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EDUCATION COMMITTEE.

AN ACCOUNT OF A VISIT TO SCHOOLS AND OTHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

(March—July, 1922),

by

J. H. HALLAM, M.A., M.Sc.

In submitting to the Education Committee an account of my visit to the United States, I ask them to accept with it my grateful thanks for their generous action in giving me the necessary leave of absence and in making a grant towards the expenses of the journey. It has been a wonderfully stimulating experience. I trust that I may perhaps have brought back a little of the hopefulness for the future of education and the freshness of outlook upon it so characteristic of America.

Here also I desire to put on record my appreciation of the invariable kindness and the almost overwhelming hospitality with which I was received during my travels in the United States. In that respect my experience was in no way unusual: the English visitor finds all doors open to him and everyone anxious to give him help.

J. H. H.

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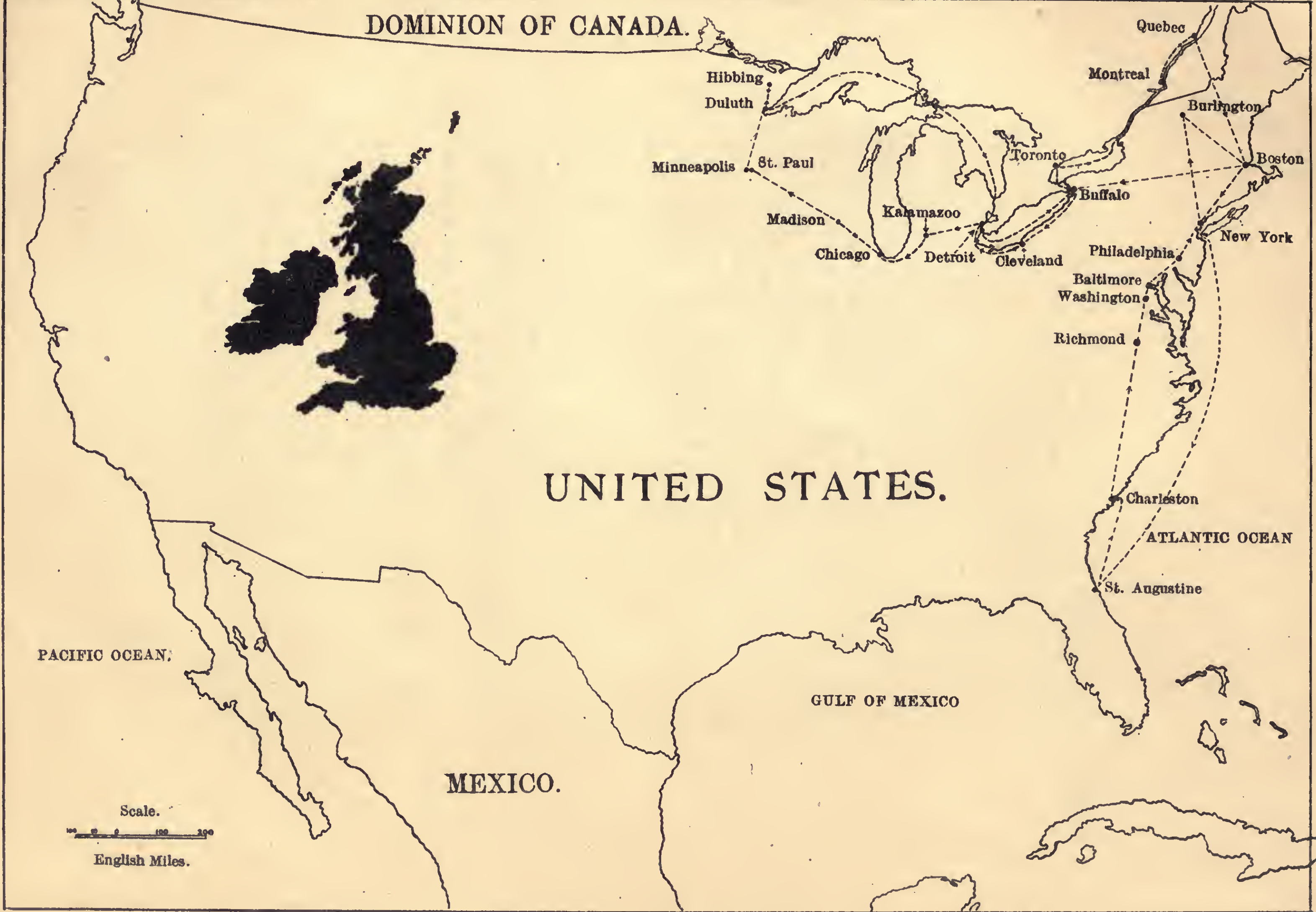
I.—INTRODUCTION.

Itinerary.

I arrived in New York on March 13th and after spending the rest of the month there sailed for Jacksonville (Florida) which I reached on April 3rd. After a few days at the neighbouring town of St. Augustine I moved northwards, staying at Charleston (South Carolina); Richmond and Charlottesville (Virginia); Washington (D.C.); Baltimore (Maryland); Philadelphia (Pennsylvania); and Trenton (New Jersey); returning to New York on April 28th. After a further two weeks stay there, broken by a visit to New Haven (Connecticut), I set out for New England and then the Middle-West, staying at Burlington (Vermont); Boston (from which I visited Fall River, also in Massachusetts); Cleveland (Ohio); Detroit and Kalamazoo (Michigan); Chicago (Illinois), from which I visited Gary (Indiana); Madison (Wisconsin); St. Paul (Minnesota), from which I visited Minneapolis; reaching Duluth, at the western end of Lake Superior, on June 17th. By this time the schools had closed for the summer vacation. After a visit to the mining town of Hibbing I therefore turned east on June 20th, travelling on the Great Lakes and arriving at Buffalo (New York) on June 24th. Thence, via Niagara, I visited Toronto, Montreal and Quebec, which latter place I left on July 2nd for Boston, for the annual meeting of the National Educational Association. From Boston I returned again to New York, where I remained in order to attend lectures on Educational Administration at Columbia University until August 10th, when I sailed for England. The route followed is shown on the map on the next page.


DOMINION OF CANADA.
Hibbing
Duluth
Minneapolis
St. Paul
Madison
Chicago
Kalamazoo
Detroit
Cleveland
Toronto
Buffalo
Quebec
Montreal
Burlington
Boston
New York
Philadelphia
Baltimore
Washington
Richmond
UNITED STATES.
Charleston
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St. Augustine
PACIFIC OCEAN.
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Types of Schools, etc., visited.

In all the towns mentioned I visited schools of various types, paying particular attention to those for children above 11 years of age. Using many of these towns as centres, I also visited schools and other institutions in rural districts, often at long distances from the railway. In addition to High Schools (Secondary Schools) of various types I saw something also of Elementary Schools, Trade Schools, Technical Schools, Agricultural Schools, Schools of Art, Day Continuation Schools, Classes for Adults, Universities, Special Schools for the Deaf and the Blind and for the training of Negroes and Indians, Normal Schools (Training Colleges), and Americanisation Classes. A certain amount of time also was spent in interviewing administrative officials and enquiring into the organisation of Education Offices. The Universities I visited included both types, Endowed and State; among the former were Columbia (New York City), Yale (New Haven, Connecticut), Harvard (Cambridge, Massachusetts), Princeton, the University of Pennsylvania (Philadelphia), Bryn Mawr (Philadelphia) and the Universities of Chicago and Toronto; among the latter, the University of Virginia (Charlottesville), the University of Wisconsin (Madison), the University of Minnesota (Minneapolis), and the College of the City of New York.

I made a special effort to meet as many Americans as possible not officially connected with education, and to learn their opinion upon the educational system of their country. It was particularly helpful also to talk with Englishmen settled in America and doing educational work there. I had the privilege of interviews with a good many business and professional men, including the president of what is said to be the largest business organisation in the world, the vice-

president of an important railroad, the head of a large lumber firm, and many doctors, lawyers, and ministers of religion.

I took the opportunity of seeing as much as I could of all sides of American public life. I visited occasionally the Law Courts, including the Children's Court of New York City, listened to debates in both Houses of Congress, and was present at a number of public meetings and lectures. I had opportunities of speaking to teachers and pupils of High Schools, Training Colleges, and Universities about English education; I also lectured on this subject at an Education Conference at Philadelphia, to the Staff of the Cleveland Board of Education and to students of Columbia University Summer School.

Time did not permit of a visit to the States of the Pacific Slope, but reference to the map will show that I made at least a passing acquaintance with some of the most important sections of the country, viz., New England, the Eastern States, a part of the South, and the Middle-West. The time I spent in Canada was so short that I do not propose to refer to that Dominion.

The Varied Character of the United States.

There are certain facts which an English visitor to the United States does well to keep in mind, particularly when he is about to make general statements by way of criticism.

(1) The enormous area of the country (50 times that of England and Wales), and its great distances. It is as far from New York to San Francisco as from Liverpool to New York; there is as much difference in climate between Maine and Florida as between Denmark and Spain.

(2) The heterogeneous character of the population. In this connection the South has its own peculiar problem, the presence of some 12 million negroes.

(3) The system of government, a Federation of States, each of which in many respects, including the administration of education, retains independence.

All these conditions make for diversity and complexity, so that is is well nigh impossible in dealing briefly with American education to make a general statement to which important exceptions might not be found. It is difficult too, in a report of moderate length, to give satisfactorily an account of all the types of educational work seen during a five months' stay in the country; I propose therefore in the following notes to confine myself chiefly to such parts of the American educational system as are of special interest in view of current problems in English education.

II.—BRIEF OUTLINE OF THE AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

There is in the United States no national Board of Education as in England. The Federal Bureau of Education at Washington, presided over by a Commissioner appointed by the President, is occupied solely in collecting statistics, in disseminating information, in administering certain federal grants of no very great relative importance, and in conducting educational surveys when requested. The major educational unit is the individual State, the control of education being reserved to the separate States by the Constitution. The fact that the individual State is the unit tends to be in some degree obscured, because the State invariably delegates many of its powers to smaller units, the city, the county, or the school district; and because much of the taxation for educational purposes is highly localised. The money required for the building of a new school, for example, is generally raised from the immediate locality; the funds required for its maintenance may be met partly by the immediate locality and partly by the county; the latter in its turn levies its own taxes and receives subsidies from the general State tax. There is, however, an almost endless variety of systems. In some States, for example, there are no county areas but school districts only, though the county system has come to be considered the best because it avoids extreme parochialism. The large cities naturally tend to become in most respects independent units.

This condition of things is perhaps best understood by considering the manner in which the country was settled. As the tide of population flowed westward and each little

community established itself, one of its first cares was to set up a school. Naturally each school was governed by the district immediately surrounding it. As settlements became more dense and states with their component counties were formed, the necessity for a more centralized form of educational administration became apparent and the state and county systems grew up. But the early localized administration still persists in the high degree of independence retained under the state system by the large city, the county, and even in many cases the school district. The tendency however is towards further centralisation. At the present time Congress has under consideration a measure (the Towner-Sterling Bill), intended to set up at Washington a Federal Board of Education with a certain amount of supervision over the state educational systems and the power of making federal grants to them. It is thought that by this means education in the less progressive states will be improved. For that reason teachers and educationists generally are in favour of the bill; but the American public as a whole is jealous of any attempted infringment on state rights and the Bill has been attacked in the newspapers as "an attempt to Europeanise our institutions."

American Education Authorities.

The body which administers a State system of education is called the State Board of Education. It is an *ad hoc* body, the members of which may be elected by the people or nominated by the Governor of the State (who is himself elected by popular vote) or by some other person or body. Similar Boards exist for the county, the city, and the school district, appointed in similar ways. These Boards are always much smaller than English Education Committees, five or six being the usual number of members. They meet as a

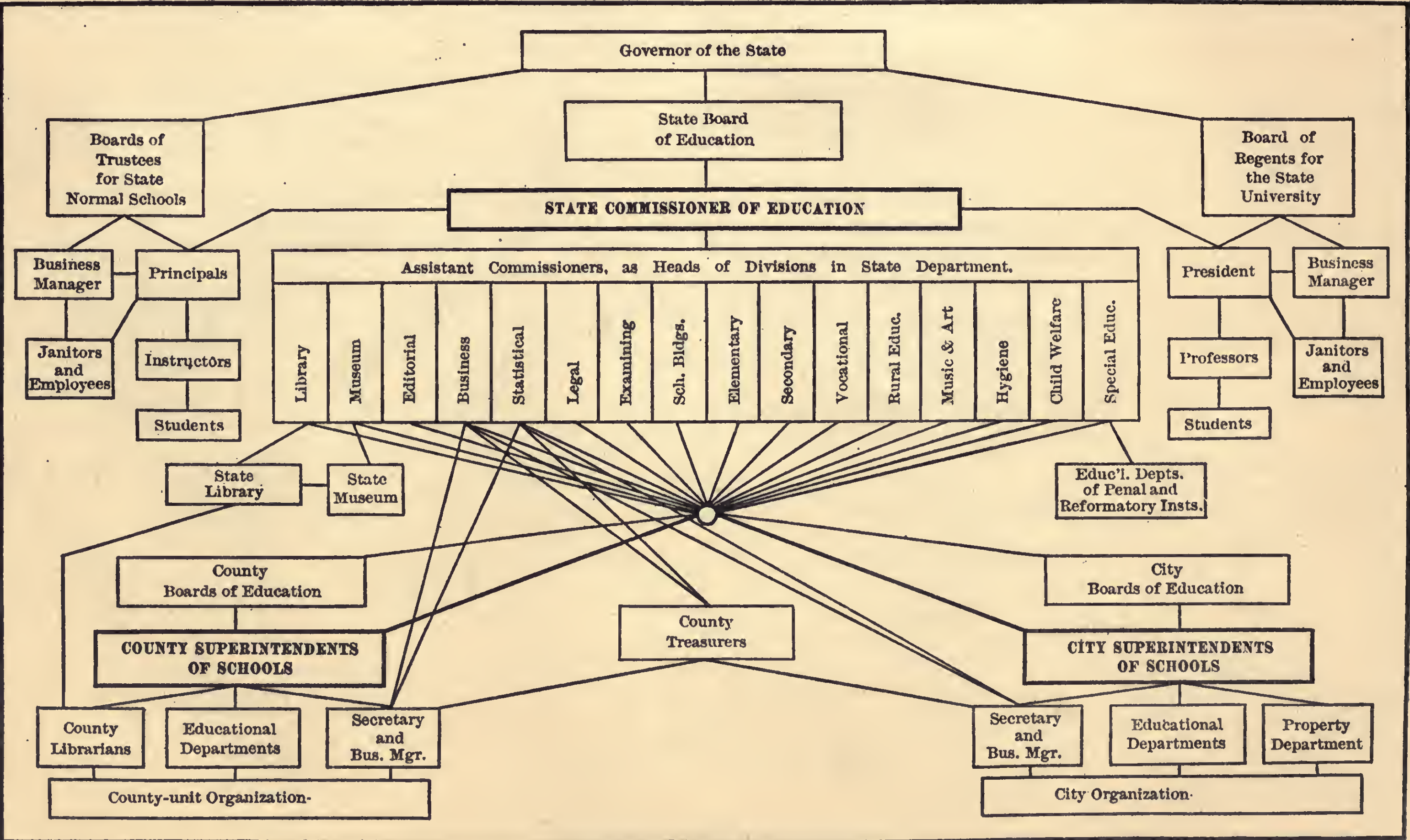
rule less frequently, and leave matters of administration largely to their chief official, the Superintendent of Schools, confining themselves in the main to matters of policy.

Education Officials.

The State Superintendent of Schools, or chief State education officer, is, as a rule, appointed by the State Board of Education for a short term only, generally four or five years, after which he is eligible for re-appointment for a similar period. In some cases he is elected by the people and is a member of the Board; this system, chiefly found in the South, is not regarded as tending to efficiency. The size and character of the Superintendent's staff varies with the importance of the State. In the case of a State or a large city it will contain at least one Assistant Superintendent, an Education Architect, a School Medical Officer. and a Business Manager, together with a number of Supervisors responsible to the Superintendent for oversight of the instruction.

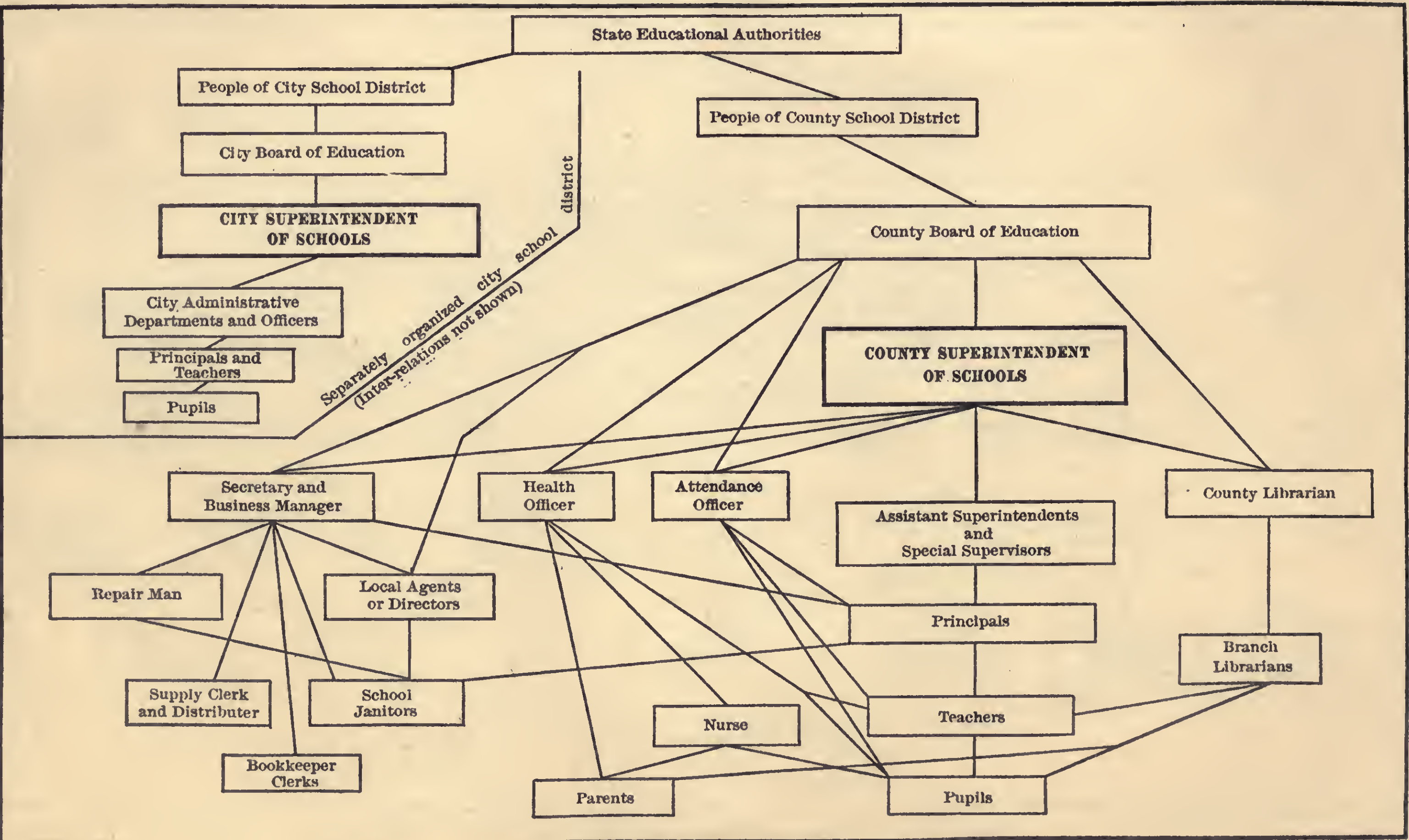
It would take much space to describe fully the relations between the various branches of the American education service. The diagrams on pages 12, 13 and 14, taken by kind permission from Professor Cubberley's "Public School Administration," may serve to some extent as a substitute. The first of these diagrams (page 12) shows the composition of a State Department of Education, its relation to the State University, the State Normal Schools (Training Colleges) and to the subordinate county and nominally subordinate city education systems; the second diagram (page 13) shows the county system; the third diagram (page 14) shows the city system in detail.

It should be understood that these diagrams indicate only standard types of organisation; departures from them in one respect or another will be found in almost every case.



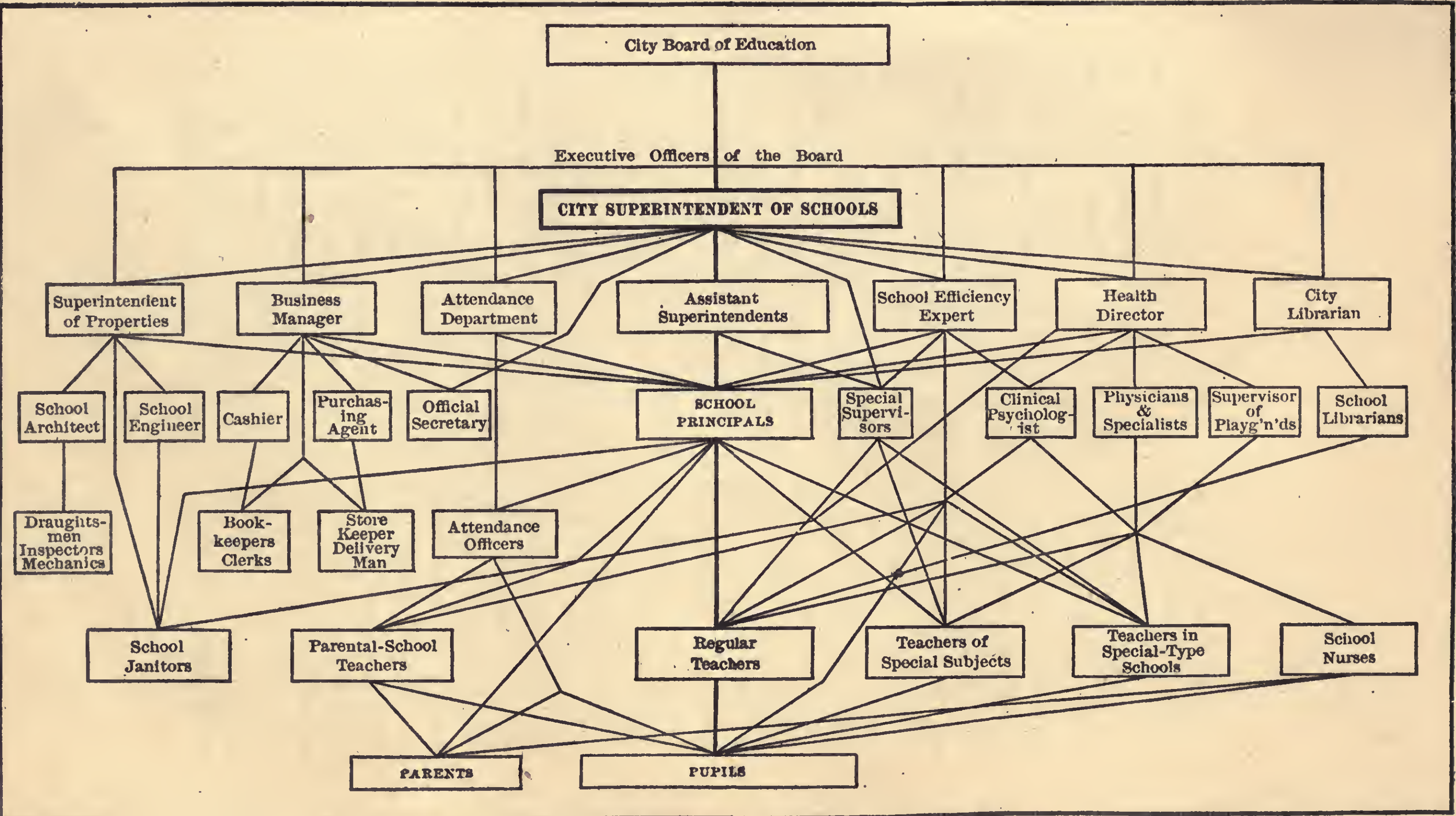
STATE EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

From *Public School Administration* by E. P. Cubberley (Houghton Mifflin Co.).



COUNTY-UNIT EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

From *Public School Administration* by E. P. Cubberley (Houghton Mifflin Co.).



PLAN OF EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR A LARGE CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM,

From *Public School Administration* by E. P. Cubberley (Houghton Mifflin Co.).

The Supervisor is an official whose functions are interesting to an English observer. Broadly speaking, there are no Inspectors of Schools in the United States; the Supervisor combines the work of inspection with that of advice and guidance and is responsible to the Superintendent for the efficiency of the branch of educational work in his or her charge. In the case of Elementary Schools the Supervisor's work is generally divided according to types of schools, *e.g.*, Rural Schools, Coloured Schools, Special Schools, and so on; in the case of High Schools, each Supervisor deals with some one subject or group of subjects in the curriculum, much as members of the Organising Staff do in the West Riding. The Superintendent of Schools, though primarily an administrative officer is, as a rule, more concerned than the English Director of Education with details of instruction; with the help of his staff he draws up courses of study for the Elementary Schools and sometimes for the High Schools; in a small area he may himself give instruction in teaching methods.

The appointment of teachers is in most cases made by the Superintendent who merely submits a list of names to the Board for their formal approval. Neither teaching nor administrative posts are, as a rule, publicly advertised; each education office keeps a list of applicants for appointment in its area. When vacancies occur enquiry may also be made from the Education Departments of Universities and from reputable teachers' agencies. Each State and, as a rule, each large city, has its own system of certificating teachers; this sometimes applies also to counties but county certification is not generally regarded as desirable.

Educational Appointments.

In most cases teachers are not appointed on permanent tenure, but from year to year, and one of the duties of the

Superintendent of Schools and his staff is the "rating" of teachers in the service of the Board, in order to determine the question of re-appointment.

This lack of permanent tenure in the case of teachers and administrative officials strikes the English visitor as strange. There is a desire on the part of American teachers for permanent tenure and there are obvious drawbacks to the existing system. But the very different conditions which obtain in America must be borne in mind. There the population as a whole is much more on the move than in England; anyone who loses a post quickly finds another; there are plenty of posts for all, and failure to secure re-appointment may be rather a testimony to efficiency than otherwise. I was told that a Superintendent of Schools sometimes accepts an appointment not so much with the expectation of its being renewed at the end of his term, as in the hope that the reputation of his work during that time will secure him a better-paid post under a more progressive Board. But of course under this system the timid man who desires re-appointment will play for safety by a policy which offends nobody but may do little for the educational development of his district.

The minor clerical posts in Education Offices are chiefly held by women. In many offices there is a statistician with one or more assistants. The typing department is not as a rule separated from the clerical; each clerk does her own typewriting.

Educational Surveys.

From the above it will be seen that each State and, with certain limitations, each large city is a self-contained unit for educational purposes and is not normally liable to

such external inspection as is carried out by the Board of Education in England. When outside criticism and suggestion is needed, it is supplied by the system of Educational Surveys. These surveys are undertaken at the request of the Education Authorities by such endowed foundations as the General Education Board, by the Education Departments of Universities, or by the Federal Bureau at Washington. The report of a survey ordinarily includes a detailed investigation of the various branches of the educational organisation of the state or city under consideration, of the administrative system, the qualifications of the teaching staff, the school attendance, the nature and quality of the instruction, and the financial arrangements, together with suggestions for future development. The authority makes a grant to meet the expenses of the survey. For example, in 1914 the State of Maryland voted 12,000 dollars (£2,500) for such a purpose, with an additional 1,000 dollars for printing, clerical work, travelling expenses, etc. The reports of these surveys are exceedingly useful to the student of American education; they are almost always illustrated and are sometimes of great length. The report of the survey of the schools of Gary (Indiana), a town of about 60,000 inhabitants, conducted in 1918 by the General Education Board, runs to eight volumes containing 1,422 pages in all. While the survey is in progress the investigators frequently meet the local Education Board and accounts of these meetings and interviews with those concerned in the survey appear in local newspapers. In this way public interest is aroused; the people look forward to the publication of the report and are prepared for action upon its findings. The nearest approach in England to reports of this kind will be found in those made by Sir Michael Sadler for various loca

authorities, *e.g.*, the counties of Essex and Derbyshire, shortly after the passage of the Education Act of 1902.

Training in Educational Administration.

Before leaving the subject of educational administration mention must be made of the training courses in that subject, an interesting feature of American education and one which has little or no counterpart in England, where the importance of training for administrative work generally has received but meagre recognition. I had direct experience of one of the best known American Schools of Educational Administration, for during the last four weeks of my stay I joined as a student the Summer School of Columbia University and attended the major course for Superintendents of Schools in the Department of Educational Administration. The particular class of which I was a member contained 139 Superintendents of Schools, drawn from all parts of the United States. The ground covered by the course will be most easily seen from the following quotation from the prospectus.

> "This course will bring together the knowledge necessary for one who would administer intelligently the schools of a State, county, or city.
>
> "Among the topics which will receive attention are the following :— the organisation of city school systems, including the development of intermediate schools, vocational schools, summer schools, evening schools, the junior college and community centres; the financing of public education, including the control of finance, the study of taxation, budgetary procedure, the purchase and administration of supplies, the payment for school buildings, educational recording and reporting, educational and financial measurements and the functions of a Bureau of Research, the attendance, classification, and progress of children, to include the consideration of special classes, the continuing census, retardation, elimination and the like; the platoon, duplicate and newer types of building organisation; extra-curricular activities; school health administration; the school plant and equipment, to include a considera-tion of building plans, standardization of equipment and of building,

school hygiene and sanitation, the preparation, selection, tenure, salaries, pensions, and promotion of teachers; the organisation of the supervisory corps, with special reference to the democratization of administration and supervision; the selection and administration of free text books; the making of courses of study; the development of school building programs; the measurement of classroom achievement; the Superintendent's report and his program of publicity; methods of securing co-operation with other public welfare agencies and the methods and results of school surveys."

In addition to the above the following courses were also given :—

Cost and Financing of Public Education.
State and County School Administration.
The Administration of Special and Supplementary Education.
The Supervision of Instruction in Secondary Schools.
Field Work (Supervision) in Rural Education.
Vocational Guidance and Employment Supervision.
A Research Course for Superintendents of Schools.
City School Administration.
The Superintendent and his Public.
The County Superintendency.
The Administration of Vocational Education.

Columbia University has a Professor of Educational Administration, with eight or ten Assistants, all of whom have had successful experience in administrative educational work. It would be difficult to over-estimate the importance of training of this kind and its influence upon the educational system.

Teachers' Salaries.

From what has already been said it will hardly be expected that anything approaching a uniform scale of salaries for teachers applies throughout the United States;

indeed uniformity does not, as a rule, exist even throughout a single State. In the larger cities there are usually clearly defined scales, but outside them individual bargaining often takes place and the widest variations occur. In the largest cities the salaries are higher than in England; for example, an Assistant Master in a High School may rise to £750 per annum, and a Head Master to £1,000 or £1,200. In the smaller towns and in the country districts the salaries are not markedly higher either in elementary or secondary schools than in England. It must be borne in mind that the cost of living in the United States is almost everywhere greater than in England; taking this into account it is probably true that American teachers on the whole are not quite so well paid as English teachers under the Burnham Scales.

Occasionally, but not as a rule, men and women teachers are paid at the same rate. In some cases a teacher is paid according to his qualifications, whatever may be the type of school in which he teaches. A "single scale" of this kind is in force at Grand Rapids and Detroit, both in the State of Michigan.

Relation between Elementary and Secondary Schools.

In America the public elementary and secondary school systems have not developed from different origins; from this it comes about that the two types of school are in some of their features more alike than in England. Not infrequently the same building includes both elementary and high school, especially in country districts or small towns. **Both elementary and secondary State Schools are free** and a very high proportion of the pupils in public high schools have passed through state elementary schools. Generally speaking the equipment of the elementary school classroom does not greatly differ from that

of the classroom in the secondary school; single desks are the rule. The elementary classes generally contain about 40 pupils, as compared with 30 in the high school.

Elementary schools are almost invariably mixed, high Schools generally, except in the large towns of the Eastern States where separate high schools for boys and girls are found. The teachers in elementary schools are almost entirely women, except in the case of headships of large schools. Even in mixed high schools women teachers predominate. It is, however, a new experience for an English visitor to find many Girls' High Schools with men principals and a certain number of assistant masters.

The normal course of preparation for teaching in the elementary school is a High School Course followed by two years in a Normal School (Training College). Nevertheless many elementary school teachers have received much less training than this; in country districts the sole teacher of a "one-room" school may not have even completed a high school course; she may have had only one or two years at the High School, or in extreme cases may have only completed the 8 "grades" of the elementary school. The supply of fully trained teachers for elementary schools is apparently always inadequate and various devices are resorted to for giving training to those who have not taken the ordinary Normal School Course; these will be referred to later when Normal Schools are dealt with. The typical course of training for a High School teacher is a University Course followed by professional training; the proportion of teachers who have received the latter is much greater than in English Secondary Schools.

Before proceeding to deal with each type of school separately, it will make for clearness if their relations one with the other, so far as age of pupils is concerned, are first described. The Elementary School as a rule includes 8 "grades," with an age range from 6 to 14, each grade representing a year's work. Attendance at School under the age of six is never compulsory and public provision of education for children under six years of age is the exception rather than the rule; when such provision is made it takes the form of a kindergarten year in the Elementary School for pupils from 5 to 6 years of age.

The High School (Secondary School) has 4 grades, the normal age-range being from 14 to 18. The University Course, which follows upon the High School course, is generally at least 4 years; the Normal School (Training College) Course at least two.

A pupil passes from the Elementary School to the High School, and from the High School to the University by a process called **graduation.** Graduation from an institution means the succesful completion of its various grades. No external examination is as a rule involved; graduation depends upon the marks gained by the pupil during his everyday work in school and in periodical school tests. Thus there is, except in a few localities, nothing corresponding to the English scholarship examination of the Local Authority or the entrance examination of the English Secondary School. Any Elementary School graduate can claim admission to a Secondary School, and graduation from a High School in itself qualifies for admission to many of the Universities. Some Universities, especially in the Eastern States, do however impose admission tests of their own.

Main types of Secondary School Organisation.

There are certain variations from the above-mentioned plan of 8 years in the Elementary School, followed by 4 years in the High School, commonly known as the "eight-four" plan. For example, the Elementary School Course may be shortened by a year, beginning at 7 instead of 6; or it may end at 13 instead of 14 with a compensating added year at the beginning of the High School Course. Only one of these variations is however sufficiently important to demand notice in a short account of the American system, viz., what is known as the "six-six" or **Junior High School** plan, which is now very widely adopted and bids fair to become the typical organisation for the whole country. Under this scheme the Elementary School contains only 6 grades, ages 6 plus to 11 plus. When the pupil has completed successfully the 6th grade, he enters a Junior High School, which contains normally 3 grades, from 12 plus to 15 plus. Successful graduation from the Junior High School taks him to the Senior High School, with 3 grades, 15 plus to 18 plus.

The two plans are shown in the tables given below :—

"Traditional" High School or "Eight-Four" Plan.

Elementary School.

Grade	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Age	6+	7+	8+	9+	10+	11+	12+	13+

Secondary School.

High School.

Grade	9	10	11	12
Age	14+	15+	16+	17+

Junior High School or "Six-Six" Plan.

Elementary School.

Grade	1	2	3	4	5	6
Age	6+	7+	8+	9+	10+	11+

Secondary School.

Junior High School.

Grade	7	8	9
Age	12+	13+	14+

Senior High School.

Grade	10	11	12
Age	15+	16+	17+

III.—ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

The Platoon System.

In order to devote the space available chiefly to Secondary School matters I propose to deal only, and that very briefly, with two of the most interesting features of American Elementary School organisation.

The Platoon System is apparently an outcome of the educational experiment carried on for the last 15 years at Gary, Indiana. I visited Gary and collected a good deal of information about the Gary system. As found there in its fully developed form, it is not, however, typical of the American system as a whole and a description of it would occupy too much space here. The Platoon System has perhaps been most highly developed in the city of Detroit, which I visited, and a description of the organisation there will give the best explanation of it. The following passage is taken from " **The Platoon School in Detroit,**" by C. L. Spain, a Detroit Assistant Superintendent of Schools.

" The standard school-day adopted is six hours long, a three-hour session in the morning and a three-hour session in the afternoon. The usual morning session is from 8-30 to 11-30, and the afternoon session from 12-30 to 3-30. Some schools have a somewhat longer noon hour. With the exception of pupils of the first grade and those especially excused, all pupils remain in school for six hours and are busy during this entire period.

" The school membership is divided into two groups or platoons. While one group is engaged in the " home room " or regular room, the other group is attending classes in the special rooms. Thus half the pupils are in the " home rooms " at any given time and the other half

ar engaged in special activities. For " home room " activities the school day of six hours is divided into four periods of ninety minutes each. Each platoon has " home room " work for ninety minutes in the morning.

" For special room activities, the six-hour day is divided into twelve 30 minute periods. Each platoon is engaged in special activities during six of these twelve 30 minutes periods each day.

" Each individual pupil spends ninety minutes of the morning in the " home-room " under the control of " home-room " teacher and the remaining ninety minutes of the morning in the special activities—spending thirty minutes in three separate special rooms. In the afternoon, he again spends ninety minutes in the " home-room" and the remaining ninety minutes in three special rooms.

" The number of special room activities possible in a platoon school is determined by the number of classes or groups of pupils involved. If there are sixteen classes there will be two platoons of eight classes each. This means that there must be eight " home rooms " in the building and special rooms enough to house eight roomfulls of pupils. While the eight groups of one platoon are attending classes in the " home rooms," the eight groups of the other platoon are attending classes in the special rooms. Using forty as a standard basis for classroom attendance, we require in a sixteen room platoon school, eight " home rooms " to seat 320 pupils at one time. The special rooms to seat the other 320 pupils at the same time may be as follows :—

Auditorium (Assembly Hall)	80 pupils.
Gymnasium	80 ,,
Music	40 ,,
Art	40 ,,
Literature	40 ,,
Library or Science	40 ,,
	320 ,,

"If there are twenty classes involved, the school must house 800 pupils, or 400 in each platoon. This requires ten "home rooms" to care for 400 pupils while at the same time the remaining 400 pupils may be provided for in special rooms as follows :—

Auditorium (Assembly Hall)	80 pupils.
Gymnasium	80 ,,
Music	40 ,,
Art	40 ,,
Literature	40 ,,
Library	40 ,,
Science and Geography	40 ,,
Playground	40 ,,
	400 ,,

It is claimed for the platoon school that it is doing much to enrich the Elementary School curriculum and to raise the quality of the teaching. As will be seen it introduces into the Elementary School the Secondary School practice of employing specialist teachers. The staff of a platoon school is divided into teachers of the three R's and specialist teachers, each of whom generally will teach only one subject. The latter teachers are selected from those who have shown aptitude in particular directions during their Normal School

Course. Now that a demand exists for specialist teachers in Elementary Schools, the Normal Schools are adapting their curricula accordingly.

Claims have been made for higher payment to the teachers who take special subjects, but they have been steadfastly resisted; it is not desired to lessen in any way the importance of the "tool" subjects, Reading, Writing and Arithmetic.

The Platoon School demands a type of building different from that of the traditional Elementary School. Classroom places are provided for only half the numbers, but large rooms are required for auditorium and gymnasium purposes. It is sometimes claimed that a school of this type is less costly to build, but this point is not particularly stressed. In some places, for example, at St Paul, Minnesota, I saw schools which had been reorganised on the Platoon System in buildings of the traditional type, adapted by using large basement rooms for gymnasia, throwing two rooms into one to make an auditorium, and so on.

The Platoon Schools I saw impressed me favourably, and there can be little doubt that a Platoon School does more for the children than the usual Elementary School, where each teacher, generally speaking, teaches all the subjects of the curriculum. So far as I could ascertain, it has not as a rule been found that the formal subjects suffered, or that the younger children lose much by not being under the care of one teacher for the whole of a school day. The principle of specialist teaching is, of course, already followed to a small extent in most Elementary Schools in England in such subjects as Singing and Physical Exercises.

Consolidation of Rural Schools.

The problem of the small rural school is even a more serious one in America than here. The manner in which the country was settled naturally led to the establishment of small isolated schools and these have persisted in rural districts to such an extent that even now it is estimated that more than half the children of school age are being educated in one-room rural schools. The Americans however, with characteristic energy, have set about reforming this state of things by combining or " consolidating " these schools wherever possible. Two factors which have made this process easier than it would otherwise have been are (1) the absence of denominational schools within the state system, and (2) the comparative cheapness of motor transport. Rapid progress is being made. During the last ten years, 12 per cent. of the rural schools of the United States have been consolidated and it is estimated that by 1935 more than 80 per cent. of the now existing one-room schools will have been closed by consolidation. In Pennsylvania each county is being plotted out in units and the location of future consolidated schools determined in consultation with the road-making authorities; each school will have about 20 acres of site and there will be a residence for teachers and other local officials near at hand. Consolidated schools often contain a " Community Room " for the general use of the locality.

An example of a Consolidated School. (Minnesota).

Consolidation is not confined to Elementary Schools; frequently a consolidated school contains both elementary and high school grades. The following description of a recently erected consolidated school, which I visited at Wayzata, near Minneapolis, may be of interest. This school contains Elementary Grades 1 to 6 (188 pupils); Junior High School Grades 7 to 9 (110 pupils); Senior High School Grades

10 to 12 (117 pupils); a total of 415 pupils. It serves an area of 15 square miles. The pupils are brought in by covered and heated motor vehicles, each holding from 15 to 25 children. This is done throughtout the winter, which is very severe in Minnesota; the temperature sometimes remains at 30 degrees below zero for weeks together. The total accommodation of the building is 500; the cost per head about £88. The present building cost is about 1s. 3d. per cubic foot.

In addition to the usual class-rooms this school has (1) a woodwork room, containing single benches for woodwork, circular saw, band saw, lathe and planing machine. It is noticeable that the woodwork done in American schools is invariably more ambitious and therefore more attractive to the boys than in England. Full-size articles are made and there is no hesitation in allowing boys to use power-driven machinery. Apparently very few accidents occur. Coming back to England, one wonders that English boys tolerate the dull thing that a " manual instruction " syllabus often is. (2) General Science room for Chemistry and Physics; (3) Study Room. This is a feature of all American Schools. (See later under High Schools). (4) Combined Gymnasium and Assembly Hall with stage equipment; (5) Domestic Subjects Room; (6) Needlework Room. There is also a Community Room for Women, the furnishing of which was partly met by subscription from local women's associations, who have the right to use it. The lavatory equipment includes a very full provision of shower-baths for both boys and girls. There are two Caretakers, one to look after the furnace and engineering, the other to look after the building. Artificial ventilation is necessary on account of the severe

winter, and for the same reason the building has double windows. An oil-engine provides electric .light and power for the woodwork shop. The school is an interesting example of what can be done by consolidation in a rural district with a scattered population.

A Virginian Consolidated School

At another consolidated school which I saw in Virginia about 78 pupils were brought to school by motors from long distances each day. The "truck" in this case was a very simple Ford chassis, holding about 20 pupils. One of the two trucks was hired at 5 dollars per day; the other belonged to the School and was driven by one of the men caretakers.

Consolidation in Alabama.

Consolidation in the 781 square miles of Montgomery County, Alabama, is particularly interesting. In three years "out of something worse than nothing" it has created a rural school system that provides ample accommodation for all the white children in the county. Much progress has been made also with the negro schools. The largest of the new consolidated schools, which takes the child through from his sixth year or first grade to senior high school graduation and readiness for college, has an enrolment of 246 children and serves a territory of more than 300 square miles. Another School of 241 pupils, of the elementary and high school grade, serves an area of 200 square miles, and none of the schools in operation serves less than 100 square miles. The transportation system has been so well worked out that the average ride to and from school is considerably less than an hour; the longest ride that any pupil has is 23 miles, but that is at least twice the average distance.

IV.—SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

"Traditional" type of High School.

I will first describe a high school of the "traditional" type, *i.e.*, one with a four years course, receiving pupils at about 14 years of age, and passing on those who take the full course to some higher institution, or to an occupation, at 18.

Most high Schools offer alternative courses, e.g., the Academic, the Commercial, the Industrial Arts, the Home Economics. That which corresponds to the typical English Secondary School curriculum is the Academic or "College Preparatory" Course, leading to the University, College or Normal School (Training College). Even in this course however a good deal of choice of subjects is offered to the individual pupil. For example, at the Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn, the Academic Course contains only two compulsory subjects, English and History, all the other subjects are "electives." In the Wadleigh Girls' High School, New York City, a school of 4,000, the compulsory subjects of the Academic Course are English, Physical Training, Music, Hygiene or Home Nursing, Drawing, History, Economics, and Civics; elective subjects are chosen from a long list comprising Foreign Languages (a choice of three), Mathematics, Natural and Physical Science, Domestic Arts and Science, Commercial Subjects, Drawing and Fine Arts, Music (additional), Vocation Study, Social Efficiency, Current History, Ancient or Medieval History and the History of English Literature.

The pupil's choice of electives is governed by certain restrictions as to the years in which a particular subject may be taken, and where the pupil desires to enter a higher institution having special entrance requirements the latter

are borne in mind. Few of the subjects are taken throughout the school course; in this school, for instance, only English, Physical Training, and a first foreign language (if elected) are four-year courses.

In a school of this type it will generally be found that the pupils, on leaving at 18, have reached in most academic subjects about the stage which English Secondary School pupils reach at 16. This is partly due to the late age at which Secondary School subjects are begun, partly because fewer of them are continued throughout the four years, and partly because more subjects are taken than in an English Secondary School.

The "Comprehensive" High School.

When High Schools of the non-academic type were established in America, some 20 years ago, they were housed separately from the academic High Schools. Many still remain as separate institutions, but the tendency now is to combine the various courses under one roof. The democratic American dreads any stratification of the educational system along lines of social cleavage and this change of plan was made chiefly because it was found that High Schools of different types tended to be used by different social classes. The "comprehensive" High School as it is called, involves large numbers and complex organisation; the latter, however, is attractive rather than otherwise to the American mind.

A comprehensive Girls' High School with Vocational Courses.

As an example of a comprehensive High School, the Washington Irving Girls' High School, New York City, may be cited. This is a school with between 5,000 and 6,000 pupils, mostly of foreign, chiefly Jewish, parentage. Besides the Academic Course, the School offers the following vocational courses :—

(1) Commercial.
(2) Dressmaking, Costume Design, and Embroidery.
(9) Industrial Art.
(4) Home and Trade Course in Food and Cookery.

(1) Commercial Course.

This course is designed to fit girls for business positions and is itself divided after the first year into (*a*) Book-keeping, (*b*) Stenography and Office Practice Branches. English and Physical Training are studied throughout the four years of the Course. In the first year the other subjects taken are Elocution, Music, Drawing, Physiology, and Hygiene, Domestic Science and Art, Community Civics, Book-keeping, with a choice of one foreign language, either French, Italian, or Spanish. The subjects afterwards taken in the two branches are shown below :—

Book-keeping Branch.

Second Year.

1. Book-keeping.
A choice of electives from the following :—
2. Stenography and Typewriting.
3. A Language.
4. Elocution.
5. Music.
6. Modern European History
7. Domestic Art.
8. Applied Chemistry.
9. Biology.
10. Drawing.

Stenography Branch.

1. Stenography and Typewriting.
Electives from the following :—
2. Book-keeping.
Subjects 3 to 10 as shown in the Book-keeping Branch in the opposite column.

Third Year.

1. Book-keeping.
2. American History and Civics.

Electives from :—

3. Stenography, Typewriting, and Office Practice.
4. A Language.
5. Music.
6. Elocution.
7. Chemistry, Physics or Domestic Science.
8. Commercial Law.
9. Economics.
10. Domestic Art.

1. Stenography, Typewriting, and Office Practice.
2. American History and Civics.

Electives from :—

3. Book-keeping.
4. Subjects 4 to 10 in opposite column.

Fourth Year (Optional).

Electives from the following (at least seven periods per week from Nos. 1 to 4, and not more than 25 or less than 22 periods in all) :—

1. Economics.
2. Accounting
3. Advanced Commercial Arithmetic.
4. Advertising and Salesmanship.
5. A Language
6. Music.
7. Elocution.
8. Science.
9. Stenography.
10. Typewriting.
11. Commercial English
12. Domestic Science.

1. Stenography.
2. Typewriting.
3. Commercial English and Secretarial Correspondence.

Electives (not less than ten periods per week) from :—

4. Language.
5. Science.
6. Economics.
7. Music.
8. Elocution.
9. Domestic Science.

(2) **The Dressmaking, Costume Designing and Embroidery Course** has the same general subjects running throughout, viz., English and Physical Training, with some other subjects of general education, *e.g.*, Civics, Hygiene and Music, together with certain electives, chiefly foreign languages. In addition to the foregoing there is an increasing amount of special vocational instruction; in the first year 4 periods per week of Elementary Dressmaking; in the third year 30 periods of Costume Design and Dressmaking, Millinery, Costume Illustration, Dress Design and Pattern Modelling. In the fourth year, which is optional, there are 25 periods of Costume Design and Dressmaking. The aim of the course is to make a girl efficient in this type of work for either the home or the trade so far as is possible within the limits of the school-room. The first year deals chiefly with sewing from the point of view of the home, the second year with the technique of the dressmaker's trade. In the first half of the third year pattern-modelling and draping are developed; in the second half of this year special training is given to prepare for the shop and the home dressmaker. Pupils who desire to have trade training are allowed to work in selected dressmaking establishments, following the "in-and-out" or co-operative plan; these pupils spend one week in school and one week in the shop.

(3) Industrial Art Course.

This Course does not prepare students to be teachers of drawing; it is a three year course with an optional fourth year, training girls to go into technical art work. In addition to the general subjects of the other courses, the first year includes six periods of Drawing, during which the pupils learn to apply the principles of structure to simple objects and to

work in broad masses. Both pencil and colour are used. In the first half of the second year, representative drawing of common objects, flowers, animals, insects, etc, is done, pencil work and colour being used. In the third year the pupil selects one of three branches, (1) Commercial Design, (2) Costume Illustration, (3) Textile Design.

In **Commercial Design** the aim of the work is to give a commercial art training. The work includes (*a*) the Study and Practice of Commercial Lettering, (*b*) Sketches and Design units suitable for reproduction in black and white illustration, (*c*) Illustrated Advertisement, suitable for newspaper and magazine work, (*d*) general commercial work, *e.g.*, designing of gift cards, menus,labels, poster stamps, tags, etc., (*e*) general decorative work, applied to furniture, trays, box-tops, boxes, etc., (*f*) simple posters in colour, *e.g.*, tramcar advertisements, magazine covers.

Costume Illustration includes figure study from the living model, cast, and anatomical model, with costume sketching and illustration ; art work for newspaper and fashion periodicals ; pattern and catalogue illustrating, and dress-makers' and manufacturers' sketching.

Textile Design inlcudes the study of historical Ornament, including museum work ; study of the theory and practice of Design as applied to textiles ; technical work in planning the underlays and repeating the pattern ; study of methods of reproduction, supplemented by visits to manufacturing firms, and specialised work in planning patterns for prints, shirtings, silks, cretonnes, etc., and in planning patterns that are to be woven.

(4) **The Home and Trade Course in Food and Cookery** is intended for use in the home or to prepare girls for assistant managerial positions in homes, hotels, lunch rooms, tea rooms, and hospitals.

The work of this School has been described in some detail because it is an example of the extent to which vocational work is sometimes developed in the High School; indeed in this case the vocational courses have almost squeezed out the academic course and the commercial aim of the work is so strongly emphasized as to give the impression of a Trade School rather than a Secondary School. The Art work, chiefly poster and trade-card designing, was very striking. Every effort is made to keep in touch with trade conditions and requirements and the pupils often sell their school work; one of the girls had recently received 75 dollars for a shoe advertisement. A large number of posters done by pupils, not only in the Industrial Art Course but in the Academic Course also, on exhibition at the time of my visit, showed great fertility of ideas; they were being used in connection with the election of officers of the School Association; voting papers had been printed, and as far as possible the school was imitating an actual American election campaign.

Many girls on leaving a school of this type become assistants in Department Stores, which are anxious to secure high school girls because they can talk more acceptably to educated customers. One of the New York Department Stores recently offered prizes for essays by High School girls on the advantages of Department Store work, with a view to attracting more such girls to it. I was told that a girl entering a Department Store from a High School would begin at about

£150 a year as a " stock girl," and might rise to be a " buyer " at £1,000 a year.

A Boys' High School with a Scientific and Mechanical bias.

A good example of a Boys' High School with a vocational bias is the **Stuyvesant High School, New York City.** This is a school of 5,700 boys working on a two shift system, housed in a fine building, situated in a poor quarter of the city, inhabited chiefly by Greeks, Jews and Italians. It has a good reputation as a first-grade High School, providing a broad training for boys having a bent towards Mathematics and Physics. The courses are so arranged as to meet the needs of boys intending to take further training with a view to becoming pharmacists, doctors, dentists, patent lawyers, chemists, architects, civil, mechanical or electrical engineers. Boys who cannot go to a higher institution on leaving take in their fourth year special advanced courses in Chemistry, Applied Electricity, Architecture, Surveying, etc., to prepare them for employment immediately upon graduation. All pupils must take, in addition to their special subjects, English, one foreign language, mathematics (Algebra and Geometry), Physics, Chemistry, a second foreign language, History (including Civics), Physiology, Music and Gymnastics. In addition to Applied Sciences, the special subjects include Joinery, Wood-Turning, Pattern Making, Mechanical Drawing and Machine Design, Freehand, Architectural and Topographical Drawing, Hammered Metal Work, Building Construction, Forging, Foundry work, " Machine Shop," Instrument Making. The equipment is very elaborate and the School provides almost every variety of training that any boy of non-literary bent could require up to the age of 18. About three-quarters of the boys go on to higher institutions; the rest enter occupations direct.

As already stated, the school is worked in two shifts ; boys in the first shift arrive about 7-40 a.m. After assembly the boy spends a quarter of an hour with his "official teacher," *i.e.*, Form Master, who, if possible, has also charge of some of his instruction. Teaching work begins at 8-15 and ends for this shift at 12-30, the intervening time being divided into 6 periods. Boys on the afternoon shift assemble at 12-0 noon and teaching work goes on from about 1-0 till 5-0. In this way the large numbers are dealt with. Backward boys attend not only the morning shift but part of the afternoon shift as well. One advantage of such a system, from the American point of view, is that a boy can earn money by part-time employment.

A Boys' High School with a Commercial bias.

Another example of a special type of High School for boys is the **Brooklyn Commercial High School.** This School has 4,000 pupils and, owing to growth in numbers, is accommodated in two separate buildings. In the larger building there are two shifts, the first from 7-45 to 12-15; the second from 12-30 to 5-30. The School prepares for a business career; it is for boys who desire on leaving school to become stenographers, book-keepers, office assistants, salesmen, etc., and later to reach executive positions or to go into business for themselves. It also prepares for higher training in accounting, law, dentistry, pharmacy, and medicine, gives a preliminary training for the teaching of Commercial Subjects, and prepares those who desire to enter colleges and universities having departments of Commerce and Finance.

The following is the curriculum of each year of the school course :—

First Year.

Subjects **required** ..	.. English, Local Civics, and Local Industries, Business Calculations, General Science and Hygiene, Typewriting, Music, Commercial Design, Physical Training.
Select **one** of ..	.. French, Spanish, Mechanical Drawing and Construction, Business Practice and Accounts.

Second Year.

Subjects **required**	.. English, Book-keeping, Commercial History of Europe, Commercial Chemistry, Penmanship, Music, Commercial Design, Physical Training.
Select **one** of ..	.. French, Spanish, Algebra, Mechanical Drawing and Construction.

Third Year.

Subjects **required**	.. English, American History and Civics, Commercial Geography, Raw Materials, Physical Training.
Select **three** ..	.. Commercial Physics, Biology, Geometry, Algebra, Spanish, French, Stenography, Book-keeping, Commercial Design, Mechanical Drawing and Construction.

Fourth Year.

Subjects **required**	.. English, Economics, Commercial Law and Social Problems, Arithmetic (Advanced), Physical Training.
Select **three** ..	.. Physics, Algebra, Geometry, Spanish, French, Stenography, Typewriting, Accounting, Salesmanship, Commercial Design, Mechanical Drawing and Construction.

It will be seen from the above table that a boy may pass through the school without having received instruction in Algebra, Geometry, or a foreign language.

The High Schools hitherto described are large city schools, much larger than would be found in an area like the West Riding, or even in an English County Borough. We will now take a High School more comparable in size with our West Riding secondary schools. **Princeton High School (New Jersey),** is a mixed Secondary School of about 500 pupils, situated in a small country town which also contains a famous university. Here there are three separate courses—(1) the Academic, intended for pupils going to college, (2) the General Course, which is not an avenue to any one particular after-school career, and (3) the Commercial Course, intended for those who wish to enter business occupations.

A Comprehensive High School in a small town.

The Academic and General Courses are much alike, save that the latter does not include Latin or a modern foreign language among the compulsory subjects, which are otherwise similar to those in an English Secondary School. It was interesting to note, as an example of contact between school work and outside matters, that "Problems of American Democracy" is a compulsory subject in the last year of both courses. The Commercial Course includes the usual book-keeping, shorthand, and typewriting, with arithmetic, but neither algebra nor geometry.

The equipment of this School is very like that of our Secondary Schools, but not quite so elaborate in the case of practical science and domestic subjects.

Chester High School (Virginia), is a rural high school about 12 miles from Richmond, in the same building with an Elementary School, both under the same Head Master. There are 450 pupils altogether, boys and girls. The area served has a radius of about 10 miles, and is chiefly agricultural,

A Comprehensive Rural High School.

with poor roads. Potatoes, maize, a little tobacco, and cattle are the chief products. Here the High School offers three courses, (1) the Academic, as already described, with Latin but no Greek, (2) an Agricultural Course for boys, and (3) a Home Economics course for girls. The Agricultural Course contains (*a*) class work, including English, History, and Mathematics, with certain elective subjects, including French; (*b*) laboratory work, *i.e.*, Physics and Chemistry, taught with an agricultural bias, and (*c*) specific instruction in Agriculture in the form of "project work." The latter is such a special feature of American education that a description of it is reserved for the section dealing with Agricultural Schools.

Junior High Schools.

The **Junior High School** is perhaps the most important of recent developments in the organisation of American education. It has already been said that the traditional 8—4 plan, 8 grades in the Elementary School (ages 6 to 14) followed by 4 grades (ages 15 to 18) in the High School, is rapidly being replaced by the 6—3—3 plan; 6 grades in the Elementary School (ages 6 to 12), 3 grades in the Junior High School (13 to 15), and 3 grades in the Senior High School (16 to 18).

A typical Junior High School.

The nature of the Junior High School will be best understood from a description of a typical example at **Trenton (New Jersey.)**. In this city all the children who go to the Senior High School pass through the Junior High School, though they may not attend throughout the Junior High School course; they may, for example, join in at the 8th or 9th grade instead of the 7th, because there is not yet sufficient Junior High School accommodation for all pupils desiring education above the Elementary grades. Pupils leaving the

Junior High School at the age of 15 pass on (1) to the Senior High School, for the academic or commercial course, or (2) to the Day Technical School (in the case of Trenton a separate institution) or (3) to some occupation.

In its first two years the Junior High School Courses resemble those of an English Secondary School; the subjects taught are English, Mathematics, Geography, Science, "Health" (including Gymnastics), Music, Drawing, with two periods of Domestic Art for the girls and two periods of "Shop Work" for the boys. In the second year, however, some of the work in these subjects may be substituted by additional shop work, or a foreign language, or commercial work, or additional English or Drawing, according to the needs and desires of the pupil.

In the third year the pupils are divided into three groups according to their aptitudes; those intending to proceed to the Academic Course in the Senior High School take English, Mathematics, Civics, Science, "Health," and Music; and as electives one foreign language, some Drawing, and either some shop work (boys) or domestic arts (girls).

Those intending to take the Commercial Course in the Senior High School, or to enter business occupations straight away, take a similar course, but with commercial arithmetic replacing mathematics, and with an opportunity to select book-keeping and typewriting, or one of them, among their electives.

Those who intend to proceed to the Day Technical School or to some industrial occupation substitute Applied Mathematics for the Commercial Arithmetic of the commercial section and may fill up their elective subjects entirely

with shop work. In this School the shop-work includes machine drawing, woodwork, "electric shop" (wiring, electric bells, etc.), and printing.

The buildings, which were erected in 1916, stand on a site of about 9 acres, with provision for out-door basket-ball, base-ball, and tennis. The accommodation of the School is about 800, **but classroom accommodation is provided for only about two-thirds of this number,** since at any given time one-third of the school is always engaged in non-classroom work, *i.e.*, in the shops, gymnasia, assembly hall, library, etc. The special rooms include a typewriting room, two science lecture rooms, four laboratories, **also usable as classrooms,** an assembly hall seating 1,200, equipped with organ and cinematograph, a medical examination room with adjoining bath-room, two gymnasia (with shower baths) for 60 boys and 60 girls respectively, and a library with 12,000 volumes, in addition to the usual staff rooms, store rooms, sanitary accommodation, etc. The "shops" are in a one-storey building, the unit being 40 by 60 feet. There are two domestic subjects rooms, sub-divided into 12 complete family kitchens, two sewing rooms, two art rooms, two woodwork shops, a printing shop, three mechanical drawing rooms, and one stock and tool room.

Shop work in a New York Junior High School.

In a larger Junior High School which I saw in New York City, with 5,700 pupils, an even greater variety of shop work was provided; it included the following subjects :—**Boys** (1) Trade Drawing, (2) Sign Painting, (3) Electric Wiring, (4) Machine Work, (5) Woodwork, (6) Sheet Metal Work, (7) Printing. **Girls** (1) Millinery, (2) Dressmaking with the power machine, (3) Sewing and Dressmaking, (4) Art Weaving,

(5) "Novelty" (making boxes and pin-cushions, rosettes, crêpe paper articles).

A Detroit Junior High School.

A recently erected Junior High School in Detroit may be taken as the archtype of a Junior High School in a prosperous mid-western city. The accommodation is for 1,800 pupils; the total cost of the building was roughly £240,000, about £133 per head. The library in this school is a magnificient room which an English university would be glad to have for the purpose. In addition to the main library there are several small sectional libraries containing books devoted to special subjects. The school is allowed 40 cents per pupil per annum for additions to the library. Adjoining the library is a room in which illustrated lectures upon books may be given, An interesting shop-subject in this school is that called "general shop," which deals with all kinds of repairing and odd-job work, renovating old tools or electric light fittings, and making articles out of scrap metal.

The advantages of the Junior High School.

The chief claims made for the Junior High School are that (1) it secures a longer school life for many children, since the break between the Elementary and Secondary School does not coincide with the age (14) at which compulsory attendance most frequently ends ; (2) it enables Secondary School subjects to be begun earlier than under the 8—4 system; (3) it gives an opportunity of discovering a child's aptitudes just at the age when they first clearly reveal themselves; it is the custom to move a pupil rapidly through various types of work, changing from one to another after short periods, in order to discover those for which he shows a bent; (4) it groups together adolescent pupils, those who are

no longer children and are yet not altogether grown up. Many American educators are of opinion that the teaching of pupils at this stage of their development demands special methods, and that it is best done by teachers who specialise in it. In England the wealthier classes have the "Preparatory" School, distinct from and introductory to the "Public" School.

Staffing of Junior High Schools.

The classes in the Junior High School are rather larger than those in the Senior High School, with 35 or even 40 pupils in each, instead of 30. In workshop subjects classes of half the usual size, *i.e.*, 20, are the rule. The teachers generally receive salaries intermediate between those of the Elementary School and those of the Senior High School, though in some cities, *e.g.*, Detroit, the salaries are the same as in the Senior High School. Most of the teachers of academic subjects have taken a four years college course leading to a B.A. degree, *i.e.*, have reached about the standard of an English ordinary degree. Teachers of workshop subjects must generally be high school graduates and have had at least two years' trade experience; some cities, New York for example, require that they shall also have taken a course in pedagogy. Well trained teachers of this type are obtained more easily in the United States than in England because the facilities for such training are greater; many of the Normal Schools, for example, have departments for the training of manual instructors.

Junior High School compared with "Central" School.

From the above description it will be seen that the Junior High School in some ways resembles the type of "Central" School of which examples are found in London. There is however the very important difference that the Junior High

School is not an alternative to the lower forms of the Secondary School, but is **the normal avenue of approach to the Senior High School.** From the London Central School the exceptional pupil may be transferred to a Secondary School, which he enters after the normal age; whereas in an American city where the Junior High School system is fully developed, **all children entering Senior High Schools have alike passed through the Junior High School.**

Some Characteristics of American Secondary Schools.

Having said a little about Elementary Schools and described some types of High School, it will be convenient now to refer to certain characteristics of American High Schools which present to the English observer contrasts to what he finds at home. He is first of all impressed, indeed almost overwhelmed, by their size. In even moderately sized cities, those with populations between 50,000 and 100,000, a school of less than 1,000 is the exception; in the largest cities schools from 3,000 to 5,000 or even more are met with. The buildings are therefore larger than ours, but not as a rule proportionately so. America, like England, has experienced since the war an enthusiastic increased demand for higher education which it has been impossible to meet fully by building extensions. In some places, *e.g.*, New York City the school accommodation even in normal times is always inadequate to the demands upon it. But the American is nothing if not resourceful; he loves to grapple with a difficult problem of organisation and this particular problem has not found him at a loss. To a certain extent, as in England, the increased numbers have been accommodated in rented buildings and temporary extensions, but more frequently they have been dealt with by a device of organisation known as the

Size.

The "double Session" or shift system.

"double session" or shift system. This has been already referred to in describing some of the larger High Schools. It is of course not unknown in England, but here it has generally taken the form of morning school for one set of children and afternoon school for another. The serious reduction of teaching hours which this plan involves has to some extent been avoided in America (1) by opening the school earlier, *e.g.*, at 7-30 a.m., and closing it later, *e.g.*, at 5-30 p.m.; (2) by the practice of a shorter luncheon hour, generally 40 minutes, which is taken by different sets of pupils at different times, and (3) by allowing the shifts to overlap, so that when one shift is occupying classrooms the other shift is occupying the special rooms, *i.e.*, the assembly hall, the gymnasium, the luncheon room, or the laboratories. The system may be seen pushed to its furthest limit in a school like the Washington Irving Girls' High School, New York City, where there are three overlapping shifts and where the School is also used for evening classes and for adult classes on Saturdays and Sundays. Notwithstanding this continuous use the building is kept clean, for the caretaking time-table is no less skilfully arranged than the teaching time-table.

It must of course be admitted that under a system of this kind there is some educational loss as compared with the normal one-session school, The assistant teachers teach only the usual 20-25 hours per week, but there is a heavier strain upon the Head Master, even though he be relieved a little by the appointment of one or two second masters or "alternates," so that he need not always be on the school premises for the whole of the school day. Contact between the Head Master and the individual pupil, so much, and so rightly, prized in

English education, is impossible under this system. But in America less regard is paid to personal influence as a factor in education.

Another drawback to the system is that it makes difficult the organisation of out-of-school activities, such as games and school societies. Also it places more responsibility upon the individual pupil for the proper use of his out-of-school time than as a rule he is capable of bearing; it is much to ask a boy who attends during the afternoon session only to spend part of his morning in study. On the other hand, it enables the poor boy to earn something during his Secondary School course. Most High School Teachers admit, rather regretfully, that the system has probably come to stay.

The "Study Period."

I had the opportunity of seeing several very recently erected High Schools. Except in certain small details there was little which seemed to me an improvement in design upon our English buildings. Two points of difference deserve mention however:—

(1) The American High School building nearly always includes at least one, sometimes several, "study rooms." These are large rooms, from three to ten classrooms in size, fitted with ordinary single desks. Each pupil has as part of his ordinary time-table at least one study period per day, which he spends in this room doing individual work which has been assigned to him. Sometimes a teacher is present, but quite as often not; I have seen as many as 300 pupils working quietly in one of these rooms without teacher-supervision.

The "Library Period."

(2) The library is a much larger room and more fully equipped with books than is generally the case in England. Classes of pupils spend specifically assigned periods in this

room hunting up information for an essay or some other task which has been set with use of the library in view. In some states every High School above a certain size must have a full-time librarian; smaller schools must have a part-time or teacher-librarian. There are in America numerous training courses for such work.

Too little attention is paid in English Schools to training the child to obtain for himself information from ordinarily available sources; after all, the amount of information one carries in one's head is of little importance compared with knowing how to obtain information when it is wanted. In an English Secondary School the library is too often a small room, sometimes the after-thought of the architect; in many cases merely a storage place for books and not a workroom, as it should be. Even at the best it is apt to be sacred to the Sixth Form. It is worth considering whether in building new schools there should not always be included a library equal in floor space to two or three classrooms. If staffing eceonomies must be made, one of the least objectionable would be to adopt the "library period" of the American High School. The study period too is worth consideration; our assembly rooms might be utilised for the purpose. **The aim in every school should be to use all the rooms all the time, so far as is consistent with efficiency.**

The "Recitation Period."

The ordinary classroom lesson in an American School is called a "recitation," and the name is significant of a difference; the lesson is less of a lecture than in England; it rather takes the form of a running conversation between teacher and pupils. The latter question a teacher's statement much more readily than in an English School; they are

indeed encouraged to do so. The teacher much more frequently admits himself to be in the wrong than we perhaps should think consistent with the maintenance of a proper respect for authority. In America the idea of formal discipline has been more whole-heartedly abandoned than in most English Schools. It is true that in some ways the American child is, age-for-age, more grown up than the English child. From almost babyhood he is accustomed to look after himself; it is no uncommon sight to see a well-dressed child not more than three years of age playing unconcernedly by himself on the sidewalk of a New York street, for nursemaids are rare, only the richest can afford them. By the time American boys and girls have reached the High School stage they have come to regard schooling as part of the serious business of life and formal control is unnecessary. One of the most delightful experiences of the English visitor is to find that his entrance to a classroom is almost entirely unobserved; this holds good not only for the large city school but for the little one-room rural school also. The well intentioned but distressing custom that the whole class shall stand up when a visitor enters is entirely unknown.

Most of the classrooms are provided with black-boards running right round the room; in such subjects as mathematics one section of the class will always be using these boards instead of exercise books or paper.

Self-government.

Self-government is very highly developed in an American school, as might be expected from a people who have shown so remarkable an ingenuity in devising political machinery. So far as possible, " Student Organisation " as it is generally called, imitates the national political system. A good example

of such an organisation is that of the Wadleigh Girls' High School in New York City. Its objects are defined as "to foster school spirit; to train for citizenship by sharing to some extent in the discipline of the School and to have general charge of all the activities of the school." The subscription is 25 cents per term (two terms in the year), but pupils who cannot afford this are nevertheless entitled to votes. The income is used to meet the incidental expenses of the organisation, to pay for school entertainments, to help by loans pupils who would otherwise have to leave school, and to finance needed improvements not otherwise obtainable. All members of the association vote in the election of a Board of Managers, which is made up of the following pupil-officers :—

(1) President, who presides over all meetings.

(2) Director of Social Service, who has charge of all the social activities.

(3) Director of Public Service, who with the help of volunteers has charge of corridors and outside doors during recitation periods and lunch periods.

(4) Director of Lunch Room, who has the oversight of order and cleanliness in the lunch room.

(9) Director of Sanitation, who, with her assistants, has charge of general cleanliness throughout the building.

(6) Director of Traffic, assisted by "marshals," who has charge of the halls, stairways, and elevators during the passing of classes.

(7) Director of Courts, who has charge of the Courts (described later).

(8) Assistant Treasurer.

Conjoined with these pupil officers there serve upon the "Board of Managers" a Treasurer, appointed by the Principal, and six teachers appointed by the Principal, who act as advisers for each of the six Departments. In this way it is secured that the Board of Management is a body which acts by co-operation between teachers and pupils.

In addition to these general officers there are sectional officers, each dealing with one of the sections into which this large school is divided. Each section has its official Section Officers, who include President, Vice-President, Treasurer, Marshal, Secretary, and Inspector.

The Courts already referred to consist of 4 grades:—the Section Courts, the Day Courts, the Eighth Term Courts, and the Supreme Court. The Section Courts are composed of the officers of official sections; they try the minor offences of members of the sections. The Day Courts, meeting on Tuesdays and Thursdays, are made up of the Presidents of the official sections below the eighth term and deal with all the important and serious offences committed by pupils of the first seven terms.

The Eighth Term Court is made up of the President and Vice-President of the eighth term sections, and tries members of its own grade.

The Supreme Court is composed of the Court Committee of five teachers, appointed by the Principal, and five pupils, appointed by the Director of Courts; this Committee has a general oversight of the Courts and considers any case which has not been satisfactorily settled in a lower Court.

Anyone who has only a slight acquaintance with the American political and judicial systems will recognise how

closely they have been imitated within the limits of the school world. The young American who has taken part in a school government system so elaborate is not entirely unprepared for the complex politics which await him in after-school life.

School Societies (Girls).

Naturally there are many branch societies within the general organisation of a large school. At the Wadleigh High School the leading society is the Arista league, an "Honor" Society. All pupils of the 6th term, *i.e.*, the end of the 3rd year, **who have a record of 75 per cent. or more in scholarship for the 3rd, 4th and 5th terms,** whose character qualifications are high, and against whom there is no record of serious misconduct, are eligible for membership, of which there are three grades. There are also the Hellenic Club, Latin Club, Science Club, Cercle Français, Club Español, Mathematics Club, Literary Club, Economics Club, Scribes Club (to train for authorship), Debating Club, Dramatic Club, Deutsche Verein, Italian Society, Sketch Club, Glee Club, and Orchestra.

School Societies (Boys).

The Stuyvesant School, New York City, a Boys' High School already referred to, has a somewhat similar student organisation. Besides an Arista League, there are the following clubs:—Aero Club (problems of aviation and making of model aeroplanes), Anglers Club, Anvil Club (metal work), Architectural Club, Bibliophiles Club (reading and description of books), Bicycle Club, Biology Club, Chemical Club, Camera Club, Chess and Draughts Club, Civics Club (for the study of politics, with visits to Law Courts, historical places and legislative bodies), Electrical Club, First Aid Club, Forge Club (Art Metal work), French Club, Glee Club, Literary Club, Mathematical Club, Medical Club

(for boys expecting to be doctors), Orchestra Club, Radio Club (wireless telegraphy and telephony), Rifle Club, Short Story Club, Spanish Club, Dramatic Club, Engineering Club. Club life, so much a feature of American Society, is faithfully reflected in the school.

The Stuyvesant School issues a weekly newspaper, a literary monthly, and an annual Review of the events of the year. It also issues a monthly magazine in Spanish.

Games.

It cannot be said that games play as full a part in the life of the average pupil as they do in the English Secondary School. There is often elaborate provision in the form of a "stadium," but unless a boy shows special ability and can get into the school team he is apt to spend his school life as a spectator rather than a player. Many American teachers are conscious of this weakness and strive to approach more nearly to the English practice. Baseball and football are the universally popular games for boys, but a variety of basket ball which resembles Rugby football is also played. The girls play tennis and the form of basket ball used in English girls' schools; also, but less frequently, hockey.

Vocational guidance.

Great attention is given in the larger schools to **Vocational guidance.** For example, in the Barbour Junior High School, Detroit, an elaborate record is kept of each pupil's work, with a view to determining his or her special aptitude, and included on the staff are two "Vocational Counsellors," one for the boys the other for the girls, who do not teach at all, but spend the whole of their time collecting data and deciding after interview with the pupil, his teachers, and his parents, what his occupation or further training should be after leaving school.

Too easy admission to High Schools.

The complaint I most frequently heard from teachers in American High Schools was that a large number of children "graduate" from the Elementary Schools who are not educationally fit to receive High School instruction suitable to their age. Every High School Principal to whom I described an English system of awarding Scholarships on a qualifying basis said that he would welcome it as a means of avoiding the waste which now occurs.

Short Secondary School Life.

Another drawback to the work of the High School is the excessive "mortality," *i.e.*, the large number of pupils who leave before completing the High School course. There is in America no such school-life regulation as has recently been introduced into English Secondary Schools; pupils may leave when they will, so long as they have reached the age at which compulsory full-time school attendance ceases. Nevertheless a much higher proportion of the population remain at school till 18 than in England.

Absence of a Scholarship System.

As the State secondary schools are free there is no need of scholarships to cover secondary school tuition fees. Our experience in England is that, in a certain number of very necessitous cases, maintenance allowances are necessary, in addition to exemption from fees, in order to cover the cost of school meals, clothes, and other incidental charges, and, until one gets to know America a little, it is surprising to find that there is no public provision of the kind there. The fact is that the extreme poverty which occurs in England is non-existent in America except perhaps among recently arrived immigrants. Wages are higher and, in spite of the higher cost of living, it is only in the most exceptional cases that a parent needs help towards sending his child to the secondary

school. This is even truer now than it was before Prohibition became the law throughout the United States. Charitable organisations do something for extreme cases, where for example the family is unusually large or there is sickness at home, but self-help does a great deal more. It is not difficult for an American child of high school age to earn substantial sums. Not infrequently girls attending a high school where the session ends early in the afternoon act as nurse-maids to wealthy people. I heard of cases where girls who wished to attend a high school but had not suitable clothes earned the money for them by "doing chores" for the neighbours.

It should be mentioned that in many cases where a rural district has no high school it pays the travelling expenses of such of its children as attend the nearest high school in a neighbouring district. Nevertheless, owing to the sparse population of many rural districts in America and their remoteness from the railroad, the rural child is apt to be under educational disadvantages, as compared with the town child, to a greater degree than is generally the case in England.

Non-State Schools.

All the schools to which reference has up to now been made are State Schools forming part of the public system and financed wholly from public funds. About one-seventh of the children in the United States however receive their education in other Schools, which are entirely outside the public system and receive no public aid; these are Parochial and Private Schools. The Parochial Schools are maintained by religious denominations, chiefly the Roman Catholic. Some, the Quaker Schools of Philadelphia for example, have

a high reputation, but the lack of state aid must seriously affect the efficiency of many. Private Schools flourish chiefly in the Eastern States; they are patronised by the richer classes and the fees are high; £100 per annum for day pupils is quite a usual figure.

During my journey I made frequent enquiries as to the relation between the Private Schools and the Public School system. It is sometimes said in England that the introduction of more scholarship holders into the older type of Secondary School, and still more the abolition of fees in Secondary Schools altogether, would cause the children from better-class homes to be removed to private schools, which would consequently increase in number. There is little doubt that in the large eastern cities of the United States the parent who can possibly afford it will avoid sending his child to the public school, elementary or high, chiefly because he fears that in a large city school his children may acquire undesirable acquaintances and habits from contact with the mixture of races found there. Nevertheless it is significant that, although the number of children in the State Schools has increased greatly during the last decade, no corresponding increase has taken place in the numbers attending schools outside the state system. In the West private schools are less numerous; broadly speaking, children of all classes attend the public school and there is not the danger that the school may take its tone from one class only of the community.

Two particularly interesting private schools are briefly described below.

Two Private Schools.

The Brearley School is a non-public day school in New

York City, for girls from 6 to 18 years of age, situated in one of the better parts of New York in an excellent building erected in 1912. Originally a proprietary school founded by an Englishman, it has now a governing body who are self-perpetuating. The fees vary from £60 to £100 per annum. The School is under a Head Master who received part of his academic training at Oxford. It is prosperous and there are more applications for admission than vacancies. Preference is given to the children of professional men or of those who have done or are doing some definite piece of work for the community.

There is only one course, the academic. The classes are small, each containing 12 or 15 pupils only. A school day consists of a single morning session, from 8-45 to 1-0, with a ten minutes break, and there is a three months summer holiday. At one o'clock there was quite a gathering of governesses to escort the younger pupils home and many of the older pupils were called for in motor cars. The Old Girls' Alumnae Association has a strong corporate spirit; it has a club room in the school and recently raised £40,000 for school purposes. The salary of one of the teaching posts is derived from the income of a bequest to the school for the purpose, as in the case of an endowed chair in a university.

The Ethical Culture School is West 64th Street, New York City, adjoining Central Park, is housed in a beautiful building., part of which is occupied by the meeting rooms and library of the Ethical Society, by which the school was founded. This school has attracted much attention, chiefly because of the attempt it makes to teach the moral side of religion without stressing the supernatural. The basis of the teaching is, however, deistic and the Hebrew scriptures are read along

with the literatures of other religious systems. In the High School, which has about 300 pupils (boys and girls) the fees are £100 a year. Scholarships are offered to cover the whole or part of the fees, equivalent in number to about one-third of the pupils in attendance. The teaching I saw in this school impressed me very favourably, and the tone was excellent. The institution includes also Kindergarten and Elementary Departments and a Teachers' Training Course.

The Dalton Plan.

I also visited the **Children's University School,** conducted by Miss Helen Parkhurst on the system now well known in England as the Dalton Plan. The school is in a private house (10, West 72nd Street, New York City), adapted for teaching purposes. It contains about 150 children altogether, but only some 45 of these (between 9 and 14) were working at the time of my visit on the Dalton Plan; the rest, under 9 years of age, were taking a mixture of Kindergarten and Montessori. The classes were very small, ranging from 5 to 10 or 12; indeed the small rooms could not accommodate more. The fee charged is £90 per annum. What I saw was interesting, but the Dalton Plan has been so much more developed in England than in America that I will not occupy space with comments upon it.

There are in America a number of boarding schools of wide reputation, outside the public school system, modelled to some extent on the English Public Schools. These are called Preparatory Schools, but they do not as a rule accept pupils under 14 years of age and sometimes retain them until 20, so as to cover the first two years of the college course. Time did not permit of my visiting any of these schools.

V.—DAY CONTINUATION SCHOOLS.

Day Continuation Schools, though of recent establishment, have already become general in urban districts, except possibly in the South. In **New Jersey** for example the system was started in 1920. In this state full time attendance at school is compulsory up to 14; after that age the child need not attend full time if (1) certain health requirements are met, (2) the 5th grade (normal age 10) has been passed, and (3) the child has attended at least 130 days in the previous year. These conditions being fulfilled, the child may be employed if he attends a Day Continuation School for 6 hours per week.

In **Massachusetts** Day Continuation Schools are compulsory for all children between 14 and 16 not receiving full-time education. If a child has no employment he must attend the Continuation School full time (4 hours on each day) up to 16.

In **Michigan** all children must attend a school of one type or another full-time to the age of 16; subsequently, if not remaining in full-time attendance, they must attend a part-time school up to the age of 17. If however a child aged 15 has passed the 7th grade (normal age 13) and it can be shown that his parents need his wage for the family support, he is only required to attend a Continuation School for 8 hours per week.

In **Indiana** there is compulsory full-time attendance up to the age of 14, unless the child has passed the 8th grade (normal age 14); if not he must remain until 16, doing half-time continuation school work, alternate days or alternate weeks.

In **Wisconsin,** children over 14 who are not in attendance at High Schools must attend Continuation Schools 8 hours per week up to 17.

California has advanced the compulsory school attendance age to 16 years for full-time attendance ; part-time attendance is compulsory up to 21 years of age.

Compulsory day continuation school attendance is not however enforced in rural districts; in one way or another they are exempted, and so far as I know Rural Day Continuation Schools do not exist. In Massachussetts for example, the establishment of such schools is not compulsory unless the school district contains at least 200 employed children under 16; in Michigan continuation school attendance is not enforced in a given school district unless there are at least 50 pupils eligible to attend.

A typical Day Continuation system.

An example of a day continuation school system which is fairly typical is that of **Trenton, New Jersey,** a city of about 120,000 inhabitants, where day continuation schools were introduced two years ago. The local industriees are chiefly wire rope making, cigar making, pottery, and the manufacture of rubber goods. Employers were approached individually and every effort was made to minimise the difficulties on their side. The pupils are between 14 find 16 years of age and attend for 6 hours per week. The law is as yet administered with some elasticity; for example, where the family income is deficient temporary release is often given from day continuation school attendance; or even permanent release if the child has nearly reached 16. About 850 pupils attend at present.

As a rule the 6 hours per week are put in all on one day, to suit the convenience of employers ; from 9 to 12 in the morn-

ing and from 12-45 to 3-45 in the afternoon. There are exceptions to this however in such cases as that of a boy doing a milk-round or working in a bakery, when the pupil may attend on more than one day a week, sometimes even on five days per week. The maximum number of pupils in a class is 20. There is no homework. The Teachers are recruited chiefly from the Elementary School staffs and are paid salaries intermediate between Elementary School and Senior High School salaries, *i.e.*, about the same as Junior High School salaries.

The School is at present housed in (1) a large dwelling house adapted for the purpose, and (2) temporary buildings erected in the grounds of the adjoining Senior High School. The curriculum includes English subjects (Composition, Literature, History, Geography, Civics), Typewriting, Shorthand, Woodwork (for boys), Domestic Subjects including Drressmaking (for girls).

I gathered that though the system has hardly settled into permanent shape as yet, employers are reconciled to it and in most cases in favour of it. Some, but not most, of them have reduced the wages from full-time rate, and piece-workers of course lose. A number of employers have found however that they get better value from part-time juvenile employees, owing to their better educational training; one employer is so much impressed with this that he endeavours to keep continuation school employees working together in one room, because they bring to their work something of value which tends to be lost when they are mixed with other employees not so well educated.

Fall River Day Continuation Schools.

In **Fall River, Massachussetts,** a cotton-spinning town of about 120,000 inhabitants, day continuation school attendance is required for 4 hours per week only, taken in one half-day. Here the instruction is only slightly of a cultural character; boys take two hours shop work and two hours academic work per week, but the latter is made as practical as possible; in the case of girls Home Training is substituted for shop work. Although the employers as a whole opposed the passage of the continuation school law, they have co-operated satisfactorily in working it when passed, and continuation school provision has been made on a generous scale. The classes, for example, must not have more than 15 pupils in each and the maintenance cost works out at more than twice that for High Schools. The teachers have been selected mainly from the younger Elementary School teachers; most of them have taken two Summer School courses of training for continuation school work.

The boy pupils are divided into two sections. Those employed in industries involving or closely connected with weaving and spinning take as their academic subjects English, Civics, Arithmetic, and Hygiene; and for "shop" subjects, Weaving (including folding and inspecting), Carding and Spinning. Other boys take as their academic subjects, English, with Civics and Hygiene, and one of the following shop subjects: Carpentry, "Electric Shop" (wiring, electric bells, lamps, etc.), Machines (repair of motor cars, etc.), and Mechanical Drawing. The teachers spend a certain amount of their time visiting the homes of the pupils and the places where they are employed, bringing back from the latter the employers' reports on the pupils' progress.

Employers are now beginning to acknowledge that the system is good from the industrial point of view because it makes better workers.

In the girls' continuation school the academic subjects are English, Civics, Arithmetic, and Hygiene. The Domestic Subjects are Child Welfare, Home Nursing, Sewing, Cooking, and House Management. The Child Welfare and Home Nursing are taught by a trained nurse. The school is excellently fitted up for this kind of work; in addition to the Sewing and Cooking Rooms there are two bedrooms, one for an adult, the other for a child, and a bath-room. A good deal of the equipment has been made by the boys in the continuation school, who have also installed many of the electric fittings.

Day Continuation Schools probably transitional.

On the whole I was not favourably impressed with the Day Continuation School work I saw in America. The curriculum is much more vocational than had been contemplated under the English Education Act of 1918 for children under 16, and most of the non-vocational work was of low standard. A good many of the pupils were distinctly of a backward type and ought to have been dealt with separately; their presence so much lowered the rate of progress and the standard of work attempted as to make it uninteresting to the other pupils. Inattention and listlessness were more common in these classes than elsewhere, though it is true that most of the pupils attacked their vocational subjects eagerly. From conversations I had with those engaged in continuation school work I conclude that it is generally regarded as likely to be merely a transitional phase, probably not of very great duration, in the development of American education. The tendency is for more

and more of the brighter children to go on to the High School. In many cases employers will no longer engage children of continuation school age, since they prefer to avoid the trouble of making arrangements for part-time employees; this leads to more and more children under 16 who have passed through the elementary grades entering the High Schools. It is generally anticipated that, after a few years experience of continuation school work, full time attendance will in most states be made compulsory up to the age of 15. Indeed some states have already advanced beyond this ; in Minnesota, for example, the law requires full time attendance up to 16, unless the child has passed the 8th grade (normal age 14) and it can be shown that the family circumstances are such that the child's wages are necessary for the family's upkeep. This law applies to the rural as well as to the urban districts, and although exemptions are rather freely given, about one-half of the children of 16 are in attendance at High Schools.

It is not perhaps too much to say that **American education is developing along lines which may lead before long, if the country can afford it. to full-time attendance at School for every child up to the age of 18.**

A "Co-operative" High School.

In connection with Day Continuation Schools mention should be made of the **Haaren Co-operative High School, New York City,** which is in most respects of the Continuation School type. Some years ago, the Gary ("work-study-play") system, and the co-operative ("work-study") system were tried in various schools of New York City. The Gary system did not flourish there and has been abandoned; the co-operative system was continued in a number of schools until 1920, when most of the co-operative pupils were con-

centrated in the Haaren High School. The pupils come from (1) Elementary Schools, (2) Junior High Schools, or (3) Senior High Schools, and the course extends over 4 years, from 14 to 18.

A pupil attends full-time until he is placed in a job, after which he attends school in alternate weeks. I gathered from the Head Master that it was rather doubtful whether the School would be continued in its present form, since most employers preferred, especially in the case of girl stenographers, not to engage employees under 18. He was of opinion that an ideal system would provide for full-time attendance for the first three years and part-time attendance for the last year only. Originally there were both commercial and industrial courses, but it has been found that American boys will not take junior jobs in engineering and other industrial occupations if, as in the case in New York City, the adult workers are foreign immigrants, chiefly Polish, who come to America already trained to some extent. The School deals therefore on the vocational side with commercial work entirely, chiefly retail selling. There are 900 pupils, boys and girls, of whom about 300 are in jobs. The pupils attending part-time are taught in classes entirely composed of such pupils, and the teaching work is therefore duplicated.

The subjects taught are Advertising, Book-keeping, Business English, Community Civics, Colour and Design, Commercial Geography, Commercial Law, Economics, French, General Science, Graphic Statistics, History, Materials, Non-Textiles, Office Practice, Salesmanship, Spanish, Stenography, Textiles, Typewriting. The curriculum is very highly vocationalised; all the English is " business " English

and there is no Mathematics except Commercial Arithmetic. " Graphic Statistics " means the presentation of statistics in diagram form, an art very highly developed in America. The Course in " Non-Textiles " deals with furniture, pottery, and glass.

An interesting lesson I heard in this School was one of a course on Salesmanship. With the help of the class the teacher wrote on the blackboard a list of words suitable for use in selling the article selected, a neck-tie. She then discussed the process of selling, dividing it into (1) approach, (2) " talking up the merchandise," and (3) closing the sale. One of the girls acted the part of saleswoman and sold the neck-tie to a boy after a good deal of conversation; the method of sale was then criticised by the teacher and the class. The teacher, a former assistant mistress in an academic High School, told me that, having become interested in this kind of work, she had taken a post in a Department Store to get experience and had then gone through the School of Salesmanship in New York University.

Close contact is maintained between the School and employers by means of " co-ordinators " who place the pupils in business houses, follow up their work, and thus co-ordinate school instruction and business experience. The Department Stores have shown themselves very appreciative of the work done in this School; one of the largest of them has, for example, printed a pamphlet on " Necessary Information for selling Glass and China," prepared by a member of the Staff, and has distributed it to all its employees.

A Department Store Continuation School.

I had an opportunity of seeing also an interesting special type of Continuation School, maintained by one of the large

New York Department Stores for such of their employees as are of continuation school age. The instruction is given at the Stores, in a school on the roof of the building, and extends over 4 hours per week. The teacher is provided by the New York Board of Education. Senior Classes are also held for the older employees, who receive instruction from one of the staff of the Sales Department, in Salesmanship, Store Rules, Organisation, and the Sales Check system. I also saw something of the elaborate system of "rating," *i.e.*, assessing the efficiency of employees. The establishment includes a library for employees, a dental room, an auditorium, a rest room, and a lunch room.

Messrs. Ford's Works School.

When I was in Detroit I visited the principal Ford Motor Works and their special school for boys. It is very specifically a vocational school with some of the features of a charitable institution. There are 540 boys, who enter from 12 to 15 years of age and remain till 18; in selecting them preference is given to those who are handicapped by home circumstances (orphans for example) and have good elementary school records. Both class and shop work is done; one week in the classroom for every two weeks in the shops. The boys not only pay no fees but receive wages for both class and shop work, and for holidays as well, two dollars per month being retained for a personal savings-bank fund. The school course is weak on the cultural side; the only purely non-vocational subject is English, and the only other class-room subjects are Mathematics, Mechanical Drawing and Practical Chemistry. It is intended however to extend the English work.

Boys are not obliged to enter the works when they leave this school, though most of them wish to do so and compete for admission on equal terms with other applicants. The least efficient of them generally qualify for a wage of five dollars a day on entering the works proper. The classroom work of the Trade School begins at 7-30 a.m. and goes on till 3-30 p.m., with an hour's break for lunch, which is free, and rest; boys doing shop work have only 20 minutes for lunch, as in the works, where it is brought round to the men at their jobs. A few youths in the works, who show exceptional promise and who desire to take a course qualifying for admission to the University, work on the night shift in the plant (8 hours) and attend a High School 6 hours during the day time to get the necessary "credits," a working day of 14 hours.

VI.—TRADE SCHOOLS.

One or two examples of purely vocational schools will now be described.

A Textile High School.

The **New York City Textile High School** is of recent establishment and is said to be the first technical school in the country devoted to a single industry. New York is perhaps the largest distributing and selling centre for textiles in the world; it is also the "style" (fashion) centre of the country and a growing manufacturing centre for the highest grades of textiles, such as outer knitted fabrics, garments, upholstery, carpets, dye-stuffs, laces, etc. Among the textile and allied trades and industries represented in the city are upholstery trades, wholesale and retail dry goods trade, wholesale and jobbers of woollen goods, wholesale and jobbers of cotton goods, converters of cotton goods, dealers in fibres (cotton, wool, linen, silk, etc.), knitting and sweater manufacture (over 500 small mills in the city), carpet and rug manufacturing, dye manufacturing, wholesale dealers in dyes, handicraft textile trades, and clothing trades. The census returns show that the number of people employed in textile occupations is about 700,000, as compared with about 250,000 engaged in the combined metal trades and 90,000 engaged in the wood-working trades.

Until recently most of the experts in the textile lines of New York had been born and trained in Europe and it was therefore desired to increase American facilities for training in this direction. There already existed a number of institutions, *e.g.*, the Lowell Textile School and the Philadelphia Textile School, affording training at the post-secondary stage for the textile industries; the New York Textile High

School was founded to supply textile education of a seondary grade, in response to a united demand from a number of textile organisations. Manufacturers have contributed equipment worth over 100,000 dollars. The School is a vocational school of High School grade, *i.e.*, it prepares boys and girls directly for the textile trades; as regards the age of the pupils, the length of the course, and the requirements of admission, it resembles the other High Schools of New York, since it has a 4 years' course following upon 8 years in the elementary schcol.

The course of study is divided into two parts: the first is a two years preparatory course giving a foundation of academic and technical subjects; the second is distinctly vocational. In order to economise the accommodation of the School, pupils are required to take the first year of the course in some other High School and are encouraged to take the second year there also. Thus the strictly vocational work is not begun until the pupil reaches 16 years of age. It is divided into branches to meet the special needs of the textile industry, viz., General Textiles, Market of Textiles, Textile Manufacturing and Engineering, Textile Chemistry, and Dyeing, Costume Design, and Applied Textile Design.

The **General Technical Course** is for those who desire to enter the textile world but have no definite plans as to any specific branch; it endeavours to give a broad general training in the practice and theory of cotton, woollen, worsted, silk, yarn, and fabric manufacture. The **Marketing of Textiles** is the most popular course in the School, as might be expected from the fact that the selling of textiles is the largest commercial enterprise in New York City. **The Textile**

Manufacturing and Engineering Course differs from the general course in that it devotes more time to the operating, repairing, and mechanism of weaving, knitting and finishing machines ; it prepares young men to enter either the manufacturing or power department of a textile mill and to rise later to responsible positions as overseers, superintendents, etc. **The Textile Chemistry and Dyeing Course** prepares those who wish to become assistants in textile and dyeing laboratories, conditioning and testing houses and mills. **The Costume Design Course** includes costume sketching, costume draping, costume cutting, pattern cutting and grading, fashion illustration and knowledge of dress materials ; those who have completed this course find occupation as costume designers, costume drapers and fashion illustrators. The course in **Applied Textile Design** covers all branches of woven and textile design ; in addition to regular designing, students have an opportunity of placing their designs on fabrics and of seeing the possibilities and limitations of the manufacturing operations ; after graduation they become assistant designers in mills and textile houses.

The school has about 500 pupils, boys and girls, chiefly boys and mostly Jewish. It receives a special grant from the Federal Government, under the Smith-Hughes Act, which requires that 50 per cent. of the work done shall be in strictly vocational subjects, 25 per cent. in academic, and 25 per cent. in "related" subjects, The teachers are of three types (1) academic, *i.e.*, regular High School teachers, with a sympathetic interest in vocational work, (2) Technical Instructors, who deal with such subjects as Applied Science, Mathematics, and Design, and who are generally graduates of Technical

Schools with some textile experience, and (3) Vocational Instructors, practical men and women with textile experience. My impression of the School was that, however efficient the technical instruction might be, the cultural subjects lost something by being taught, wherever possible, with an eye to the industry. It is stated that the School has already achieved a measure of success in that "it has placed every member of the first graduating class in a responsible position in the textile world."

A Trade School for Girls.

The Manhattan Trade School for Girls, New York City, has a two year course, from 14 (the Elementary School leaving age) to 16. It has a high reputation and there are always more applicants than places to be filled. All new pupils are subjected to a testing period of from two to six weeks, during which the Otis Group Intelligence Tests are used. Almost all the pupils are of foreign race, chiefly Italians, but there are also many Jewesses and some coloured girls. About half the time is given to trade subjects proper; the remaining half is divided into two equal portions, one devoted to home-making subjects, Cookery, Laundry work, etc., and the other to "related general subjects," *i.e.*, subjects bearing upon the vocational work, such as English, Arithmetic and Accounts, Textiles, Civics, (including the Labour Laws), Dress Design, Hygiene and Physical Training. The girls are grouped for their non-vocational subjects according to their trade groups. The following trades are at present taught:— Dressmaking, Millinery, Flower and Feather making, Lampshade making, Silk and Cretonne Box making and other fancy novelties, Sample Mounting, Garment Machine Operating, Manicuring, Shampooing, Cookery and Lunch Room Work,

Laundry work. The inclusion of any particular trade subjects in the curriculum depends entirely on prevailing trade conditions; if there is a new demand for workers in a certain trade, that trade is added to the next year's programme; if the demand in a certain trade falls off, it is removed from the curriculum; for example, kid-glove making, which flourished during the war, is no longer taught.

The work-rooms are exactly like ordinary work-rooms except that they are probably cleaner and better lighted. For machine-work the girls sit in long rows, each row in charge of an Instructor; for other subjects they work in groups. There are usually 20 girls to each Instructor. The quality and quantity of each girl's work is recorded week by week in full detail and girls who do not make good must leave.

The demand for girls trained in this School far exceeds the supply. There is a "placement" department, with a list of approved employers; each girl is followed up after leaving and a record is compiled from periodical reports received from her and from her employer during as long a period as possible. The girls trained here can earn high wages: from a minimum of 12 dollars (£2 10s. 0d.) per week up to as much as 100 dollars (£20) in certain cases. A record card selected at random showed that a girl who left the school two years ago was now earning 50 dollars (£10) a week.

There is a woman Principal who had had previous experience in managing Girls' Clubs. She told me that many of the girls pursue their own non-vocational education after leaving; those who go into skilled occupations often come into contact with people better educated than themselves; they see the advantages such people have, and try to

remove their own shortcomings. In this endeavour a girl who has attended such a trade school is helped by the fact that she has pursued her general education long enough to enable her to continue it later without encountering overwhelming difficulties.

The teachers of non-vocational subjects are chiefly former elementary school teachers who have shown interest in trying new teaching methods; they are paid at Junior High School rates, *i.e.*, between Elementary School and Senior High School rates. In non-vocational subjects the classes range from 35 to 40; every subject is dealt with as much from the trade point of view as possible, or at least from the point of view of the daily life of the trade worker; at the time of my visit, for example, the class in English were discussing how to write a letter to the railway company after having lost one's purse in the sub-way (underground railway).

The selection of teachers of trade subjects has been found very difficult. Adequate technical knowledge is essential and this has not been easy to get in combination with satisfactory general education and teaching power. It is hoped however that in time the school will itself produce the kind of teacher required.

Articles made are sold at current trade prices and there have been no difficulties with Trade Unions on this point. The Sales Department is an actual shop on the ground floor, where there is also a café, which the girls being trained for Cookery and Lunch Room Work use for practising purposes. An attempt is made to obtain as far as possible the amenities of High School life; there is student government, an auditorium and an alumnae association.

VII.—AGRICULTURAL SCHOOLS.

Farming is the most important industry in the United States. Lord Bryce says: "The farmers......if not numerically the largest class, are at least the class whose importance is most widely felt." (*The American Commonwealth*, Vol. II., page 267). It is not surprising therefore that agricultural schools should be found in large numbers. A High School in one of the southern states, in which vocational agriculture is taught, has already been mentioned. High Schools of this kind will be found all over the country, but there are in addition a number of schools even more definitely vocational and one of them may suitably be referred to here.

A part-time Agricultural Boarding School.

The Minnesota School of Agriculture, though attached to the Agricultural Department of Minnesota University, situated at St. Paul and located at the University Farm, is quite distinct from the **College of Agriculture** in the same University, which offers a degree course. It is a boarding school for country boys and girls, usually farmers' children, who have received only an Elementary education and intend to take up farming or some agricultural employment. The school was established largely with the idea of giving some further education to country children who for some reason do not go to High School and need further instruction to make them intelligent farmers. It offers a course of study designed to fit young men and women for successful farm life and endeavours to give its students the necessary preparation for useful citizenship; it does not attempt to prepare students for college. All boy pupils must have had six months' farm practice before entrance and must be at least 17 on admission, unless they have done

one year's High School work. The educational requirement for admission is successful completion of the 8th grade (normal age 14) in the elementary school. The courses of study cover a wide range of subjects and are largely vocational in character, though provision is made for some instruction in English and other academic subjects.

The vocational subjects are divided into five alternative courses (1) General Farming, (2) Live Stock Production, (3) Crop Production, (4) Farm Mechanics, and (5) Home Economics (for girls). Each course extends over three years. The curriculum is liberalised by the inclusion of a number of elective subjects which give the pupil an opportunity to follow his or her individual tastes: for example, instrumental (violin and piano) and vocal music, public speaking, and rural sociology.

The School prospectus states that "the methods of instruction tend to educate the students towards the farm instead of away from it, and to develop in them a love of farm life by showing them its possibilities. In this respect the school would appear to have been successful, for over 80 per cent. of its graduates continue agricultural pursuits." No doubt this success is due chiefly to a special feature of the school, viz., that it is organised on a plan which provides for six months of work in the school year, and six months of supervised "Home Project" work on the farm. The school session runs only from October to March, with about a fortnight's holiday at Christmas; thus the pupil remains in contact with his past environment and future occupation throughout his time at school. The work he does during the six months spent on the farm is closely connected by the

" Home Project " Plan with his work in the school, in which the parents' interest and sympathy are thus cultivated, and it is supervised by members of the school staff who travel round for the purpose.

The tuition fee is merely nominal, 6 dollars per annum for residents in the State of Minnesota, 12 dollars for non-residents. There are other fees for gymnastics, use of books, and medical attendance, amounting in all to 10 dollars per annum. Board and residence with laundry cost 180 dollars per annum.

The Project Method.

The Project Method is now such an important feature of American education, and is so essential a part of agricultural education, that a short description of it must be attempted, though the limited space available in this report makes it impossible to do justice to the subject. The " Project " is a definite piece of practical work which the pupil undertakes under conditions approximating as nearly as possible to those of real life. In a very modest form it may be merely the making of an article in the manual workshop, but if so the article will be a full-size one, not a toy, as is too often the case in England. At the end of the job a detailed statement will be drawn up by the pupil, giving particulars of the cost of materials, the amount of time spent on the work and its monetary equivalent, and the price at which the article should be sold; in fact a full cost account. In the case of a rural or agricultural school, the project may be the buying, fattening, and sale of a pig, the growing of a crop on some specified plot of ground, the feeding of lambs for market, the rearing of poultry, and so on. Sometimes the project may take the form of an investigation : for example an attempt to determine

whether the use of fertiliser will pay for the time and labour spent in hauling and spreading it. If the project is not carried on at school but in the pupil's home, it is called a "Home Project" and is supervised by an agricultural teacher from the school. Although the project is regarded primarily as an educational exercise it is always insisted that it shall be carried out on a business footing.

A Home Project is chosen jointly by the boy, his father, and the agricultural teacher, and forms the basis of the year's curriculum in agricultural work. The student writes at the beginning of the school year a "Plan" of his year's project, including a statement of its purpose, its size, and its scope; and an analysis as complete as possible showing the scheme of procedure, outlining the problems to be solved and stating the probable steps to be taken in solving them. When the project is concerned with production, it includes a complete cycle of production; for example an egg-production project includes the selection of birds, raising early pullets from selected eggs, the early care of chicks, feeding at different periods, disposal of the cockerels, and housing problems, as well as merely feeding for egg-production. A corn project will involve a selection of seed in the field, storage, testing of seed, preparation of soil, planting, cultivating, harvesting, and marketing; also a study of related topics, such as disease, insects, fertility of soil, etc. The parent's part of the scheme is to allow the boy facilities for the project, such as the use of land, or buildings, or equipment. This is done upon a business footing, and in drawing up a financial statement at the end of the project the boy charges himself for the use of land, say 6 per cent. of its value, 8 to 10 per cent. for the use of buildings, and 5 cents an hour for equipment used by

horse labour. In the case of cattle or pigs, loss owing to disease or accident is generally safeguarded against by insurance.

All materials bought and sold are entered at actual prices; any horse labour used is reckoned (in Minnesota) at 15 cents an hour and the boy's own labour at 25 cents an hour. Products reserved for home use or exchange are entered at market prices. Often the father and the boy enter into a formal financial agreement at the beginning of the project and share the profits made; these are frequently substantial: during the year 1921, 969 farm projects were completed in Illinois High Schools and the total profit which the boys made was 77,240.78 dollars, *i.e.*, about £15,000.

During the progress of the project the boy is required to keep a daily diary, recording the amount of work he puts in upon it. He must also keep a detailed record of the bulletins, papers, articles, or books he reads in connection with it. There is a separate labour record as well, showing the amount of time per week spent by the pupil himself, by any assistant he may have had, or by any animals he uses. A detailed cash record is also kept. If the subject of the project is animal husbandry, a monthly feeding record is kept, showing the kind and cost of the feed and the gain in weight.

Not infrequently a boy carries on two or more projects, perhaps one of a definite agricultural character, the other having a social aim, such as the organisation of farmers' clubs; the improvement of farm dwellings by the supply of running water, electric light, etc., consolidated schools, community halls, young people's societies.

One of the most interesting examples I saw of project work was at the Training Institute for Negroes at Hampton,

(Virginia), where Booker Washington was educated, on the farm attached to the Institute. Here the students were of about the same age as those at the Minnesota Agricultural School.

In America there is practically no peasant class and the agricultural community, as a whole, is far more progressive than that of England. At the University of Virginia I was surprised to find that more of the students came from farming homes than from homes of any other kind. Certainly the task of making the farmer realise the value to him of education and scientific knowledge has been attempted on a far larger scale in America and is tackled there in a more convincing manner. The agricultural school which I have attempted to describe is but one of innumerable examples of this.

The project plan is followed in a number of subjects other than agriculture; in, for example, manual training, housewifery, art, and English literature, but space does not allow of further description.

VIII.—THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

The Training of Teachers for Elementary Schools.

Wide variations are found in the qualifications demanded for teaching posts as one moves from one state to another. No one general system of certification, like that of England, exists; indeed, the area of a certificating authority is often smaller than a state; in Massachusetts, for example, it is the "town" (English township) and in some other states the county. Sometimes there is a combination of county and state systems, under which the examinations are set by the state but the actual examining carried out by officials of the county education board. The most fully developed system, and that most generally approved by educationists, is the system under which the state appoints a board of examiners who examine the candidates and issue certificates which apply throughout the State; such a system exists in New York, New Jersey, Vermont, and a number of other States.

The Normal School.

The institution which is specially intended for the training of Elementary School teachers is the **Normal School,** sometimes called the Teachers College, or College of Education, of which institutions there are about 170 in the country. The typical Normal School course now closely resembles the English Training College course, covering as it does two years after graduation from the Secondary School. Very many American Elementary School Teachers, however, have not taken a Normal School course. In Maryland, for example, of all the teachers in Elementary Schools for white children in 1914-15, only about 10 per cent. had taken a full Normal School course, or some course academically superior to it. There are many teachers who, having completed an Elementary School course, succeed only, in obtaining a low grade certificate

in a State where the requirements are easy; others have merely completed a High School course, or perhaps only a part of it. I found interesting examples of schemes by which teachers who are unable to take the ordinary Normal School course nevertheless receive a certain amount of training, and some of these I propose to describe briefly, after dealing with one or two typical examples of Normal Schools.

During my stay in America I visited three Normal Schools working under State Education Boards: those at Towson, Maryland; Trenton, New Jersey, and Kalamazoo, Michigan; and two working under City Education Boards: Cleveland, Ohio, and Detroit, Michigan.

A Maryland Training College.

The **Towson State Normal School, Maryland,** is situated in a country district about 12 miles out of Baltimore and was erected in 1912, about the same time as Bingley Training College. The site covers 80 acres, and the buildings, which are of red brick, in Tudor style, are in two blocks: (1) an administrative and teaching block, and (2) a "dormitory" or residential block. There is dormitory accommodation for 200 students, rcently increased to provide for a small number of men resident students by dividing one of the large rooms in the college block into cubicles. In all there are 375 students, of whom 20 are men Students live either at home in the immediate neighbourhood or in approved lodgings near at hand. The teaching accommodation is much on the same lines as at Bingley, though the provision for science, gymnastics, art, and kindergarten work is less elaborate. A practising school is included in the same building. The dormitory building has practically no common-room accommodation; one small sitting room containing a

piano, together with the corridors, provide all the space available for indoor recreation. Each bed-sitting room was originally intended for two students but, owing to increased numbers, three now join at a room. A bathroom is provided for every two bed-sitting rooms and adjoins them. An unexpected feature is that the teaching staff do not live in the college; that intimate contact between teachers and taught which is so valuable an element of college life is therefore weakened. The dormitory is in charge of a Social Director and her assistant, with a trained nurse for cases of illness. Meals are served on the cafeteria (*i.e.*, self-service) system, so frequently found in America.

The total cost of site, buildings and equipment was about £180,000. All the students in attendance are from the State of Maryland; they pay no tuition fee, but a charge of 100 dollars (about £20) per annum for board, residence and laundry is made. I gathered that the maintenance cost per head is about 600 dollars, *i.e.*, about £120. I had an opportunity of speaking to the students and of attending a meeting of the combined staffs of the college and the practising school. The average salary of the members of this training college staff is about £400 per annum, non-resident.

It was interesting to compare the buildings of this college with those of Bingley Training College. Though the former have more pretensions to architectural style, the general arrangements did not strike me as markedly superior, and the residential accommodation was distinctly less generous.

Training College used as a State Library Centre.

The Towson building is also used as one of the distributing centres for the Maryland State Public Library Commission, Boxes of books are sent out for four-month periods to

individuals or groups of individuals at a charge of one dollar for four months. The books are also sent to schools if they desire them. The distributor may be the local school teacher or any other suitable person ; often school attendance officers are used for the purpose, acting under the county superintendent. The method of distribution is either by "express" (railway parcel carriage) or book-wagon.

A New Jersey Training College.

The **New Jersey State Normal School** at **Trenton** has 600 women and 50 men students. The buildings, which are old, and have been gradually extended by taking in adapted houses, do not call for a full description. A feature of this normal school, common to many of the normal schools in America, is that besides the normal training course there are also certain special courses, for training in the teaching of Kindergarten, Commercial Work, Domestic Subjects, Manual Work, Music, Physical Exercises, and a course for intending teachers of sub-normal children. Admission is confined to New Jersey students and, as at Towson, tuition is entirely free. The subjects of the general course correspond fairly closely with those of an English two-year training college. All the girl students do a certain amount of domestic subjects, because many of them will marry after a few years of teaching work. Seven-eighths of the women in America marry before they are 25. "Library methods ;" is a subject included which is not generally found in an English training college course. Ten weeks' teaching practice is included in the normal course but in addition to this a good deal of teaching practice is done as part of the academic work. The Principal told me that although all candidates admitted possess graduation certificates from a public high school he subsequently found a certain number of them unsatisfactory, from weakness in academic

knowledge, or inaptitude for teaching, or both. At the end of the last academic year, for example, only 285 graduated out of 340 who had entered the college. The Principal attributed this partly to variation in High School graduation standards and partly to the High School elective system, which may result in a pupil graduating without having taken some subjects, such as Arithmetic, essential for the Normal School course. In future, incoming students will take an entrance examination, including intelligence tests. Graduation from the Normal School is determined in exactly the same way as graduation from the High School; it depends on the successful completion, judged by internal tests, of courses of a specified length in the various subjects.

This Normal School has an elaborate system of student self-government, modelled on the United States Constitution. "Extra-curricular" activities are very fully developed and there is a remarkably elaborate system of assessing "personal achievement." A record is kept for each student, assessing periodically her qualities as regards (1) social service, (2) athletics,(3) health, (4) arts (dress, decoration of room, etc.), (5) knowledge of nature, and (6) general improvement (reading, Church and Sunday School attendance, knowledge of current events, participation in debates, etc.). Under "social service" credit is given for such matters as good manners at table and intelligent conversation; under "health," for freedom from colds, open windows, and so on. Altogether there are some 70 or 80 headings on the personal achievement record. The students are divided into teams which compete with one another in this matter. I put it to the Principal that such personal qualities and defects might be sufficiently estimated without so detailed a system,

but he was of opinion from experience that the system of record, competition and team-spirit is very valuable as a stimulus and encouragement to the individual student, who is more likely to cultivate cheerfulness, or good table manners, or plenty of fresh air, if by doing so she increases the chance of victory for her team. The personal achievement record is not used in determining whether a student shall graduate or not, but when a superintendent of schools visits the college to select teachers, his choice from among a number of those about to graduate is often determined by reference to the personal achievement records.

From the second term onwards students act as "Big Sisters" to children in the practising schools, getting to know about their home conditions, finding out why the backward ones do not make better progress, and so on.

A Middle-West Training College.

The **Western State Normal School at Kalamazoo, Michigan,** is a good example of an American Training College more highly developed than the two already described. Michigan is one of the most interesting of the States; it is large in area and varied in character, with industrial towns, mining districts, great tracts of forest and many lakes. The metal mines, chiefly copper-ore, are in the North. The chief agricultural operations are the growing of beet for sugar, celery growing, fruit, and potatoes. Kalamazoo is a town of some 50,000 inhabitants, pleasantly embowered in trees; the Normal School stands some little distance outside it, perched on a hill. There are five separate buildings: (1) the administrative building containing the offices, classrooms, assembly room, library, reading rooms, and a co-operative store; (2) the practising schools, containing High and Elementary Schools,

(3) the gymnasium, 119 ft. by 68 ft., (4) the science building, providing for physics, chemistry, biology, geography and psychology, (5) the manual arts building, containing rooms for wood-work and mechanical drawing, automobile shops, machine shops, etc. Some of the buildings are at a higher level than the remainder and a private trolley-car service connects the two. The athletic field is 13 acres in extent. There are about 1,500 students, one-third men and two-thirds women, with a staff of about 80. The students are all non-resident; about 75 per cent. of them live in lodgings in the town, taking breakfast and the mid-day meal at college. The average cost of rooms in the town is about 2½ dollars per week, of meals 6½ dollars per week. Out-of-college meals are not as a rule taken in lodgings but, according to the American custom, in restaurants. The remaining 25 per cent. of the students have their homes in Kalamazoo.

The mixed training college is the normal type in America, particularly in the West. Members of the Kalamazoo staff with whom I discussed the question found it difficult to imagine, and were quite definitely opposed to, any other system. The mixing of the sexes, I was told, is a great help towards eliminating a roughness of manner and untidiness of dress which is apt to prevail in men's colleges. Certainly the appearance and behaviour of the students in this college gave a most favourable impression. The college authorities recognise the social advantage of the residential, or "dormitory" system, as it is called in America, and plans had already been approved for extensions, to include dormortories as well as a new library and a new gymnasium.

The college is maintained by the State Board of Education and is one of three or four such institutions. The cost per head

per annum for tuition is about £26, but the fee charged is only about 25 dollars, inclusive of athletics.

The ordinary two years' course is varied according to the grades in the Elementary or High School which the student desires to teach after graduation. The following courses are offered :—

(*a*) Kindergarten and Grades 1 and 2. (Early Elementary).

(*b*) Grades 3, 4, 5 and 6. (Later Elementary).

(*c*) Grades 7, 8 and 9. (Junior High School).

(*d*) Grades 10, 11 and 12. (Senior High School).

Students who fulfil certain conditions on admission and who take a four years' course conforming to specified regulations are given a B.A. degree as well as a teaching certificate. Students may also vary their courses according to whether they wish to take the usual school subjects or to specialise in the teaching of Art, Music, Manual Arts, Commercial Subjects, or in Rural School work. The work of the college is thus organised on comprehensive lines. The training of teachers in special subjects in company with those taking the normal course is probably to the advantage of both ; it certainly overcomes the difficulty so often encountered in England of obtaining teachers of practical subjects, such as woodwork, who have had the advantage of an adequate general education and have received some training in teaching methods. So far as I was able to judge, this college pays more attention to the student's academic, as distinct from professional, training than is usual in America ; some of the teaching, especially in Science, was of good University standard.

The following special features are worthy of notice. (1) An Appointments Committee, composed of the chief members of the staff, deals with the placing of the students after their graduation. Records of each student are kept, and a student's record does not terminate when she leaves college; reports are obtained from the heads of the schools in which ex-students teach for a number of years after they leave college, so that the appointments committee are able to recommend suitable teachers for work requiring more mature and experienced people than those just leaving college, (2) The musical and dramatic sides of education are well attended to; there is a Choral Union and a number of the students have fitted up and decorated an old factory building, "The Play House," where they produce plays. (3) The Practising Schools are good examples of their kind. The usual number in the classes however was 30 as compared with 40 in ordinary Elementary Schools. Each classroom has two smaller classrooms opening out of it, in each of which a student can take a group of ten or twelve children, so that a class can be conveniently sub-divided and three students at least may practise separately and simultaneously upon one class. Some of these smaller rooms contained a work-bench and tools for manual work. (4) The college publishes a weekly newspaper, "The Western Normal Herald."

The **Normal School** or **School of Education at Cleveland, Ohio,** is a good example of a City Day Training College which co-operates by means of a joint committee with the local University (Western Reserve) for combined training and academic courses leading to the degrees of Bachelor and Master in Education.

A very important part in the training of teachers is played by the Departments of Education in the Universities; one of these, the Teachers College of Columbia University at New York has a world-wide reputation. A greater proportion of Secondary School teachers have received professional training than in England and as a rule they obtain it at these institutions. Most of the training colleges have a regular summer session lasting some six weeks or two months, by means of which teachers already in practice can improve their training or refresh themselves by coming into contact with recent educational developments.

The Vermont One-year Training Course.

An interesting scheme for helping those intending teachers who are unable to take a Normal School Course is found in the New England state of Vermont. There are no large towns in this state, which is almost entirely rural. The course is a one-year training course, and is given at certain selected High Schools, a special teacher or teachers being appointed for the purpose. The girls admitted to the course must be 18 years of age and High School graduates are preferred. The work I saw in one of these classes, held in connection with Middlebury High School, was in charge of an elderly and experienced teacher, formerly on the staff of a Normal School. It was almost entirely professional, chiefly English, Psychology, and the Principles of Education. The practising work in schools is done in spring and summer, when the roads are open, except for a little during the winter, in the Elementary Schools of the town in which the High School is situated. The work is not of high standard, but the requirements of the rural schools are modest. Teachers who have taken this one-year course are appointed on probation for two years and are expected to supplement it later,

preferably by a second year taken at a Normal School or by attendance at Summer Schools. For this one-year course at Middlebury dormitory accommodation is not provided. The students live in lodgings and very often find the money for their training by doing manual or other work.

It will no doubt occur to the English reader that this one-year course resembles in some respects the English Student-Teacher year. The chief differences are (1) that the general education of the English ex-bursar is superior to that of the American one-year course student; (2) that the teaching practice of the American student is taken more seriously and receives more external supervision than is usual in the case of an English Student Teacher.

Wisconsin County Training Schools.

In Wisconsin there are 30 institutes known as County Training Schools, which offer a one-year training course to High School graduates, with two-year and three-year courses to those having less preparation. The function of these institutions is to prepare teachers for work in rural districts and at the same time to fit them for rural life generally. Each county training school has a practising school or schools attached, and students from any county in the State are received, the fees being paid by the county from which the student comes. The standard of instruction probably corresponds fairly closely with that of the one-year teacher training courses of Vermont, and the academic work is not carried more than one year beyond the top of the High School. The special feature of these schools is that the rural teacher is kept in touch with rural conditions, since the schools co-operate with county superintendents and with supervising teachers in every phase of rural educational

work, including social service, club work, reading circles, farmers' institutes, teachers' associations, and county institutes. The rural bias is emphasised throughout the curriculum; visits to farms are paid, domestic subjects adapted to rural conditions are taught, and so forth.

In some cases the County Training School serves the dual purpose of a High School and a Training College. The intending teacher, after graduation from the Elementary School, takes a two years' academic course in the county training school, followed by a one year professional training course there. The system is said to have been reasonably uccessful in producing a good supply of rural teachers.

IX.—NON-UNIVERSITY COLLEGES FOR WOMEN.

Colleges preparing Women for various occupations.

As already noted, the Normal School often has among its functions the training of teachers of special subjects; such training is given also in certain colleges preparing women chiefly for occupations other than teaching. America is well provided in this respect and perhaps one of the best known of such institutions is **Simmons College at Boston,** of which a very brief description will be given here.

Simmons College, Boston.

The buildings are excellent, and adequate in every respect except size. A number of four year courses are offered, made up of the equivalents of 2½ years general education and 1½ years special training, leading to a Bachelor of Science degree. Pupils entering are generally 18 at least and must either be High School graduates or pass a special entrance examination. The chief courses are (1) Household Economics, (2) Secretarial Studies, the most popular course, (3) Library Methods (Girls who have received this training begin at £240 per annum), (4) "General Science," divided into various branches, providing instruction more narrowly specialised than that offered by a University, *e.g.*, in analytical chemistry, (5) Public Health and Nursing (two years at Simmons College, two years at a Hospital, and a fifth year of special training according to the kind of work to be done). There are also some special one-year courses for University graduates, *e.g.*, in Social Work; short intensive courses, for older people already teaching; and a "School of Industrial Teaching" with a one-year course to prepare people having trade experience to teach their subject and to give them some knowledge of the principles of education.

Institutions of this kind would be very useful in England; they would widen the prospects of many girls who complete a Secondary School Course without intending to enter a University.

Another example of this type of women's college is **Skidmore College, Saratoga Springs, N.Y.,** an endowed institution which provides courses in Home Economics, Physical Training, Secretarial Work, Art, and Music, with a course of general education taken by all the 300 students.

X.—UNIVERSITIES.

In a report of this size nothing more than the merest glimpse can be given of that most elaborate and many-sided feature of American Education—its Universities. In no other country in the world does university provision exist on so lavish a scale; nowhere else is a University training so accessible to the mass of the people and so fully taken advantage of by them. A few figures may be given to afford some notion of the size and number of American Universities. The Federal Bureau of Education returns no fewer than 606 institutions giving to a greater or less extent education of a university type, though some of these, as will be explained later, are really not much above the grade of Secondary Schools. It is estimated that the number of university students now exceeds 300,000 (or 3 per 1,000 of population) and has trebled since 1900. In New York City alone there were in 1921, 52,882 students attending its three Universities; Columbia, now the largest University in the world, had 26,006 students; the College of the City of New York (a Municipal University) 15,362; and New York University, 11,514; Among the Universities which I visited, Minnesota has 10,711 students; Pennsylvania, 14,030; Wisconsin, 10,507; and Chicago, 12,576.

Types of American Universities.

Broadly speaking the American Universities divide themselves into three classes:—

(1) **Endowed and Self-Governing Universities,** which are independent of state-aid; these include the older Universities of the Eastern States, *e.g.*, Harvard (founded in 1638 by a Cambridge graduate), Yale (1700), and Columbia (1754); also institutions more recently founded by private benefaction,

such as the University of Chicago. The English type approximating most closely to these Universities is that represented by the modern Universities, such as those of Manchester, Liverpool, and Leeds.

(2) **State Universities,** chiefly of recent establishment, supported wholly or mainly by the State Legislature and governed by a Board of Regents appointed by it. Most of these Universities are situated in the West, the Universities of Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota for example; but there are many also in the East and South, such as the University of Virginia. England has no State University.

(3) **Other institutions claiming University rank,** which differ widely among themselves in character and standing. They include a few eastern colleges of high reputation and with large student bodies, *e.g.*, Princeton and Dartmouth Colleges. Some institutions of this type are however small and deliberately restrict their numbers, as, for example, Amherst and Bowdoin, New England colleges which represent the original form from which universities like Harvard and Yale have developed. Again there are the relatively small denominational colleges, scattered throughout the country, chiefly in the middle, the south, and the west; most of them are connected with the Roman Catholic, Protestant Episcopal, Presbyterian, or Baptist bodies; few have more than 500 students and they differ greatly as regards standards of education; some are certainly not more than Secondary Schools, others do academic work of high standard but limited scope. Generally speaking, this type of college does not tend to increase; as the general educational standard rises, the weaker of them disappear and the stronger develop

into institutions comparable with those of the first class. The State University shows signs of becoming the prevailing type.

I will now deal briefly with a few of the characteristics of American Universities, selecting those which differentiate them most strikingly from English Universities.

Conditions of Entrance.

Some of the older Universities in the Eastern States, *e.g.*, Harvard and Yale, impose their own examination tests upon candidates for admission. The receptiveness of American educators to new ideas is shown by the fact that intelligence tests are already much used in this connection; for example, at Columbia University an applicant for admission has the option of taking either a written examination of the usual type or a series of intelligence tests; in the latter case graduation from an approved High School is also required. In the State Universities graduation from a recognised High School is almost always accepted, though certain other conditions must occasionally be satisfied as well.

Relation between University and Secondary School.

The relation between the State University and the High School is in this respect different from that between the English University and the Secondary School, viz., that in America the High Schools have in many cases obliged the State Universities to accept all who graduate from them. The view taken is that the High School is a public institution, shaped according to the wishes of the people; it is primarily for pupils who do not go to the University; the University should therefore not be allowed to oblige the school to adopt a curriculum different from that suited to the needs of the majority of its pupils. If the High School graduate lacks certain knowledge requisite as a preliminary to a University

course, it is the business of the University to supply it. As might be expected, this arrangement results in the University having to provide in certain subjects instruction below University standard; such instruction is not willingly undertaken by the senior members of the University staff and is said to be often less competently given than in a High School. Difficulties also arise from the fact that the graduation standards of different High Schools differ widely; this leads to the admission to the University of students who are found educationally unfit to receive University training and who are therefore obliged to leave the University after a term or less. The number of such cases is considerable. In one State which I visited an attempt recently made by the State University to classify the State High Schools, according to whether their graduates should or should not be admitted to the State University without further examination, was frustrated by pressure brought to bear on the State legislature. Faced with this reverse, the President of the University is reported to have said, " Very well, we may be obliged to take them, but we're not obliged to keep them," and the result is that large numbers of students are sent down at the end of their first term.

The problem of increasing numbers.

The rapid increase in the number of University students, especially within the last four or five years, has led to serious overcrowding of the Universities and various steps have been proposed to deal with the problem. In a few Universities the numbers admitted are deliberately restricted, but these are all endowed Universities; American sentiment would be strongly opposed to the adoption of such a course by State institutions.

The "Junior College."

Another remedy, which to an English visitor appears a belated one, is to extend the High School course upwards so as to include in its last two years the rather elementary work ordinarily done in the first and second year of the University. Such a "High School top" is called a **Junior College** and its leaving age is about 20. In a mining community of some 20,000 people in north-east Minnesota I found in course of erection a High School, including a Junior College, to accommodate 3,000 pupils in all, and to cost £600,000. Most of the inhabitants were Polish and Italian immigrants, who thus on arrival in America found awaiting their children a free education up to the age of 20. I thought a little sadly of our " 25 per cent. of Free Places," now in peril. It seemed to me that English children were at least equally worthy of such opportunities.

Curriculum.

The college curriculum leading to the B.A. degree (or A.B. as it is generally put in America) is a four-year one. It differs from the usual English University course leading to a bachelor's degree in comprising a larger number of subjects, some of which are compulsory and others elective; English, history, a foreign language and a science are as a rule compulsory. In some cases subjects not generally found in an English University curriculum, such as Physical Training and Public Speaking, are also required. The electives are chosen from a large number of subjects, and here again some, *e.g.*, Fine Arts and Home Economics, are unfamiliar in this connection to the English visitor. Conditions differ greatly everywhere, but generally speaking there is more variety among courses as one moves westward; the eastern Universities, particularly in the New England States, show a greater

resemblance to those of England. As a rule there are about eight or ten compulsory subjects and a rather smaller number of electives.

Examination Tests.

The examination system is entirely different from that obtaining in English Universities, where the standard of the degree taken depends almost always entirely upon the student's performance in a single final examination. For the American student final success or failure depends upon the successful completion of the required courses in the subjects he chooses, determined by the work he does in his class exercises and in periodical tests, held frequently and regularly throughout his course. The method of instruction takes only partly the form of lectures ; it often resembles more nearly a lesson in an upper form of the Secondary School, with oral questions round the class and periodical written tests. The seminar plan (discussion between teacher and taught) is also much resorted to. Perhaps in this respect England has something to learn from America ; it is too often assumed, for example, in discussing extra-mural University work, that the lecture form of teaching generally administered to University students is necessarily the best; the experience of those who have conducted University Tutorial Classes has shown that the admittance of discussion and argument gives more fruitful results.

Degree Standards.

In view of the much larger number of subjects taken, it is not surprising that the standard attained by the American college graduate in any one subject is not so high as that reached by the English B.A. or B.Sc. It would take an English visitor more time than I had at my disposal to make a trustworthy detailed comparison on this point, but I may say that a professor, an Englishman who had formerly taught

in an English University, told me that the standard of the Bachelor's degree corresponded roughly to that of the English Intermediate Examination, which is of course sometimes reached by sixth form schoolboys. The absence of any system of honours degrees accentuates this difference between the standards of English and American degrees. But it must be borne in mind that the American graduate depends little for success in after-life upon the class of his college degree. The fact that he is a college graduate makes admission to certain positions (including many in commerce and industry) easier for him, but he does not find, as he would in England, that certain doors are closed, or almost closed, to him unless he has an honours degree, perhaps even unless he has a "first." There are those in America who have begun to feel that an honours system would be an advantage in their Universities; that the present system sets too low a standard for the really able man and is failing to produce leaders. The same feeling exists in some quarters about the High School course: that it does not get enough out of the really brilliant pupil.

Wide range of subjects dealt with by Universities.

It should be explained that in the more fully developed Universities the course for the Bachelor's degree is adapted to the intended occupation of the student by the inclusion of selected compulsory and elective subjects. I had the privilege of attending the Degree Day or "Commencement Day" of the University of Minnesota, when about 1,100 students graduated. In addition to B.A.'s who had taken the general course, there were presented Bachelors of Arts in Music, Bachelors of Science in Engineering (Civil, Electrical, and Mechanical); in Architecture; in Agriculture; in Forestry; in Home Economics; in Pharmacy; in Chemistry;

in Education; and in Business. The American University does not distinguish so nicely as does her English sister between what is academic and what is not; she is ready, especially if a State University, to offer a preparation for any course of life in which higher education is an advantage, and there are few in America in which it is not. At this University therefore I found students taking also the degree of Bachelor of Science in Americanisation, in Nursing, and in Interior Decoration; the latter is a Fine Arts course which trains women to act as advisory experts in House Furnishing and Decoration. I understand that Cornell University is about to establish a degree course in Hotel Management.

Courses following upon the four-year course for the Bachelor's degree constitute what is called the **Graduate School,** leading to the Master's degrees, M.A. and M.S., and the Doctor's degree, generally Ph.D. The Master's degree generally requires two or three years beyond the Bachelor's, and the Doctor's degree a further one or two years at least. Generally speaking, the standard of the Master's degree is equal to the English Honours B.A. or B.Sc., with often a little minor research in addition. The Ph.D. is awarded entirely or mainly for research.

Research.

Much of the research done in European Universities for degree-getting purposes is undoubtedly of slender value, and this is true to an even greater degree perhaps of American Universities, from which there emerges yearly a vast bulk of ephemeral, sometimes even trivial, theses. But although only a small part of this huge mass may be of value as an addition to knowledge, nevertheless a body of research students, and the consequent atmosphere of research, in a

University are of the greatest importance to its intellectual influence. Some of the American Universities, such as the Johns Hopkins University at Baltimore, need not fear comparison in this respect with the most famous of the European Universities, and are well ahead of the majority of them. In England we have two Universities, Oxford and Cambridge, unique in some respects and pre-eminent for the influence of their ancient traditions, but, considering their importance, they are relatively inactive as centres of research; the atmosphere and spirit of research penetrate little or not at all to the undergraduate body; the competitive system and the importance of his final examination result give to the average undergraduate much of a school-boy attitude towards his subject. To this particular defect the modern English Universities are less liable, and in this respect they more closely resemble those of America.

University Summer Schools.

An interesting feature of American Universities is their provision for the needs of those who have passed the usual age for attendance at a University. Practically all the Universities have a Summer Session, lasting generally about six weeks, attendance at which may be counted under certain conditions towards a degree. Many men and women far beyond the usual student age qualify for higher degrees in this way, and many teachers take advantage of summer sessions to refresh themselves intellectually and to bring their minds into contact with recent educational developments. The large part played by Summer Schools in American education is difficult to realise unless one has seen something of them, much though the Summer School movement has grown of late years in England. I was told that this year (1922) about 250,000 teachers, or one-third of the whole teaching body of the

country, attended Summer Schools. At the Columbia University Summer School, which I joined myself, there were 12,700 students, including 45 nationalities.

Extra-mural Work.

The State Universities of the West are very fully awake to their responsibilities towards the community as a whole; their activities are by no means confined to the student body within their walls. In these Universities the Departments of Agriculture, for example, are centres of information and influence throughout the farming population of their districts; in some cases indeed the University has itself grown out of an Agricultural college. The subject of University Agricultural education is too large and too technical to be dealt with here; the extent to which it is developed may be shown however from a single example, that of the University of Wisconsin. There the Agricultural Department is housed in extensive buildings, each branch of the subject in a separate block. There is the central administrative building, with offices, library, reading room, and an auditorium to seat 750. Other buildings are devoted to Dairy Laboratory work, Dairy Machinery, Soils, Horticulture and Pathology, Agromony, Agricultural Engineering, Agricultural Chemistry, and Home Economics. There is a Live Stock Pavilion, used for stock-judging work and exhibitions, with seating for 2,500 people, giving accommodation also for veterinary work. Other buildings provide for poultry work, economic entomology, and bee-keeping. The University has two farms with a total area of about 746 acres of tillable land. Naturally the Agricultural Department serves as an experiment and testing station for the surrounding area; it issues a useful series of pamphlets to the farming community; it does much extension work; and it collaborates with the agricultural associations

of the State in connection with the improvement of various types of crop, the breeding of cattle, treatment of soils, drainage, land clearing, plant disease, bee-keeping, the improvement of farm buildings, house management, farmers' schools and institutes, etc.

University Correspondence Courses.

A part of the extra-mural work of some of the Western Universities takes the form of correspondence tuition, the courses being taken by people who desire to improve their general education, to obtain training for some particular kind of employment, or to accumulate a certain number of " points " to count towards a degree. In the case of one University which I visited, work successfully completed in this way in the prescribed subjects is reckoned as equivalent to not more than two years of residence. Some students who cannot afford a continuous University course obtain a degree by combining this work with attendance at Summer Schools. At this University about 34 per cent. of the correspondence students were taking business and commercial subjects, 23 per cent. engineering and allied subjects, 12 per cent. social science, and the remainder English, mathematics, physical sciences or foreign languages. There were more than 9,000 enrolments per annum. A fee is charged and the exercises set are elaborately corrected. The first exercise is always an autobiographical essay.

Package Libraries.

This University has also instituted a system of package libraries intended to stimulate discussion by supplying to the people of the state information concerning current topics of interest. Each package contains articles selected from newspapers, magazines, bulletins and so on, pasted on separate sheets of cardboard. The packages are kept in filing cabinets.

All the magazines, etc., are given to the University, none have to be bought. The package library is widely used in this particular State; over 16,000 packages have been sent out in two years. It is particularly useful to those who wish to read papers to village debating societies, and to ministers of religion in out-of-the-way places far from up-to-date libraries. Of course much of the information is second or even third-hand, and care is taken that it is not supplied in cases where either by means of the State Travelling Library or in some other way more satisfactory sources are available.

University Instruction for Working Men and Women.

That kind of extra-mural University work which now flourishes most vigorously in England, University Tutorial Class Work, is comparatively little developed as yet in America. The non-vocational education which is its special feature does not appeal so much to the American working man; opportunities for individual advancement in material prosperity are so much more numerous in America that vocational training generally monopolises the surplus energy of the ambitious worker. A promising start has however been made by a body called the Workers' Educational Bureau, modelled upon the English Workers' Educational Association. Lecture Courses are given under the auspices of this body at the School of Social Science in New York City. I also saw in New York some interesting classes called the "Workers' University." These are organised by the Education Department of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, who pay the lecturers and charge no fee to members of the Union. The New York Board of Education allow the free use of school buildings, except for a small fee for caretaking. The courses given during the Session 1921-22 on Saturdays and Sundays at the Washington Irving High School included

the Policies of the American Trades Unions, Current Economic Literature, the Social and Industrial History of Europe and America, the Co-operative Movement, Applied Psychology, Logic, Tendencies in Modern Literature, Public Speaking, Current Economic Opinion, Economic Geography, and Sociology. The lecturers are members of the staffs of New York Universities or of High Schools. Other courses are given at branch centres in the subjects already mentioned, with the addition of English, Hygiene, Physical Training and Appreciation of Music. Courses are also given to smaller groups. Most of the students attending these classes were of foreign birth, mainly Russian and Polish Jews. A number of them spoke very imperfect English, indeed some of the courses are given alternatively in Yiddish, and the programme is printed not only in English but in Yiddish and Italian. The students undoubtedly followed the teacher with keen interest, as was shown by the discussions, which often took a controversial turn, most members of the class being obviously disciples of Karl Marx.

University Social Life.

The casual visitor can do little more than describe the mere framework of the social life of a university; for any knowledge of its spirit he must rely upon what he learns from books, or from those who have been in longer contact with it. In American Universities there is little if anything which corresponds closely to the corporate life of an Oxford or Cambridge college. Some Universities, Yale for example, have imitated the Oxford and Cambridge arrangement of rooms and staircases, with additional modern conveniences such as fixed baths, a running water supply in bedrooms, and so on. The American University "dormitory" is only a very partial substitute however for the Oxford or Cambridge College;

it has as a rule nothing equivalent to those common meeting places of the society, the College Chapel and the Hall. It is true that dining halls of magnificient proportions are found, sometimes exact reproductions of famous Oxford or Cambridge halls, but they are for the use of the whole University. Meals are not taken by the whole body of students together at any definite time, and the catering arrangements are too often let out to a contractor, who introduces bent-wood chairs, a soda fountain and a cash register. The value of the common meal as a social occasion is thus largely lost. But perhaps Americans in general are apt to regard meals as rather unfortunate interruptions of a busy life. Nevertheless there is a great deal of social life in an American University, organised by the students themselves. It is not necessary to take up space in describing literary, musical and other societies, which have their analogues in the English Universities, but some reference should be made to a special feature of American University social organisation, the Greek Letter Societies or Fraternities. These are widespread throughout the country, and exert a powerful influence. Each society is denoted by certain letters of the Greek alphabet; the more important societies have branches in most of the well known Universities. Some fraternities are purely social in character; others, such as the Beta Phi Kappa, are supposed to require from their members a certain degree of attainment, or at least of interest, in literature or some other branch of culture. Membership of a well-known fraternity confers a certain amount of distinction upon its possessor and is of use to him not only during his college life but later also, for in whatever city he may find himself he is likely to meet with other members of the same society ready to give him a helping

hand. A good deal of the residential accommodation in Universities is provided and managed by these fraternities; a fraternity may be entirely responsible for the management of a "fraternity house," accommodating 20 or 30 or even more members of the society; in one of the larger Universities I visited there are several streets wholly composed of these houses. Perhaps the American youth is in general more enterprising in such business matters than the young Englishman. The fraternities hold their meetings, with secret rites, in mysterious-looking buildings called "Tombs," generally of an Egyptian type of architecture. Lest the English reader be surprised at a phenomenon so unlike anything found at home, it may be remarked that the American people as a whole are much given to the formation of secret societies. The famous Klu Klux Klan, established in the South after the Civil War, has recently had a notable revival.

Members of the teaching staffs with whom I discussed the matter were inclined to think that the advantages of fraternities are outweighed by their drawbacks. If on the one hand they are powerful factors in the social life of the University, on the other they may introduce grave disciplinary difficulties. A University teacher who finds occasion to rebuke an idle or disorderly student may find that he has incurred the organised enmity of the whole of the fraternity to which the student belongs. A few years ago it was found necessary to take firm measures to prevent the foundation of branches of fraternities in High Schools; certain enterprising fraternities conceived the idea of extending their numbers, and so strengthening their influence, by establishing in High Schools, junior branches, the members of which would join the senior branch on entering the University. I came across

several High Schools where no pupil was admitted unless he signed an undertaking not to become a member of any secret society while he remained at school.

Athletics.

It is well known that interest in athletics is keen in American Universities; inter-university rivalry in particular has reached a pitch which is causing at present a good deal of anxiety to the authorities. Great publicity is given by the press to University contests and there is a tendency for them to be organised on a commercial basis; boys of unusual athletic promise are enlisted in the University ranks though they may have little intention of studying. It has therefore been found necassery to make a rule in some Universities that a student shall be allowed to take part in inter-university màtches only if he is passed as eligible by a Committee on which the University teaching staff is represented, a reasonable amount of progress in academic work being required of him. But the students, both present and past, follow eagerly these contests, and do not suffer gladly the absence of a member of the team who might have turned defeat into victory. There is therefore acute controversy on the question.

"Working through."

Another characteristic, and in many ways an admirable, feature of American Universities is the custom with many students of earning the necessary money for their University course by work, very often manual work, during vacation, or even during term-time. If you stay at a summer hotel in July, August, or September in the United States it is quite as likely as not that your waiter will be a University undergraduate; a professor with whom I stayed told me that part of his gardening and house work was regularly done by

certain of his poorer students. Not the slightest social stigma attaches to those who find it necessary to work their university passage in this way; it is a commonplace of university life. I have, however, heard the opinion, expressed by one well competent to judge, that in many such cases the accompanying penalties of excessive strain and loss of opportunity for recreation and general social intercourse have a seriously detrimental effect upon the students' after life, both physical and intellectual.

Alumni Associations

American educational institutions, and particularly the Universities, have a powerful source of public support in the strong hold they retain upon the remembrance and affection of their old students. American Universities owe many of their splendid buildings to the contributions of former students, who are often represented on the Governing Body. The Alumni Association is often in other less direct ways also a help to the University. If the State Legislature in a moment of passing weakness should happen to dally with the idea of withholding funds needed for the development of the local University, the alumni gather their forces and bring pressure to bear in the lobby of the State House. Perhaps our English Schools and Colleges, by keeping in closer touch with those who have passed out from them, might do something to counteract the disquieting circumstance that, in England, as public support of education grows, private benefactions decline; and the circumstance still more disquieting, that here it is not always the best educated people who are most in favour of popular education.

University Education for Women.

The Women's College is a feature of American education well worth particular attention. Colleges solely for women

are found chiefly in the eastern states and notably in New England. The leading examples are Wellesley in Massachusetts, Vassar in New York State, Bryn Mawr in Pennsylvania, and Smith, also in Massachusetts. These institutions may with fair exactness be said to have modelled themselves upon the Women's Colleges at Cambridge and Oxford, though some of them were founded earlier; much of their inspiration is perhaps traceable to Tennyson's *Princess*.

A Typical Women's College.

Bryn Mawr College, which I visited, is situated in delighful country some 10 or 12 miles out of Philadelphia. It is an independent endowed institution, granting the Bachelor's, Master's and Doctor's Degrees. The buildings, which are arranged according to the "campus" plan of an American University, are equal to any and superior to most of the English Women's Colleges. The internal accommodation of the halls of residence is distinctly above the average of the English Women's Colleges and might perhaps be thought rather luxurious. There are about 460 students, of whom about 100 have already taken the B.A. degree. The teaching staff numbers about 75 and includes men as well as women; in some cases man and wife are both lecturers. A peculiar feature is that the rank and file of the teaching staff have little or no concern with the disciplinary and pastoral sides of the institution; these are in charge of separate officers, called Wardens, who do not teach, though they are generally graduates. The fees average about £175 per annum for tuition, board and residence. The institution is well endowed and the teaching equipment of high standard. The library has £1,400 per annum for upkeep and additions. The religious services are of an undenominational character

though the college was founded by a Quaker and religious observance was originally on Quaker lines. Addresses are given by ministers of various denominations. The Physical Education equipment, including gymnasia and swimming bath, is unusually complete.

Bryn Mawr is a college which perhaps takes as its model the English Women's college even more closely than is generally the case in America; there are a number of English University women on the staff and there is a special entrance examination, mere graduation from a High School not being accepted; the entrance examination may however be taken in separate parts during the last three years of the High School course, so that the strain on the individual girl is lessened.

The American Women's College, of which Bryn Mawr is an example, has no exact counterpart in the English educational system. The Women's Colleges at Oxford and Cambridge and the other Universities are adapted only to the girl of distinctly intellectual type; their comparatively high admission standards and the strictly academic nature of the instruction limit their appeal to this one class. But the American women's colleges, so much more numerous, with wider curricula and less exacting academic standards, hold open their doors to women who desire an education for the general purposes of life, not less for the home than the school. Consequently in America a college education is more widely diffused among women than in England, and is not so frequently the mark of devotion solely to intellectual pursuits.

Co-education in Universities.

Though the separate women's college is, especially in the East, the characteristic institution for the higher education of women, and has the force of social tradition behind it, there has

been in America, as in England, a well marked movement towards co-education in the Universities. All the State Universities are co-educational, and many of the Endowed Universities, though by no means all, have women's colleges attached to them. As in England the advantages and disadvantages of co-education in the Universities are keenly discussed. In a few cases institutions have reverted from co-education and I certainly found a respectable body of opinion opposed to it. An American educationist told me that ten years' experience in a co-educational State University had left him entirely opposed to the system; it was in a measure responsible, he thought, for the gladiatorial character of University and College athletics: only a relatively small number of men actually play games; the majority escort their girl fellow-students to watch them. Co-education in Universities led, he said, to a large number of the men students becoming what Americans call "fussers," *i.e.*, those who spend an unduly large part of their time in feminine society; this acted detrimentally upon their work and upon that of the girl students also. That many of the men students have realised this is responsible for a marked re-action on their part against co-education. I was told that about two-thirds of the women students in co-educational Universities become engaged to be married during their University course. In the opinion of some this acts detrimentally, in leading to early marriages upon insufficient means; the man student reaches too early in life the end of his period of freedom, speculation, and adventure; financial worries fill his whole horizon and, in the struggle to make both ends meet, he rapidly hardens, to become too soon the type of American business man who has money-getting for his only interest in life.

Religious Observance in the University.

Some of the Universities and many of the colleges were founded by religious denominations and are definitely attached to them; at Yale University for example there is a University Chapel with Congregationalist services at which attendance is ordinarily required. The State Universities, however, being financed from public funds, are undenominational, and official religious observance or teaching is, so far as I am aware, non-existent in them. Here, as in the state schools, the governing factor is most likely a desire to exclude anything which might be a cause of disunion or distinction within the comminuty.

In some endowed Universities denominational difficulties are avoided by making arrangements with the Y.M.C.A., who obtain preachers of various denominations to preach in the University Chapel. At Columbia University, New York City, there is a University Chapel, a building of some architectural beauty, in which preachers of various denominations address the students on Sundays. The congregation here is not as a rule a large one, but no doubt some students prefer to attend places of worship in the city.

At the University of Wisconsin, where no religious observance is undertaken by the University, it was interesting to see that a number of denominations had built churches for the students just outside the University campus.

Restrictions upon University Teaching.

In England we have nothing which quite corresponds to the American State or Municipal University, entirely supported and controlled by the State or City legislature, a system sometimes represented as involving dangers to freedom of teaching, especially in connection with such subjects

as History and Economics; it was therefore a matter of particular interest to ascertain as far as possible to what extent such dangers had shown themselves in America. It can, I think, hardly be denied that a University which exists by the grace of a state legislature sometimes suffers from the pressure of unintelligent public opinion. In one case, which I have already mentioned, influence brought to bear upon the legislature had been effective in unduly lowering the standard of admission to the State University, with resultant waste of time, energy and money; in another, the State University and other state educational institutions had a narrow escape from an almost mediaeval restriction upon scientific teaching: by one vote only the Kentucky legislature recently rejected a measure withholding all state-aid from educational institutions teaching the theory of evolution. I heard of cases in which teachers of Economics had been deprived of their posts for alleged socialistic propagada, but such cases have occurred in Endowed as well as in State Universities, and it would not, I think, be safe to infer that the latter are more particularly subject to this kind of control.

While I was in New York much interest was excited in educational circles by the appointment, by the Mayor, of a Committee to report upon the history text-books used in the city schools and to ascertain whether, as was alleged, they disparaged famous Americans and were in some cases of propagandist tendency. It seems that many years ago, at the time of the Hague Peace Conference, the rather militant nationalism of the text-books then used was toned down a little, especially in their treatment of the War of Independence; now it is apparently considered that the pendulum may have swung too far in the opposite direction. The Committee

have reported that "There is no evidence to support the charge that the text-book writers whose books were examined, were intentionally unpatriotic. However, the paragraphs complained of in their books indicate an attitude of mind towards the founders of the Republic which in our judgment is entirely reprehensible," and several text-books have been removed from the list of those approved for use in the Schools.

XI.—CONCLUSION.

Although this account has already overstepped its intended limits, nothing has been said of several noteworthy features of American education which it was hoped to include. No mention has been made, for example, of the very highly developed advanced Technical Education to be found in the United States at such institutions as the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, of the Schools of Art, of the Training Institutes for Negroes, or of the Special Schools for blind and deaf children. Nor has there been space for more than passing reference to methods of teaching the various subjects of the school curriculum. It has not been possible to describe the widespread use of the intelligence tests which we owe in large measure to American educational investigators, nor even to refer to the "achievement" tests, less well known as yet over here. The remaining pages must be devoted to a brief summing-up of the features of American Education which impressed me most as presenting contrasts to English conditions, and those which seemed to have a bearing upon current educational problems in England.

In the first place, one returns to England fully reassured as to the thoroughness of the work done in our schools, confident that we must maintain our high standards, and convinced that we have in our children probably the best material for education in the world. It may be said without presumption that the Americans have something to learn from us of the value of high standards of scholarship and patiently tested methods. What we do is in the main well done. But there is, in comparison, so little of it, and so little variety of type, particularly in the case of education between the Elementary School and the University.

American enthusiasm for Education.

In America there is no campaign for the cutting-down of educational expenditure; no newspaper or political party would dare to suggest it; again and again I was told that the education vote was the one vote hardly ever opposed in the state legislature. "Education is the American religion." How does this state of things arise. ?

The Causes.

I think it is only fair to the Americans to put this reason first: that as a democratic people they desire that the opportunity for getting the best out of life shall be open to the children of all classes of the people; they are fully convinced that education is the one means to a fuller life, and they have therefore opened wide to all the gates of the school and of the university. One hears a good deal on this side about American materialism and the chase of the dollar. Of course there is much in America to cause misgivings in the mind of a well-wisher to democratic forms of government; but, so far as I could judge, it would be nearer the truth to call the Americans a nation of idealists. The individual American has a shrewd notion of what his energy and resourcefulness are worth in money, and he does not rest content till he gets it; but Americans as a body have a larger share of that best kind of patriotism which keeps steadily in mind the ideal of a people healthy, happy, and well-informed than any other nation with which I am acquainted. And their desire that all shall have a share of the good things of life extends to the things of the mind; though these may be sometimes sought by paths that lead astray and by supposed short cuts which do not exist.

In the second place the American enthusiasm for a generous provision of education rests upon the conviction

that education is "a sound business proposition." I talked to a good many business men while I was over there and I never came across the slightest deviation from that point of view. America has great natural advantages in commercial competition with the other nations of the world, including ourselves, but she recognises that the greatest commercial advantage any nation can have is the cultivated intelligence of its people; she intends to throw none of her chances away—that least of all.

But even if these two causes did not exist, there would still be other powerful influences working in America for educational progress and a wide-spread provision of education. America is a nation which has continually to assimilate immigrants from other countries. Fifteen per cent. of the population is foreign-born and a much larger percentage have foreign-born parents. During the twenty or thirty years which preceded the war, the character of this incoming stream has largely changed. The proportion of new-comers from the better educated countries of Europe has rapidly declined; in later years immigrants have come chiefly from Russia and Southern Europe. It is the School that is used as the chief agent for the making of the children of these immigrants into Americans. That is why an American flag flies over every State School; it is that which accounts largely for those patriotic school exercises which strike an Englishman as perhaps a little unrestrained. America realises that in this vitally important matter she must work chiefly on the younger generation; she knows that, being governed by a democracy, she must at all costs avoid government by an uneducated democracy.

It would be a mistake to conclude however, that American enthusiasm for education owes nothing to cultivation; it is skilfully fostered by those who are responsible for educational work, and on this point those who have to do with education in England have something to learn from America. There can be no possible doubt that the American school has a stronger hold on the interest of the community it serves than is generally the case in England. Of course historical reasons account to some extent for this. As the people moved westward and new communities grew up, almost the first step of each was the establishment of a school; the school was the first common possession and meeting place. America has no tradition of an educated class distinct from the rest of the community.

How public interest in the Schools is fostered.

But community-feeling for the school is assiduously fostered by an art in which the American is easily first in the world, skilfully organised publicity and advertisement. The American newspaper contains far more educational intelligence than the English newspaper, and gets it from Education Authorities in a more attractive form; the American educational administrator distinguishes carefully between information intended for official use and news intended for general reading.

Publicity.

Another popularising agent is an excellent institution called "The Parent-Teacher Association," a form of local educational propaganda designed to increase public interest in school matters. Each branch association is composed of the teachers of a school and the parents of the children attending it. They meet from time to time to discuss matters affecting the school's welfare and to bring the claims of the school to the notice of the local education authority

Parent-Teacher Associations.

when need arises. Great care is taken that in all the activities of such an association the parents and not the teachers take the leading part; parents, for example, always act as officers of the association. The result of this organisation, which is wide-spread over the country and holds an annual national convention, is that school conditions have been greatly improved. Parents visit the schools for other reasons than to make complaints. Schools have benefited by many gifts, in the shape of pictures, gramophones, etc., which would not have come their way in the ordinary course of things. One of my most interesting evenings in the United States was spent at a meeting of a Parent-Teacher Association connected with an Elementary School in one of the cities of the Middle-West.

The Auditorium Period.

Another feature which helps to keep the school in closer contact with the outside world is the custom of the "auditorium period." This is a regular lesson-period during which an address is given to the school by some visitor, or a member of the staff, on a subject in which the children may be expected to be specially interested from the point of view of their school work or of their after-school life. The extent to which the American boy or girl is interested in out-of-school matters strikes the European visitor very forcibly. I have seen American High School pupils listen without obvious boredom even to an address on "Collective Bargaining in the Silk Industry," and discuss it afterwards with lively interest.

The powerful public support which comes to American Universities and Schools through their alumni associations has already been mentioned.

Variety of Types of School.

In an earlier part of this report reference was made to the lack of uniform educational standards applying throughout the United States, a circumstance attributable largely to the absence of such a centralising body as the English Board of Education. But the absence of a central body may perhaps be the chief cause also of one of the most valuable features of the American system, and particularly of its secondary schools, that is, a greater variety in types of curriculum and methods of organisation. This touches closely upon what is at present perhaps the most outstanding problem in English education.

The one important change which has emerged from the Education Act of 1918 is the raising to 14 of the age up to which children must remain in attendance at school. What is to be done with these children? It will be deplorable if they are offered nothing more than a mere extension of the elementary school curriculum; on the other hand, it would be obviously undesirable, even if it were possible, to offer all of them the one type of secondary education up to 16 which, with very few exceptions, is alone to be obtained in the "Recognised Secondary School" of the Board of Education. Clearly the country needs not only more secondary schools but more types of secondary school. How this problem is dealt with in many parts of America has already been described in detail. Every child who has passed successfully through the standards of the elementary school enters, at about 12 years of age, a Junior Secondary School, which has a three years course. The first two years resemble those of an English Secondary School; in the third year there is an opportunity for the pupil to try his hand at different subjects, so that by the end of it the direction in which his aptitudes lie has been discovered. He then

passes to the Senior High School (sometimes in the same building), where the course runs from 15 to 18, and there are several departments having some subjects in common but differing in others; there is the academic course, corresponding to the present English Secondary School curriculum; the commercial course for the boy intending to enter business; the mechanical arts course for those whose abilities lie in the direction of engineering work; the home economics course for girls whose work will be in the home or in the domestic management of public institutions; and, in the country school, the agricultural course. Thus there is something like a logically articulated system. Two points are particularly notable: (1) both the Junior and Senior High School are free; and (2) all the courses in the Senior High School qualify the pupil for admission to similar but more advanced courses at a University; none of them is a blind alley.

The need of New Types of Secondary School in England.

The need in England for varieties from the one existing type of secondary school is shown by the success of the more highly developed examples of the recently established Central Schools, which often have curricula almost exactly like those of the Commercial and Mechanic Arts courses of the American High School. But the Central School receives only children coming from the Elementary School. It differs from the Secondary School in being free from tuition fees. It is hardly conceivable that public funds should have to support the provision of the same type of education in two sets of schools, one free, the other largely fee-paying; nevertheless the claims of the non-elementary school child to a secondary training of the commercial or engineering type cannot be entirely neglected.

School Buildings more fully used in America.

From what has been said earlier it will have been seen that, although the provision of educational facilities in America is generous, it is also true that school buildings are very fully used there, much more so than in England. The double session or shift system has already been mentioned more than once and further reference need not be made to it, except perhaps to suggest that in England, in a place where a secondary school exists and there is a demand for more secondary school places and more than one type of secondary education, it would be well to consider whether the position might not be met, without building extensions, by a double session system such as has already been described, using the school continuously from say 8 a.m. till 5 p.m., and increasing the assistant staff.

I would suggest too, that, if staffing and building economies must be made, the possibility of adopting the library period, the study period and the platoon system (classroom accommodation for less than the total number in attendance) might be considered, and that in building and equipping new secondary schools consideration should be given to the possibility of making the following arrangements.

(1) All special rooms, *e.g.*, art rooms, laboratories, domestic subjects rooms, etc., to be of such dimensions and so equipped that they may on occasion be conveniently used as classrooms also, so as to reduce the number of classrooms to be provided.

(2) A library at least as large as two classrooms to be included; the time table of most forms to include a "library period" during which a definite task is done involving the use of library books.

(3) Three adjoining classrooms to be separated by moveable partitions only, so that they can, when required, be made into one room capable of holding as many as 100 pupils doing private study under one teacher.

Defects in American Schools arising from large numbers.

In this report I have dwelt chiefly upon the good qualities of American education, for I conceived the main purpose of my visit to be the observation of them. Systems, like individuals, have the defects of their qualities. The American system is on a popular basis, its ideal is to give as much education as possible to the people as a whole. The English plan is to give an indispensable minimum of information to everyone; beyond that to select carefully a comparatively small number (not by any means all) likely to repay education in the full sense, and to put it within their reach by removing financial obstacles. It results from the American ideal that American schools deal with large numbers and suffer from the defects which attend them. With large numbers the educational process becomes to some extent mechanised, and organisation is apt to overshadow education. Again and again as I visited large American Schools I thought of Samuel Butler's *Erewhon* and its story of the machines that had mastered the men who made them. The extent to which engineering nomenclature is used in school affairs in America is striking. Now-a-days one does not say "How is the school staffed", but "What teacher-load does the School carry ?."

The "Superficiality" of American Education.

It is a common statement that American education must be superficial, because at the end of the secondary school course the standard reached is lower than in England. It must be remembered, however, that an American school prepares for American life, for life in a younger country than

England, with no aristocratic traditions. The English boy leaving school finds a world in which the conditions of entrance to most occupations are precisely defined and often hedged about by long established rule and custom; the American boy faces a more open field, in which readiness and resource count for more than does a prescribed training. Commerce and industry hold the premier place there, and his highest ambition is probably to be the president of a railroad or the head of a "chain" of department stores. Nothing is more indicative of this difference between the two countries than a comparison of English and American boys' magazines; both have the usual tales of adventure, but the latter contain far more matter of an engineering and mechanical kind, and there is nearly always an interview with some eminent business man, telling of his progress upwards from a junior position; and a short story relating how the business representative after initial failures "made good" in the end by securing the big order against many competitors. No one who has seen much of American Schools can doubt that they do in the main succeed in turning out their pupils with the resourcefulness and self-confidence which American life demands, and with a greater share of them than the average English boy or girl possesses. On the other hand it may I think be said without unfairness that American schools do not prepare their pupils as well as English Schools do for the leisure of life. Americans in general seem to have little leisure and much difficulty in finding profitable ways of using it.

Each country has lessons for the other; America's experience may perhaps help us a little in shaping our educational system to meet more fully the needs of our people.

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