as a whole must be subjected to critical evaluation. This stage was not reached until the middle of 1916.

On February 2, 1916, a letter on the neglect of science, signed by a large number of eminent scientists, appeared in the Times. It was pointed out that the country had suffered checks during the war through lack of scientific knowledge among administrative officials, statesmen, and civil servants, and leaders in public and industrial life. In the history of the British Government Lord Playfair was the only scientist to become a cabinet minister. In general there was not enough knowledge of science to give an intelligent respect for it. Scientific method and scientific habit of mind would be essential to success in the period of reconstruction. At present science "does not pay" in most examinations, and few leaders in education are scientists. If science were assigned a greater value in the civil-service examinations, the subject would rise into its proper position and gain the respect necessary for national welfare. "Our desire is to draw attention to this matter, not in the interests of existing professional

men of science, but as a reform which is vital to the continued existence of this country as a great power." A meeting was held in London on May 3, 1916, at which resolutions were passed urging increased attention to science in educational institutions.

On the day following this meeting, May 4, 1916, a number of eminent men of letters and scientists issued a letter on "Educational Aims and Methods," urging the claims of humanities. They pointed out the danger that results of a war in which material means and technical skill are essential might be misleading.

If in our reforms we fix our eyes only on material ends, we may foster among ourselves that very spirit against which we are fighting to-day. Technical knowledge is essential to our industrial prosperity and national safety; but education should be nothing less than a preparation for the whole of life.

It is essential, therefore, to consider carefully the effect of sweeping changes proposed at a time of great stress. The purpose of education is broader than preparation for a vocation.

It should introduce the future citizens of the community, not merely to the physical structure of the world in which they live, but also to the deeper interests and problems of politics, thought, and human life. It should acquaint them, so far as may be, with the capacities and ideals of mankind, as expressed in literature and art, with its ambitions and achievements as recorded in history, and with the nature and laws of the world as interpreted by science, philosophy, and religion. If we neglect physical science, we shall have a very imperfect knowledge of the world around us; but if we ignore or subordinate the other elements of knowledge, we shall cut ourselves off from aspects of life of even greater importance. Even physical science will suffer. Some of its most distinguished representatives have strongly insisted that early specialization is injurious to the interests they have at heart, and that the best preparation for scientific pursuits is a general training which includes some study of language, literature, and history. Such a training gives width of view and flexibility of intellect. Industry and commerce will be most successfully pursued by men whose education has stimulated their imagination and widened their sympathies.

A belief in intellectual training is more important than physical science, while scientific method is necessary not only in science proper but in all branches of education. The whole of civilization is rooted in the classics and can not be neglected by those who are interested in literature or government. "Greece and Rome afford us unique instances; the one of creative and critical intelligence, the other of constructive statesmanship." In the closing paragraph of the letter a way was opened for securing cooperation and harmony on the larger question of the meaning of a liberal education:

In urging this we do not commit ourselves to defending the present system of classical education in all its details. Still less do we claim for it any artificial privilege. We cordially sympathize with the desire to strengthen the teaching of modern history, of modern languages, and of the literature of our own country. Further, we fully accept the importance of promoting scientific re-

search, or extending scientific instruction in schools where it is still inadequately provided, and of improving the quality of science teaching; and we desire to cooperate with the representatives of these studies in insuring them a due place in our national education. At the same time we would point out that much criticism of our schools seems directed against a past state of things and ignores reforms which have been already effected. It is sometimes forgotten that the teaching of physical science is compulsory in all State-aided secondary schools, that of Latin, and of course of Greek, is none.

In the following month, at the suggestion of the Historical Association, the principal organizations representing humanistic studies—the Classical, English, Geographical, Historical, and Modern Language Associations—held a conference in Manchester, at which the following resolutions were passed:

(i) It is essential that any reorganization of our educational system should make adequate provision for both humanistic and scientific studies.

(ii) Premature specialization on any one particular group of studies, whether humanistic or scientific, to the exclusion of all others, is a serious danger, not only to education generally but to the studies concerned.

(iii) Humanistic education implies the adequate study of language and literature, geography, and history, which in each case should, at the appropriate stage of education, go beyond the pupils' own language and country.

(iv) The representatives of humanistic studies would welcome from the representatives of the mathematical and natural sciences a statement with regard to those studies similar to that contained in (iii).

(v) In all reform of education it must never be forgotten that the first object is the training of human beings in mind and character, as citizens of a free country, and that any technical preparation of boys and girls for a particular profession, occupation, or work must be consistent with this principle.

(vi) Subject to the above principles the associations concerned would welcome a comprehensive revision of national education from the point of view of present needs.

In response to this resolution the committee of the Association of Public School Science Masters, in October, expressed their agreement with the principles stated at the conference and sent the accompanying statement:

Natural science in education should not displace the "humanistic" studies, but should be complementary to them. In this capacity natural science meets two needs in particular:—

1. *Search for truth.*—Imaginative power indigetes new fields in which further knowledge of truth may be revealed; its subsequent establishment depends on accurate observation, with constant recourse to nature for confirmation. The one aim of natural science is, in fact, the search for truth based on evidence rather than on authority. Hence the study of the subject implies accurate observation and description and fosters a love of truth. The special value of natural science in the training of mind and character lies in the fact that the history of the subject is a plain record of the search for truth for its own sake.

2. *Utility.*—There are certain facts and ideas in the world of natural science with which it is essential that every educated man should be familiar. A knowledge of these facts assists men (a) to understand how the forces of nature may be employed for the benefit of mankind, (b) to appreciate the sequence of

cause and effect in governing their own lives, and (c) to see things as they really are, and not to distort them into what they may wish them to be. It is the business of natural science in education to bring this knowledge within the range of all.

This was followed by a letter in November from the Mathematical Association to the effect that:

The teaching committee of the Mathematical Association concurs with the Councils of the Classical, English, Geographical, Historical, and Modern Language Associations in the view that any reorganization of our educational system should make adequate provision for both humanistic and scientific studies; that premature specialization should be avoided; and that technical preparation for a particular profession should be conceived in such a spirit that it misses none of the essentials of a liberal education.

In reply to the invitation of the representative conference to make a statement as to the position of mathematical studies in schools, the Mathematical Association committee would submit that from a school course of mathematics the pupil should acquire—(1) an elementary knowledge of the properties of number and space; (2) a certain command of the methods by which such knowledge is reached and established, together with facility in applying mathematical knowledge to the problems of the laboratory and the workshop; (3) valuable habits of precise thought and expression; (4) some understanding of the part played by mathematics in industry and the practical arts, as an instrument of discovery in the sciences, and as a means of social organization and progress; (5) some appreciation of organized abstract thought as one of the highest and most fruitful forms of intellectual activity.

In the course of the autumn of 1916 a Council for Humanistic Studies was formed representing the British Academy and the five associations mentioned above. The council entered into communications with organizations representing natural science—the joint board of scientific studies of the Royal Society and a committee on the neglect of science for the purpose of arriving at a common basis for future action. As the result of a conference between the council and the joint board, the following resolutions were passed in January, 1917:

1. The first object in education is the training of human beings in mind and character, as citizens of a free country, and any technical preparation of boys and girls for a particular profession, occupation, or work must be consistent with this principle.

2. In all schools in which education is normally continued up to or beyond the age of 16, and in other schools so far as circumstances permit, the curriculum up to about the age of 16 should be general and not specialized; and in this curriculum there should be integrally represented English (language and literature), languages and literatures other than English, history, geography, mathematics, natural sciences, art, and manual training.

3. In the opinion of this conference, both natural science and literary subjects should be taught to all pupils below the age of 16.

4. In the case of students who stay at school beyond the age of 16, specialization should be gradual and not complete.

5. In many schools of the older type more time is needed for instruction in natural science, and this time can often be obtained by economy in the time allotted to classics, without detriment to the interests of classical education.

6. In many other schools more time is needed for instruction in languages, history, and geography; and it is essential, in the interests of sound education, that this time be provided.

7. While it is probably impossible to provide instruction in both Latin and Greek in all secondary schools, provision should be made in every area for teaching in these subjects, so that every boy and girl who is qualified to profit from them shall have the opportunity of receiving adequate instruction in them.

Subject to a few verbal amendments proposed by the executive committee of the joint board, these resolutions represent the present settlement of the function of the secondary school. In the words of a report issued by Sir Frederic G. Kenyon on behalf of the Council for Humanistic Studies:

• It is not a little that the organizations which represent all the principal subjects of education, whether scientific or humanistic, should agree in deprecating early specialization, and should recognize the importance of opening the doors of all subjects to all pupils, and of facilitating their entrance into the paths most suitable for them. . . . All alike deprecate the conduct of education in a commercial spirit, and declare their faith in a liberal education as the foundation for all activities of mind and spirit in a civilized country.

A comparison of the above resolutions with the program laid down for secondary schools by the Board of Education (see p. 29) will indicate how closely these discussions represent the requirements of current practice. The effect of these discussions, together with the reports of the committees on the position of natural science and on the position of modern languages, will be to give greater reality to all the subjects in the schools and to build up a body of public opinion that will insist on their equal recognition. All the proposals for educational reconstruction that deal with secondary education concur with these resolutions which now represent the deliberate opinion of leaders in each of the subjects recommended, of statesmen, professional men, and men of affairs. The great task still remains of securing the teachers educated and trained for the new duties laid upon the schools. The activities and progress of the Teachers' Registration Council and the Government inquiry into the whole question of salaries are of great promise for the future status of the teachers. The future has still before it the consideration of the appropriate kind of training that must be devised.

The aim of the secondary school is to impart a liberal education, the scope of which is now defined and permits such flexibility as is demanded by the needs and capacities of the individual. A general education will be provided for pupils between the ages of 12 and 16, and specialization will be based on this foundation. These will be incorporated in the university and other examinations, and the equal recognition of the subjects included in the resolutions will be pro-

¹ Kenyon, Sir Frederic G. Education, Scientific and Humane. (London, 1917.)

moted in the reconstituted examinations for the higher branches of the Civil Service.¹ There will be removed from the secondary schools that reproach to which the Education Reform Council drew attention in its report:

At the same time they are convinced that in the general system of these schools the interests of the many have hitherto been largely sacrificed to the special culture of the clever few, and that generally speaking the esthetic, observational, manual, and even literary elements of education have been starved to provide for an excessive and wasteful, because premature and inappropriately methodized, attention to foreign languages, especially Latin.

It is now clearly established and accepted after a struggle of nearly 300 years that classical monopoly is incompatible with the extension of educational opportunities. More secondary schools and easier access to them inevitably demand a broader definition of a liberal education than has hitherto prevailed, and such an education to be democratic must be subject to adaptation to the abilities and interests of the individuals who are to enjoy it. Referring to their regulations for secondary schools the Board of Education state that they—

allow and encourage much elasticity in curricula, subject only to the fundamental principle that the school course make effective provision for the development of bodily and mental faculties on broad and human lines in the pupils who will be the citizens of the future.

It remains for the future to prove whether England, in thus building her hopes on a broad, liberal education and on a curriculum humanized in all its branches and in defying the demands of her materialists who in the name of patriotism are urging vocational education, is destined to be proved right or wrong. The upbuilding after the war—

is to be economic as well as spiritual, but those who think out most deeply the need of the economic situation are most surely convinced that the problems of industry and commerce are at the bottom human problems and can not find solution without a new sense of "cooperation and brotherliness."²

SALARIES AND PENSIONS.

SALARIES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL-TEACHERS.³

The problem of maintaining an adequate supply of elementary-school teachers was already becoming serious in England and Wales before the war; the outbreak of the war and its continued duration have only served to intensify the crisis. A large proportion of the

¹ See Report of the Treasury Committee on Civil Service, Class I, Examination. (Cd. 8057, 1917.)

² Paton, J. I. The Aim of Educational Reform; in Benson, A. C. Cambridge Essays on Education (Cambridge, 1918).

³ A portion of this section appeared in School and Society, Vol. VII, pp. 773ff, and is here reprinted by the courtesy of the editor.

men had joined the army, and many women had been attracted to occupations which appeared to be more obviously connected with the war activities and to offer higher remuneration than teaching.

At the same time the war imposed additional burdens, willingly assumed but none the less demanding sacrifices, on the teachers; these took the form of larger classes, extra work in the school, voluntary war work of different kinds, and so on. Not the least of the hardships was the depreciation of salaries due to the rising cost of living which by 1917 had increased about 80 per cent above that of 1914. Education authorities were confronted with several problems— inability to retain teachers in the face of more attractive opportunities elsewhere, inability to secure an adequate supply of candidates ready to undertake several years of training at a time when remunerative occupations were open to them without training, and inability to find additional resources when the public purse was otherwise being drained to meet other demands.

The first response was to grant bonuses on salary, which never went beyond an annual addition of 10 per cent, and rarely affected salaries above \$1,000 or \$1,250 a year. Such increases were of course quite incommensurate with the needs of the time, especially when skilled workmen could command as much as \$75 a week, and boys still under 18 about \$15 a week for unskilled services.

In only one important respect was the stringency relieved by a Government prohibition against the increase of rents. The bonus system prevailed until about the middle of 1917, when the Government came to the rescue with an addition to the educational budget of about \$18,000,000, which was specially earmarked for salaries. At the same time the Board of Education issued a minute recommending that the minimum salary for women teachers in elementary schools should be \$450 and for men teachers \$500. The effect of the additional Government grant was to stimulate the establishment of new scales of salary.

In the meantime the Government had, in June, 1917, appointed a departmental committee to inquire into the principles which should determine the construction of scales of salary for teachers in elementary schools, and another committee to make a similar inquiry into the salaries of secondary school teachers. The first committee issued its report in February, 1918. The report is based on three main principles:

1. That "authorities, in constructing a scale should aim at obtaining a constant supply of suitable recruits, at retaining them while other careers are

Report of the Departmental Committee for Inquiring into the Principles which should determine the Construction of Scales of Salary for Teachers in Elementary Schools, Vol. I, Report Cd. 8039; Vol. II, Summaries of Evidence and Memoranda, Cd. 8099. (London, 1918.)

still open to them, and at securing service of the desired quality from those who make teaching their life work."

2. That the scale "shall provide them with a reasonable assurance of a remuneration that will enable them to live appropriately without embarrassment, and that they may have a fair chance of advancement to posts of greater importance and emolument."

3. That "as authorities, in framing their scales are taking part in the work of establishing the teaching service of the country on a basis conducive to the efficiency of the system of national education, they should proceed upon a common basis of principles."

The committee, while accepting the administrative advantages of a salary scale, recognized that special consideration must be given to rewarding teachers of exceptional ability, to dealing with teachers who drift into a rut, to withholding increments from those teachers who are reported to be inefficient. It further considered the question of equal pay for men and women, for which a strong agitation has been launched by women teachers throughout the country. Finally, attention was given to removing some of the inequalities in salaries paid to teachers in rural and urban areas.

The chief principle adopted for the construction of salary scales was that a scale with smaller increments for the early years of service, followed by larger increments leading up to a salary adequate for increasing family responsibilities, and then with further prospects until retirement, is superior to a sharp, steep scale leading early up to a maximum, or a long and gradual scale which would not yield an adequate salary when responsibilities were greatest. For example, in the case of men certificated teachers annual increments are suggested for not less than 12 years, followed by increments at intervals of not more than 3 years for a further period of about 10 years, and for women certificated teachers annual increments for not less than 8 years, followed by increments at longer intervals as in the case of men. Uncertificated teachers should have a short scale covering a period of 4 to 6 years and not rising above the minimum for women certificated teachers, with discretionary increments in cases of individual merit.

Owing to the opposition of the teaching body, the committee was unable to recommend that increments should depend solely upon merit, and suggested that increments be automatic except in the case of definite default or willful neglect, with additional rewards for exceptional merit. The committee was unable to accept the principle of equal pay for men and women, partly because a scale of salaries adequate for women is under present circumstances inadequate for men, and partly because it is essential to attract and retain suitable men in the profession. Accordingly, it advocated the principle that the minimum salaries for both men and women should be approxi-

mately the same, but that the maximum for women should not be less than three-fourths of the maximum for men.

With reference to rural and urban teachers the committee was of the opinion that service in the rural districts should be made financially attractive and that accordingly salaries should be only a little lower than in urban areas. While the committee did not attempt to establish a national scale, it offered for consideration a number of illustrative scales, and emphasized the importance of avoiding such diversity that the larger school systems would draw teachers away from the smaller.

The following illustrations of scale making for certificated teachers were offered:

Men.—(1) Minimum \$500, rising by annual increments of \$25 to \$800 in the thirteenth year of service, and then by triennial increments of \$50 to \$950 in the twenty-second year of service.

(2) Minimum \$500, rising by annual increments of \$25 to \$700 in the ninth year of service, and then by annual increments of \$50 to \$900 in the thirteenth year of service, and then by triennial increments of \$50 to \$1,050 in the twenty-second year of service.

(3) Minimum \$500, rising by annual increments of \$25 to \$575 in the fourth year of service, then by annual increments of \$50 to \$1,050 in the fourteenth year of service, and then by triennial increments of \$50 to \$1,200 in the twenty-third year of service.

(4) Minimum \$500, rising by annual increments of \$25 to \$600 in the fifth year of service, then by annual increments of \$50 to \$1,150 in the sixteenth year of service, and then by triennial increments.

(5) Minimum \$500, rising by annual increments of \$50 to \$1,200 in the sixteenth year of service, and then by triennial increments of \$100 to \$1,500 in the twenty-fifth year of service.

Women.—(1) Minimum \$450, rising by annual increments of \$25 to \$650 in the ninth year of service, and then by triennial increments of \$50 to \$750 in the thirteenth year of service.

(2) Minimum \$450, rising as in (1) to \$650 in the ninth year of service, and then by one increment to \$700 in the tenth year of service, and then by triennial increments to \$950 in the nineteenth year of service.

(3) Minimum \$450, rising by annual increments of \$25 to \$600 in the seventh year of service, then by annual increments of \$50 to \$750 in the tenth year of service, and then by triennial increments of \$50 to \$900 in the nineteenth year of service.

(4) Minimum \$450, rising by annual increments of \$25 to \$550 in the fifth year of service, and then by annual increments of \$50 to \$750 in the eleventh year of service, and then by triennial increments of \$50 to \$1,000 in the twentieth year of service.

(5) Minimum \$450, rising as in (4) to \$550, then by annual increments of \$50 to \$900 in the twelfth year of service, and then by triennial increments of \$100 to \$1,200 in the twenty-first year of service.

The existing situation is indicated in a return on teachers' salaries in public elementary schools issued by the Board of Education in 1917. Of 36,827 certificated men teachers, only 18,332 were receiving salaries over \$750 a year, while 7,040 received over \$1,000 a year,

2,066 of over \$1,250 a year, and only 1,866 over \$1,500 a year; 2,629 received less than the minimum of \$500 a year prescribed for men. Of 77,139 certificated women teachers, 17,832 received less than the minimum of \$450 prescribed, and 32,314 less than \$500 a year, while 20,573 received more than \$600 a year, 7,603 over \$750, and only 1,269 were in receipt of more than \$1,000 a year. The certificated teachers represent the highest paid elementary school teachers. The situation is much worse in the case of uncertificated teachers, for of 3,546 men, only 128 received more than \$500 a year, and of 35,979 women only 39 received more than this sum. The proposals contained in the present report will, if carried into practice, not only raise the minimum salaries considerably above the present minimum rates, but will offer teachers the prospect of a maximum of more than twice the present average. To these prospects must be added the benefits of the superannuation act of 1918.

SALARIES FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS.

The inadequacy of salaries paid to teachers in secondary and other schools of similar grade led in 1917 to the appointment of a departmental committee—

To inquire into the principles which should determine the fixing of salaries for teachers in secondary and technical schools, schools of art, training colleges, and other institutions for higher education (other than university institutions), due regard being had to such differentiation in respect of locality, duties, qualifications, sex, and other relevant circumstances as is consistent with or necessary for the organization of teaching service throughout the country on a system conducive to the efficiency of national education.

The commission, under the chairmanship of Sir H. L. Stephen, after taking the evidence of officials of the Board of Education and local education authorities, and of teachers and their associations, issued its report¹ in 1918. The report considers the character of the different types of institutions involved, discusses the principles determining the fixing of salaries, and includes a memorandum on the institutions falling within the terms of reference. The chief part of the report is devoted to a discussion of salaries in secondary schools. The salary question assumes particular importance at a time when there is urgent need for attracting and developing a strong teaching force. In spite of the fact that the institutions considered represent a great degree of variation in sources of maintenance and character of government, national standards must be maintained. "A national system of education may be indefinitely divided and subdivided; but it must always be regarded as an organic unity the

¹Report of the departmental committee for inquiring into the principles which should determine the fixing of salaries for teachers in secondary and technical schools, schools of art, training colleges, and other institutions for higher education (other than university institutions), Cd. 8140. Summaries of Evidence, Cd. 8168. (London, 1918.)

welfare of which depends upon the welfare of every recognizable division or subdivision." The increasing competition with commerce, industry, and the public services, all of which offer better opportunities than the teaching profession, which at present holds out prizes only for the few, renders the need of providing attractive inducements to prospective candidates more urgent than ever. At present, in the secondary schools that come under the survey of the Board of Education, only 460 out of the 1,950 institutions have established scales of salary. The majority of the 460 schools are under public authorities, thus leaving a vast number of small endowed and private schools with inadequate provisions for the financial welfare of teachers.

The advantages of scales of salaries outweigh any disadvantages that they may involve. A scale assures to the teachers certain financial prospects and defines the liabilities of the school authorities. It relieves teachers of the perpetual anxiety of financial embarrassment, while securing a larger and better supply of candidates. The chief disadvantages, such as the unfairness of treating all teachers alike, and the lack of stimulus for the exceptionally able, can be offset by introducing elasticity in the administration of the scale and establishing posts of responsibility. In order to secure as homogeneous a body of teachers as possible for any one branch of education, possessing similar qualifications, academic and professional, a national scale would be the ideal to be attained. In view of the great variations in the organization and administration of schools, the commission was not able to advocate a national scale. The units of scales must necessarily remain the same, some applying only to a single school, others to all the schools maintained by a local authority. A national scale prescribed by a central authority would be inconsistent with existing arrangements. The imposition of a national scale is impossible without a national guarantee, which the commission was not empowered to discuss. Of three plans suggested, namely, (1) the prescription of a complete scale with initial salary, increments, and maximum; (2) the establishment of a minimum initial salary with a minimum to be reached at one point at least later in the scale; and (3) the prescription of only a minimum salary, the commission selected and advocated the second. This plan the commission considers will provide a certain common measure among all scales, leaving local units to frame such steps on the scale and to provide such maxima as suit their circumstances. There is very little doubt that this recommendation will not be considered satisfactory, and it may be pointed out that the commission's suggestion was contrary to the opinions presented to it, for "most of the witnesses who have appeared before us and have considered this matter, are in favor of such

a scale (national) being introduced in all secondary schools that receive public money."

In dealing with the question of equal pay for both sexes, for which justification may be found by some in the requirement of similar qualifications and efficiency from both men and women teachers, and in the fact that needs of both may be the same in meeting certain personal obligations, in providing for leisure and self-improvement, and in saving for old age, the commission is of the opinion that there must be differentiation of scales on the basis of sex. At present "a salary that will attract a woman will not necessarily attract a man of similar qualifications." Since salaries must be sufficiently high to attract and retain the services of qualified teachers, the fact must be taken into consideration that there are more openings in commerce and industry, and in the professional and public services for men than for women, that as a general rule men are likely to give longer service, and that, while the prospect of marriage may be the same for both sexes marriage for the man implies the assumption of new financial responsibilities. The commission considers that "under present economic and social conditions the principle of equality of pay for the two sexes would lead to the one being underpaid or the other overpaid." It is accordingly suggested that scales of salary should be approximately the same in the initial stages for both men and women, but that differences imposed by differences of economic and social status should be introduced at later stages.

The construction of scales of salary gives rise to the question of their length and the frequency of increments. A national scale should imply a minimum initial salary rising by annual increments to a substantial salary at the age of 32 or 33, and a maximum at the age of 42 or 43. It is also suggested that at some intermediate point in a scale there should be another minimum that can be attained by most teachers. A review of past services is recommended before teachers are advanced to the highest point of a scale. The initial salary should not be so high as to render the maximum unattractive, and the maximum should be attainable at an age when it will serve to retain experienced teachers, and leave them some years for its enjoyment. The increments should be granted automatically, subject to satisfactory service and conduct. Where an increment is withheld, a teacher should be informed of the cause and be given an opportunity to defend himself. In order to meet cases of special ability, whether in teaching or administration, scales should be sufficiently elastic to enable authorities to offer suitable financial recognition of special merit. Additional salaries must be provided for assistant principals and heads of departments. Another element of flexibility that it may be desirable to consider may arise out of

differences in local conditions in such matters as the cost of living and rents. Other differentiations that will necessarily arise under existing conditions may follow from differences in academic and professional training and length of experience. The commission holds that for appointment in a secondary school a university degree and one year of professional training are essential. Other matters, such as differentiation on the basis of the subject taught, or the character or size of a school, should not, in the opinion of the commission, lead to variation in scales. So far as possible, in the interests of national education, differences between different schools in the establishment of salary scales should be eliminated. The commission strongly urges the more general establishment of "grace terms" or leave of absence on full pay, for purposes of study or research, without affecting the continuity of the scales or the future prospects of teachers.

These recommendations are not intended to apply to the salaries of principals. For these, personal scales reaching a high maximum within a short time should be established. Here the size of the school and character of the work to be done should be taken into consideration. The commission wisely deprecates the practice of paying principals by capitation fees and the system by which principals or assistants make a profit by taking boarders.

The standards advocated for the establishment of salary scales for secondary school teachers are also recommended for the other institutions that come within the terms of reference, in so far as the same qualifications are needed as in the secondary schools. Where special factors, such as competition with opportunities in commerce and industry in the case of certain teachers in technical and art schools, must be taken into account, personal scales are advocated.

The following is an illustrative scale for assistant masters in secondary schools:

Salaries of assistant masters in secondary schools.

Years of service for the purposes of the scale.	Approximate age.	Salary.	Years of service for the purposes of the scale.	Approximate age.	Salary.
1	22-23	\$900	14	35-36	\$1,725
2	23-24	950	15	36-37	1,800
3	24-25	1,000	16	37-38	1,875
4	25-26	1,050	17	38-39	1,950
5	26-27	1,100	18	39-40	2,025
6	27-28	1,150	19	40-41	2,100
7	28-29	1,200	20	41-42	2,175
8	29-30	1,275	21	42-43	2,250
9	30-31	1,350	22-28	43-50	At maximum.
10	31-32	1,425			
11	32-33	1,500			
12	33-34	1,575			
13	34-35	1,650			
			Total		70,275
			Average annual salary		1,850

The scale here recommended may be compared with the average salaries prevalent in two types of secondary schools in receipt of grants from the treasury.

Average salaries in two types of secondary schools.

Teachers and principals.	Council schools.		Foundation schools.	
	Number.	Average salary.	Number.	Average salary.
Assistant teachers:				
Men.....	1,655	\$835	2,275	\$875
Women.....	2,136	635	1,355	625
Principals:				
Men.....	221	1,950	330	2,415
Women.....	390	1,435	93	1,990

In addition to salary scales, which will probably be put into effect under the broad powers intrusted to the Board of Education, secondary school-teachers in grant-earning schools are eligible to the pension benefits provided under the superannuation act of 1918.

TEACHERS' SUPERANNUATION ACT OF 1918.

The urgent need of securing men and women to promote that development of education for which the act prepares the way, has not only directed attention to the question of salaries, but has prompted the Government to introduce a system of pensions for all grades of teachers. Whatever may be the result of the recommendations of the committees appointed to consider salaries, a pension system has already been established by the school-teachers' (superannuation) act, passed in November, 1918. The main purpose of the act is to attract men and women to the teaching profession by giving them "that sense of elasticity and freedom from care, which is essential to the proper discharge of their duties." By extending the benefits of the act to teachers in all schools aided by the State, the act will also promote the unity of the profession, and will to this extent supplement the efforts of the Teachers' Registration Council. Combined with adequate salary scales, the pension system should contribute to an improvement in the qualifications of teachers.

The act provides benefits for teachers in all grant-aided institutions below the grade of universities or university colleges. These include elementary, secondary, and technical schools, training colleges for teachers, and other institutions in receipt of aid from the State. Teachers will become eligible for the superannuation allowance at the age of 60 after 30 years of qualifying service, of which at least 10 years must be recognized service in a grant-aided school. The age

of retirement is the same for men and women, but in the case of women who withdraw from service to marry and later return to teaching, the period of qualifying service is reduced to 20 years. The distinction between qualifying and recognized service permits migration to and from grant-aided schools to schools not on the grant list, but all service in the following types of schools is excluded: (a) Schools conducted for private profit, (b) schools not open to inspection by the Board of Education, and not shown to the satisfaction of the board to be efficient; (c) schools able out of their own resources to maintain a satisfactory pension scheme, and (d) schools which do not satisfy such other conditions as may be prescribed as necessary or desirable for securing the public interest.

The amount of the retirement allowance is one-eightieth of average salary for each year of recognized service, or one-half of the average salary, whichever is the less. In addition a gratuity will be given in a lump sum of one-thirtieth of average salary for each year of recognized service, or one and a half times the average salary, whichever is the less. Disability allowances of one-twelfth of average salary for each year of recognized service will be paid after 10 years of service to teachers incapable of further service by reason of infirmity of mind or body. In the case of death after five years of recognized service a death gratuity will be paid to the legal representatives of a deceased teacher of an amount not exceeding the average salary; where a teacher dies after retirement without having received an amount equal to his average salary on account of his superannuation allowance and the additional allowance, the board may grant to his legal representatives a gratuity not exceeding the difference between these two sums.

The act abolishes the deferred annuity system under the acts of 1898 to 1912, but annuities will be paid in respect to contributions already made and teachers are given the option of continuing their contributions, or of coming under the new scheme. Local pension schemes are similarly abolished and contributions are to be returned to the teachers, unless they desire to forego the benefits of the act.

The administration of the act is in the hands of the Board of Education, which is empowered to frame rules for this purpose. The board may refuse or reduce allowances in cases of misconduct of teachers. Its decisions on the application of the act are final. In the words of the act:

Nothing in this act shall give any person an absolute right to any superannuation allowance or gratuity, and, except as in this act provided, the decision of the board on any question which may arise as to, or which may affect, the application of the act to any person, or the qualification for any superannuation allowance or gratuity, or the amount of any superannuation allowance or gratuity, or any questions which may arise as to the amount of the average salary of any teacher shall be final.

In thus establishing a noncontributory pension system Mr. Fisher has departed from the tendency which has been very generally accepted in the establishment of local pension systems in Great Britain, in many parts of the British Empire, and in the United States. It is estimated that the cost of the scheme in about 10 years will be \$10,000,000 a year, but as no actuarial investigation has been made, this figure is nothing more than an estimate, which is particularly dangerous at a time when salary rates are changing and show an upward tendency. However, the Government is protecting itself by the provision that there is "no claim to superannuation allowances or gratuities as of right." As a measure for meeting the immediate demand for teachers the act will undoubtedly serve this purpose, as it will also tend to promote unity among teachers, and raise the standards of instruction in schools, service in which is excluded under the act. The history of other noncontributory pension systems does not, however, offer a sound guaranty of the future success of the present act.

ADULT EDUCATION.

Of the many reports on education that have appeared during the war period, none goes more thoroughly into the problem and none is more significant than the interim report of the committee on adult education, which was appointed by the Minister of Reconstruction, "to consider the provision for, and possibilities of, adult education (other than technical or vocational) in Great Britain, and to make recommendations." Reaching the conclusion that industrial and social reforms are necessary to make adult education possible and effective, the committee issued the present interim report on industrial and social conditions in relation to adult education.¹

The committee points out that "there is a wide and growing demand among adults for education of a nonvocational character," accompanied among the working classes by considerable suspicion of "technical" education. The motives underlying the demand for education are based partly "upon a claim for the recognition of human personality," partly upon a desire to become "better fitted for the responsibilities of membership in political, social, and industrial organizations." The new problems that will confront democratic societies everywhere in all branches of organized life will demand intelligent participation on the part of men and women of all classes, and since many of these problems are of such a nature that they can be grasped only after experience with the world, the committee is of the opinion that "facilities for adult education must therefore be regarded as permanently essential, whatever developments there may be in the education of children and adolescents."

¹Committee on Adult Education, Interim Report. Industrial and Social Conditions in Relation to Adult Education. Cd. 9107 (London, 1918).

Although a discussion of the question of adult education is reserved for a subsequent report, a general survey of the existing facilities is presented. These cover a remarkable array of activities and include besides the well-known University Extension Lecture System, the University Tutorial Class Movement, the Workers' Educational Association, Ruskin College and the Labor College, a number of organizations like the Adult School Movement, the Cooperative Societies' educational work, working men's colleges, clubs, summer courses, and libraries, as well as the more formal work of the local education authorities. The war has stimulated an interest in the historical background and causes of the war and in the problems of reconstruction. But extensive as the facilities have been, their reach has not been universal. "What is needed is some organization sufficiently comprehensive and systematic to bring facilities for higher education within the reach of the inhabitants of every town and village in the country."

The most significant and valuable contribution of the report is the analysis of the industrial and social conditions that militate against the effectual operation of a system of adult education, however well organized and financed. The survey of these conditions inevitably leads to recommendations which, if accepted, may alter the whole face of industrial and economic life in England. The report presents a treatment of educational politics that is altogether too rare and infrequent. Excessive hours of work, overtime, the shift system, and night work are all obstacles that must be overcome before adequate consideration can be given to the problem referred to the committee. "From the point of view of education and of participation in public activities (which we regard as one of the most valuable means of education)," declares the committee, "we are of opinion that one of the greatest needs is the provision of a greater amount of leisure time; this is the more necessary because of the increasing strain of modern life." A shorter working day will go far to protect the worker against the worst consequences of monotonous toil, but this should be supplemented by alternating forms of employment and opportunities for the exercise of initiative. "The more industry becomes a matter of machinery, the more necessary it becomes to humanize the working of the industrial system." With the improvement of these conditions there still remains the problem of coping with heavy and exhausting work, whose depressing effects can be increasingly counteracted by the introduction of mechanical devices, and the prevalence of which, if such conditions can not be ameliorated, would not be tolerated in the light of adequate publicity. The introduction of a reasonable holiday without stoppage of pay for all workers in town and country, the committee

believes, "would have a beneficial effect upon the national life." Finally, the fear of unemployment which—

hangs like a heavy cloud over so many breadwinners brings a sense of insecurity into the life of the worker and deprives him of all incentives to take a whole-hearted interest in the various activities which are a necessary accompaniment of a complete life.

The progressive increase in productivity that has characterized the development of industry in the last generation has resulted in specialized, mechanical, and monotonous labor, with the consequent stunting of the creative impulse and of the spirit of craftsmanship and the deprivation of opportunities for self-expression. These conditions react on human personality in so far as "the present industrial system offers little opportunity for the satisfaction of the intellectual, social, and artistic impulses." The committee accordingly urges the need for a new industrial outlook:

Adult education and, indeed, good citizenship, depend in no small degree, therefore, upon a new orientation of our industrial outlook and activities. Improved conditions and the diffusion of responsibility for the proper conduct of industry will strengthen the need for educational opportunities. In so far as that need is fulfilled, industry will gain by a more effective "industrial citizenship," and will itself become more truly educative. Thus increased opportunities for adult education and the stimulus of a freer and finer industrial environment are correlative and help to develop each other. Education is to be measured essentially in terms of intellectual accomplishment, power of esthetic appreciation, and moral character, and these have little or no opportunity for realization except through a harmonious environment. Nor is the environment likely to be substantially modified except in response to the higher ideals of social life, stimulated by a more prolonged and widely diffused education.

Addressing itself to the problem of improving the environment, the committee emphasizes the importance of the preparation of schemes of housing, town planning, and public health by the cooperation of experts and representatives of the people for whom such schemes are intended, especially women, to whom an adequate scheme of housing reform will bring an improvement in conditions without which they will be unable to play their new part in public affairs. For the improvement of rural life, measures are needed beyond the necessary improvement of labor conditions. A communal organization that will promote vigorous intellectual and social life in the country districts is essential. To this end the committee recommends the provision of a hall under public control with a village institute providing for many-sided activities as the ideal to be aimed at.

In conclusion, the committee is under no delusions as to the possibility of putting its recommendations into early practice. It does draw attention to the fact that at this turning point in England's

national history "it is in our power to make the new era one of such progress as to repay us even for the immeasurable cost, the price in lives lost, in manhood crippled, and in homes desolated." The war has generated a new spirit which must be utilized immediately as a foundation for the future.

We have awakened to the splendid qualities that were latent in our people, the rank and file of the common people, who before this war were often adjudged to be decadent, to have lost their patriotism, their religious faith, and their response to leadership; we were even told they were physically degenerate. Now we see what potentialities lie in this people and what a charge lies upon us to give these powers free play. There is stirring through the whole country a sense of the duty we owe to our children, and to our grandchildren to save them not only from the repetition of such a world war and from the burdens of a crushing militarism, but to save them also from the obvious peril of civil dissension at home. We owe it also to our own dead that they shall not have died in vain, but that their sacrifice shall prove to have created a better England for the future generation.

EDUCATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION AND PUBLIC OPINION.

The dislocation caused in the social, economic, and educational life of the country by the outbreak of the war has already been mentioned. For a time events of larger moment that were happening in France tended to overshadow the discussion of domestic problems. In the attempts to understand the German enigma, however, it was inevitable that attention should be turned to the German educational system and that comparisons should be instituted between that and the English. It was not many months before a fierce controversy broke out between the classicists and the scientists in which the advocates of modern language studies soon joined. But the dissatisfaction that began to find voice was not confined to higher education; it spread very naturally to the elementary schools and expressed itself in criticism of the school attendance regulations, of the early exemptions, of the lack of advanced work in the upper grades, and particularly of the absence of provision for the large class of boys and girls who are allowed to drift after leaving the elementary schools. The dissatisfaction and criticism were not new; they had already been heard before the war; but as soon as it became clear that the war was one of conflicting ideals, they received at once a new stimulus and a new focus or objective. The shortcomings of English education began to be measured by their adequacy for training healthy, moral, and intelligent citizens of a democracy. In discussing the "Outlook for 1914" the Times Educational Supplement in January of that year wrote:

Like English poetry and English painting, our education is astir with new ideas. These new ideas are not all of one pattern, but often discordant with one another, the offspring of different stocks, and as diverse as the roots from

which they spring, though novel in their combinations and sometimes one-sided in their emphasis.

The war helped to furnish a rallying and unifying point for the new ideas and stimulated a widespread interest in education which was not present even three months before the outbreak of the war, and certainly not in 1911, when Mr. Runciman presented the school and continuation class attendance bill, or when the several efforts were made to abolish the half-time system.

It was less than a year after England's entrance into the war when discontent and criticism began to make way for the discussion of a constructive program. In May, 1915, the Times Educational Supplement propounded the question, "How can the educational institutions of the country be molded and developed to fit the childhood of the nation to meet wisely the problems of the Great Peace?" and in the same month Mr. Pease, shortly before retiring from the office of president of the Board of Education, emphasized the urgent need of longer schooling, greater opportunities, and closer relations between scientific research and industry. It began to be generally accepted that the appointed hour for reform had arrived. "If we are to face the future with any confidence after this exhausting war," wrote the Times, "we must face it as an educated people. We shall not be able to afford to waste the efficiency of a single English child." By the close of 1915 the reform movement was in full swing, and by the middle of the following year the Times was able to report that "it is certain that there is not now a place in England where educational affairs are considered that is not agog with the demand for reform."

The consideration of plans for educational reconstruction was not confined to the teaching profession. The problem occupied the attention of leaders of the working classes, local and national trade-union bodies, manufacturers and employers, and the public in general. Early in 1916, the Athenaeum, hitherto devoted almost exclusively to literature, changed its character and dedicated its pages to the consideration of the broader phases of reconstruction. Later in the same year the Times Educational Supplement, until then a monthly magazine, decided to appear weekly "in the hope of enabling the public, which is now bent upon educational reform, to take an instructed part in the process."

The Trade-Union Congress, meeting in Birmingham early in September, 1916, passed resolutions protesting against the employment of children in agricultural work, factories, and workshops, and against any reduction in the expenditure on education, and pledged itself to support all measures to secure a higher standard of education for all children. The British Labor Party, in the program of reconstruction issued at the close of 1917, emphasized the demands

for health, leisure, education, and subsistence, and urged the application of national funds "for the education alike of children, of adolescents, and of adults, in which the labor party demands a genuine equality of opportunity, overcoming all differences of material circumstances." The general secretary of the Workers' Educational Association, Mr. J. M. Mactavish, had already given a more detailed definition of these demands in a pamphlet on What Labor Wants from Education:

Labor wants from education health and full development for the mind, fineness for the feelings, good will toward its kind, and, coupled with this liberal education, such a training as will make its members efficient, self-supporting citizens of a free self-governing community. Such an education and only such an education will meet the needs of the individual, the class, the nation, and the race.

Mr. Fisher, appreciating the influence of labor in the development of public opinion on education, paid a tribute to the leaders in the introduction to his *Educational Reform Speeches*.¹ "The leaders of the labor world, having discovered education some time since, are now communicating the message to those below."

To these expressions of faith on behalf of labor there deserve to be added the views of the more enlightened employers. After the introduction of Mr. Fisher's first bill Messrs. Tootal, Broadhurst, Lee & Co. (Ltd.), of Manchester and London, issued four pamphlets² urging the support of the bill. The platform that they insisted upon was the following:

We believe that the vast majority of the nation favor the main proposals of the new education bill, viz. 1. Whole-time education up to the age of 14. 2. Compulsory part-time education up to 18.

Over and above these proposals a straight road to the university should be open to those who desire the fullest development of their intellect. Only by such provision for complete knowledge of the arts and sciences can we as a nation maintain our place in the world.

It is important for the opponents of the bill to realize that the two proposals we have mentioned are regarded by educationists not merely a first step to a real system of democratic education.

They are by no means exorbitant proposals. They represent in fact a minimum of democracy's demand for a fuller life. They do nothing more than give a reasonable chance to the children of this country to make the best of themselves.

Local reconstruction committees began to be formed and a large number of professional associations devoted themselves to the task of drafting plans of reforms, while the daily press gave increasing attention to the subject. "Nothing has been more remarkable," said

¹ Fisher, H. A. L. *Educational Reform Speeches* (Oxford, 1918).
² These appeared first as advertisements in the country's press. They were published under the title "The Great Decision," and included four pamphlets: *Now or Never, Our Success or Failure, A Just Complaint, and A First Step*. Messrs. Cadbury, of Bourneville, followed a similar policy.

Mr. Fisher in introducing his first educational estimate in 1917, "than the attention which has recently been paid, both in the public press and on public platforms, to the subject of education."

Among the professional associations the following issued proposals for educational reconstruction:

- Assistant Masters Association (Educational Policy).
- Directors and Secretaries for Education (Toward an Educational Policy).
- Teachers of Domestic Subjects (Memorandum).
- Education Committees (Report of Executive).
- Education Officers' Association (Policy).
- Education Reform Council (Education Reform).
- Headmasters' Association (Educational Policy).
- Headmistresses Conference.
- British Science Guild (National Education).
- Teachers' Registration Council (Resolutions).
- Technical Institutions Association.
- Workers' Educational Association (Educational Reconstruction).
- National Union of Teachers (Educational Progress).
- London County Council Education Committee (Education after the War—Government Grants and Educational Development).

The suggestions and recommendations of some of these bodies received wide publicity and consideration. Many of these recommendations, as well as the proposals contained in a draft bill, which appeared in the Times Educational Supplement of March 15, 1917, were embodied in the act as finally passed.

The Government in the meantime was not neglecting the subject of education. It was recognized that the reform of education could not be considered in isolation but must fit in with the general plan for national reconstruction. The subject of reconstruction was for a time intrusted to a committee consisting of members of the Cabinet, but it soon became clear that such a committee could not devote to the problem the attention that it deserved. In March, 1917, a new committee of reconstruction was appointed with the Prime Minister as chairman and Mr. E. S. Montague as executive head. Four months later the province of the committee was further expanded and under the new ministries act of 1917 a ministry of reconstruction was established. According to the Report of the War Cabinet, for 1917, page xix—

The scope of its activities covers almost every branch of the national life. It has been concerned not only with the problems which will arise immediately on the return of peace, such as the demobilization of the armies and reconversion to peace production of many industries now making war material; it has also to consider education, the supply and distribution of raw material, a great scheme for the better housing of the people both in town and country, labor and industrial problems, transportation, national health, and so forth.

For a time it was expected that a royal commission would be appointed to consider proposals for educational reform, but at the end

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of June, 1916, it was announced that the problem of education would come within the scope of the cabinet committee of reconstruction. Education, however, constituted but one of 15 different branches of activities, the consideration of which was intrusted to 87 distinct committees.¹ It was clear that even the adoption of this course would involve delay, and it does not appear that this plan was eventually carried out, with the exception that a number of separate problems were left for consideration by the section of the Ministry of Reconstruction in charge of education. The following committees were established and placed under this ministry (the appointing authorities and the dates of the reports, if they have already been issued, are given in parentheses):

Royal Commission on University Education in Wales. (The Crown; Cd. 8091 and Cd. 8093; 1918.)

Adult Education Committee. (Ministry of Reconstruction; Cd. 9107; 1918.)

Committee on Juvenile Education in Relation to Employment after the War. (Board of Education; Cd. 8512 and Cd. 8577; 1917.)

Committee on the Teaching of Modern Languages. (The Prime Minister; Cd. 9036; 1918.)

Committee on the Teaching of Science. (The Prime Minister; Cd. 9011; 1918.)

Committee on Principles of Arrangements Determining Salaries of Teachers in Elementary Schools. (Board of Education; Cd. 8939; 1918.)

Committee on Principles of Arrangement, Determining Salaries of Teachers in Secondary, Technical, etc., Schools. (Board of Education; Cd. 9140; 1918.)

Juvenile Organizations Committee. (Home Office.)

It will be seen that most of these committees have already reported, and an account of these reports is given elsewhere.

The Government had also entered upon new developments in another direction—the promotion of scientific and industrial research. In 1915, under a scheme for the organization and development of scientific and industrial research (Cd. 8005, 1915), there were established a committee of the Privy Council responsible for expenditure of any new moneys provided by Parliament for such research, and a small advisory council composed of eminent men of science and others actually engaged in industries dependent upon scientific cooperation. On December 1, 1916, the committee and council were replaced by a Department of Scientific and Industrial Research. The object of this new development is indicated in the statement that:

It appears incontrovertible that if we are to advance or even maintain our industrial position, we must as a nation aim at such a development of scientific and industrial research as will place us in a position to expand and strengthen our industries and to compete successfully with the most highly organized of our rivals.

¹ Ministry of Reconstruction. A list of commissions and committees set up to deal with questions which will arise at the close of the war. Cd. 8616. (London, 1918.)

The scope of the department's activities is to consider—

(1) Proposals for instituting scientific researches; (2) proposals for establishing or developing special institutions or departments of existing institutions for the scientific study of problems affecting particular industries and trades; (3) the establishment and award of research studentships and fellowships.

The department has begun active cooperation with scientific societies, institutions, trades, and industries, and has already stimulated the establishment of research associations maintained by local industries either independently or in cooperation with local universities. The task devolving as a consequence upon members of the department is thus described in the scheme under which the original committee and advisory council were established:

A large part of their work will be that of examining, selecting, combining, and coordinating, rather than of originating. One of the chief functions will be the prevention of overlapping between institutions or individuals engaged in research. They will, on the other hand, be at liberty to institute inquiries preliminary to preparing or eliciting proposals for useful research, and in this way they may help to concentrate on problems requiring solution the interest of all persons concerned in the development of all branches of scientific industry.

The establishment of the department represents the realization of some of the proposals and recommendations made by the committee to inquire into the position of natural science.

Associated with this movement is the report of the subcommittee on relations between employers and employed on joint standing industrial councils (Cd. 8606, 1917). This report, more generally known as the Whitley Committee Report, is not directly educational, but in its development it will exercise a tremendous influence in expanding the scope of education for the working classes. The committee recommends the establishment of national, district, and works committees or councils, consisting of representatives of employers and employees, and of the associations of the former and trades-unions of the latter.

The object is to secure cooperation by granting to workpeople a greater share in the consideration of matters affecting their industry, and this can only be achieved by keeping employers and workpeople in constant touch.

Among some of the questions that the committee suggests for the consideration of such councils are (1) the better utilization of the practical knowledge and experience of workpeople; (2) technical training and education; (3) industrial research and the full utilization of the results; (4) the provision of facilities for the full consideration and utilization of inventions and improvements designed by workpeople, and for adequate safeguarding of the rights of designers of such improvements; and (5) improvements of processes,

machinery, and organization and appropriate questions referring to the management and the examination of industrial experiments, with special reference to cooperation in carrying new ideas into effect and full consideration of the point of view of the employees with reference to them. The educational implications are obvious. If the working classes are to avail themselves of the new position with which they will be endowed by the establishment of councils, they must also avail themselves of all the educational opportunities that the Nation can put at their disposal. The burden is thus placed finally on the Nation to provide as extensive facilities as possible to equip every boy and girl for the new industrial conditions. Many industrial councils have already been established, and for educational administration it is significant that teachers are demanding the setting up of joint councils representing the active teaching profession and the education committees that employ them.

Finally, it would be equally impossible to leave out of an account of the social background that led up to the education act reference to the passing of the Representation of the People Act early in 1918, which extends the franchise to about two million additional male and six million new female voters. It is estimated that the numbers of persons qualified under the act to vote is about one-third of the population, or about ten million men and six million women. At the same time the university franchise has been extended and the number of seats in the House of Commons raised by redistribution from 670 to 707. Again, as throughout the nineteenth century, every extension of the franchise has been followed, very closely in the present case, by an extension of educational opportunities. It is inevitable that the evolution of political democracy should be accompanied by the expansion of a democratic system of education, for "the same logic which leads us to desire an extension of the franchise points also to an extension of education."

By the close of 1916 the stage was set for the introduction of the proposals for educational reconstruction. The problem had been canvassed from every direction and every point of view. The mental attitude that then separated the ultimate conception of the problem from the conception of the education problem in 1902 and 1906 could hardly be measured by the number of years that separated the two periods. The denominational question has, as Lord Haldane had predicted earlier, vanished in comparison with the really vital problems; the nation was united in conceiving the task of educational reform in the terms so appropriately set forth by the departmental committee on juvenile education in relation to employment after the war.

Any inquiry into education at the present juncture is big with issues of national fate. In the great work of reconstruction which lies ahead there are

aims to be set before us which will try, no less searchingly than war itself, the temper and enduring qualities of our race; and in the realization of each and all of these, education, with its stimulus and its discipline, must be our stand-by. We have to perfect the civilization for which our men have shed their blood and our women their tears; to establish new standards of value in our judgment of what makes life worth living, more wholesome and more restrained ideals of behavior and recreation, finer traditions of cooperation and kindly fellowship between class and class and between man and man. We have to restore the natural relations between the folk and the soil from which the folk derives its sustenance, to revivify with fresh scientific methods and better economic conditions the outworn practice of our agriculture, to learn over again that there is no greater public benefactor than the man who makes two ears of corn to grow where but one grew before. We have to bring research to bear upon the processes of our manufactures, to overhaul routine and eliminate waste, to carry our reputation for skillful workmanship and honest and intelligent trafficking into new markets and to maintain it in the old. These are tasks for a nation of trained character and robust physique, a nation alert to the things of the spirit, reverential of knowledge, reverential of its teachers, and generous in its estimate of what the production and maintenance of good teachers inevitably cost. Whether we are to be such a nation must now depend largely upon the will of those who have fought for us, and upon the conception which they have come to form of what education can do in the building up and glorifying of national life. For ourselves, we are content to leave it to that arbitrament.

The recommendations of this committee were generally accepted as furnishing the framework for the educational legislation that was expected. (See p. 23.)

It was under these conditions that Mr. H. A. L. Fisher was appointed president of the Board of Education in December, 1916. His appointment was greeted with universal approval. It was an appointment in which mere political considerations were subordinated to the great needs of the hour and of the office. In Mr. Fisher's nomination the presidency of the Board of Education was filled by a man eminently equipped for the position, and not by a rising politician for whom the Board of Education was to serve merely as a temporary stepping stone on the road to higher office. Mr. Fisher combines distinction, as a scholar in his chosen field of history with an interest in popular education. His fellowship at New College, Oxford, had given him an experience with the problems of higher education that he was beginning to apply to the needs of one of the youngest universities. As vice-chancellor of the University of Sheffield he was inevitably brought into touch with needs and the demands of popular education. His grasp of the task to which he was called was strengthened by membership on a number of the commissions and committees to which reference has been made. The confidence of the country in his ability to carry out the task to a successful conclusion was soon to be justified by Mr. Fisher's success in presenting the problem to Parliament and to the country, and by his

adroit handling of all the obstacles and difficulties that stood in his way in spite of the readiness of the country for the reform proposals.

Mr. Fisher at once addressed himself to the solution of the problem intrusted to him. In February, 1917, he issued a stirring appeal, *Sursun Corda*, to the teachers of the country, in which he reminded them that:

The proclamation of peace and victory in the field will summon us not to complacent repose, but to greater efforts for a more enduring victory. The future welfare of the Nation depends upon its schools.

On April 19, 1917, he had an opportunity of testing the new faith of the country in education, when he introduced the education estimates in the House of Commons. The task of demanding from Parliament an increase for 1917-18 of more than \$19,000,000 over the estimate for the previous year, was one that would have deterred a parliamentarian of longer experience than Mr. Fisher, but the Parliament of a country that was then spending about \$35,000,000 a day on the work of destruction could not well refuse its consent to increased estimates for education.

So that the foundations may be laid for a fabric of national education worthy of the genius and heroism of our people and a fitting monument of the great impulse which is animating the whole nation during the war.

The chief part of the increase was to be devoted to securing "the first condition of educational advance," the better payment of teachers, to the importance of which Mr. Fisher referred in the words:

I do not expect the teaching profession to offer great material rewards—that is impossible; but I do regard it as essential to a good scheme of education that teachers should be relieved from perpetual financial anxieties, and that those teachers who marry should be able to look forward to rearing a family in respectable conditions. An anxious and depressed teacher is a bad teacher; an embittered teacher is a social danger.

In the course of his speech Mr. Fisher foreshadowed the nature of the bill that he was shortly to introduce:

The object which we are all striving to attain is very simple. We do not want to waste a single child. We desire that every child in the country should receive the form of education most adapted to fashion its qualities to the highest use. This will mean that every type and grade of school in the country must be properly coordinated. It will mean that the county authorities, either separately or combined together in provincial committees, should make complete and progressive schemes for education in their respective areas, so that adequate and systematic provision may be made not only for the elementary, but also for technical, commercial and secondary education of the children in the district.

The unanimity with which the increased expenditure for education was received prepared the way for the education bill, which Mr. Fisher introduced on August 10, 1917. "The bill," said Mr. Fisher, "is prompted by deficiencies which have been revealed by the war;

it is framed to repair the intellectual wastage which has been caused by the war."

Into the details of the bill it is unnecessary to go; the causes of opposition to it are given in another section. But its introduction afforded Mr. Fisher another opportunity of declaring his educational faith. Striking throughout was his appreciation of the views of the leaders of the labor world:

I notice also that a new way of thinking about education has sprung up among more reflecting members of our industrial army. They do not want education in order that they may rise out of their own class, always a vulgar ambition; they want it because they know that, in the treasures of the mind, they can find an aid to good citizenship, a source of pure enjoyment, and a refuge from the necessary hardships of a life spent in the midst of clanging machinery in our hideous cities of toll.

The conclusion of his speech furnishes an admirable summary of the newly born recognition of the place of education in the national life:

We assume that education is one of the good things of life which should be more widely shared than has hitherto been the case amongst the children and young persons of the country. We assume that education should be the education of the whole man, spiritually, intellectually, and physically, and that it is not beyond the resources of civilization to devise a scheme of education possessing certain common qualities, but admitting at the same time of large variation from which the whole youth of the country, male and female, may derive benefit. We assume that the principles upon which well-to-do parents proceed in the education of their families are valid also, *mutatis mutandis*, for the families of the poor; that the State has need to secure for its juvenile population conditions under which mind, body, and character may be harmoniously developed. We feel also that in the existing circumstances the life of the rising generation can only be protected against the injurious effects of industrial pressure by a further measure of State compulsion. But we argue that the compulsion proposed in this bill will be no sterilizing restriction of wholesome liberty, but an essential condition of a larger and more enlightened freedom, which will tend to stimulate civic spirit, to promote general culture and technical knowledge, and to diffuse a sterner judgment and a better informed opinion through the whole body of the community.

The closing months of the year were spent by Mr. Fisher in touring the country, particularly the manufacturing centers, for purposes of propaganda. Many employers had still to be won over to the idea of compulsory continuation schools; and much opposition had developed against the bill among those concerned with the administration of education. Deputations had to be met, compromises considered, and the bill so amended that it would in effect become an accepted bill on its introduction. The first bill was withdrawn in January of 1918, and a new one took its place, with the elimination of those features to which objections had been raised. In introducing the second reading of the new bill on March 14, 1918, Mr. Fisher continued to maintain the high standards of statesmanship that

marked his speeches on the first bill. His final plea for the passage of the bill will probably rank as the clearest and most far-sighted analysis of England's need for educational reform that has been made in the course of the last four years:

The broad question before the House is whether the education provided for the general mass of our young citizens is adequate to our needs. We have been asking them to fight and work for their country, we have been asking them to die for their country, to economize for their country, to go short of food for their country, to work overtime for their country, to abandon trade-union rules for their country, to be patient while towns are bombed from enemy aircraft, and finally after family is plunged in domestic sorrow. We have now decided to enfranchise for the first time the women of this country. I ask then whether the education which is given to the great mass of our young citizens is adequate to the new, serious, and enduring liabilities which the development of this great world war created for our Empire, or to the new civic burdens which we are imposing upon millions of our peoples. I say it is not adequate. I believe it is our duty here and now to improve our system of education, and I hold that, if we allow our vision to be blurred by a catalogue of passing inconveniences, we shall not only lose a golden opportunity, but fall in our great trust to posterity.

These words furnished a fitting climax to the campaign of nearly four years to change the opinion of a country from apathetic indifference to education to the stage where almost the only criticisms of the act which stands to Mr. Fisher's credit come from those who feel that it does not go far enough.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE EDUCATION ACT, 1918.¹

By the enactment on August 8 of the Fisher education bill the first step has been made toward the realization of the program of social and economic reconstruction that is to follow the war in England. For the reform of the English educational system, and of the Scottish system which is being provided for separately (see pp. 110ff), is but part of the larger task that has been intrusted to such bodies as the Ministry of Reconstruction or the Department on Scientific and Industrial Research. Without the sound foundations laid in the earlier years of school life, any recommendations that such bodies may make on adult education, public health, physical training, unemployment, juvenile employment and apprenticeship, or cooperation between science and industry would inevitably remain nothing more than pious hopes. Educational reform in England today is also inevitably associated with the recent extension of the franchise, and indirectly will have some bearing on the recommendations of the Whitley committee. Nor can the act be considered apart from the administrative changes already made by the Board

¹ This section, with the exception of some additions, appeared in the Educational Review, December, 1918, and is here reprinted by the courtesy of the editor.

of Education, such as the regulations for advanced courses and examinations in secondary schools, from the Superannuation Act passed in November, 1918, or apart from departmental reports such as those on salaries for elementary and secondary school teachers, on the teaching of modern languages, or on the position of natural science in the schools. The quickened recognition by the public of the essential function of education in national life must also be taken into account as one of the assets for the future. Public interest and support have acquired an impetus from the conditions and realizations arising out of the war that has made possible such educational progress within one year as could in normal times not have been achieved in less than a generation. The sacrifices and public burdens undertaken by teachers of all grades throughout the country have given them a repute and status that they have not hitherto enjoyed, and it will result in substantial improvement of their material position. The outlook of the local educational authorities has also been deeply affected by the urgent necessity of giving much closer attention than ever before to the educational problems under adverse conditions. Finally, although little is as yet known about its effects, the educational activities undertaken with the army will undoubtedly have a healthy reaction on that public opinion without which educational progress is impossible.

It is too often forgotten in recent discussions of English education that the train for "a comprehensive and progressive improvement of the educational system" had already been laid before the war in the budget speech of the Chancellor of the Exchequer on May 4, 1914. The act accordingly does not constitute a revolution in English education. It represents the normal development whose evolution has been hastened by the favorable conditions already described. After the satisfactory reception of the estimates for the Board of Education, introduced by Mr. Fisher in April, 1917, and calling for an increase of more than \$18,000,000 over the estimates of the previous financial year, the passage of an education bill to meet the new demands, as formulated by numerous education authorities and associations of lay and professional men and women, was a foregone conclusion. Mr. Fisher's first essay, however, a bill which he introduced in August, 1917, was from the first condemned to failure because it exceeded these suggestions and recommendations and because it was suspected of being an attempt to conceal a scheme for centralized control over education, behind a large number of measures otherwise acceptable. While the country was ready and willing to surrender its rights to the National Government in the interests of the conduct of the war, it did not show itself so amenable in accepting what might prove to be a bureaucratic and centralized system of educational

administration for all time. The education authorities were up in arms against the administrative measures and indicated in no uncertain terms their refusal to countenance any education bill at all that threatened their liberties or might interfere with local initiative and variety. In every case the administrative discretion of the Board of Education has been surrounded by limitations. Clause 4 of the first bill, which gave the board the final word in the approval or rejection of schemes submitted by the local education authorities, now becomes clause 5, and a definite procedure has been established in cases of conflict between a local education authority and the board, with final power vested in Parliament. The old clause 5, which provided for the combination of local areas into provincial associations in accordance with Lord Haldane's proposals, has been dropped altogether, and the same fate met the old clause 29, which would have permitted the board to transfer the smaller to larger educational areas. Clause 38 in the original bill also disappears and with it any danger that the board would become the final authority in cases of dispute with local authorities. Finally, the old clause 40 now becomes clause 44, and the indefinite provisions for national grants to education are replaced by a definite undertaking that these shall amount to not less than one-half of the local expenditure. A few additions and amendments have been made, in each case extending rather than limiting the powers of local authorities.

The general structure of the educational system remains the same as under the provisions of the Education Act of 1902,¹ that is, the responsible authorities for elementary and higher education consist of counties and county borough councils, and for elementary education of the councils of noncounty boroughs and urban districts. The relation of the Board of Education to the local education authorities continues as hitherto with the broad exception that it now has the power of approving or rejecting schemes "for the progressive development and comprehensive organization of education" that may be submitted to it by the local education authorities. In cases of conflict between the board and a local authority the act provides for a conference or public inquiry, and in the last resort the submission of a report to Parliament, with reasons for any action taken by the board. The grants from the national exchequer have been consolidated and will in the future be dependent on the approval by the board of such progressive and comprehensive schemes of education in a local area. The act abolishes the fee, the aid, and the small population grants, and provides that the consolidated grant shall be not less than one-half of the expenditure of a local authority. By this means the board will have the power of requiring, among other

¹ For a detailed statement see Kandel, I. L. Elementary Education in England. U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1913, No. 57.

things, the efficient administration of school attendance, the satisfactory provision of elementary continuation and secondary schools, the maintenance of adequate and suitable teaching staffs, and the provision of adequate systems of medical inspection and treatment. For the first time in the history of English education the national authorities are placed by the act in a position to secure full information as to the provision of education throughout the country, the responsibility of furnishing such information being placed upon the schools. Under other provisions the board is empowered on request to inspect schools not already on its grant list and with local education authorities to inspect schools that desire to qualify as efficient for the purposes of securing exemptions from attendance at public elementary or continuation schools. The effect of these measures, combined with the indirect influence of the qualifications required of teachers for registration with the Teachers' Registration Council, will have an incalculable effect in raising the standards of private schools, and at the same time safeguarding their status. Room will thus be found under the national system for public and private schools, schools established and maintained entirely by the public authorities, and nonprovided schools, or those established by denominational bodies but maintained out of public funds. Such a scheme under the wise direction and advice of the Board of Education will secure that variety and initiative on which the English system is founded, while the new method of allocating grants will furnish the necessary encouragement for the rapid expansion of the system. It is significant that for the first time in English history the act speaks of the development of a national system of public education. By bringing the private schools into more effective relations with public education England will present an example of a national system in which public and private effort cooperate to the larger end.

The responsibility for "the progressive development and comprehensive organization of education" is intrusted to the county authorities in all matters pertaining to elementary, secondary, and higher education. The noncounty boroughs and the urban districts have the same responsibility only in relation to elementary education, which is now considerably expanded in conception. Provision is made, however, for cooperation between the two types of authorities, and also for the federation of any two educational areas for cooperative purposes under joint bodies of managers, including teachers and representatives of universities. Under the extended powers of the act, education authorities now become the responsible authorities for the administration of the Employment of Children Act, 1903, the Prevention of Cruelty to Children Act, 1904, and the Children Act, 1908. Further, for the promotion of physical and social training, education authorities may maintain and equip holiday camps, centers

for recreation and physical training, playing fields, school baths, and swimming baths and other facilities in addition to the system of medical inspection and treatment. Finally, the limit hitherto imposed on the amount that could be raised by county authorities for secondary and higher education is removed. The duty is imposed on local education authorities to draft schemes for their areas after due consideration of existing facilities, public or private, and of the possible advantages of cooperation. Since the new system of grants will be based on the adequacy of a scheme as a whole, it will effectually check the development of schemes that are not comprehensive. Here again the Board of Education will act in an advisory capacity, and the responsibility for the development of local initiative and progress is placed on the local education authorities and so on the public in whose interests schools are maintained. The withholding of grants and the power of the board to conduct public inquiries, the reports of which may be laid before Parliament, are effective measures for dealing with recalcitrant authorities.

While the improvement of the administrative organization of education constitutes one of the purposes of the act, it is not in any way its main purpose. Primarily, the act represents the new democracy rising to a recognition of the function of education in preparing healthy, intelligent, and responsible citizens. The advancement of the physical welfare of the nation, with the promotion of educational opportunities, constitutes the chief objects of the act. As at the time of the South African War, so at this crisis, recruiting of soldiers has revealed the great extent of physical deficiencies in the country; at the same time a better chance for survival is to be furnished to every child in order to repair the physical wastage of the war. An already excellent system of school medical inspection and a developing system of medical treatment are extended by the act. In the schools for mothers training is given in prenatal care and the care of infant children. From the age of 2 to 5 or 6, children may attend nursery schools where attention will be devoted primarily to their "health, nourishment, and physical welfare." In the elementary schools the existing regulations for school medical inspection and treatment will apply, with the probability that more effective provision of the latter will be required under the procedure by schemes. By the provisions of the new act, local education authorities are empowered to extend this system of medical inspection and treatment to pupils in secondary and continuation schools maintained by them, and even in schools not aided by them, if so requested. Since the National Insurance Act applies to employed persons from the age of 16 up, the great majority of citizens in England and Wales will be under an effective system of medical supervision throughout their lives. At the same

time local authorities are required to ascertain the number of physically defective and epileptic children and make such provision for their education as they are already required to make for mental defectives under the Elementary Education (Defective and Epileptic Children) Acts, 1899 to 1914.

These measures for the prevention and cure of disease are supplemented by positive measures for the promotion of health, through physical training, which is to form an even more important part of the curriculum of elementary, continuation, and secondary schools than ever before. The power granted to authorities to supply or maintain holiday or school camps, centers and equipment for physical training, playing fields, school baths, school swimming baths, and "other facilities for social and physical training in the day or evening" has already been referred to. Before the passing of the act the Government had already inaugurated the practice of financially assisting local authorities in the appointment of play supervisors and in the maintenance of evening recreation centers. By these measures provision is made for social and moral training as well as physical. Mr. Fisher allayed the fear that an opportunity would be seized to expand physical training to cover military training. He agreed that—

It would be entirely inappropriate to take advantage of an education bill to introduce such a very radical alteration in our scheme of education as the introduction of compulsory military training in schools. So far as he knew their mind, the war office had no desire whatever to see military training in the continuation schools given to young people in this country. The interest of the war office was that young boys, when they reached the military age of 18, should be in fit physical condition. It was only after they had reached 18 that formal instruction under the war office began.

The control of child labor, which constitutes the greatest menace to physical welfare, is now placed in the hands of the education authorities. No child of school age will be permitted to be employed on any school day or on any day before 6 o'clock in the morning or after 8 o'clock in the evening or for more than two hours on Sunday. By an unfortunate concession, local authorities may by by-laws permit the employment of children over 12 for one hour before and one hour after school. Street trading by children is prohibited, and restrictions are placed around the employment of children on the stage and in certain factories and occupations. On the report of a school medical officer individual children may be prohibited from engaging in certain occupations that may be prejudicial to health or physical development or interfere with their obtaining the proper benefit from education.

In the matter of school attendance the act at one stroke removes all exemptions from attendance at public elementary schools, in

which fees are now entirely abolished, for children between the ages of 5 and 14, unless exemption is claimed on the ground of attendance at other schools that must be subject to inspection either by a local authority or the Board of Education. Thus is brought to a close controversy that has lasted nearly 30 years on the question of half-time attendance at school for children over 11 or 12 years of age. Where nursery schools are established, a local authority may permit attendance at these up to the age of 6 and transfer to the elementary schools at that age. Further, local authorities are empowered to enact by-laws requiring compulsory attendance at public elementary schools up to the age of 15 or, with the approval of the board, up to 16.

The act now extends the scope of the elementary schools by requiring the inclusion of practical instruction suitable to the ages, abilities, and requirements of the children and the organization of advanced instruction for the older or more intelligent children, who are not transferred to higher schools, by means of central schools and central or special classes. This provision means that children in the upper grades will not be required to waste what for many will be the last years of full-time education as the result of an antiquated definition of the term "elementary school." The act thus sets up what will virtually prove to be a system of intermediate education, with the right to exemption from attendance at continuation schools for children remaining until 16. The act does not define, nor did the debates bring out, the nature of the work that will be provided in the advanced courses, but the guess may be hazarded that they will follow the type already successfully inaugurated in the London central schools, and probably not unlike some of the schemes proposed for the junior high schools in this country.

For the present the question of providing free secondary schools is shelved, but local authorities are encouraged to provide a more adequate supply of secondary schools, with easier access to them, so that, in the words of the act, "children and young persons shall not be debarred from receiving the benefits of any form of education by which they are capable of profiting through inability to pay fees." The enlarged and enriched opportunities of education will consist not merely of an increase of free places to pupils from elementary schools and of scholarships, but also of the provision of maintenance allowances. Beyond the references already made the act does not deal with secondary schools, but the board has recently issued new regulations that will require the organization of advanced courses for pupils above the age of 16 who desire to specialize in classics, science, and mathematics, and modern languages. Up to the age of 16 it is intended that all pupils shall enjoy a general education with

due recognition of the claims of the classics, the sciences, and modern languages in a liberal education. Vocational preparation finds no place in the program, but will probably be provided in an extension of the number of junior and senior technical schools.

Up to this point Mr. Fisher encountered no difficulty in piloting his measure through the House of Commons. The storm center proved to be the provision for compulsory attendance at continuation schools for young persons between the ages of 14 and 18 for 8 hours a week for 40 weeks in the year between the hours of 7 in the morning and 8 in the evening. Employers are required not only to allow the time off necessary for attending school, but such additional time up to two hours as may be necessary to secure that a young person "is in a fit mental and bodily condition to receive full benefit from the attendance at school." The young person, his parents, and his employers may be liable to a fine if he fail to attend regularly. Exemptions from attendance are granted only to those who have attended a full-time day school to 16 or are in attendance at such school or are attending part-time continuation or "works" schools established by employers in connection with their factories and open to inspection by the board and the local education authority.

The chief opposition came from a small group of employers who feared that their supply of labor would be cut off. These were ready to suggest all kinds of compromises—half-time attendance for 20 hours a week between the ages of 14 and 16; special intensified and advanced courses for pupils between 12 and 14; and increased opportunities for secondary and university education for brighter pupils. But, as Mr. Fisher eloquently pointed out, "there is nothing sacrosanct itself about industry. The real interests of the State do not consist in the maintenance of this or that industry, but in the maintenance of the welfare of all its citizens."

To the surprise of the opposition, no less than of his supporters, Mr. Fisher agreed to postpone the full operation of the compulsory provision as it affects young persons between 16 and 18 for seven years from the appointed day, that is, the day on which the whole section is declared by the board to become operative. In addition he agreed to reduce the required attendance from 8 hours a week to 7 hours. The opposition was now satisfied, but many of the ardent supporters of the bill charged Mr. Fisher with betraying the cause. As a matter of fact Mr. Fisher has sacrificed nothing that he was not fully aware could be sacrificed. It is obvious that at this crisis, when the building of new schools is suspended, when the existing schools have the greatest difficulty in maintaining even a minimum supply of teachers, and when the industrial demands for labor are urgent, the full operation of the law would not have been pos-

sible. Mr. Fisher's compromise means that a start can soon be made and that the public will be educated to the full significance of the measure when the seven years are completed. A number of educational authorities and a number of the larger industrial establishments have already adopted schemes that have the approval of the board; thus disproving the contention that only the bare minimum required by Mr. Fisher's concession will be provided. The probability is that after seven years of experimentation local authorities will be ready to do more than the act requires.

As in the case of the advanced courses in elementary schools, the function of the continuation schools is broadly defined as schools "in which suitable courses of study, instruction, and physical training are provided without payment of fees." The provisions for social training and medical inspection will also apply to these schools. It is probable that the courses of study will be liberal and general in character. Indeed, guaranties were asked and assurances were given in the course of the debates that specific vocational training would not be given in these schools, but as Mr. Fisher pointed out:

It would not be to the interest of an educated democracy that there should be no connection between the education they were seeking in the schools and the lives they were to lead. At the same time he felt that education should be a great liberating force, that it should provide compensation against the gordid monotony which attached to so much of industrial life of the country by lifting the workers to a more elevated and pure atmosphere, and the board would be false to the purpose for which the bill was framed if it were to sanction a system in continuation schools in which due attention was not paid to the liberal aspects of education.

The attitude of the Workers' Education Association was somewhat the same in their declaration of a policy—

That the education in such schools should be directed solely toward the full development of the bodies, minds, and character of the pupils; that it should therefore be intimately related to the environment and interests of the pupils and should contain ample provision for physical well-being.

Under the freedom permitted by the procedure through schemes, considerable latitude will be permitted to local authorities to adapt the courses to local conditions. The vocations will no doubt furnish a starting point for such courses of instruction. The Report of the Departmental Committee on Juvenile Education¹ contains some suggestions on the organization of the curriculum of continuation schools. Instruction should in no case be too narrowly technical, and the curriculum should maintain a proper balance between the technical and humanistic elements, since the primary function of education is to prepare for citizenship. A four-year course should be divided into equal stages, of which the first will be mainly general,

¹ See pp. 227.

and the second technical and vocational. The common ground for all in the first stage should be English subjects, including not only literature but geography and social and industrial history. The remaining subjects should be mathematics, manual training, science, each varied to suit the needs and the occupational interests of the students, and physical training. Only in the second stage would the curriculum be definitely founded on the chief vocational groups—agriculture, engineering, building, mining, textiles, the technical industries, commercial occupations, and domestic occupations. But even in the second stage the committee urges that technical subjects might be included as a medium of education and not as a means of production. In general the emphasis should be placed on social, historical, and economic elements in the subjects adopted in both stages. Steps have already been taken, as, for example, at the University of Manchester, to furnish special courses for training teachers for continuation schools. For the present there is some danger that a false start may be made by appointing teachers whose sole experience has been in elementary or secondary schools. However that may be, the point that needs to be emphasized here is that the criticism that has been leveled against Mr. Fisher's compromise is not valid, and that the continuation school with compulsory attendance required up to the age of 18 will be an accomplished fact at the close of the seven years of the postponement. It is significant that this is the only point that has been subjected to serious criticism.

The true estimate of the act may be reached by comparing it with the suggestions and recommendations of the bodies referred to on pp. 70ff; those which have not been incorporated in the act can be provided for by the Board of Education by its administrative regulations; others look too far into the future. It must be borne in mind that the act is but a first step, giving local authorities power to expand their educational activities. However desirable such proposals may be, the time is not ripe for the abolition of fees in secondary schools and for establishing an entirely free system of higher education or for the payment by the State of grants equal to 75 per cent of the local expenditure on education or to require 20 hours' attendance a week at continuation schools. Other suggestions will probably never be adopted in England; it is unlikely, for example, that the State will assume the direct payment of teachers' salaries, and, as a consequence, the establishment of the teaching profession as a branch of the civil service; it is improbable too that teachers will be placed on education committees to any large extent, especially as joint councils may be set up under the Whitley committee's recommendations. Technical education, university education, adult education, and the training of teachers still remain problems that the Government must shortly

consider, but, important though they are, these problems are not such as could be legislated upon at the present crisis.

The act has been variously hailed as the children's charter and as the Nation's charter. Certainly it inaugurates a new era as embodying "the first real attempt ever made in this country (England) to lay broad and deep the foundations of a scheme of education which would be truly national." Of much greater significance for the future of English democracy is the fact that the act is an attempt to provide the foundations of an education for the great mass of young citizens which, to quote Mr. Fisher, is "adequate to the new, serious, and enduring liabilities which the development of this great world war creates for our Empire or to the new civic burdens which we are imposing upon millions of our people." But whatever the merits of the act may be, it should not escape attention that the English Government and the English people did not consider it incompatible with the successful conduct of the war to divert some attention to the more pressing domestic problems of the present and the immediate future. Education is but part of the broader program for reconstruction after the war that is already being considered in England and whose scope is defined in the following words by the war cabinet in its report for 1917:

It is, indeed, becoming more and more apparent, that reconstruction is not so much a question of rebuilding society as it was before the war, but of molding a better world out of the social and economic conditions which have come into being during the war.

EDUCATION ACT, 1918.

[8 and 9 Geo. 5. Ch. 39.]

ARRANGEMENT OF SECTIONS.

National System of Public Education.

Sec.

1. Progressive and comprehensive organization of education.
2. Development of education in public elementary schools.
3. Establishment of continuation schools.
4. Preparation and submission of schemes.
5. Approval of schemes by Board of Education.
6. Provisions as to cooperation and combination.
7. Provision as to amount of expenditure for education.

Attendance at School and Employment of Children and Young Persons.

8. Provisions as to attendance at elementary schools.
9. Provisions for avoidance of broken school terms.
10. Compulsory attendance at continuation schools.
11. Enforcement of attendance at continuation schools.
12. Administrative provisions relating to continuation schools.
13. Amendment of 3 Edw. 7, c. 45, and 4 Edw. 7, c. 15.
14. Prohibition against employment of children in factories, workshops, mines, and quarries.
15. Further restrictions on employment of children.
16. Penalties on illegal employment of children and young persons.

Extension of Powers and Duties.

17. Power to promote social and physical training.
18. Medical inspection of schools and educational institutions.

Sec.

19. Nursery schools.
20. Education of physically defective and epileptic children.
21. Powers for the education of children in exceptional circumstances.
22. Amendment of Education (Choice of Employment) Act, 1910.
23. Power to aid research.
24. Provision of maintenance allowances.
25. Provisions as to medical treatment.

Abolition of Fees in Public Elementary Schools.

26. Abolition of fees in public elementary schools.

Administrative Provisions.

27. Voluntary inspection of schools.
28. Collection of information respecting schools.
29. Provisions with respect to appointment of certain classes of teachers.
30. Provisions as to closing of schools.
31. Grouping of nonprovided schools of the same denominational character.
32. Provisions relating to central schools and classes.
33. Saving for certain statutory provisions.
34. Acquisition of land by local education authority.
35. Power to provide elementary schools outside area.
36. Amendments with respect to the allocation of expenses to particular areas.
37. Provisions as to expenses of Provisional Orders, etc.
38. Expenses of education meetings, conferences, etc.
39. Power to pay expenses of prosecution for cruelty.
40. Public inquiries by Board of Education.
41. Inspection of minutes.
42. Payments to the Central Welsh Board.
43. Evidence of certificates, etc., issued by local education authorities.

Education Grants.

44. Education grants.

Educational Trusts.

45. Power to constitute official trustees of educational trust property.
46. Exemption of assurance of property for educational purposes from certain restrictions under the Mortmain Acts.
47. Appointment of new trustees under scheme.

General.

48. Definitions.
49. Compensation to existing officers.
50. Extension of certain provisions of the education acts.
51. Repeals.
52. Short title, construction, extent, and commencement.

CHAPTER 39.

An Act to make further provision with respect to education in England and Wales and for purposes connected therewith. [8th August 1918.]

Be it enacted by the King's most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:

National System of Public Education.

1. With a view to the establishment of a national system of public education available for all persons capable of profiting thereby, it shall be the duty of the council of every county and county borough, so far as their powers extend, to contribute thereto, by providing for the progressive development and com-

prehensive organization of education in respect of their area, and with that object any such council from time to time may, and shall when required by the Board of Education, submit to the board schemes showing the mode in which their duties and powers under the education acts are to be performed and exercised, whether separately or in cooperation with other authorities.

2. (1) It shall be the duty of a local education authority so to exercise their powers under Part III of the Education Act, 1902, as—

(a) To make, or otherwise to secure, adequate and suitable provision by means of central schools, central or special classes, or otherwise—

(i) For including in the curriculum of public elementary schools, at appropriate stages, practical instruction suitable to the ages, abilities, and requirements of the children; and

(ii) For organizing in public elementary schools courses of advanced instruction for the older or more-intelligent children in attendance at such schools, including children who stay at such schools beyond the age of 14;

(b) To make, or otherwise to secure, adequate and suitable arrangements under the provisions of paragraph (b) of subsection (1) of section 13 of the Education (Administrative Provisions) Act, 1907, for attending to the health and physical condition of children educated in public elementary schools; and

(c) To make, or otherwise to secure, adequate and suitable arrangements for cooperating with local education authorities for the purposes of Part II of the Education Act, 1902, in matters of common interest, and particularly in respect of—

(i) The preparation of children for further education in schools other than elementary, and their transference at suitable ages to such schools; and

(ii) The supply and training of teachers;

and any such authority from time to time may, and shall when required by the Board of Education, submit to the board schemes for the exercise of their powers as an authority for the purposes of Part III of the Education Act, 1902.

(2) So much of the definition of the term "elementary school" in section three of the Elementary Education Act, 1870, as requires that elementary education shall be the principal part of the education there given, shall not apply to such courses of advanced instruction as aforesaid.

3. (1) It shall be the duty of the local education authority for the purposes of Part II of the Education Act, 1902, either separately or in cooperation with other local education authorities, to establish and maintain, or secure the establishment and maintenance under their control and direction, of a sufficient supply of continuation schools in which suitable courses of study, instruction, and physical training are provided without payment of fees for all young persons resident in their area who are, under this act, under an obligation to attend such schools.

(2) For the purposes aforesaid the local education authority from time to time may, and shall when required by the Board of Education, submit to the board schemes for the progressive organization of a system of continuation schools, and for securing general and regular attendance thereat, and in preparing schemes under this section the local education authority shall have regard to the desirability of including therein arrangements for cooperation with universities in the provision of lectures and classes for scholars for whom instruction by such means is suitable.

(3) The council of any county shall, if practicable, provide for the inclusion of representatives of education authorities for the purposes of Part III of the Education Act, 1902, in any body of managers of continuation schools within the area of those authorities.

4. (1) The council of any county, before submitting a scheme under this act, shall consult the other authorities within their county (if any) who are authorities for the purposes of Part III of the Education Act, 1902, with reference to the mode in which and the extent to which any such authority will cooperate with the council in carrying out their scheme, and when submitting their scheme shall make a report to the Board of Education as to the cooperation which is to be anticipated from any such authority, and any such authority may, if they so desire, submit to the board as well as to the council of the county any proposals or representations relating to the provision or organization of education in the area of that authority for consideration in connection with the scheme of the county.

(2) Before submitting schemes under this act a local education authority shall consider any representations made to them by parents or other persons or bodies of persons interested, and shall adopt such measures to ascertain their views as they consider desirable, and the authority shall take such steps to give publicity to their proposals as they consider suitable, or as the Board of Education may require.

(3) A local education authority in preparing schemes under this act shall have regard to any existing supply of efficient and suitable schools or colleges not provided by local education authorities, and to any proposals to provide such schools or colleges.

(4) In schemes under this act adequate provision shall be made in order to secure that children and young persons shall not be debarred from receiving the benefits of any form of education by which they are capable of profiting through inability to pay fees.

5. (1) The Board of Education may approve any scheme (which term shall include an interim, provisional, or amending scheme) submitted to them under this act by a local education authority, and thereupon it shall be the duty of the local education authority to give effect to the scheme.

(2) If the Board of Education are of opinion that a scheme does not make adequate provision in respect of all or any of the purposes to which the scheme relates, and the board are unable to agree with the authority as to what amendments should be made in the scheme, they shall offer to hold a conference with the representatives of the authority and, if requested by the authority, shall hold a public inquiry in the matter.

(3) If thereafter the Board of Education disapprove a scheme, they shall notify the authority, and, if within one month after such notification an agreement is not reached, they shall lay before Parliament the report of the public inquiry (if any) together with a report stating their reasons for such disapproval and any action which they intend to take in consequence thereof by way of withholding or reducing any grants payable to the authority.

6. (1) For the purpose of performing any duty or exercising any power under the Education acts, a council having powers under those acts may enter into such arrangements as they think proper for cooperation or consultation, with any other council or councils having such powers, and any such arrangement may provide for the appointment of a joint committee or a joint body of managers, for the delegation to that committee or body of managers of any powers or duties of the councils (other than the power of raising a rate or borrowing money), for the proportion of contributions to be paid by each coun-

ell. and for any other matters which appear necessary for carrying out the arrangement.

(2) The Board of Education may, on the application of two or more councils having powers under the education acts, by scheme provide for the establishment and (if thought fit) the incorporation of a federation for such purposes of any such arrangements as aforesaid as may be specified in the scheme as being purposes relating to matters of common interest concerning education which it is necessary or convenient to consider in relation to areas larger than those of individual education authorities, and the powers conferred on councils by this section shall include power to arrange for the performance, of any educational or administrative functions by such a federation as if it were a joint committee or a joint body of managers: *Provided*, That no council shall without its consent be included in a scheme establishing a federation, and no council shall be obliged to continue in a federation except in accordance with the provisions of a scheme to which it has consented.

(3) A scheme made by the Board of Education constituting a federation, and an arrangement establishing a joint committee or a joint body of managers, shall provide for the appointment of at least two-thirds of the members by councils having powers under the education acts, and may provide either directly or by cooperation for the inclusion of teachers or other persons of experience in education and of representatives of universities or other bodies.

(4) A scheme constituting a federation may on the application of one or more of the councils concerned be modified or repealed by a further scheme, and, where a scheme provides for the discontinuance of a federation, provision may be made for dealing with any property or liabilities of the federation.

(5) Where any arrangement under this section provides for the payment of an annual contribution by one council to another, the contribution shall, for the purposes of section 19 of the Education Act, 1902, form part of the security on which money may be borrowed under that section.

7. The limit under section 2 of the Education Act, 1902, on the amount to be raised by the council of a county out of rates for the purpose of education other than elementary shall cease to have effect.

Attendance at School and Employment of Children and Young Persons.

8. (1) Subject as provided in this act, no exemption from attendance at school shall be granted to any child between the ages of 5 and 14 years, and any enactment giving a power, or imposing a duty, to provide for any such exemption, and any provision of a by-law providing for any such exemption, shall cease to have effect, without prejudice to any exemptions already granted. Any by-law which names a lower age than 14 as the age up to which a parent shall cause his child to attend school shall have effect as if the age of 14 were substituted for that lower age.

(2) In section 74 of the Elementary Education Act, 1876, as amended by section 6 of the Elementary Education Act, 1900, 15 years shall be substituted for 14 years as the maximum age up to which by-laws relating to school attendance may require parents to cause their children to attend school, and any such by-law requiring attendance at school of children between the ages of 14 and 15 may apply either generally to all such children, or to children other than those employed in any specified occupations: *Provided*, That it shall be lawful for a local education authority to grant exemption from the obligation to attend school to individual children between the ages of 14 and 15 for such time and upon such conditions as the authority think fit in any case where after due inquiry the circumstances seem to justify such an exemption.

(3) It shall not be a defense to proceedings relating to school attendance under the education acts or any by-laws made thereunder that a child is attending a school or institution providing efficient elementary instruction unless the school or institution is open to inspection either by the local education authority or by the Board of Education, and unless satisfactory registers are kept of the attendance of the scholars thereat.

(4) A local education authority may with the approval of the Board of Education make a by-law under section 74 of the Elementary Education Act, 1870, providing that parents shall not be required to cause their children to attend school or to receive efficient elementary instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic before the age of 6 years: *Provided*, That in considering any such by-law the board shall have regard to the adequacy of the provision of nursery schools for the area to which the by-law relates, and shall, if requested by any 10 parents of children attending public elementary schools for that area, hold a public inquiry for the purpose of determining whether the by-law should be approved.

(5) Notwithstanding anything in the education acts the Board of Education may, on the application of the local education authority, authorize the instruction of children in public elementary schools till the end of the school term in which they reach the age of 16 or (in special circumstances) such later age as appears to the board desirable: *Provided*, That, in considering such application, the board shall have regard to the adequacy of the provision of nursery schools for the area to which under paragraphs (a) and (c) of subsection (1) of section 2 of this act and to the effective development and organization of all forms of education in the area, and to any representations made by the managers of schools.

(6) The power of a local education authority under section 7 of the Education Act, 1902, to give directions as to secular instruction shall include the power to direct that any child in attendance at a public elementary school shall attend during such hours as may be directed by the authority at any class, whether conducted on the school premises or not, for the purpose of practical or special instruction or demonstration, and attendance at such a class shall, where the local education authority so direct, be deemed for the purpose of any enactment or by-law relating to school attendance to be attendance at a public elementary school: *Provided*, That, if by reason of any such direction a child is prevented on any day from receiving religious instruction in the school at the ordinary time mentioned in the timetable, reasonable facilities shall be afforded, subject to the provisions of section 7 of the Elementary Education Act, 1870, for enabling such child to receive religious instruction in the school at some other time.

(7) In section 11 of the Elementary Education Act, 1870 (which relates to school attendance), for the words "there is not within 2 miles" there shall be substituted the words "there is not within such distance as may be prescribed by the by-laws."

(8) Nothing in this section shall affect the provisions of the Elementary Education (Blind and Deaf Children) Act, 1803, or the Elementary Education (Defective and Epileptic Children) Acts, 1800 to 1914, relating to the attendance at school of the children to whom those acts apply.

9. (1) If a child who is attending or is about to attend a public elementary school or a school certified by the Board of Education under the Elementary Education (Blind and Deaf Children) Act, 1803, or the Elementary Education (Defective and Epileptic Children) Acts, 1800 to 1914, attains any year of age during the school term, the child shall not, for the purpose of any enactment or

by-law, whether made before or after the passing of this act, relating to school attendance, be deemed to have attained that year of age until the end of the term.

(2) The local education authority for the purposes of Part III of the Education Act, 1902, may make regulations with the approval of the Board of Education providing that a child may, in such cases as are prescribed by the regulations, be refused admission to a public elementary school or such certified school as aforesaid (except at the commencement of a school term).

10. (1) Subject as hereinafter provided, all young persons shall attend such continuation schools at such times, on such days, as the local education authority of the area in which they reside may require, for 320 hours in each year, distributed as regards times and seasons as may best suit the circumstances of each locality, or, in the case of a period of less than a year, for such number of hours distributed as aforesaid as the local education authority, having regard to all the circumstances, consider reasonable: *Provided, That—*

(a) The obligation to attend continuation schools shall not, within a period of seven years from the appointed day on which the provisions of this section come into force, apply to young persons between the ages of 16 and 18, nor after that period to any young person who has attained the age of 16 before the expiration of that period; and

(b) During the like period, if the local education authority so resolve, the number of hours for which a young person may be required to attend continuation schools in any year shall be 280 instead of 320.

(2) Any young person—

(i) Who is above the age of 14 years on the appointed day; or

(ii) Who has satisfactorily completed a course of training for, and is engaged in, the sea service, in accordance with the provisions of any national scheme which may hereafter be established, by Order in Council or otherwise, with the object of maintaining an adequate supply of well-trained British seamen, or, pending the establishment of such scheme, in accordance with the provisions of any interim scheme approved by the Board of Education; or

(iii) Who is above the age of 16 years and either—

(a) Has passed the matriculation examination of a university of the United Kingdom or an examination recognized by the Board of Education for the purposes of this section as equivalent thereto; or

(b) Is shown to the satisfaction of the local education authority to have been up to the age of 16 under full-time instruction in a school recognized by the Board of Education as efficient or under suitable and efficient full-time instruction in some other manner,

shall be exempt from the obligation to attend continuation schools under this act unless he has informed the authority in writing of his desire to attend such schools and the authority have prescribed what school he shall attend.

(3) The obligation to attend continuation schools under this act shall not apply to any young person—

(1) Who is shown to the satisfaction of the local education authority to be under full-time instruction in a school recognized by the Board of Education as efficient or to be under suitable and efficient full-time instruction in some other manner; or

(ii) Who is shown to the satisfaction of the local education authority to be under suitable and efficient part-time instruction in some other manner for a number of hours in the year (being hours during which if not exempted he might be required to attend continuation schools) equal to the number of hours during which a young person is required under this act to attend a continuation school.

(4) Where a school supplying secondary education is inspected by a British university, or in Wales or Monmouthshire by the Central Welsh Board, under regulations made by the inspecting body after consultation with the Board of Education, and the inspecting body reports to the Board of Education that the school makes satisfactory provision for the education of the scholars, a young person who is attending, or has attended, such a school shall for the purposes of this section be treated as if he were attending, or had attended, a school recognized by the Board of Education as efficient.

(5) If a young person who is or has been in any school or educational institution, or the parent of any such young person, represents to the board that the young person is entitled to exemption under the provisions of this section, or that the obligation imposed by this section does not apply to him, by reason that he is or has been under suitable and efficient instruction, but that the local education authority have unreasonably refused to accept the instruction as satisfactory, the Board of Education shall consider the representation, and, if satisfied that the representation is well founded, shall make an order declaring that the young person is exempt from the obligation to attend a continuation school under this act for such period and subject to such conditions as may be named in the order: *Provided*, That the Board of Education may refuse to consider any such representation unless the local education authority or the Board of Education are enabled to inspect the school or educational institution in which the instruction is or has been given.

(6) The local education authority may require, in the case of any young person who is under an obligation to attend a continuation school, that his employment shall be suspended on any day when his attendance is required, not only during the period for which he is required to attend the school, but also for such other specified part of the day, not exceeding two hours, as the authority consider necessary in order to secure that he may be in a fit mental and bodily condition to receive full benefit from attendance at the school: *Provided*, That if any question arises between the local education authority and the employer of a young person whether a requirement made under this subsection is reasonable for the purposes aforesaid, that question shall be determined by the Board of Education, and if the Board of Education determine that the requirement is unreasonable, they may substitute such other requirement as they think reasonable.

(7) The local education authority shall not require any young person to attend a continuation school on a Sunday, or on any day or part of a day exclusively set apart for religious observance by the religious body to which he belongs, or during any holiday or half holiday to which by any enactment regulating his employment or by agreement he is entitled, nor so far as practicable during any holiday or half holiday which in his employment he is accustomed to enjoy, nor between the hours of 7 in the evening and 8 in the morning: *Provided*, That the local education authority may, with the approval of the board, vary those hours in the case of young persons employed at night or otherwise employed at abnormal times.

(8) A local education authority shall not, without the consent of a young person, require him to attend any continuation school held at or in connection with the place of his employment. The consent given by a young person for the purpose of this provision may be withdrawn by one month's notice in writing sent to the employer and to the local education authority.

Any school attended by a young person at or in connection with the place of his employment shall be open to inspection either by the local education

authority or by the Board of Education at the option of the person or persons responsible for the management of the school.

(9) In considering what continuation school a young person shall be required to attend a local education authority shall have regard, as far as practicable, to any preference which a young person or the parent of a young person under the age of 16 may express, and if a young person or the parent of a young person under the age of 16 represents in writing to the local education authority that he objects to any part of the instruction given in the continuation school which the young person is required to attend, on the ground that it is contrary or offensive to his religious belief, the obligation under this act to attend a school for the purpose of such instruction shall not apply to him, and the local education authority shall, if practicable, arrange for him to attend some other instruction in lieu thereof or some other school.

11. (1) If a young person fails, except by reason of sickness or other unavoidable cause, to comply with any requirement imposed upon him under this act for attendance at a continuation school, he shall be liable on summary conviction to a fine not exceeding 5 shillings, or in the case of a second or subsequent offense to a fine not exceeding £1.

(2) If a parent of a young person has condoned to or connived at the failure on the part of the young person to attend a continuation school as required under this act, he shall, unless an order has been made against him in respect of such failure under section 99 of the Children Act, 1908, be liable on summary conviction to a fine not exceeding £2, or in the case of a second or subsequent offense, whether relating to the same or another young person, to a fine not exceeding £5.

12. (1) The Board of Education may from time to time make regulations prescribing the manner and form in which notice is to be given as to the continuation school (if any) which a young person is required to attend, and the times of attendance thereat, and as to the hours during which his employment must be suspended, and providing for the issue of certificates of age, attendance, and exemption, and for the keeping and preservation of registers of attendance, and generally for carrying into effect the provisions of this act relating to continuation schools.

(2) For the purposes of the provisions of this act relating to continuation schools the expression "year" means in the case of any young person the period of 12 months reckoned from the date when he ceased to be a child, or any subsequent period of 12 months.

13. (1) The Employment of Children Act, 1903, so far as it relates to England and Wales, shall be amended as follows:

(i) For subsection (1) of section 3 the following subsection shall be substituted:

"A child under the age of 12 shall not be employed; and a child of the age of 12 or upward shall not be employed on any Sunday for more than two hours, or on any day on which he is required to attend school before the close of school hours on that day, nor on any day before 6 o'clock in the morning or after 9 o'clock in the evening: *Provided*, That a local authority may make a by-law permitting, with respect to such occupations as may be specified, and subject to such conditions as may be necessary to safeguard the interests of the children, the employment of children of the age of 12 or upward before school hours, and the employment of children by their parents; but so that any employment permitted by by-law on a school day before 9 in the morning shall be limited to one hour, and that if a child is so employed

before 9 in the morning he shall not be employed for more than one hour in the afternoon."

- (ii) In subsection (2) of section 3, which prohibits the employment of a child under the age of 11 years in street trading, the words "under the age of 11 years," shall be repealed.
- (iii) For section 12 the following section shall be substituted:
 "Except as regards the City of London, the powers and duties of a local authority under this act shall be deemed to be powers and duties under Part III, of the Education Act, 1902, and the provisions of the education acts for the time being in force with regard to those powers and duties and as to the manner in which the expenses of an authority under that part of that act shall be paid shall apply accordingly";
- (iv) For the definition of the expression "local authority" there shall be substituted the following definition:
 "The expression 'local authority' means in the case of the City of London the mayor, aldermen, and commons of that city in common council assembled and elsewhere the local education authority for the purposes of Part III of the Education Act, 1902."
- (2) The Prevention of Cruelty to Children Act, 1904, so far as it relates to England and Wales, shall be amended as follows:
- (i) In paragraph (b) of section 2, which restricts the employment of boys under the age of 14 years and of girls under the age of 16 years for the purpose of singing, playing, or performing, or being exhibited for profit, or offering anything for sale, between 9 p. m. and 6 a. m., "8 p. m." shall be substituted for "9 p. m." so far as relates to children under 14 years of age;
- (ii) In paragraph (c) of section 2, which restricts the employment of children under 11 years for the purpose of singing, playing, or performing, or being exhibited for profit, or offering anything for sale, 12 years shall be substituted for 11 years;
- (iii) In section 3, which relates to licenses for the employment of children exceeding 10 years of age, the ages of 12 years shall be substituted for the age of 10 years;
- (iv) A license under section 3 to take part in any entertainment or series of entertainments, instead of being granted, varied, added to, or rescinded as provided by that section, shall be granted by the local education authority for the purposes of Part III of the Education Act, 1902, of the area in which the child resides, subject to such restrictions and conditions as are prescribed by rules made by the Board of Education, and may be rescinded by the authority of any area in which it takes effect or is about to take effect if the restrictions and conditions of the license are not observed, and, subject as aforesaid, may be varied or added to by that authority at the request of the holder of the license;
- (v) The holder of a license shall at least seven days before a child takes part in any entertainment or series of entertainments furnish the local education authority of the area in which the entertainment is to take place with particulars of the license and such other information as the Board of Education may by rules prescribe, and if he fails to furnish such particulars and information as aforesaid, he shall be liable on summary conviction to a fine not exceeding £5.
- (vi) Subsections (3) and (4) of section 3 shall cease to apply with respect to licenses to take part in an entertainment or series of entertainments;

(vii) If the applicant for a license or a person to whom a license has been granted feels aggrieved by any decision of a local education authority, he may appeal to the Board of Education, who may thereupon exercise any of the powers conferred on a local education authority by this section.

(viii) The provisions of this subsection shall not apply to any license in force on the appointed day.

(ix) References to the Employment of Children Act, 1903, shall be construed as references to that act as amended by this act.

14. No child within the meaning of this act shall be employed—

(a) In any factory or workshop to which the Factory and Workshop Acts, 1901 to 1911, apply; or

(b) In any mine to which the Coal Mines Act, 1911, applies; or

(c) In any mine or quarry to which the Metaliferous Mines Acts, 1872 and 1875, apply;

unless lawfully so employed on the appointed day; and these acts, respectively, shall have effect as respects England and Wales as if this provision, so far as it relates to the subject matter thereof, was incorporated therein.

15. (1) The local education authority, if they are satisfied by a report of the school medical officer or otherwise that any child is being employed in a manner as to be prejudicial to his health or physical development, or to render him unfit to obtain the proper benefit from his education, may either prohibit, or attach such conditions as they think fit to, his employment in that or any other manner, notwithstanding that the employment may be authorized under the other provisions of this act or any other enactment.

(2) It shall be the duty of the employer and the parent of any child who is in employment, if required by the local education authority, to furnish to the authority such information as to his employment as the authority may require, and; if the parent or employer fails to comply with any requirement of the local education authority or willfully gives false information as to the employment, he shall be liable on summary conviction to a fine not exceeding 40 shillings.

16. If any person—

(a) Employs a child in such a manner as to prevent the child from attending school according to the education acts and the by-laws in force in the district in which the child resides; or

(b) Having received notice of any prohibition or restriction as to the employment of a child issued by a local education authority under this act, employs a child in such a manner as to contravene the prohibition or restriction; or

(c) Employs a young person in such a manner as to prevent the young person attending a continuation school which he is required to attend under this act; or

(d) Employs a young person at any time when, in pursuance of any requirement under this act issued by a local education authority, the employment of that young person must be suspended;

he shall be deemed to have employed the child or young person in contravention of the Employment of Children Act, 1903, and subsections (1) and (2) of section 3 and section 6 and section 8 of that act shall apply accordingly as if they were therein enacted, and in forms made applicable to children and young persons within the meaning of this act as well as to children within the meaning of that act.

Extension of Powers and Duties.

17. For the purpose of supplementing and reinforcing the instruction and social and physical training provided by the public system of education, and without prejudice to any other powers, a local education authority for the purposes of Part III of the Education Act, 1902, as respects children attending public elementary schools, and a local education authority for the purposes of Part II of that act as respects other children and young persons, and persons over the age of 18 attending educational institutions may, with the approval of the Board of Education, make arrangements to supply or maintain or aid the supply or maintenance of—

- (a) Holiday or school camps, especially for young persons attending continuation schools;
- (b) Centers and equipment for physical training, playing fields (other than the ordinary playgrounds of public elementary schools not provided by the local education authority), school baths, school swimming baths;
- (c) Other facilities for social and physical training in the day or evening.

18. (1) The local education authority for the purposes of Part II of the Education Act, 1902, shall have the same duties and powers with reference to making provision for the medical inspection and treatment of children and young persons attending—

- (i) Secondary schools provided by them;
- (ii) Any school to the governing body of which, in pursuance of any scheme made under the Welsh Intermediate Education Act, 1889, any payments are made out of any general fund administered by a local education authority as a governing body under that act, and any school of which a local education authority are the governing body under that act;

(iii) Continuation schools under their direction and control; and

- (iv) Such other schools or educational institutions (not being elementary schools) provided by them as the board direct;

as a local education authority for the purposes of Part III of the Education Act, 1902, have under paragraph (b) of subsection (1) of section 13 of the Education (Administrative Provisions) Act, 1907, with reference to children attending public elementary schools, and may exercise the like powers as respects children and young persons attending any school or educational institution, whether aided by them or not, if so requested by or on behalf of the persons having the management thereof.

(2) The Local Education Authorities (Medical Treatment) Act, 1909, shall apply where any medical treatment is given in pursuance of this section as it applies to treatment given in pursuance of section 13 of the Education (Administrative Provisions) Act, 1907.

19. (1) The powers of local education authorities for the purposes of Part III of the Education Act, 1902, shall include power to make arrangements for—

- (a) Supplying or aiding the supply of nursery schools (which expression shall include nursery classes) for children over 2 and under 5 years of age, or such later age as may be approved by the Board of Education, whose attendance at such a school is necessary or desirable for their healthy physical and mental development; and
- (b) Attending to the health, nourishment, and physical welfare of children attending nursery schools.

(2) Notwithstanding the provision of any act of Parliament the Board of Education may, out of moneys provided by Parliament, pay grants in aid of

nursery schools, provided that such grants shall not be paid in respect of any such school unless it is open to inspection by the local education authority, and unless that authority are enabled to appoint representatives on the body of managers to the extent of at least one-third of the total number of managers, and before recognizing any nursery school the board shall consult the local education authority.

20. A local education authority shall make arrangements under the Elementary Education (Defective and Epileptic Children) Acts, 1899 to 1914, for ascertaining what children in their area are physically defective or epileptic within the meaning of those acts, and the provisions of the Elementary Education (Defective and Epileptic Children) Act, 1914, relating to mentally defective children, shall be extended so as to apply to physically defective and epileptic children, and accordingly that act shall have effect as if references therein to mentally defective children included references to physically defective and epileptic children.

21. Where a local education authority for the purposes of Part III of the Education Act, 1902, are satisfied in the case of any children that, owing to the remoteness of their homes or the conditions under which the children are living, or other exceptional circumstances affecting the children, those children are not in a position to receive the full benefit of education by means of the ordinary provision made for the purpose by the authority, the authority may, with the approval of the Board of Education, make such arrangements, either of a permanent or temporary character, and including the provision of board and lodging, as they think best suited for the purpose of enabling those children to receive the benefit of efficient elementary education, and may for that purpose enter into such agreement with the parent of any such child as they think proper: *Provided*, That where a child is boarded out in pursuance of this section the local education authority shall, if possible, and, if the parent so requests, arrange for the boarding out being with a person belonging to the religious persuasion of the child's parents.

22. Section 4 of the Education (Choice of Employment) Act, 1910, which confers on certain local education authorities the power of assisting boys and girls with respect to the choice of employment, shall have effect as if "18 years of age" were therein substituted for "17 years of age."

23. With a view to promoting the efficiency of teaching and advanced study, a local education authority for the purposes of Part II of the Education Act, 1902, may aid teachers and students to carry on any investigation for the advancement of learning or research in or in connection with an educational institution, and with that object may aid educational institutions.

25. A local education authority shall not, in exercise of the powers conferred upon them by paragraph (b) of subsection (1) of section 13 of the Education (Administrative Provisions) Act, 1907, or by this act, establish a general domiciliary service of treatment by medical practitioners for children or young persons, and in making arrangements for the treatment of children and young persons a local education authority shall consider how far they can avail themselves of the services of private medical practitioners.

Abolition of Fees in Public Elementary Schools.

20. (1) No fees shall be charged or other charges of any kind made in any public elementary school, except as provided by the Education (Provision of Meals) Act, 1906, and the Local Education Authorities (Medical Treatment) Act, 1909.

(2) During a period of five years from the appointed day the Board of Education shall in each year out of moneys provided by Parliament, pay to the managers of a school maintained but not provided by a local education authority in which fees were charged immediately before the appointed day, the average yearly sum paid to the managers under section 14 of the Education Act, 1902, during the five years immediately preceding the appointed day.

Administrative Provisions.

27. If the governing body of any school or educational institution not liable to inspection by any Government department, or, if there is no governing body, the headmaster requests the Board of Education to inspect the school or institution and to report thereon, the Board of Education may do so, if they think fit, free of cost; but this section shall be without prejudice to the provisions relating to the Central Welsh Board contained in subsection (1) of section 3 of the Board of Education Act, 1899.

28. (1) In order that full information may be available as to the provision for education and the use made of such provision in England and Wales—

(a) It shall be the duty of the responsible person as hereinafter defined, in respect of every school or educational institution not in receipt of grants from the Board of Education, to furnish to the Board of Education in a form prescribed by the board—

(i) In the case of a school or educational institution existing at the appointed day, within three months of that day;

(ii) In the case of a school or educational institution opened after the appointed day, within three months of the opening thereof; the name and address of the school or institution and a short description of the school or institution;

(b) It shall be the duty of every such responsible person when required by the Board of Education to furnish to the board such further particulars with respect to the school or institution as may be prescribed by regulations made by the board;

Provided, That the board may exempt from both or either of the above obligations any schools or educational institutions with respect to which the necessary information is already in the possession of the board or is otherwise available.

(2) If the responsible person fails to furnish any information required by this section, he shall be liable on summary conviction to a penalty not exceeding £10, and to a penalty not exceeding £5 for every day on which the failure continues after conviction therefor.

(3) For the purposes of this section "the responsible person" means the secretary or person performing the duty of secretary to the governing body of the school or institution, or, if there is no governing body, the headmaster or person responsible for the management of the school or institution.

(4) Any regulations made by the Board of Education under this section with respect to the particulars to be furnished shall be laid before Parliament as soon as may be after they are made.

29. (1) Notwithstanding anything in the Education Act, 1902, the appointment of all teachers of secular subjects not attached to the staff of any particular public elementary school and teachers appointed for the purpose of giving practical instruction, pupil-teachers, and student teachers, shall be made by the local education authority, and it is hereby declared that the local education authority have power to direct the managers of any public elementary

schools not provided by them to make arrangements for the admission of any such teachers to the schools.

30. (1) The managers of a public elementary school not provided by the local education authority, if they wish to close the school, shall give 18 months' notice to the local education authority of their intention to close the school, and a notice under this provision shall not be withdrawn except with the consent of the local education authority.

(2) If the managers of a school who have given such a notice are unable or unwilling to carry on the school up to the expiration of the period specified in the notice, the schoolhouse shall be put at the disposal of the local education authority, if the authority so desire, for the whole or any part of the period, free of charge, for the purposes of a school provided by them, but subject to an obligation on the part of the authority to keep the schoolhouse in repair and to pay any outgoings in respect thereof, and to allow the use of the schoolhouse and the school furniture by the persons who were the managers of the school to the like extent and subject to the like conditions as if the school had continued to be carried on by those managers.

31. Where there are two or more public elementary schools not provided by the local education authority of the same denominational character in the same locality, the local education authority, if they consider that it is expedient for the purpose of educational efficiency and economy, may, with the approval of the Board of Education, give directions for the distribution of the children in those schools according to age, sex, or attainments, and otherwise with respect to the organization of the schools; and for the grouping of the schools under one body of managers constituted in the manner provided by subsection (2) of section 12 of the Education Act, 1902; *Provided*, that, if the constitution of the body of managers fails to be determined by the Board of Education under that section, the board shall observe the principles and proportions prescribed by sections 6 and 11 of that act; and that, if the managers of a school affected by and directions given under this section request a public inquiry, the board shall hold a public inquiry before approving those directions.

32. (1) Notwithstanding the provisions of section 6 of the Education Act, 1902, or, in the case of London, subsection (1) of section 2 of the Education (London) Act, 1903, as to the appointment of managers, any public elementary school which in the opinion of the board is organized for the sole purpose of giving advanced instruction to older children may be managed in such manner as may be approved by the local education authority, and, in the case of a school not provided by that authority, also by the managers of the school.

(2) Notwithstanding anything contained in sections 6 and 8 of the Education Act, 1902, or in section 2 of the Education (London) Act, 1903, the provision of premises for classes in practical or advanced instruction for children attending from more than one public elementary school shall not be deemed to be the provision of a new public elementary school, and any class conducted in such premises may be managed in such manner as may be approved by the local education authority.

33. Except as expressly provided by this act, nothing in this act shall affect the provisions of the education acts relating to public elementary schools not provided by the local education authority or the provisions of Part II of the Education Act, 1902.

34. (1) A local education authority may be authorized to purchase land compulsorily for the purpose of any of their powers or duties under the educa-

tion acts, by means of an order submitted to the Board of Education and confirmed by the board in accordance with the provisions contained in paragraphs (1) to (13) of the First Schedule to the Housing, Town Planning, etc., Act, 1909, and those provisions shall have effect for the purpose, with the substitution of the Board of Education for the local government board, of the local education authority for the local authority, and of references to the education acts for references to this act: *Provided*, That the Board of Education shall not confirm any such order even when unopposed if they are of opinion that the land is unsuited for the purpose for which it is proposed to be acquired.

32. The powers given by this section in relation to the compulsory purchase of land by the local education authority shall be in substitution for any other powers existing for that purpose, but without prejudice to any powers conferred by any provisional order confirmed by Parliament before the appointed day.

33. A local education authority may, with the consent of the Board of Education, who shall consult the authority of the area in which the proposed site is situated, provide a public elementary school, in cases where it appears convenient to do so, on a site outside their area for the use of children within their area, and for the purposes of the education acts a school so provided shall be deemed to be situated within the area of the authority.

34. (1) It shall not be obligatory on a county council to charge on or raise within particular areas any portion of such expenses as are mentioned in paragraph (c) or paragraph (d) of subsection (1) of section 18 of the Education Act, 1902, and accordingly each of those paragraphs shall have effect as if for the word "shall" there was substituted the word "may" and as if the words "less than one-half or" were omitted therefrom: and, where before the passing of this act any portion of such expenses has been charged on or allocated to any area, the county council may cancel or vary the charge or allocation.

(2) Before charging any expenses under section 18 (1) (c) of the Education Act, 1902, on any area situate within a borough or urban district the council of which is an authority for the purposes of Part III of the Education Act, 1902, a county council shall consult the council of the borough or urban district concerned.

35. Any expenses incurred by a council in connection with any provisional order for the purposes of the education acts, or any order under this act for the purpose of the acquisition of land, shall be defrayed its expenses of the council under the Education Act, 1902, and the council shall have the same power of borrowing for the purpose of those expenses as they have under section 19 of the Education Act, 1902, for the purpose of the expenses therein mentioned.

36. Any council having powers under the education acts may, subject to regulations made by the Board of Education, defray its part of their expenses under those acts any reasonable expenses incurred by them in paying subscriptions toward the cost of, or otherwise in connection with, meetings or conferences held for the purpose of discussing the promotion and organization of education or educational administration, and the attendance of persons nominated by the council at any such meeting or conference: *Provided*, That—

(a) The expenses of more than three persons in connection with any meeting or conference shall not be paid except with the previous sanction of the Board of Education;

(b) Payments for travelling expenses and subsistence shall be in accordance with the scale adopted by the council;

- (c) Expenses shall not be paid in respect of any meeting or conference outside the United Kingdom unless the Board of Education have sanctioned the attendance of persons nominated by the council at the meeting or the conference;
- (d) No expenses for any purpose shall be paid under this section without the approval of the Board of Education, unless expenditure for the purpose has been specially authorized or ratified by resolution of the council, after special notice has been given to members of the council of the proposal to authorize or ratify the expenditure, or, where a council has delegated its powers under this section to the education committee, by resolution of that committee after like notice has been given to the members thereof.
39. The powers of a local education authority for the purposes of Part III of the Education Act, 1902, shall include a power to prosecute any person under section 12 of the Children Act, 1908, where the person against whom the offence was committed was a child, within the meaning of this act and to pay any expenses incidental to the prosecution.
40. (1) The Board of Education may hold a public inquiry for the purpose of the exercise of any of their powers or the performance of any of their duties under the education acts.
- (2) The following provisions shall (except as otherwise provided by the education acts) apply to any public inquiry held by the Board of Education:
- (a) The board shall appoint a person or persons to hold the inquiry;
- (b) The person or persons so appointed shall hold a sitting or sittings in some convenient place in the neighborhood to which the subject of the inquiry relates, and they shall hear, receive, and examine any evidence and information offered, and hear and inquire into the objections or representations made respecting the subject matter of the inquiry, with power from time to time to adjourn any sitting;
- (c) Notice shall be published in such manner as the board direct of every such sitting, except an adjourned sitting, seven days at least before the holding thereof;
- (d) The person or persons so appointed shall make a report in writing to the board setting forth the result of the inquiry and the objections and representations, if any, made thereat, and any opinion or recommendations submitted by him or them to the board;
- (e) The board shall furnish a copy of the report to any local education authority concerned with the subject matter of the inquiry, and, on payment of such fee as may be fixed by the board to any person interested;
- (f) The board may, where it appears to them reasonable that such an order should be made, order the payment of the whole or any part of the costs of the inquiry either by any local education authority to whose administration the inquiry appears to the board to be incidental, or by the applicant for the inquiry, and may require the applicant for an inquiry to give security for the costs thereof;
- (g) Any order so made shall certify the amount to be paid by the local education authority or the applicant, and any amount so certified shall, without prejudice to the recovery thereof as a debt due to the Crown, be recoverable by the board summarily as a civil debt from the authority or the applicant as the case may be.
41. The minutes of the proceedings of a local education authority, and, where a local education authority delegate to their education committee any powers

and the acts and proceedings of the education committee as respects the exercise of those powers are not required to be submitted to the council for their approval, the minutes of the proceedings of the education committee relating to the exercise of those powers shall be open to the inspection of any ratepayer at any reasonable time during the ordinary hours of business on payment of a fee of 1 shilling, and any ratepayer may make a copy thereof or take an extract therefrom.

42. (1) For the yearly sum payable to the Central Welsh Board under the scheme regulating the intermediate and technical education fund of any county, as defined by the Welsh Intermediate Education Act, 1889, there shall be substituted—

(a) A yearly sum equal to a percentage not exceeding 22½ per cent, fixed from time to time at a uniform rate for every county by the Central Welsh Board of the sum produced by a rate of 1 halfpenny in the pound for the preceding year, calculated in the manner provided by subsection (3) of section 8 of the Welsh Intermediate Education Act, 1889; and

(b) A yearly sum equal to 5 per cent of the net income for the preceding year of any endowment comprised in the intermediate and technical education fund of the county, or, in the alternative, for each year during such period as may be agreed with the Central Welsh Board, such yearly as that board may agree to accept in lieu thereof.

(2) For the purpose of ascertaining the said net income there shall be deducted from the gross income all proper expenses and outgoings in respect of administration and management of the endowment (including charges for interest on and repayment of loans and replacement of capital), and any sums required by the scheme to be treated as capital, and the term "endowment" shall include augmentations acquired by the investment of surplus income whether derived from endowment or county rate, or from any other source, but not property occupied for the purposes of the scheme.

(3) The power of charging capitation fees for scholars offered for examination conferred on the Central Welsh Board by the scheme of the 13th day of May, 1890, regulating the Central Welsh Intermediate Education Fund, shall cease.

(4) The provisions of this section shall have effect and be construed as part of the schemes regulating the Central Welsh Intermediate Education Fund and the intermediate and technical education funds of counties in Wales and Monmouthshire, and may be repealed or altered by future schemes accordingly.

43. All orders, certificates, notices, requirements, and documents of a local education authority under the education acts, if purporting to be signed by the clerk of the authority or of the education committee, or by the director of, or secretary for, education, shall until the contrary is provided be deemed to be made by the authority and to have been so signed, and may be proved by the production of a copy thereof purporting to have been so signed.

Educational Grants.

44. (1) The Board of Education shall, subject to the provisions of this act, by regulations provide for the payment to local education authorities out of moneys provided by Parliament of annual substantive grants in aid of education of such amount and subject to such conditions and limitations as may be prescribed in the regulations, and nothing in any act of Parliament shall prevent the Board of Education from paying grants to an authority in respect of any expenditure which the authority may lawfully incur.

(2) Subject to the regulations made under the next succeeding subsection, the total sums paid to a local education authority out of moneys provided by Parliament and the local taxation account in aid of elementary education or education other than elementary, as the case may be, shall not be less than one-half of the net expenditure of the authority recognized by the Board of Education as expenditure in aid of which parliamentary grants should be made to the authority, and if the total sums payable out of those moneys to an authority in any year fall short of one-half of that expenditure, there shall be paid by the Board of Education to that authority, out of moneys provided by Parliament, a deficiency grant equal to the amount of the deficiency, provided that a deficiency grant shall not be so paid as to make good to the authority any deductions made from a substantive grant.

(3) The Board of Education may make regulations for the purpose of determining how the amount of any deficiency grant payable under this section shall be ascertained and paid, and those regulations shall if the Treasury so direct, provide for the exclusion in the ascertainment of that amount of all or any sums paid by any Government department other than the Board of Education and of all or any expenditure which in the opinion of the Board of Education is attributable to a service in respect of which payments are made by a Government department other than the Board of Education.

(4) If, by reason of the failure of an authority to perform its duties under the education acts or to comply with the conditions on which grants are made, the deficiency grant is reduced or a deduction is made from any substantive grant exceeding £500 or the amount which would be produced by a rate of a halfpenny in the pound whichever is the less, the Board of Education shall cause to be laid before Parliament a report stating the amount of and the reasons for the reduction or deduction.

(5) Any regulations made by the Board of Education for the payment of grants shall be laid before Parliament as soon as may be after they are made.

Educational Trusts.

45. (1) His Majesty may by Order in Council constitute and incorporate with power to hold land without license in mortmain one or more official trustees of educational trust property, and may apply to the trustee or trustees so constituted the provisions of the Charitable Trusts Acts, 1853 to 1914, relating to the official trustee of charity lands and the official trustees of charitable funds so far as they relate to endowments which are held for or ought to be applied to educational purposes.

(2) On the constitution of an official trustee or official trustees of educational trust property—

(a) All land or estates or interests in land then vested in the official trustee of charity lands which are held by him as endowments for solely educational purposes, and

(b) All ~~endowments~~ then vested in the official trustees of charitable funds which those trustees certify to be held by them as endowments for solely educational purposes,

shall by virtue of this act vest in the official trustee or trustees of educational trust property upon the trusts and for the purposes for which they were held by the official trustee of charity lands and the official trustees of charitable funds, and on such a certificate by the official trustees of charitable funds as aforesaid being sent to the person having charge of the books or registers in

which any such securities are inscribed or registered, that person shall make such entries in the books or registers as may be necessary to give effect to this section.

(3) If any question arises as to whether an endowment or any part of an endowment is held for or ought to be applied to solely educational purposes, the question shall be determined by the Charity Commissioners.

(3) Every assurance of land or personal estate to be laid out in the purchase of land for educational purposes, including every assurance of land to any local authority for any educational purpose or purposes for which such authority is empowered by any act of Parliament to acquire land, shall be sent to the offices of the Board of Education in London for the purpose of being recorded in the books of the board as soon as may be after the execution of the deed or other instrument of assurance, or in the case of a will after the death of the testator.

47. Where, under any scheme made before the passing of this act relating to an educational charity, the approval of the Board of Education is required to the exercise by the trustees under the scheme of a power of appointing new trustees, the scheme shall, except in such cases as the board may otherwise direct, have effect as if no such approval was required thereunder, and the board may by order make such modifications of any such scheme as may be necessary to give effect to this provision.

General.

48. (1) In this act, unless the context otherwise requires—

The expression "child" means any child up to the age when his parents cease to be under an obligation to cause him to receive efficient elementary instruction or to attend school under the enactments relating to elementary education and the by-laws made thereunder;

The expression "young person" means a person under 18 years of age who is no longer a child;

The expression "parent" in relation to a young person includes guardian and every person who is liable to maintain or has the actual custody of the young person;

The expression "practical instruction" means instruction in cookery, laundry work, housewifery, dairy work, handicrafts, and gardening, and such other subjects as the board declare to be subjects of practical instruction;

The expression "school term" means the term as fixed by the local education authority;

The expression "sea service" has the same meaning as in the Merchant Shipping Acts, 1894 to 1916, and includes sea-fishing service;

Other expressions have the same meaning as in the education acts.

(2) In the education acts the expressions "employ" and "employment" used in reference to a child or young person, include employment in any labor exercised by way of trade or for the purposes of gain, whether the gain be to the child or young person or to any other person.

49. Section 120 of the Local Government Act, 1888, which relates to compensation to existing officers, shall apply to officers serving under local education authorities at the passing of this act, who, by virtue of this act or anything done in pursuance or in consequence of this act, suffer direct pecuniary loss by abolition of office or by diminution or loss of fees or salary, subject as follows:

(a) Teachers in public elementary schools maintained by a local education authority shall be deemed to be officers serving under that authority.

(c) Any expenses shall be paid by the council under whom the officer was serving at the date when the loss arose out of the fund or rate out of which the expenses of the council under the education acts are paid, and, if any compensation is payable otherwise than by way of an annual sum, the payment of that compensation shall be a purpose for which a council may borrow for the purposes of those acts.

52. (1) This act may be cited as the Education Act, 1918, and shall be read as one with the Education Acts, 1870 to 1916, and those acts and this act may be cited together as the Education Acts, 1870 to 1918, and are in this act referred to as "the education acts."

(2) This act shall not extend to Scotland or Ireland.

(3) This act shall come into operation on the appointed day, and the appointed day shall be such day as the Board of Education may appoint and different days may be appointed for different purposes and for different provisions of this act, for different areas or parts of areas, and for different persons or classes of persons: *Provided*, That the appointed day for the purposes of subsections (1) and (2) of section 8 shall not be earlier than the termination of the present war, and for the purposes of paragraph (iii) of subsection (2) of section 13 shall not be earlier than three years after the passing of this act, and that for a period of seven years from the appointed day the duty of the council of a county (other than the London County Council) shall not include a duty to establish certified schools for boarding and lodging physically defective and epileptic children.

SCOTLAND.

THE SCHOOLS DURING THE WAR.

Education in Scotland passed through the same vicissitudes since the outbreak of the war as in England. The Scotch Department of Education, local school board managers, and teachers devoted much energy to minimizing the interference with education created by the new conditions, but the inevitable dislocation occurred. Many of the school buildings during the past two years continued to be under military occupation. This led to the introduction in many places of "double shifts," which, however, did not prove to be a satisfactory experiment educationally. The worst feature was a continuance of irregular attendance and of the granting of exemptions, especially in rural agricultural areas. The number of school boards granting no exemptions was 320 in 1913-14; 263 in 1914-15; 126 in 1915-16; and 112 in 1916-17.

The relaxation of discipline resulted in an increase of juvenile delinquency, which attracted the attention of all interested in the training of the young. Even allowing for the fact that many of the offenses which are statistically set down as crimes are only "childish pranks" or the "assertion of independence of control," the problem became serious. Here, as elsewhere, the establishment

of play centers, supported by Government grants, provided a means for redirecting the youthful energies into right channels. Other agencies such as scouts, brigades and clubs, employment agencies maintained by school boards, played their part in this crisis.

The greater prosperity of the country conduced to an improvement in the general welfare of the children, a fortunate circumstance in view of the difficulties involved in maintaining the school medical service on a normal basis. While there was a considerable decrease in the number of children medically inspected, there was an appreciable increase in the provision and expenditure for medical treatment.

The depletion in the number of available teachers was met by an increase in the size of classes, "by the continuance of teachers who had reached the age for retirement, by the temporary return of women teachers who had given up teaching on their marriage, and by the employment of a limited number of persons of good education likely to be of use in schools for which no technically qualified teacher was available." The output of the teachers' training colleges also appears to have been satisfactory. When the question of salaries became urgent, the Treasury agreed in 1916-17 "to allow a grant of one-half of the bonus paid by the managers, subject to a maximum grant of £5 in the case of teachers in receipt of salaries not exceeding £110 or of £4 in the case of teachers whose salaries exceeded £110 but did not exceed £160." The total grant paid in this way amounted to \$164,955. In the following year an additional grant of \$2,649,280 for education was made to Scotland, of which \$1,970,875 was devoted to the purpose of securing definite increases of salary to replace the bonus. With the amount added by school boards there accrued to teachers an average increase of \$90. For the year 1918-19 an additional appropriation was made by Parliament of \$2,000,000 for the improvement of teachers' salaries and pensions. In July, 1917, the department appointed a committee on the remuneration of teachers in Scotland, which issued a report later in the same year embodying proposed scales of salaries for teachers and other recommendations. (See pp, 112f.) The department also devoted part of the new grant to increasing the pensions of retired teachers to a minimum of \$260 a year.

Intermediate and secondary education showed increasing enrollment and increasing attendance. In 1914-15 the number of pupils in higher grade or intermediate schools was 29,488; in 1915-16, 30,699; and in 1916-17, 31,949. In the grant-earning secondary schools the enrollment in 1915 was 19,866; in 1915-16, 20,317; and in 1916-17, 21,012. Continuation classes and central institutions for technical instruction, both of which are normally attended by older pupils than the full-time intermediate and secondary schools, were adversely

affected by the war and showed considerable decrease in enrollment and attendance. The central institutions, however, directed their attention and resources to war work and also undertook the training of disabled soldiers and sailors in cooperation with local pension committees.

The total net ordinary expenditure of the school boards for 1914-15 was \$20,388,730 and the income \$20,853,725, of which \$9,387,005 came from the department. In 1915-16 all these items indicate an increase: the expenditure was \$20,534,460, the income \$21,098,730, and the department grant was \$9,454,905, a sum which was considerably increased in the following year by the extraordinary grant for the increase of salaries.

TEACHERS' SALARIES.

The effect of the war on salaries of teachers in Scotland was similar to that in England and Wales, with similar attempts to meet the situation by the grant of bonuses. In July, 1917, the Government appointed a departmental committee on the remuneration of teachers in Scotland² which considered and reported in November, 1917, on salaries in elementary and secondary schools, and in training colleges. The general considerations determining the report of the committee were as follows:

In considering the larger and more important part of our reference, viz. the suitable scales of salary for different classes of teachers, we desired to approach the question not solely, nor even mainly, as one involving the interests of a single profession, but as one vitally affecting the welfare of the whole community. That welfare must depend, in increasing measure, upon the efficiency of national education; and the fundamental requirement for securing this is that there should be an adequate supply of teachers of high capacity, proved aptitude, and thorough training. This can not be attained unless the remuneration is such as to make the teaching profession one which may compete with other professions in securing recruits of sufficient capacity, and in repaying these recruits for the time and labor spent in their special training. To attract such recruits it is necessary not only that a fair salary should be offered to begin with, but—and it is an even more vital condition—that sufficiently attractive prospects should be opened to those who have served for a certain number of years.

Following this line of inquiry the committee came to the following general conclusions:

1. That not only as a temporary war measure, but as a permanent necessity, in order to maintain an efficient teaching profession in the interests of the country, the general remuneration of teachers must be raised, and that an equalization of the scale of salaries for similar classes of schools over the country is desirable.

¹ See footnote, p. 577.

² Report of a Departmental Committee on the Remuneration of Teachers in Scotland, Edinburgh, 1917.

2. That this can not be attained by any continuation of or extension of the bonus system.
3. That, while an adequate initial salary must be provided, it is even of greater importance that improved prospects should be opened to those who attain a certain length of service, and have proved their competency and their aptitude for the profession.
4. That the scale should take account of—
 - (a) The length and character of the preliminary training.
 - (b) Length of service.
 - (c) The responsibility of the post held and its demands on the capacity and energy of a teacher.

The scales recommended by the committee are in every case higher than those prevailing at present, and determined by local and accidental circumstances. While aware of the large increase of expenditure involved, the committee declares it to be its—

firm and considered conviction, however, that the scheme * * * can not be attained except, first, by an extension of school areas; and, secondly, by a very large proportion of the additional amount required being provided by the central authority. * * * Whatever the cost, if it is proved to be necessary for high educational efficiency, we can not afford the ultimate extravagance which is involved in undue parsimony in such a case. It should not be overlooked that the aim of the proposed standard of salaries * * * is not so much to improve the position and prospects of the teaching profession, as to secure in the future, for the benefit of the State, an adequate supply of amply efficient recruits for our educational army.

THE REFORM OF EDUCATION.

The demands for educational reorganization in Scotland have been as insistent as in England and were supported by the public and the teachers. The directions of desirable reforms were summarized in a report¹ of the Scottish education reform committee, an organization representing the Educational Institute, the Secondary Educational Association, and the Class Teachers' Federation. The attitude of the teachers on the desirability of a national program that would unify all branches of education on the basis of national needs is well indicated by the amalgamation of their three principal organizations in the Educational Institute. The professional solidarity thus attained offers a guarantee of educational progress. The education reform committee through a number of subcommittees issued recommendations on administration and finance, general education, the education of women, technical and university education, professional training and status, and moral education. The report is a valuable contribution, and, like similar reports in England, enriches educational thought and furnishes a firm foundation for future reconstruction.

¹ Reform in Scottish Education, being the Report of the Scottish Education Reform Committee. (Edinburgh, 1917.)

The committee urges the abolition of the parish school board system and the substitution of county councils and town councils, acting through education committees. Voluntary and endowed schools should be brought within the scope of the national system. For the purpose of coördinating local and central control of education the appointment is recommended of a national education council, consisting of representatives of (a) the Scotch Education Department; (b) local education authorities; (c) universities, provincial committees, central institutions; (d) teachers engaged in the various types of schools; (e) other legitimate interests. Such a body would make available the advice of experts on a larger scale than by means of the representation of teachers on the local education committees, which is also advocated. The nationalization of the educational system should, in the opinion of the committee, be stimulated by a revision of the methods of making grants, so that two main purposes will be promoted—the establishment of a national scale of salaries and the encouragement of progress by the assumption of a definite share of other approved expenditure. In addition to these two principles, special aid should be given to the highlands and the islands, to equalize the burden of these poorer districts.

On the subject of school organization the committee emphasizes the need of medical inspection and treatment and other provisions for physical welfare. Attendance at school for full time should be made compulsory up to 15, and for part time up to 18. Recommendations are offered on the size of schools and classes. The curriculum should be reviewed in order to determine what subjects are indispensable and to eliminate what is merely traditional and nonessential. The time saved in this way, and by the simplification of spelling and by the introduction of the metric system and decimal coinage, could be utilized for practical work. Emphasis is placed on the importance of religious instruction and moral education, direct, indirect, and incidental, not only in and through the school, but also by the cooperation of all the influences affecting the life of children. "International polity should be one of the aims of moral education, and the ethical code of the individual ought, *mutatis mutandis*, to be that for the nation as well." Differentiation, of course, is urged to meet the needs of girls and of pupils in rural intermediate and secondary schools. Improvements are advocated in the system of external examinations.

Since "the key of all educational reform lies in the improvement of the status, training, conditions of service, and emoluments of the teacher," these subjects receive detailed consideration. The preliminary training of candidates for the profession should be the same as that of other students in secondary schools, and their admission to training colleges should be in the hands of a board of control repre-

senting the provincial committees and the training centers. The training colleges should be affiliated as professional schools with the universities in which the students should pursue their academic studies. The length of the training course should be three years for undergraduates and one year for graduates. Teachers should not be granted certificates before the age of 21, while two years' satisfactory service should be required for the final certificate. Greater freedom for the teachers and their representation on bodies administering education are measures suggested for the improvement both of their status and of education in general, to both of which a national scale of salaries and prospects for advancement to the inspectorate would contribute.

In discussing technical education the report considers the raising of the school leaving age to 15, and compulsory attendance at continuation classes fundamental to the efficiency of apprenticeship, which should be made obligatory wherever practicable. The cooperation of teachers and expert advisers in technical education, the coordination of efforts in the technical schools, central institutions, and universities, close relationships between the trades and technical education, and the promotion of scientific and industrial research are regarded as essential. Similar recommendations are made for commercial education. The universities should cooperate with secondary, technical, and commercial schools and utilize by affiliation work in other institutions on a university level. More attention should be given to the teaching of pure and applied science, to modern languages, and to education by the establishment of a chair in this subject in each university. Greater autonomy among the universities and specialization of the various universities along different lines should be encouraged. Finally, "a university should be the center of its educational area, and should lend all its resources and influence to the higher education of the working population," employing methods that have been attempted with so much success in the organization of the Workers' Educational Association in England and the people's high schools in Denmark.

THE SCOTTISH EDUCATION BILL.

The need of some reorganization is perhaps greater in Scotland than in England, which, eliminating the smaller area, developed a sound administrative system in 1902. The remarkable educational tradition of the country has tended to retard the development of an administrative reform more suited to modern needs. Successful as this tradition has been in selecting talent and promoting boys of ability, it has not been effective in raising the general average. As in England, compulsory attendance laws were subject to local exemptions, voluntary measures for educating adolescent boys and girls

were not successful, and in many parts of the country accessible secondary schools were not provided. Under the existing system there are nearly 1,000 school boards elected *ad hoc* in the burghs and parishes; each voluntary and endowed school is under its own administrative authority; while secondary education since 1908 is administered by nearly 40 secondary school committees.

At the close of 1917 a bill to reduce this system to some more unified plan of organization was introduced in Parliament by the Secretary for Scotland. The bill followed the English administrative system somewhat—each county council and the councils of the five chief burghs (Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, Dundee, and Leith), were to be the education authorities of their respective areas, assisted by district education committees and local school committees. This proposal met with considerable opposition, the fear being expressed that the administration of education would be reduced to the level of that of sewers, water, and gas. If the smaller local school board must surrender its functions to a board covering a wider area, that board, too, should be elected *ad hoc* and in this way make use of the accumulated experience of the older school board members. On August 6, 1918, a new bill was substituted, giving effect to this demand for *ad hoc* boards.

The central administration is to continue as hitherto in the hands of the Scotch Education Department, which is empowered to establish an advisory council consisting, to the extent of not less than two-thirds of its membership, of persons qualified to represent the interests of education. The function of the council will be to advise and make recommendations to the department.

The counties and the five large burghs are set up as education authorities administered by boards specially elected for the purpose by the local government electors. The number of electoral districts and the constitution of each education authority are to be determined by the Secretary for Scotland. Each education authority will be required to present a scheme for the approval of the Scotch Education Department for the establishment of school management committees, including a representative of the authority, one teacher, and local representatives, for the general management and supervision of schools, but without any financial powers.

The education authority will be required to raise money for education and control the expenditure; appoint, transfer, or dismiss teachers; establish or discontinue intermediate or secondary schools or control institutions for advanced technical instruction; and provide bursaries and facilitate attendance at secondary and higher schools. Further, the education authority is charged with the duty of preparing schemes for the adequate provision of free elementary, intermediate, and secondary schools, and for the support of certain

schools charging fees, and of drawing up schemes of scales of salaries on the basis of a minimum national scale recommended by a departmental committee. (See pp. 112f.)

Contributions must also be made by education authorities toward the maintenance of the training colleges for teachers in proportion to the number of fully qualified teachers in their areas, and aid may also be extended to central institutions and universities, provided reasonable representation on their governing bodies is granted. "As an ancillary means of promoting education" an authority may furnish books for general reading not only to children and young persons but also to adults, and in this service is to cooperate financially and otherwise with public libraries, where they exist. Each education authority is required to establish an advisory council of persons qualified to represent the interests of education, whose duty shall be to advise and make recommendations for the consideration of the authority. For the purpose of developing a national system of administration the bill permits the managers and trustees of voluntary or denominational schools to transfer such schools to the education authorities. A school so transferred will become a public school, receiving the same grants as a public school. The teachers of such a school must be taken over by the authority and paid the same scale of salaries as public-school teachers, provided that the department is satisfied with their qualifications and the church or denomination concerned with their religious character. The same time will be devoted after the transfer as before it to religious instruction, which is to be placed under an approved supervisor. Public grants will not be paid to voluntary schools not transferred to the education authorities within two years of the passing of the bill.

If it is found 10 years after the transfer has been made that the religious character of the district served by a transferred school has changed, such a school by authority of the department may become a public school in all respects. On the other hand, on the representation of parents as to the need of accommodation for the children of any denomination the department may approve the erection of new schools of the same character as a transferred school. This provision is likely to encounter the severest opposition. It is argued that every denomination except that which preponderates in Scotland would be enabled by the proposal to have its own sectarian belief propagated in schools maintained by public funds. The situation is similar to that established in England by the education act of 1902, and the history of education across the border since that date may help to remove the danger of organized opposition to the bill in general on the ground of this provision alone.

The schools are to be maintained by grants, loans, and an annual levy of an education rate to meet any deficiency that may occur.

The rate is to be apportioned to each parish in an educational area in accordance with the local valuations. The State grants will consist of the education fund established in 1908, an annual appropriation equal to the educational estimates for the financial year 1913-14, which is to be considered for purposes of the law as the standard year, and a sum equal to eleven-eightieths of the excess of the annual estimates for education in England and Wales over the sums expended in the standard year.

The bill provides for the establishment of nursery schools for children between the ages of 2 and 5, in which attention must be given to health, nourishment, and physical welfare. Compulsory school attendance begins at the age of 5 and is extended by the bill to the age of 15, the pupils entering and leaving school on definitely fixed dates. No exemptions from school attendance may be granted to pupils under the age of 13. Child labor on school days between the hours of 6 o'clock in the evening and 8 o'clock in the morning is entirely prohibited, and children between 13 and 15 may be employed only if definitely exempted from school attendance. Street trading by children under 17 is forbidden, while no child under 15 may be employed in factories, workshops, mines, or quarries.

Children leaving elementary schools at the age of 15, and not exempted by virtue of attendance at an intermediate or secondary school, or of having reached the age of 17 and an equivalent educational standard, will be compelled, if the bill passes, to attend a continuation school up to the age of 18. For the present the compulsory age limit will be 16 within one year of the date on which the bill, if enacted, comes into operation, to be raised to 18 as soon thereafter as the department may decide. Attendance will be required between the hours of 8 o'clock in the morning and 7 o'clock in the evening for 320 hours a year without increasing the total period of employment permitted for young persons by Parliament.

The education authorities, who are permitted to delegate the management and supervision of continuation schools to school management committees or to appoint special committees for the purpose, on which they are represented, are required, after consultation with and with the cooperation of associations and committees of employers and workmen in commerce and trades, to draft schemes for continuation schools. Such schemes must include English language and literature and such other parts of a general education as may be deemed desirable, physical exercises, and special instruction intended to promote efficiency in the vocation in which the young persons may be engaged. Fines for irregular attendance are to be imposed on the young persons concerned and on employers who do not afford the necessary opportunity for regular and punctual attendance at continuation schools.

The bill makes no special provision for secondary or higher education, but authorities are indirectly required to increase the facilities by the provision that "no child or young person resident in their education area who is qualified for attendance at an intermediate or secondary school, and in their opinion shows promise of profiting thereby, shall be debarred therefrom by reason of the expense involved." An education authority is accordingly required to furnish the necessary assistance in such cases by the payment of fees, travelling expenses, scholarships, or maintenance allowances to encourage attendance not only at intermediate or secondary schools, but also at universities, teachers' training colleges, or central institutions for technical instruction.

The bill was passed in November, 1918. The amendment of the original plan of administration cleared one of the chief subjects of contention out of the way. Any obstacles that might have been raised to the enactment of the continuation school measure had already been removed by the discussions on the similar provision in the English act. The unanimous support of the teachers was assured by the refusal to grant recognition to any schools in which the minimum national scale of salaries has not been adopted. The only difficulty that remains, and one which has always proved a serious stumbling block, is the revision of the religious difficulty involved in the transfer of the voluntary schools. The probability is, however, that the national needs of the moment will prove sufficient to secure the solidarity necessary for the enactment of the bill.

EDUCATION (SCOTLAND) ACT, 1918.

[8 and 9 Geo. 5. Ch. 48.]

ARRANGEMENT OF SECTIONS.

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Sec.

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CHAPTER 48.

An Act to make further provision with respect to education in Scotland and for purposes connected therewith. [28th November, 1918.]

Be it enacted by the King's most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:

Education Authorities.

1. A local authority for the purposes of education (in this act called the "education authority") shall be elected in and for each of the following areas (in this act called "education areas"), that is to say, in and for—

(a) Each of the burghs mentioned in the first schedule to this act (in this act called the "scheduled burghs"); and

(b) Every county, including every burgh situated therein not being one of the scheduled burghs.

2. (1) For the purpose of such elections, the Secretary for Scotland shall, as soon as may be after the passing of this act, by order divide each education area into electoral divisions, and in determining the boundaries thereof, he shall have regard, so far as may be, to the boundaries of wards in scheduled burghs, and of districts, burghs, and parishes in counties.

(2) The Secretary for Scotland shall also, by order, determine the number of members to be elected to each education authority, and shall apportion them among the electoral divisions of the education area. In making such determination and apportionment, the Secretary for Scotland shall have regard to

the population, area, and other circumstances of the scheduled burgh or county, as the case may be, and the electoral divisions thereof.

(3) Before making an order under this section, the Secretary for Scotland shall cause the proposed order to be published in such manner as to make the same known to all persons interested, and shall, after considering any objections and representations respecting the proposed order, and causing a local inquiry to be held if he sees fit to do so, thereafter, make the order and cause the same to be forthwith published in the Edinburgh Gazette and in a newspaper circulating in the education area.

(1) It shall be the duty of every education authority to prepare and submit to the department for their approval a scheme or schemes for the constitution of committees (in this act called "school management committees") for the management of schools or groups of schools under their control throughout their education area.

Every such scheme shall contain provision—

- (a) For the due representation of each school management committee of the education authority and of the parents of the children attending the schools under the management of such committee; and
- (b) For the appointment thereto, on the nomination of the teachers engaged in the schools under the management of such committee, or, failing such nomination, directly, of at least one such teacher; and also
- (c) In the case of a school management committee having under its management one or more transferred schools, for the appointment thereto of at least one member in whose selection regard shall be had to the reasonable belief of the parents of the children attending such school or schools.

Further, in the case of a county, every such scheme shall have regard to the desirability of constituting separate school management committees for individual burghs and parishes, and shall provide for the appointment thereto, on the nomination of local bodies (including town and parish councils and at the first constitution outgoing school boards), or, failing such nomination, directly, of persons resident in the locality and otherwise qualified to represent local interests in school management.

(2) A school management committee shall, subject except as hereinafter provided to any regulations and restrictions made by the education authority, have all the powers and duties of that authority in regard to the general management and supervision of the school or group of schools, including attendance thereat; *Provided*, That in the case of a county a school management committee having under its management a secondary school shall have all the said powers and duties not subject to any such regulations or restrictions; *Provided further*, That the education authority shall in every case themselves retain, exercise, and perform all their powers and duties in regard to—

- (a) The raising of money by rate or loan and the general control of expenditure;
- (b) The acquisition or holding of land;
- (c) The appointment, transfer, remuneration, and dismissal of teachers;
- (d) The appointment of inspectors and the exercise of the powers conferred by the section of this act relating to power to facilitate attendance at secondary schools and other institutions; and
- (e) The recognition, establishment, or discontinuance of intermediate or secondary schools or of centers of advanced technical instruction.

Powers and Duties of Education Authorities.

4. (1) It shall be lawful for an education authority, with a view to securing that no child or young person resident in their education area who is qualified for attendance at an intermediate or secondary school, and in their opinion formed after consideration of a report from the teachers concerned shows promise of profiting thereby, shall be debarred therefrom by reason of the expense involved, to grant assistance in the case of any such child or young person by payment of traveling expenses, or of fees, or of the cost of residence in a hostel, or of a bursary or maintenance allowance, or any combination of these forms of assistance, or otherwise, as the authority think fit. And it shall also be lawful for an education authority similarly to assist any duly qualified person resident in their education area to enter or attend a university, or a training college, or a central institution (including classes affiliated thereto), or in special cases any other educational institution approved for the purpose by the department.

(2) It shall further be lawful for an education authority to grant assistance by payment of traveling expenses necessarily incurred in the case of any person resident in their education area in attending continuation classes under a scheme for instruction in such classes as in this act provided.

(3) Any assistance granted under this section shall be such as the education authority consider proper and necessary, having regard to the circumstances of each case, including the circumstances of the parents.

5. It shall be lawful for the education authority of a county, as an ancillary means of promoting education, to make such provision of books by purchase or otherwise as they may think desirable, and to make the same available not only to the children and young persons attending schools or continuation classes in the county, but also to the adult population resident therein.

For the purposes of this section an education authority may enter into arrangements with public libraries, and all expenses incurred by an education authority for those purposes shall be chargeable to the county education fund.

6. (1) It shall be the duty of every education authority within 12 months after the appointed day to prepare and submit for the approval of the department—

(a) A scheme for the adequate provision throughout the education area of the authority of all forms of primary, intermediate, and secondary education in day schools (including adequate provision for teaching Gaelic in Gaelic-speaking areas) without payment of fees, and if the authority think fit for the maintenance or support (in addition and without prejudice to such adequate provision as aforesaid) of a limited number of schools where fees are charged in some or all of the classes;

(b) A scheme for the exercise by the education authority of their powers under the section of this act relating to power to facilitate attendance at secondary schools and other institutions, together with an estimate of the expenditure involved therein; and

(c) A scheme of scales of salaries for the teachers employed by the authority, satisfying such conditions as to minimum national scales of salaries for teachers as may be laid down by the department after consultation with representatives of the education authorities and of the teaching profession: provided that such minimum scales of salaries shall be independent of any payment made to teachers out

of any bequest or endowment, the object of which is to secure special emoluments to any class of teachers or to the teachers of any special locality.

(2) Every education authority may at any time, and shall if and when so required by the department, prepare and submit for the approval of the department a revised scheme or modifications of an existing scheme under this section.

(3) Schemes prepared and submitted under this section shall include transferred schools.

7. Whereas it has been the custom in the public schools of Scotland to give instruction in religion to children whose parents did not object to the instruction so given, but with liberty to parents, without forfeiting any of the other advantages of the schools, to elect that their children should not receive such instruction, be it enacted that education authorities shall be at liberty to continue the said custom, subject to the provisions of section 68 (Conscience Clause) of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1872.

8. It shall be lawful for every education authority to make arrangements for—

- (a) Supplying or aiding the supply of nursery schools for children over 2 and under 5 years of age (or such later age as may be approved by the department) whose attendance at such a school is necessary or desirable for their healthy physical and mental development; and
- (b) Attending to the health, nourishment, and physical welfare of children attending nursery schools.

9. (1) It shall be lawful for every education authority to contribute to the maintenance of any school not under their own management which is included in the scheme for the provision of education within the education area of that authority approved by the department, and in which the teachers are remunerated at a rate not lower than the rate for teachers of similar qualifications employed by the authority, as also to the maintenance of any central institution or university, and to make a reasonable representation of the authority on the governing body of any such school or central institution (where such representation is not already provided for) a condition of any contribution other than a contribution required by the following subsection:

(2) Every education authority shall continue to contribute to the maintenance of any school within their education area but not under their own management which at the passing of this act was recognized by the department as an intermediate or secondary school, so long as such school continues to be so recognized, an amount not less than the contribution made to such school in terms of subsection (4) (a) and (b) of section 17 of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1908, in respect of the financial year ending on the 15th day of May, 1914, by any secondary education committee whose powers and duties are by this act transferred to that education authority: *Provided*, That the amount of the contribution required to be made under this subsection shall not exceed the amount by which the income of such school from all other sources falls short of the expenditure.

Any question arising as to the application of this subsection to any school or as to the amount of any contribution so made or to be made shall be determined by the department, whose determination shall be final.

(3) Every education authority shall contribute in each year towards the necessary expense of maintenance of the training colleges throughout Scotland such sum as the department may determine, being a sum proportioned to the number of fully qualified teachers in the service of each education authority on the 31st day of March in each year.

(4) It shall be lawful for every education authority with the sanction of the department to contribute to the maintenance of any educational institution or agency, where such contribution appears to the department desirable for the educational benefit of persons resident within the education area of the authority.

10. Where an education authority or any other governing body provide and maintain a school, not conducted for profit, which is recognized by the department, and is attended by children whose parents are resident outwith the education area in which the school is situated, there shall be paid in each year to that authority or to that governing body, as the case may be, out of the education fund of each education area in which any such parents are so resident, a sum equal to the cost of the education of such children (including in such cost repayment of and interest on loans for capital expenditure) after deduction, (a) in the case of a school maintained by an education authority, of income from all sources of income other than education rate, and (b) in the case of a school maintained by any other governing body, of income from grants made by the department and from fees: *Provided*, That no payment shall be made under this section out of the education fund of any education area in respect of any child for whom it is shown to the satisfaction of the department that accessible accommodation is available in a suitable school provided within that area, regard being had to all the circumstances, including the religious belief of his parents.

11. (1) An education authority may from time to time, for the purposes of any of their powers and duties under the education acts, acquire, purchase, feu, or take on lease any land.

(3) An education authority may be authorized to purchase land compulsorily by means of an order submitted to and confirmed by the department in accordance with the provisions contained in the first schedule to the Housing, Town Planning, etc., Act, 1909, as applied to Scotland.

13. (1) The expenses of an education authority (including the expenditure incurred by school management committees and local advisory councils in the performance of their duties and approved by the authority) shall be paid out of the education fund of the education area, which shall come in place of the school fund referred to in section 43 of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1872, and of the district education fund referred to in section 17 of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1908.

There shall be carried to the education fund all money received as grants from the department, or raised by way of loan, or transferred to the education authority under this act, or otherwise received by the education authority for the purposes of that fund, and not by this act or otherwise specially appropriated, and any deficiency in that fund, whether for satisfying present or future liabilities, shall be raised by the education authority as hereinafter provided.

(2) Every education authority shall annually ascertain the amount of such deficiency, and, unless and until Parliament otherwise determine in any statute amending the law of rating in Scotland, shall allocate and apportion the same among the parishes comprised in the education area, according to their respective valuations in the valuation roll, and shall, annually on or before a date to be fixed jointly by the department and the local government board for Scotland, certify to the parish council of each such parish the amount so allocated and apportioned thereupon, and the parish council may and shall impose, levy, and collect the same within such parish, under the name of "education rate."

In the manner prescribed by section 34 of the Poor Law (Scotland) Act, 1845, with respect to the poor rate, and along with but as a separate assessment from that rate, and shall, from time to time as they collect it, pay over the amount collected to the education authority, without any deduction on account of the cost of levying and collecting the same; and the laws applicable for the time being to the imposition, collection, and recovery of the poor rate shall be applicable to the education rate.

(3) In ascertaining the amount of the deficiency in the education fund, and allocating and apportioning the same among the parishes comprised in the education area, the education authority shall take into account and have regard to—

- (a) Any income, revenue, or contribution paid to the authority in pursuance of section 46 of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1872;
- (b) Any money (not included in the preceding paragraph) arising from a trust or endowment, and paid to the authority for behoof of any school in any parish within the education area, or for the promotion of education in any such school, or for or toward the income of any teacher therein;
- (c) The restriction contained in the proviso to the section of this act relating to provision of books for general reading; and
- (d) The direction contained in this act as to any surplus or deficiency shown in the accounts of a school board made up and balanced as at the appointed day.

(4) Any surplus of education rate which may arise in any one year shall be applied for the purposes of the ensuing year, and in like manner any deficiency which may occur in any year shall be included in the rate for the ensuing year.

(5) In the foregoing subsections of this section the expression "parish" includes a portion of a parish, and where a parish is comprised in two or more education areas, the education authority for each such area shall, in allocating and apportioning the amount of the deficiency in the education fund as hereinbefore provided, take into account and have regard to that portion only of such parish which is comprised within their own education area; and no education rate shall be imposed, levied, or collected in any parish or portion of a parish other than the education rate for the education area in which such parish or portion of a parish is comprised.

Extension of School Age—Continuation Classes—Employment of Children and Young Persons.

14. (1) The duty of every parent to provide efficient education for his children shall continue in respect of each child until that child has attained the age of 15 years, and exemption from attendance at school shall not be granted to any child who has not attained the age of 13 years; and the provisions of the education acts which relate to that duty and to such exemption are hereby amended accordingly, that is to say:

In sections 2 and 3 of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1901, and in section 7 of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1908, the word "thirteen" shall be substituted for the word "twelve" and the word "fifteen" for the word "fourteen" respectively wherever those words occur in those sections, and the word "fifteenth" shall be substituted for the word "fourteenth" in subsection (3) of the said section 7.

(2) It shall be the duty of every education authority to exercise the power of prescribing (subject to the approval of the department) dates of commencing

and terminating school attendance conferred by subsection (2) of the said section 7.

(3) Nothing in this section shall—

- (a) Prevent any employer from employing any child who is lawfully employed by him or by any other person before the appointed day; or
- (b) Affect any exemption from attendance at school granted before the appointed day; or
- (c) Affect the provisions of the Education of Blind and Deaf-mute Children (Scotland) Act, 1899, the Education of Defective Children (Scotland) Act, 1906, as read with the Education (Scotland) Act, 1905, or the Mental Deficiency and Lunacy (Scotland) Act, 1913, relating to the attendance at school of the children to whom those acts apply.

15. Sections 9 and 10 of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1908, are hereby repealed and in lieu thereof—

(1) Every education authority shall, after due inquiry and consultation with persons concerned in local crafts and industries and with due regard to local circumstances generally, prepare and submit for the approval of the department a scheme or schemes for the part-time instruction in continuation classes of all young persons within the education area of the authority who may under this act be required to attend such classes.

(2) (a) Every education authority shall prepare and submit for the approval of the department under this section—

- (i) Within one year after the appointed day a scheme applicable to young persons under the age of 16 years; and
- (ii) As soon thereafter as the department may require a scheme or schemes applicable to young persons of any age greater than 16 but not exceeding 18 years.

(b) When a young person to whom any such scheme applies attains the age of 16 years or any greater age as the case may be during any continuation class session, he shall for the purposes of this section be deemed not to have attained such age until the close of such session, so, however, that a young person shall not by reason of this provision be required to attend continuation classes for more than three months after he has attained such age.

(3) For the better preparation and carrying into effect of schemes under this section, and in particular for the registration and classification of young persons within their areas, it shall be the duty of education authorities to communicate and cooperate with associations or committees of employers and workmen concerned in the registration or supervision of apprentices in trades where apprentices are employed, or with similar associations or committees in trades or businesses where young persons, though not apprenticed thereto, have the prospect of regular employment therein in later years, and to encourage the formation of such associations or committees, and to register and classify young persons within their areas according to their employment in such trades or businesses or in occupations which do not afford the prospect of such regular employment, and to have regard to the educational requirements of such young persons with respect alike to their present and to their prospective employments.

(4) Every such scheme shall provide for—

- (a) Instruction in the English language and literature, and in such other parts of a general education as may be deemed desirable;
- (b) Special instruction conducive to the efficiency of young persons in the employment in which they are engaged or propose to be engaged; and

(c) Instruction in physical exercises adapted to age and physique : *Provided*, That for this purpose account may be taken of instruction in such exercises afforded at holiday camps or in connection with boys' brigades or kindred organizations if the instruction so afforded is approved by the education authority as satisfactory.

(5) The instruction given in continuation classes under any such scheme shall amount for each young person to an aggregate of at least 320 hours of attendance in each year distributed as regards times and seasons as may best suit the circumstances of each locality.

Provided, That no attendance at classes held between the hours of 7 in the evening and 8 in the morning shall be reckoned as part of the necessary aggregate of 320 hours of attendance, except in circumstances and to the extent specially approved by the department.

(6) The obligation to attend continuation classes under any such scheme shall not apply to any young person who—

(i) Is above the age of 14 years on the appointed day ; or

(ii)—(a) Is in full-time attendance at a recognized primary, intermediate, or secondary school ; or

(b) Is shown to the satisfaction of the education authority to be receiving suitable and efficient instruction in some other manner ; or

(iii)—(a) Has been in full-time attendance at a recognized intermediate or secondary school until the close of the school session in which he has attained the age of 17 years and is certified by the school authorities to have completed the post-intermediate course ; or

(b) Has attained the age of 17 years and is shown to the satisfaction of the education authority to have completed a course of instruction equivalent in value to the post-intermediate course ; or

(c) Has satisfactorily completed a course of training for, and is engaged in, the sea service, in accordance with the provisions of any national scheme which may hereafter be established, by Order in Council or otherwise, with the object of maintaining an adequate supply of well-trained British seamen, or, pending the establishment of such scheme, in accordance with the provisions of any interim scheme approved by the department.

The obligation to attend continuation classes under any such scheme shall not, within a period of three years from the appointed day on which the provisions of this section come into force, apply to young persons between the ages of 16 and 18, nor after such period to any young person who has attained the age of 16 before the expiration of that period.

(7) Whenever a scheme has been approved by the department the education authority shall, in such manner as the department may by order prescribe, require every young person to whom the obligation to attend continuation classes under such scheme applies to attend with due regularity for instruction in accordance with the scheme at such times and places as the education authority may appoint : *Provided*, That an education authority may, upon such conditions as they think fit, exempt any young person, from the obligation to attend continuation classes where, after due inquiry, the authority are satisfied that the circumstances justify such exemption, and the provisions of section 3 of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1901, relating to the keeping of a register and to the power of the department, shall, with the necessary modifications, apply to exemptions granted under this provision.

(8) If it appears to an education authority that any young person of the age of 15 years and upward is neglecting or falling without reasonable excuse to comply with any such requirement of the authority, it shall be lawful for that

authority, after due warning to such young person and to his parent and employer (if any), to summon the young person, with or without his parent or employer, to appear before the authority at any meeting thereof, and to require from him or them every information and explanation respecting such neglect or failure; and if such young person or his parent or employer, or some person on his or their behalf, either does not appear or appears and does not satisfy the authority that there is reasonable excuse for such neglect or failure, it shall be lawful for the authority to order in writing that such young person shall comply with such requirement, or with such other requirement as to attendance as the authority may direct. The authority shall cause a copy of any such order to be served by post on the young person to whom it relates, and if the young person fails to comply with the order he shall be liable, on summary conviction, to a penalty not exceeding 5 shillings.

(9) Every employer of labor shall afford to every young person in his employment any opportunity necessary for attendance at continuation classes in accordance with the requirements of the education authority, including time for traveling, and the hours of employment of any young person when added to the time necessary for such attendance, including time for traveling, shall not in the aggregate exceed in any day or week, as the case may be, the period of employment permitted for such young person by any act of Parliament.

Every employer who fails to afford the opportunity aforesaid, or who employs a young person contrary to the provisions of this subsection, shall be liable, on summary conviction, to a penalty not exceeding 20 shillings, or in case of a second or subsequent offense whether relating to the same or to another young person, not exceeding £5, and every parent of a young person who has concurred to the commission of such an offense by an employer, or to the failure of such young person to observe any requirement of the education authority under this section, shall be liable on summary conviction to the like penalties.

(10) An education authority may, in any scheme under this section, make provision for the attendance at continuation classes of persons of any age who desire to attend such classes although not required by the authority so to do.

(11) An education authority may in any scheme under this section, or by a separate scheme or schemes similarly submitted and approved, provide for the delegation by the authority, subject to any regulations and restrictions made by them, of any of their powers and duties relating to the management and supervision of continuation classes (including attendance thereat) within their education area or any part thereof to any school management committee or combination of such committees within their area, or to a committee or committees appointed by the authority for the purpose, consisting in whole or in part of members of the authority, and any such school management committee or other committee may exercise and shall perform all the powers and duties so delegated to them: *Provided*, That an education authority shall not so delegate any of the powers and duties which, by the section of this act relating to school management committees, the authority are required themselves to retain, exercise, and perform.

(12) Where continuation classes provided by the education authority in any education area are attended by persons resident without that area, there shall be paid in each year to that authority out of the education fund of the education area in which any such persons are so resident a sum equal to the cost of the instruction of such persons in those classes (including in such cost repayment of and interest on loans for capital expenditure) after deduction of income from all sources of income other than education rates: *Provided*, That no payment shall be made under this subsection out of the education fund of any education area in respect of any person for whom it is shown, to the

satisfaction of the department, that suitable instruction is available in accessible continuation classes within that area, regard being had to all the circumstances.

(13) The provisions of section 4 of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1903, which relates to the medical inspection of children, shall apply, with the necessary modifications, to the medical examination and supervision of young persons under the obligation to attend continuation classes under this section.

(14) If a young person over the age of 16 or the parent of a young person under the age of 16 represents in writing to the local education authority that he objects to any part of the instruction given in the continuation classes which the young person is required to attend, on the ground that it is contrary to his religious belief, or likely to give offense to his religious feelings, the obligation under this act to attend those classes for the purpose of such instruction shall not apply to him; and the local education authority shall, if practicable, arrange for him to receive other instruction in lieu thereof or attend other classes.

(15) In this section the expression "young person" includes any person between the ages of 15 and 18 years and also any child under the age of 15 years who has been exempted under the Education (Scotland) Act, 1901, from the obligation to attend school; the expressions "employ" and "employment" include employment in any labor exercised by way of trade or for purposes of gain whether the gain be to the young person or to any other person; and the expression "employer" includes a parent so employing his children.

16. The Employment of Children Act, 1903, so far as it relates to Scotland, shall be amended as follows:

(1) For subsection (1) of section 3 the following subsection shall be substituted—

A child under the age of 13 shall not be employed on any day on which he is required to attend school before the close of school hours on that day nor on any day before 8 o'clock in the morning or after 6 o'clock in the evening, nor shall any child who is of the age of 13 be so employed unless he has been exempted under the Education (Scotland) Act, 1901, from the obligation to attend school: *Provided*, That any local authority may by law vary these restrictions either generally or for any specified occupation.

(2) for subsection (2) of section 3 the following subsection shall be substituted—

No child or young person under the age of 17 shall be employed in street trading.

(3) To section 14 the following definition shall be added—

The expression "child" means a person under the age of 15 years, and for the purposes of this act a child attending school shall be deemed to attain that age on the date prescribed for terminating school attendance next succeeding the fifteenth anniversary of his birth.

(4) References to the Education (Scotland) Act, 1901, shall be construed as references to that act as amended by this act.

17. No child or young person under the age of 15 years who has not been exempted under the Education (Scotland) Act, 1901, from the obligation to attend school shall be employed (as in Fisher Act, sec. 14, p. 100).

Voluntary or Denominational Schools.

18. (1) It shall be lawful at any time after the first election of education authorities under this act for the person or persons vested with the title of

any school which at the passing of this act is a voluntary school within the meaning of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1897, with the consent of the trustees of any trust upon which such school is held, to transfer the school, together with the site thereof and any land or buildings and furniture held and used in connection therewith, by sale, lease, or otherwise, to the education authority, who shall be bound to accept such transfer, upon such terms as to price, rent, or other consideration as may be agreed, or as may be determined, falling agreement, by an arbiter appointed by the department upon the application of either party.

(2) Any grant payable to a transferred school which has accrued in respect of a period before the date of transfer shall be paid by the department to the education authority to whom the school is transferred, and shall be applied by that authority in payment of any liabilities on account of the school then outstanding and, so far as not required for that purpose, toward the maintenance of the school.

(3) Any school so transferred shall be held, maintained, and managed as a public school by the education authority, who shall be entitled to receive grants therefor as a public school, and shall have in respect thereto the sole power of regulating the curriculum and of appointing teachers: *Provided, That—*

(1) The existing staff of teachers shall be taken over by the education authority and shall from the date of transfer be placed upon the same scale of salaries as teachers of corresponding qualifications appointed to corresponding positions in other schools of the same authority.

(1) All teachers appointed to the staff of any such school by the education authority shall in every case be teachers who satisfy the department as to qualification, and are approved as regards their religious belief and character by representatives of the church or denominational body in whose interest the school has been conducted.

(11) Subject to the provisions of section 68 (conscience clause) of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1872, the time set apart for religious instruction or observance in any such school shall not be less than that so set apart according to the use and wont of the former management of the school, and the education authority shall appoint as supervisor without remuneration of religious instruction for each such school, a person approved as regards religious belief and character as aforesaid, and it shall be the duty of the supervisor so appointed to report to the education authority as to the efficiency of the religious instruction given in such school. The supervisor shall have the right of entry to the school at all times set apart for religious instruction or observance. The education authority shall give facilities for the holding of religious examinations in every such school.

(4) Any question which may arise as to the due fulfillment or observance of any provision or requirement of the preceding subsection shall be referred to the department, whose decision shall be final.

(5) After the expiry of two years from the passing of this act no grant from the Education (Scotland) Fund shall be made in respect of any school to which this section applies unless the school shall have been transferred to the education authority, and as from the expiry of that period the Education (Scotland) Act, 1897, shall cease to have effect: *Provided, That* the department may extend the said period in any case where, in the opinion of the department, further time is required for the completion of a transfer.

(6) This section shall not apply to any residential institution which is either—

(a) A school for blind, deaf, or defective children, shown to the satisfaction of the department by the person or persons vested with the title of

the school to be attended largely by children whose parents or guardians are resident outwith the education area in which the school is situated; or

- (b) An orphanage shown to the satisfaction of the department by the person or persons vested with the title of the orphanage to be required for the proper education of children destitute of efficient guardianship.

(7) A school established after the passing of this act to which this section would have applied had the school been in existence at that date may, with the consent of the department, be transferred to the education authority, and the provisions of this section shall, with the necessary modifications, apply to any such transfer and to any school so transferred.

(8) In any case where the department are satisfied, upon representations made to them by the education authority of any education area, or by any church or denominational body acting on behalf of the parents of children belonging to such church or body, and after such inquiry as the department deem necessary, that a new school is required for the accommodation of children whose parents are resident within that education area, regard being had to the religious belief of such parents, it shall be lawful for the education authority of that area to provide a new school, to be held, maintained, and managed by them subject to the conditions prescribed in subsection (3) of this section, so far as those conditions are applicable; the time set apart for religious instruction in the new school being not less than that so set apart in schools in the same education area which have been transferred under this section.

(9) If at any time after the expiry of 10 years from the transfer of a school under this section or from the provision of a new school as aforesaid, the education authority by whom the school is maintained are of opinion that the school is no longer required, or that, having regard to the religious belief of the parents of the children attending the school, the conditions prescribed in subsection (3) of this section ought no longer to apply thereto, the authority may so represent to the department, and if the department, after such inquiry as they deem necessary, are of the same opinion and so signify, it shall be lawful for the education authority thereafter to discontinue the school, or, as the case may be, to hold, maintain, and manage the same in all respects as a public school, not subject to those conditions: *Provided*, That in the case of any school which has been transferred to an education authority under this section, that authority shall in either of those events make to the trustees by whom the school was transferred, or to their successors in office or representatives, such compensation (if any) in respect of the school or other property so transferred as may be agreed, or as may be determined, falling agreement, by an arbitrator appointed by the department upon the application of either party.

(10) Section 39 of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1872 (which relates to consent to transfers of certain schools under section 38 of that act), shall, with the necessary modifications, apply to transfers under this section as it applies to transfers under the said section 38.

Reformatory and Industrial Schools.

10. After the passing of this act it shall be lawful for the Secretary for Scotland, with the consent of the Treasury, from time to time to make an order transferring to the department any powers relating to reformatory or industrial schools in Scotland for the time being possessed by the Secretary for Scotland under the Children Act, 1908, or any local act (including any powers which have been or may be transferred to the Secretary for Scotland under the said

act of 1908), and by such order to make any adjustment consequential on the transfer and to provide for any matter necessary or proper for giving full effect to the transfer, and on any such order being made the powers so transferred shall be exerciseable by the department.

Advisory Council.

20. It shall be lawful for His Majesty in Council by order to establish an advisory council consisting, as to not less than two-thirds of the members, of persons qualified to represent the views of various bodies interested in education, for the purpose of advising the department on educational matters, and the department shall take into consideration any advice or representation submitted to them by the advisory council.

Education Grants.

21. (1) In respect of the year commencing the 1st day of April, 1919, and every subsequent year, in addition to the sums payable out of the Local Taxation (Scotland) Account into the Education (Scotland) Fund under section 15 of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1908, there shall be paid into that fund out of moneys provided by Parliament:

(1) A sum equal to the amount of the sums applicable to education in Scotland (other than the Royal Scottish Museum grant, the capital grant for the training of teachers, sums spent on the superannuation of school-teachers and any sums paid under section 2 or section 50 of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1872), shown by the appropriation account to have been expended from the parliamentary vote for education in Scotland in the year ended the 31st day of March, 1914 (hereinafter in this section referred to as "the standard year"); and

(1) Eleven-eightieths of the excess of the amount of the sums estimated to be expended in each year from the vote for education in England and Wales (except so far as such sums represent expenses of general departmental administration or sums spent on the superannuation of teachers or expenses of services for which in the opinion of the Treasury after consultation with the department Scotland already receives an equivalent by way of direct contribution or of common benefit) over the amount of the sums shown by the appropriation account to have been so expended in the standard year (with the like exception): *Provided*, That if the amount of the sums (with the exception aforesaid) actually expended in any year from the vote for education in England and Wales, as shown by the appropriation account, exceeds or falls short of the corresponding estimate, the sum to be paid into the Education (Scotland) Fund in terms of paragraph (1) of this subsection in the year commencing the 1st day of April next following the day on which such appropriation account is presented to Parliament shall be increased or reduced as the case may be by eleven-eightieths of the difference between such expenditure and estimate.

(2) (a) After providing for the payments mentioned in subsection (1) of section 16 of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1908, the balance of the Education (Scotland) Fund that may remain in any year shall be applied as nearly as may be in making grants in aid of the expenditure of education authorities (or outgoing school boards and secondary education committees), and managers of schools in accordance with minutes of the department laid before Parliament:

Provided that no minute of the department framed under this section shall come into force until it has lain for not less than one month on the table of both Houses of Parliament.

(b) Subsections (2), (3), and (4) of section 16, and sections 17 and 18 of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1908, shall cease to have effect.

Election and Proceedings of Education Authorities.

22. The members for an electoral division of an education area shall be elected by the persons registered as local government electors for that division under the Representation of the People Act, 1918.

23. The voting at any contested election of members of an education authority shall be according to the principle of proportional representation, each elector having one transferable vote as defined by this act.

24. (1) No resolution of an education authority for the dismissal of a certificated teacher from their service shall be valid unless—

(a) Written notice of the motion for his dismissal shall, not less than three weeks before the meeting at which the resolution is adopted, have been sent to the teacher and to each member of the education authority; and

(b) Not less than one-half of the members of the education authority are present at the meeting; and

(c) The resolution is agreed to by two-thirds of the members so present.

(2) Notwithstanding anything in this act, it shall be lawful for any school management committee summarily to suspend any teacher from the exercise of his duties in any school or schools under their management; but such suspension shall not affect the teacher's rights to the salary or other emoluments attached to his office.

25. It shall be the duty of every education authority within three months after the first election thereof to establish an advisory council (in this act called a "local advisory council"), consisting of persons qualified to represent the views of bodies interested in education, for the purpose of advising the authority on matters of educational interest relating to the education area, and the authority shall take into consideration any advice or representation submitted to them by the local advisory council.

26. The department, on the application of an education authority, may within 12 months after the first election of such authority, from time to time make such orders as appear to them necessary for bringing this act into full operation as respects the authority so applying, and such order may modify any enactment in this or any other act, whether general or local, so far as may appear to the department necessary for the said purpose.

General.

27. (1) The department may, after considering any representations made to them on the subject, approve any scheme or revised scheme or modification of an existing scheme submitted to them under this act by an education authority, and thereupon it shall be the duty of the education authority to carry the same into effect as so approved.

(2) If the department are of opinion that a scheme does not make adequate provision in respect of all or any of the purposes to which the scheme relates, and the department are unable to agree with the authority as to what amendments should be made in the scheme, they shall offer to hold a conference with the representatives of the authority, and, if requested by the authority shall hold a public inquiry in the matter. The expenses of any such inquiry as certified by the department shall be paid by the authority.

(3) If thereafter the department disapprove a scheme they shall notify the authority and if, within one month thereafter, an agreement is not reached they shall lay before Parliament the report of the public inquiry (if any) together with a report stating their reasons for such disapproval and any action they intend to take in consequence thereof by way of withholding or reducing any grants payable to the authority.

28. A woman shall not be disqualified either by sex or marriage from being a member of any education authority, or committee thereof, or school management committee, or school committee, or advisory council, or any other body constituted, elected, nominated, or appointed for educational purposes under or in pursuance of this act.

30. The Scotch Education Department shall be known as the Scotch Education Department.

33. (1) This act shall extend to Scotland only.

(2) This act shall, except as otherwise expressly provided, come into operation on the appointed day, and the appointed day shall be such day as the department may appoint, and different days may be appointed for different purposes and for different provisions of this act (including the repeal of different enactments), for different areas or parts of areas, and for different persons or classes of persons.

IRELAND.

In spite of the political unrest that has prevailed in Ireland during the past few years, the country has been affected by the educational progress of England, Wales, and Scotland. If the pressure of circumstances has emphasized the demands for increases of salary, that problem is intimately associated with the desire to improve the professional status of teachers and thereby to improve the schools. It is beginning to be recognized that Ireland's greatest need in education is not so much the reform of this or that branch of education as a unification of the different interests into a national system. Few countries can produce a parallel to the tripartite scheme of administration that must inevitably retard educational progress in Ireland. Even though the functions of the Commissioners of National Education, who have charge of elementary education, the Intermediate Education Board, which administers secondary education, and the Department of Agricultural and Technical Education do not as a rule overlap, they necessarily lead to a conception of education by compartments, which is difficult from the administrative standpoint and unjustifiable on public grounds. To these difficulties must be added the sectarian situation, which is another factor that militates against any plans for a successful national scheme. The political element, disturbing as it is for national welfare, has not affected the course of education recently, and it is probable that education is the one question on which all political parties could cooperate, just as all parties and creeds appear to speak with one voice on the inadequacy of the

sums received from the imperial treasury in its relation to Irish education.

The association of some teachers with the Sinn Fein rebellion of 1916 gave rise to a general charge against the character of the teaching in the national schools. As the result of an inquiry, conducted by the Commissioners of National Education, the conclusion was reached that the amount of disaffection among teachers was very slight, and that "even in districts where it might be supposed that disaffection would be apparent, they found many signs in the pupils' exercises that distinctly loyal ideas had been encouraged by the teachers." It might be pointed out, however, as the commissioners did, that national teachers are forbidden to take part in political agitation. The charges that were leveled against the teachers were extended to the textbooks in history; on examination of these books the commissioners ordered that the use of some of them should be discontinued. Textbooks are issued by commercial publishers, and their use is sanctioned by the commissioners.

During the period of the war school attendance has declined somewhat as a result of the exploitation of child labor. In order to encourage pupils to remain at school at least until the completion of the sixth grade instead of drifting away into blind-alley occupations, the national commissioners in June, 1916, inaugurated the experiment of introducing an examination for the higher grade certificates for boys and girls who have passed the sixth grade. The experiment was successful in Belfast and is to be extended to Dublin and Cork. It is hoped that the certificates will come to be recognized by larger employers as the minimum educational qualifications for employment.

The course of the war imposed large economies on educational expenditure, particularly in such matters as buildings, printing, and the collection of statistics. The rapid rise in the cost of living worked particular hardship on teachers of all grades, since salaries in many cases fell below the minimum standard wage of \$6 a week paid to agricultural laborers. In July, 1914, a new scale of salaries, with annual instead of the prevailing triennial increments, was promised to elementary school-teachers, but was not put into force owing to the outbreak of war. From July 1, 1916, a war bonus came into effect for those in receipt of salaries below \$15 a week; the total cost of this increase for the year was \$825,000, giving an average bonus of about 80 cents a week. This did not quell the agitation, which seemed to divert the energies of Irish teachers from their real function. In September, 1917, largely as a result of the example set by Mr. Fisher's additional grant to English education, the sum of \$1,920,000 was granted for Irish elementary education over and above the ordinary estimates, as the equivalent of Ireland's share in the imperial taxation. A large share of this sum is to be devoted to salary increases.

More extensive reforms are needed, however, than the improvement of the teachers' status. Something has been done to develop school gardens, and special courses in horticulture are given to teachers in training to promote this work. Medical inspection of school children has hardly had a beginning, and, although funds are provided since 1914 for the payment of grants for dental clinics, they have as yet shown no development, since local authorities are unable to levy local rates for the purpose. In 1914 power was given to provide meals to necessitous children in the schools, but this measure is also likely to languish, owing to the inertia of local bodies. Attempts to expand the curriculum by the introduction of woodwork for boys and domestic science for girls are blocked not only by lack of funds locally, but by the inability to secure more money from the Treasury. A revision of the school programs is under way, and the need is felt of making them more adaptable to the demands of industrial and rural centers. Conferences have been conducted with teachers, inspectors, principals of secondary and technical schools, and chambers of commerce. Especially urgent is the provision of more opportunities for boys and girls between the ages of 12 and 16. Other needs that are recognized are the provision of pensions; increased grants for teacher-training colleges, the establishment of higher elementary schools and day and evening continuation schools, the appointment of divisional inspectors, the supply of books and stationery for pupils, and residence grants for teachers. It is estimated that these reforms would require additional grants rising from about \$4,000,000 to \$5,000,000 a year. But the realization of even these plans of reorganization would only be a very partial installment of the complete revision that Irish education needs to-day to stimulate local effort, to develop local systems of administration, and to articulate all branches of education from the infant schools to the universities.

Secondary or intermediate education shows in Ireland, as elsewhere in the British Isles, increased attendance; and each year produces a larger number of candidates for the examinations conducted by the Intermediate Education Board. Since 1908 the examination system which was established in 1878, and upon the results of which grants are paid by the board to the schools, has been supplemented by a system of inspection. In 1913 the examination of pupils below the age of 14 was abolished. During the past four years there has been a recrudescence of the criticism periodically leveled against the system. The board states in its report for 1913 that the system has its limitations, and that an examination conducted once a year is not a test. The board has only a fixed sum to devote to the support of intermediate education, and the success of one school means the diminution of the grant to another. Struggling schools can not be assisted, new

ones can not be established without reducing the grants, and facilities can not be extended to encourage elementary school pupils to continue to a higher education. Finally, the board had until recently no power of investigating schools which may still produce successful results in the examinations without being efficient in other desirable respects. The board is inclined to favor two examinations, the one leading to the intermediate certificate at about the age of 16, and the other to the leaving certificate at the age of 19. The grants should not depend primarily on examination results but should be distributed on a capitation basis to schools meeting certain standards of efficiency; for example, in such matters as the maintenance of regular attendance, the qualifications of teachers, and the number of pupils presented for the two examinations mentioned. Only in some such way could adaptation to modern needs be encouraged.

Similar recommendations have been urged by the teachers, who, although actuated primarily by the urgent need for an improvement in their economic and professional status, are also ready to promote the new tendencies. As in the case of elementary education, the reform of secondary education is closely dependent on financial considerations. Intermediate education is supported by the local taxation duties and certain funds resulting from the disestablishment of the Irish church. These sums are decreasing, while the number of schools and pupils is constantly increasing. Ireland demands a share in the imperial revenue equivalent to those given to England and Wales and Scotland. It is variously estimated that this share would amount to about \$500,000. In 1917 an equivalent grant of \$250,000 was secured for Irish intermediate education, part of which was for the establishment of courses for teachers, part set aside for aiding buildings and equipment, and the rest to be distributed as a capitation grant among the schools complying with certain conditions. The most important of these conditions is that a school must employ a qualified teacher for the first 40 pupils and an additional teacher for each additional 20 pupils. Such teachers must be paid \$100 a year over the minimum set down in the regulations governing the distribution of the Birrell grant of \$200,000 a year, passed in 1914. These regulations require that lay teachers for purposes of this grant, which was intended for the increase of salaries, must hold a university degree or have had two years of experience, and be paid a minimum salary of \$700 a year, if men, and \$450 a year, if women. Much dissatisfaction has attended the distribution of the Birrell grant, and the increases of salary of qualified lay teachers have been slight; the situation is well indicated by the fact that the highest salary paid to a lay teacher in a Roman Catholic school is \$800 a year, while only a few receive over \$1,000 and still fewer over \$1,500 a year in Protestant schools.

The teachers have, however, an opportunity of developing professional solidarity which should in time lend weight to their recommendations. The Birrell Act of 1914 provided for the establishment of a registration council for intermediate teachers. A council was appointed in 1915 and, although it drafted rules in the same year, nothing further was accomplished until April, 1918, when the intermediate board assumed its functions and issued rules in the following month. Until 1925 it is expected that existing teachers can be registered without much difficulty. Ultimately the qualifications for registration required will be raised to include a university degree or its equivalent, a diploma indicating a year of professional training, and three years of experience. These requirements should stimulate the professional training of secondary school teachers, especially men, as nothing else has done. With a trained teaching profession it seems hardly possible that the present system should continue unaltered.

The view has already gained wide acceptance that future progress of Irish education requires the establishment of a ministry of education with three divisions, for elementary, secondary, and technical education, and an advisory council for each. The needed reforms in secondary education have been summarized in the report made in July, 1917, by its education committee to the senate of Queen's University, Belfast:

That this committee is convinced that the time has come for a thorough re-organization of secondary education in Ireland: (1) in order to improve the tone and character of education by limiting the pressure of examinations, and giving, subject to proper superintendence, greater freedom to the teachers and managers of schools; (2) in order to raise the status and add to the remuneration of secondary-school teachers, so as to attract able and highly trained persons to the profession; (3) in order to obtain a close coordination of primary and secondary systems of education by placing them under one control; that to secure these ends much larger financial provision for education should be made by the State; and that the grant to Ireland should be proportionately equivalent to that which is proposed for England and Scotland.

This report, combined with the statement by the Intermediate Education Board of the limitations of the system that it administers, should be far-reaching in their effects. Such considerations need to be further supplemented by inquiries into the possible sources of aid from local authorities which hitherto have given very little support to secondary education, slight support to elementary education, and comparatively large assistance to technical education. Committees of inquiry, though limited to investigations of the status of teachers, were appointed during 1918. Neither of these can go very far in the consideration of their problems without branching out into the larger and more important problem that is still far from solution—the reconstruction of Irish education in all its phases.