THE
RURAL SCHOOL
ITS PROBLEMS AND FUNCTIONS
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BY

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This book is meant mainly for rural-school teachers; but it is hoped that what it contains will be of some interest and prove of some value to teachers of every class. The book represents an attempt to give some helpful advice to young teachers, and also to discuss the Victorian rural school in relation not only to present but also to future problems connected with it. The author is indebted to several people for their helpful criticisms and suggestions. Special acknowledgment for assistance given is here gratefully extended to Mr. W. Don, B.A., Mr. J. G. Cannon, B.A., and Mr. E. Brine, B.A., of the Melbourne Teachers' College staff, and to Mr. W. H. Ellwood, M.A., Inspector of Schools. Thanks are due also to Messrs. Macmilian and Co. for permission to quote from Collings's *An Experiment with a Project Curriculum*; to Mr. J. E. Hall for permission to use extracts from an article of his on a dairying home project; to Mr. W. Frew, of the Junior Technical School, Adamstown, N.S.W., for permission to quote from his article on project work carried out at the Grafton District Rural School, and to Mr. M. P. Hansen, M.A., LL.B., for permission to reproduce the illustrations in connexion with consolidated schools. Of the eleven chapters comprising this book, two are the work of writers specially competent to deal with their respective subjects. Mr. F. A. Hughes, Supervisor of School Gardening, Victorian Education Department, contributed the chapter on Horticulture, and Mr. E. Brine, B.A., that on the Group System. I here record my sincere thanks to these writers for their contributions. I owe also a debt of gratitude to Mr. J. McRae, M.A., Chief Inspector of Schools, Victorian Education Department, for reading through and helping me with Chapter IX. Finally, I wish to thank Mr. G. M. Wallace, Sub-editor of School Publications, Victorian Education Department. He read the whole work through and helped me see the book through the press.

—J. W. E.
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THE RURAL SCHOOL
Its Functions and Its Problems
(With special reference to the Victorian Rural School.)

CHAPTER I.
THE RURAL SCHOOL: ESSENTIAL CHARACTERISTICS.

The rural school, as the name implies, is typically an institution remote from the influence of town or city. Further, a large number of rural schools, in the strict sense of the term, are more or less "one-teacher" or "sole-charge" schools. That is to say, the problem of working the small rural school devolves upon one qualified teacher, who may or may not have the help of a sewing mistress and a junior teacher. Where such help is forthcoming, there is, for the teacher, the obligation to guide, assist, and often to train those who render it. Consequently, in respect to both organization and administration, the work of the rural school is centered upon one responsible person.

Now it will be helpful at this stage to consider the various types of institutions embraced by the term "rural" school. The Victorian Education Department defines a rural school as one “the allotment of which does not exceed 150 pupils.” In New South Wales, the term “district rural” is applied to a type of school “designed to provide a sound education beyond the primary stage in all the essential subjects, and at the same time give its pupils the basic knowledge required by those who settle on the land.”

2. Education Gazette, N.S.W., September, 1925.
are pre-vocational or may be even semi-vocational to a degree. In New South Wales there were in 1924 twelve such rural schools. Again, in England, the Uley school, Dursley, Gloucester, which has on the roll 150 "mixed and infants" would be designated a rural school. In America, on the other hand, the term "rural" is applied to schools "located in the rural or country districts as distinct from city, town, or village schools." This definition of the term "rural schools" is wide enough to embrace several distinct sub-types.

For example, the American one-teacher schools, certain schools with even two or more teachers, and sometimes also high schools may be rural schools. However, the United States Bureau of Education is more definite in its classification of schools, for it defines as "rural" those schools that serve communities of fewer than 2,500 inhabitants. This allows for a subdivision of groups into "open-country" schools and "village" schools. Hence in the United States there are roughly three subdivisions of rural schools. Two of these have already been indicated and named; the third and largest subdivision consists of the "one-teacher" schools. The "open-country" schools may be "one-teacher" or "two-teacher" or three-or-more-teacher schools. The last are largely the consolidated schools. When it is realized that 41.2 per cent., or 280,000 teachers, of the United States are to be found in "village" or "open-country" schools, the problem of the rural school in the States in regard to status and professional education of teachers at once becomes apparent. We have previously stated that the consolidated school, a type comparatively new to American school organization, is often a rural school. Hence the problem of consolidation is largely one affecting rural-school administration. Thus, we see that the term "rural school" is by no means a hard and fast one, since its application ranges from purely "one-teacher" schools to schools that are rural only in respect to location. Even in the States, so great is the variety in the administrative units that rural schools

cannot be regarded as institutions working under a common plan or presenting features entirely in common throughout the various States. In each State the local unit is more or less autonomous in regard to certain fundamental elements of the educational scheme. The qualified school electors at an annual district meeting fix the length of term, decide upon the question of "free textbooks," and determine the salary of each of the school officers. Further, the District Board "may vote a fund for the support of a library." The solution of the educational problem in the States involves relatively small units of direct control and large units of taxation; and this applies more or less to all types of schools throughout the land. On the other hand, in each of the Australian States, the rural school is part—and a most vital part, too—of the whole system of State education.

So far as organization and administration of education is concerned in Australia, there is no essential difference between the rural school and the larger elementary school of town or city. In other words, the latter type of school is more or less the former on a larger scale and with certain modifications in accord with its size and the scope of the work it is the medium for accomplishing. Again, in Victoria, the accessories of teaching are mostly provided by the State; in America, this is a function of local control. A consideration of the curricula of the rural schools of various countries serves to render more apparent the existing diversities that have been alluded to already. Of course, in almost every case the broader scope of education that is a feature of modern educational development has led to a corresponding expansion of the school curriculum. But, whereas in England, and to a less extent in America, the program of studies for the rural school may differ from that prescribed for the large town or city school, in the Australian States the one curriculum does for all types of elementary school. A careful distinction must be made, however, in connexion with certain phases of a subject of the curriculum, as is instanced where
agriculture in the rural school corresponds with science in the town school; but in every case intellectual, moral, and manual training are secured through what are practically common media of instruction.

It may be worth while at this stage to attempt to define education in order to give due emphasis to the implications a modern definition carries for rural-school teaching. Nunn records his opinion that the education of the people⁴ "should aim at enabling every man to realize the greatest fullness of life of which he is by nature capable —'fullness' being measured in terms of quality rather than of quantity, by perfection of form rather than by amount of content." This conception of the purpose of education is at once both general and specific; but it serves to emphasize the fact that present-day objectives the world over, whilst representative of educational advance, are also indicative of a never-changing element in teaching. On the one hand, it is a prime function of education to adapt the pupil to an ever-shifting environment. This provides for the element of change and of growth. On the other hand, the human element is more or less constant, and, to the extent that this is so, the development of the individual is a matter of perennial importance to teachers and taught. Hence, in this respect, the rural school as an institution presents the same problems and may be expected to achieve the same ends as any other educational agency admitting pupils of the primary grades. This constitutes the necessary bond between all types of elementary schools. As such, it should forever preclude the tendency to draw any strict line of demarcation between one-teacher schools and the larger elementary schools of town or city.

Because of the fact of the comparative isolation of the rural school, it has always been and always will be a real problem to educationists; but its success as a contributor to the general welfare of the State as a whole has never been seriously questioned in this country.

⁴ The Education of the People. From the Presidential Address delivered to the Educational Science Section of the British Association, September 14, 1923.
This is true also of the small rural schools of progressive Denmark, where the work of ex-teachers of such schools has been an outstanding feature of their educational activity and a credit to their teacher training. The same cannot be said for the rural teachers of the United States or of Germany, where the rural school up to a few years ago was still in a most rudimentary stage. Not so long ago, a distinguished American educationist commented thus on the German rural schools, "No words are strong enough to condemn the outrageous disregard for properly-ventilated schoolrooms that is almost universal in Germany." In America, however, the rural schools, in the past, have fallen short in teachers rather than in buildings; but the advent of consolidation has now supplied a means whereby the rural-school problem there can be greatly remedied in both these respects.

There can be no doubt about one thing: both in America and in Australia the rural school of one type or other will always exist. Further, it will continue to function as an indispensable unit in the educational systems of both these countries. The problems connected with it will be ever present and often weighty, and the vitality of the school itself, its influence on the community of which it is the educational center, will continue to register the state of national prosperity. This brief survey is more or less a general one. What constitutes the functions and problems of the rural school as we know it, it will be the purpose of the following pages to disclose. In order however, to treat the subject in a broad way, the work of the next two sections is designed to entail a consideration of American as well as of Victorian ideas on the functions and problems of the rural school.

5. Professor Hanus, of Harvard.
Since the rural school is bound up with community interests to an extent greater than that of any other educational institution, it follows that the function of the rural school must offer something beyond mere instruction in the various subjects of the curriculum. Such instruction is, of course, an essential element of the work of any school, and, as such, its value in the educational scheme must on no account be minimized. On the other hand, any teaching worthy of the name acquires vitality and proves effective largely to the extent that it subserves community, and therefore national, interests; for, as the work and guidance of a good teacher mould the child’s character, so the child through word and act influences the society of which he is a member. Therefore, in any rural school the teacher must first and last see the school in its proper perspective. He must continually ask himself the question: “Am I a unit in the community or am I a unit apart?” If the former, he must establish his standing on a brotherly footing with each child, thereby letting his pupils see that there is no gulf between school and home. His pupils come under his influence for approximately seven hours a day; whilst awake, they are in the presence of their parents from about six to eight hours daily. Thus, on an average, the teacher has more scope than is apparent to a casual observer within which to exert his influence. The following suggest themselves as the more important means by which this influence can be exerted:

1. This statement is true of Australian schools in particular.
1. Parents of a district readily show pride in anything local. The teacher should aim to make them justifiably proud of their school. To achieve this purpose, he must set a high standard himself. He must be just, charitable, benevolent, and sympathetic, and thus point the way to taking a broad view of life. By his example a teacher can do much to promote the spirit of toleration. As the teacher is, so is his school; therefore, a worthy teacher is essential to the school that aims at winning the respect and esteem of parents and pupils alike.

The teacher must prove to parents that school and community can work well together by
(a) extending home-project schemes where possible;
(b) helping in local affairs and identifying himself prominently with the district he is in;
(c) so acting that the idea of the school as an institution is no longer associated with teacher and pupil so much as with society and its members.

2. Parents must be made to feel that “duty” is the watchword of progress in the school. Where this is done, the teacher has helped to set a standard that is beneficial, and one that will go far towards “moulding the future citizen in the likeness of the perfect man.”

3. The work of the school should impress pupils with the right ideas regarding tidiness, cleanliness, and care. The school and the schoolground should be tidy at all times. The teacher should show himself most careful in regard to the property in his charge, and he should see that the same care is observed by pupils. He should deal tactfully with all hygienic needs, and inculcate habits and methods of cleanliness in pupils. These habits, if extended to the home, can help to improve home conditions.
4. Where possible, the school should be a means of promoting aesthetic appreciation and of cultivating good taste. Of course, any efforts in this direction must be undertaken very tactfully, otherwise they may be not only ineffectual but even harmful. Within the school, pictures must be well arranged and frequently attended to. Vases of flowers or leaves offer a means of decorating the mantelpiece; while all school records, books, and the like, should be well cared for and properly used.

Thus far we have stressed the function of the rural school as a vital part of community life. There is another aspect of the matter concerned mainly with the duty the teacher owes to his profession to introduce to his school the truths gleaned from the more recent developments in educational practice. In other words, the rural school must not be behindhand in respect to the instructional side of its work. "The permanent, primary function of the school in all society is to educate. From the elementary school, which deals chiefly with children, to the University . . . this responsibility holds, and must ever be acknowledged the first duty of the school."2 The more progressive the attitude of the teacher, the more likely his pupils will be to apprehend the importance of their school and school work. Such an attitude as this implies in pupils cannot but react for good on the whole of the life and thought of the community.

In the United States, the practical effectiveness that can distinguish rural-school teaching presents educationists and normal school supervisors there with an excellent opportunity of demonstrating that their instruction to would-be teachers is not bookish or over-theoretical. As a result a better type of rural-school teacher is yearly becoming available for the schools. American educators have been given a philosophy of education that is at once fundamentally sound, practical, and decidedly stimulating. This has had a most beneficial effect on teachers'-college lecturers and school

supervisors, and has done much to vitalize the curriculum and thereby to help extend the function of the rural school. When the subject-matter has to do with real things—affairs of the farm and the community, practical activities of daily life, and the social functions that are a feature of life in and outside the rural community proper—there is no danger that the function of the rural school will gravitate towards the unpractical and the bookish. “Since democracy stands in principle for free interchange, for social continuity, it must develop a theory of knowledge which sees in knowledge the method by which one experience is made available in giving direction and meaning to another. The recent advances in physiology, biology, and the logic of the experimental sciences supply the specific intellectual instrumentalities demanded to work out and formulate such a theory. Their educational equivalent is the connexion of the acquisition of knowledge in the schools with activities, or occupations, carried on in a medium of associated life.”

The objective in American education is seen to be essentially democratic; hence, the first aim, stated concretely, in any type of school there is to realize certain basic values in education. These have to do with health, the vocational-economic element, social-civic values, and the cultural-recreational side of study. Thus the American rural-school teacher is being induced “to sense the curriculum as a whole” as the background of every subject taught, and to plan his work with the idea of realizing as much as possible of the wide objective set him. It is plain from this that to the American educationist the attitude of the teacher is all-important, that the general tone of the community must be in part the direct result of school influence in the larger sense of the term, and that the function of the rural school, as an integral part of the national scheme of education, is practically nation-wide in extent. As Miss Carney, a noted American writer on rural education, puts it, “The school is the best and

most available center for the upbuilding of the country community, and may become the most immediate and effective local agency in the solution of the farm problem." The same writer summarizes thus the wide range of the opportunities for constructive work which may be realized through rural school service:

1. "To educate those for whom it was established, that is, children and youth of legal school age.
2. "To . . . make provision for extra-curricular or outside activities for children, and thus indirectly effect the improvement of home and community life.
3. "To encourage in the community an adequate appreciation and support of education.
4. "To co-operate with other agencies in such of their activities as are educative to children of school age.
5. "To stimulate the establishment or regeneration of other community activities or agencies . . . designed to supplement the school and minister directly to the welfare of children.
6. "To furnish information for putting adults of the community in touch with the public and private agencies of county, state, and national scope which will contribute to their cultural or vocational welfare.
7. "To . . . encourage the use of school plant, when the people so choose, as a general community center or common meeting-place for other agencies and activities of the community."

Such a comprehensive statement of the community functions of the rural school as Miss Carney gives becomes intelligible only when it is realized that the rural-school teacher has unique educational opportunities open to him. His environment is an ideal one for the attaining of his objective, inasmuch as the school atmosphere is, or ought to be, contiguous with that of the community of which the school is figuratively, if not geographically, the center. The work of the school is bound

up with its immediate environment, and the first-hand experiences of pupils at home can be most significantly related to the practical work undertaken in school. Thus the school can be made an active agency through which to give deeper meaning and reality to the life and work of the home. A good rural-school teacher soon finds that on every side the home environment is rich in experiences which he can readily turn to educational account. It should be his aim to make the most of his opportunity in this connexion. Where such a purpose is raised to the plane of ideas, the logical outcome is often seen in the establishment of definite types of school. The following account of the work of a school shows the tendency to semi-specialization operating almost incidentally:—

“'A certain one-teacher rural school, for example, operates a poultry yard. It operates also a productive school garden. Pure-bred poultry is its speciality in the one case; pure-bred seed-corn in the other. Its profits come from the selling of settings of eggs and from the selling of corn for seeding. With these profits the school plant is improved. . . .

“'Now it is clear that a school might realize the aims of rural education without operating a poultry yard or a seed garden; it is equally clear that it might possess these and other adjuncts without being a good school; but, other things equal, it is likely to be a better school than it would be otherwise if it makes an intelligent use of the environment that surrounds it and of the dominant interests of the pupils in the life of this environment. In this particular school, the poultry yard and the garden are sources of educational materials and educational methods.'

On the other hand, the home-project work of the Grafton (N.S.W.) Rural School bespeaks a carefully defined objective towards the realization of which the work of the school is most definitely planned:—

“At the Grafton Rural School has been established a small poultry section. Last year the Department supplied funds for the building of a couple of pens with a suitable house. The work was then carried out by the lads in their farm-mechanics periods under the supervision and direction of the teacher of that work. The Grafton Parents and Citizens’ Association provided funds for the purchase of two pens of well-bred birds, those chosen being White Leghorns and Black Langshans. Each pen consisted of six hens and a rooster, and the principal aims for the year were threefold:

1. To teach pupils how to care for the birds in (a) feeding, (b) housing, (c) treating common ailments which might occur.
2. To show that good birds properly treated would be profitable.
3. To inaugurate a home project scheme of chicken raising.

The classes from the Sixth upwards were divided into groups of three, each group being responsible for the proper feeding of the birds for one week at a time. No difficulty was experienced in getting sufficient volunteers to attend to the fowls over the week-ends, and a roster for that work was then compiled. . . . Very good results were obtained from the settings, many children reporting hatchings of ten to thirteen chicks from their settings, whilst the demand for settings of the Leghorns, in particular, has already commenced.

“The chicken-raising competition was finalized a few weeks ago . . . On the whole, the birds exhibited were excellent, and were highly praised by the judge. . . . He considered several pens of birds showed sufficient ‘class’ to enter for the Grafton Show. . . . Lectures on culling for layers and breeders have been given by two successful breeders to the children, and these also help us in this phase of the rural work. Our school farm will soon supply sufficient corn and green food for our stock, and thus lighten the cost of feeding. We might mention in concluding that this work has at-
tracted considerable attention amongst parents, and is helping to make the work of the rural school better known to the community.’’

From the point of view of our discussion, Mr. Frew’s final statement is most significant; it is confirmed by almost every experiment conducted under home-project conditions.

One thing not previously mentioned is very important in connexion with the function of the rural school. The rural child enjoys peculiar advantages. He sees life in an atmosphere of reality and is subjected to the direct influence of nature. To him,

“Life is real, life is earnest.”

At the same time, his association with nature can supply him with that spiritual uplift which gives color to certain drab facts of life and adds a zest to living. So much for the advantages the child may derive from rural life. Let us now glance at the other side of the picture. The country child usually lives a life of comparative isolation; hence, his range of contact with life and with society is necessarily limited. This implies that there are gaps to be bridged and deficiencies to be made good. Therefore, it becomes a function of every rural school to supply pupils with materials of instruction not found in the home environment. An investigation of the nature of perception in the child will show the necessity for this course. Modern life the world over is now far more complex than it has ever been before. The modern complex social environment is ever widening its base and extending its sphere of influence as a determinate agency of social progress. Therefore a mere knowledge of natural objects and of the better known phenomena of nature does not to-day supply the necessary material for education. “The country child in particular should know something about industrial and social facts; have an acquaintance with machinery, and gain some knowledge of those activities with which the city child is familiar, but which are relatively uncommon in the rural life.”

To give pupils this knowledge and thus to let them see life as much as possible in its entirety becomes the duty of every rural-school teacher. He must "teach the child the essential things he does not learn outside of school." This introduces another question, that of "liberal studies in the rural school," a consideration of which becomes of increasing importance every year. The mind of the rural child must be broadened, a process that is best undertaken by introducing him to a friendship with people worth knowing. The best of this company are the really great people of history and of literature, a group whose influence, when it is exerted, acts with a force proportionate to the place they hold in a person's life. It has been said that we live as much by imagination as we do by ideas. Hence, the child must be brought into contact with all that will serve to enrich and stimulate his imagination and help him to a full grasp of the realities of existence. All of which implies that each subject of the curriculum has a certain social-civic as well as cultural value. English, geography, and history taught largely from this point of view can easily be media of the highest value, not only on the instructional side but also on the cultural-recreational side of school and community life.

If the rural school functions as it should do, not only present facts of existence, but also past facts relating to community expansion and progress should be topics of interest and instruction. Pittman, in *Successful Teaching in Rural Schools*, indicates how a study of the pioneers of the district may serve to enrich pupils' ideas and give a deep significance to pioneering events of any time or occasion.

"Did not we have pioneers, heroines of the Middle West, once upon a time? What about those people who spent the first winters here in this cold climate without houses, on those bleak plains? The situation was far more trying that it was for those Puritans who spent their first winter on New England's 'stern and rock-
bound coast,' or in the much more temperate climate of Virginia . . .”

In conclusion, we shall summarize the more important matters pertaining to the functions of the rural school under two heads:

1. Primarily the function of the rural school consists in character-training, character meaning, when applied to the pupil, the particular mental and moral outlook that one has on life. To this extent character is synonymous with individuality. Therefore, the rural school, like any other school, is well on the road to fulfilling its duty if it aims at enabling each of its pupils to realize the greatest fullness of life of which he is by nature and environment capable. Thus the rural-school teacher is seen to be a former of character. As such he must insist, in school, on moral action that is definitely social. Nevertheless, his ultimate objective should consist in reconciling the demand of moral conduct or law with the individuality of the child by assisting him to develop to the full the good qualities he already possesses.

2. The rural school should be the district center. As such, its influence should permeate every home, and direct both pupils and parents towards the ideal social life, a life rich in promise for the worker, inspirational and enlightening to the community, and connotative of a persistent series of efforts in the pursuit of truth and justice. It should be a fundamental maxim of life within and without the school that

“Each helper in the smallest task
Who does the best he can
Is helping, in the highest, man’s
Humanity to man.”

CHAPTER III.
PROBLEMS OF THE RURAL SCHOOL.

There can be little doubt that the one-teacher schools of Australia have served the public efficiently, but the time has now come when rural-school teaching the world over should be made the subject of careful inquiry. It is not that the one-teacher school has outlived its usefulness or has been suffered to fall into neglect; far from it. It has always been and always will be an integral part of our school system; but to serve the future as it has done the past posits for it a growth and development that will ensure its position as an active agent of modern educational thought. Any school is alive only to the extent that it develops in proportion as it sees and appreciates the problems that confront it. The solution of the problem of immediate interest is something; but it alone is not enough, for out of the solution of one difficulty should spring the desire for and the means of solving another. Progress can be estimated in terms of continual advance towards perfection. That the goal is never reached is nothing. There is a virtue inherent in the process of steady advance and continuous effort that in itself is sufficient reward for the striving. So it is with the work of the rural school. Present-day society is steadily growing more complex. As a result, unless the rural school can evolve a means of lifting its pupils into the big world of which their district is but a component part, country children are more and more likely to lose touch with society as a whole. This indicates the problem of the one-teacher school to-day. Thus far one can agree with Miss Carney, who, in *Country Life and the Country School*, gives at length an account of the country teacher’s problem and its attack; but the Victorian rural-
school teacher would hardly go the whole way with her. When she says that the rural school as a system is typical of a primitive social order, we assent. That the same institution was fitted to the social needs of its generation is also true. But "the school having from six to eight grades, each grade with at least four daily recitations," demands more work than one teacher can possibly do in the meagre time allotted, to say nothing of the strength, scholarship, and ability required for such a task," is a statement that is simply untrue of Australian one-teacher schools. Again, that "the small number of children enrolled very frequently makes an uninteresting school" is more a reflexion on the individual teacher than a just criticism of the system. A defect that is more pertinent to the discussion is the fact that the system provides no high-school course. The lack of provision for such teaching has doubtless often induced parents, both here and in the States, either to move to the larger towns or to board their children at the nearest high-school center. In either case, the result can be shown to be detrimental to country life. The child educated in the town or the city usually grows to prefer urban life with its social advantages and progressive atmosphere. Further, he is easily led to regard the country and all that it stands for as uninteresting, monotonous, and entirely behind the times. In this connexion, conditions in America appear to be much more acute than they are in this country, as the following quotation shows:—"We shall never solve the farm problem so long as the most energetic and ambitious leaders of country life are being forced into cities to provide educational advantages for their children."²

In justice to Victorian schools it should be stated that none of the defects of the present rural-school system is so pronounced as to need such drastic reform as Miss Carney’s statement postulates for American rural schools. Of course, in America, rural conditions present points of difficulty for an educational system from which

1. An American term for lesson periods.
we in Victoria are more or less immune. A great number of the Middle West farmers of the United States own, but do not dwell upon, their farms. Their interests are largely in the country, but their dwelling-places are in the town. They work their farms on a share system. In other words, they contract with a share-farmer, who must carry out all the farm work to the owner’s satisfaction. In return the actual worker of the farm receives a stipulated share of the annual income for his year of service. Such a system has a most detrimental effect on the educational life of the children of share-farmers. Any Victorian teacher who has taught in a dairying district knows the ill effects on pupils of periodical transfer from district to district. Such transfer must of necessity occur, for the share-farmer may have to move from place to place several times during the school life of his children. It is no exaggeration to say that there are share-farmers in this country who have “only one-year plans.” What is true of the few here appears to hold for the many share-farmers of certain parts of the States. As a result their children do not stay long enough at any school to benefit much by the course of instruction it offers. Further, the constant changes to which such pupils are subjected make for want of continuity in their school work. Hence, the community, as well as the individual child, is the loser when a district numbers among its inhabitants any number of share-farmers. In the United States, to make matters worse, rural-school teachers frequently plan no further ahead than the one year. They are “here today and gone to-morrow.” The unsatisfactory nature of the whole business is intensified when it is realized that these teachers are generally very young and often inexperienced. The following table will substantiate several of the statements made above:
Median Age, Experience, and Training of Elementary-School Teachers in New York.\(^3\)

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<tbody>
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<td>Teachers in two-teacher schools</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>10.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers in village elementary schools</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>6.51</td>
<td>38.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary teachers in cities of III. class</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>80.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary teachers in cities of II. class</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>62.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The report of the New York Rural School Survey gives the following additional information relative to the quality of the Rural School Service as compared with that of other branches of the teaching profession.

"The child attending a one-teacher school has one chance in two of having a teacher who is less than 24 years old; he has one chance in four of having a teacher who is not yet old enough to vote . . . A child in a typical second-class city in New York State has one chance in two of not having a teacher who is under 34 years of age; in a third-class city, a child has one chance in two of not having a teacher who has not passed the age of 29 . . .

"As to the teacher’s experience, the child attending a one-teacher school has one chance in five of coming under the instruction of a teacher who is just beginning his or her work; in the typical city-school system, the chances are in the ratio of one to ten—just half the risk. The rural child in the one-teacher school has between one chance in five and one chance in six of having a teacher who has taught at least ten years; the chances that the teacher will have had more than ten years of experience are more than doubled in the . . . cities.

\(^3\) *Rural School Survey of New York State*, vol. I., pp. 42, et seq.
"As to education, the New York rural child attending a one-teacher school has one chance in twenty of having a teacher with "standard training"—two years' attendance at a normal school or college following graduation from a four-year high school; if he attends a two-teacher school, his chances are about doubled (2 in 20); in a village school his chances would be increased sevenfold (7 in 20); in a second-class city, the chances would be multiplied by twelve (12 in 20), and in a third-class city they would be multiplied by 16 (16 in 20)."

In Successful Teaching of Rural Schools, the author, Marvin S. Pittman, makes his teacher-correspondent pen the following among other statements:

"I asked Mr. Moore to-day how many of the teachers in his demonstration group had taught the same school last year which they are to teach this. He said that he had investigated that point immediately after deciding upon his group of schools, and found that there are only two out of the fifteen."

Under such conditions as evidently do prevail in one-teacher schools of the States, anything like efficient teaching must be the exception rather than the rule. The defects implied in several references to the system are certainly serious. Now that the problem has been suggested, if not specifically formulated, it behoves us to consider what is being and what can be done to remedy these defects. In undertaking this task, we shall deal with the American service first. This will enable us to apply the solutions reached to such defects of our own system as may seem to constitute similar difficulties.

Miss Carney propounds the problem thus:—"The problem of the country teacher, therefore, is the problem of accepting conditions as they now exist, physically, educationally, and socially, and of converting the country school from decay and inactivity into a living, vital force for rural progress. In other words, it is the
problem of making the country school a center for redirected education and community building.’

Miss Carney sees in the consolidated rural school the only adequate solution of the problem—a change that must have a very far reaching effect, for it is one wholly of system.

The question of the administrative side of consolidation will be discussed in a later chapter; but the method of approaching and the need for such a change may be outlined at once.

It is evident that the average rural-school building in the States cannot compare at all favorably with the larger buildings of town or city, either in appearance or in equipment and the like. Now it is part of the duties of the local educational authority vested in electors present at either an annual or a special meeting “to erect a schoolhouse, build additions, or buy sites, etc.” Hence, in the States, any deficiency in buildings, equipment, and the like can be charged against the local authority. From statistics to hand it is plain that, in America, State aid is the means of providing but a small amount of the total sum required for elementary-school education in a district. Further, the amount derived from the “Primary School Fund” of the State is not always distributed where it is most needed. When the census alone is used as the basis of distribution, the district of “low valuation” is usually the one containing “few children of school age in the district.” Such a division is almost certain to receive less money than the larger district where the revenue derived from local sources is proportionately large. Thus, the present system of apportioning State aid in America is most favorable to helping those districts that help themselves. It is the poorer districts that really want such aid. From what has been said, it becomes clear that, in the States, a district schoolhouse may be a very poor structure, almost totally inadequate to meet present-day demands in the educational sphere. With a poor building the general rule will be that local interest in a school will be lacking. The interior of such a building
will be largely what the teacher chooses to make it; but it is not likely to be very attractive, or to provide very congenial working conditions. Again, the planning of small country schools has often been undertaken most casually, with the result that they are standing monuments to an indifferent or inefficient architect. The state of the school interior and decoration generally is largely in the teacher’s hands. Children are possessed of no little power of discernment; further, through their proneness to imitate others, they render themselves peculiarly susceptible to the influence of their immediate surroundings. Consequently, where the school interior does not present a pleasing appearance, direct inducement is given to the pupil to consider the schoolhouse and furniture as something that nobody cares much about. The attitude of mind thus developed is harmful in the extreme. On the other hand, where the state of the school and of its internal conditions bespeaks careful planning and tidiness on the teacher’s part, it is likely that pupils will learn to respect his efforts and to find ample opportunity to support him actively in schoolroom decoration. The progressive teacher soon finds that he can enlist the interest and sympathy not only of his pupils but also of the whole community in the work of his school.

Modern American educationists have long seen the use to which a good school may be put as a centralizer of community interests. How the service a school renders in this connexion may be extended is a problem that confronts every rural-school teacher to-day. The work before him lies in socializing the school, and thus making it a worthy and serviceable institution to the community. To achieve this purpose is no small task. The first step towards realizing the aim consists in interesting parents in their children’s work. Where parents visit the school and in return the teacher visits the home, something positive is being done towards breaking down the barrier that often exists between school and community. The holding of entertainments in the school is another source of help in this connexion.
schoolhouse is used for the purpose of transacting public business, holding meetings, and the like, residents of the district see the use to which it is put in terms of convenience and service. Evening meetings of the kind that promote culture or provide wholesome recreation or amusement are particularly influential in implanting among those present a feeling that the school stands for co-operation, not isolation; that it is more than a mere building; and that teacher and school are integral parts of community life. Thus the rural school of to-day can be more than a mere school; it can be and should be a community center. To serve this purpose even in a small way demands that the school building be one in which parents take a justifiable pride; one that does service in several ways, all of which serve as a record of community spirit and progress. A good building, then, is the first step towards founding a good, serviceable rural school.

Now we wish to speak next on rural-school attendance. It will be noticed later that, in doing so, we are approaching, from a different angle, the same question to which previous discussion has led us, to wit, the need for and the advantage of community interest in vitalizing the rural school. In the States, rural-school attendance is still generally most unsatisfactory. Not only is retardation prevalent, but it appears to be most marked in the upper grades of the school. In *Rural School Attendance*, Miss Folks supplies the following figures in connexion with retardation (these figures are based on a study of 183 rural schools of West Virginia):

"Forty-nine per cent. of the children 12 years and under were retarded, as opposed to 84 per cent. of those over 12. There was an even greater increase in the degree of retardation of the children in the older group as compared with the younger group, only 11 per cent. of the children under 12 being retarded for as much as three years, and 43 per cent. of the children over 12."  

5. See *Rural Child Welfare*, p. 95, by Edward N. Clopper.
Now, in Australian schools, the blame for retardation cannot often be laid at the door either of the teacher or of the Service. In the States the case is different, because there it is generally left to each district to determine for how many days in the year the school shall remain open. In 1922, it was proudly claimed as evidence of the previous year's educational progress in Michigan that "a nine-months' school law obligatory in all except eighteen of the smallest districts in the State" had been placed upon the statute books. However, in many districts of the United States the length of the school term does not exceed, if it even reaches, 6\(\frac{1}{2}\) months. One reason why terms are short in a number of districts is the shortage of teachers, less often it is due to lack of funds. Whatever the cause, where the term is not long enough to permit of pupils' accomplishing the full year's work, the inevitable result is that the education of the individual suffers. In his school work he falls behind the city pupil of equal mental capacity. Again, irregular attendance, when the school is in session, aggravates, if it is not a direct cause of, retardation. It has been found that, where attendance is unsatisfactory, the degree of retardation is proportional to the amount of absence. The table on page 25 will be helpful in giving the reader an idea of the state of affairs in connexion with the 183 schools that formed the basis of Miss Folks's survey:

In the States, the compulsory attendance laws are generally sound in principle; but they are often loosely administered. Attendance officers are not always appointed, and, even where they are appointed, their work is often neglected. In Victoria we have a means of enforcing attendance at school that, on the whole, gives general satisfaction. In this regard our system compares more than favorably with the slackness that appears to characterize the enforcement of attendance in the average American school district. The most general causes of absence among country pupils are given by Miss Folks as illness, work, distance and weather, indifference, and poverty. Climatic and economic con-
## PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN IN NORMAL GRADES, ADVANCED OR RETARDED BY PERIODS OF ABSENCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Per cent. of time absent</th>
<th>Total No. of Children</th>
<th>Per cent. Normal</th>
<th>Per cent. Advanced</th>
<th>Per cent. Retarded</th>
<th>Percentage of Total Number Retarded</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Renarde one year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily attendants</td>
<td>451</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>46.1</td>
<td>50.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absent 1 to 25 per cent.</td>
<td>2198</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>42.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absent 25 to 50 per cent.</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>71.5</td>
<td>31.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absent 50 to 75 per cent.</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>73.0</td>
<td>33.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absent 75 to 100 per cent.</td>
<td>262</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>73.2</td>
<td>35.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>3942</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>58.8</td>
<td>39.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ditions in Victoria vary from district to district, but not to anything like the extent that they do in the States. There, in most parts, they present real problems to educationists. Here, their influence on school attendance is very small. The enforced absence of pupils in farming and dairying districts in Victoria is due only rarely to pressure of circumstances. More often it is traceable to pure indifference or to the feeling that a day or two can be taken without real detriment to the pupil's school work. In the States the same causes operate on a large scale, and the indifference seems more pronounced. Perhaps much of it is due, in turn, to the want of confidence parents have in the average rural-school teacher. Now, in this chapter, it seems unnecessary to dilate further upon the subjects of inattendance and retardation. What should be apparent is that the average rural-dweller in the States has far less interest in the small district school than the average Australian has in his rural school. To the former the schoolhouse is often merely a building. It makes little or no appeal to him. The service it might be expected to render is hampered by the shortage of experienced teachers, by lack of equipment, and by the general indifference of the community both to its needs and to its function. The work of such a school is usually of a somewhat stereotyped character, and the service rendered is inadequate in the extreme. It is not difficult, therefore, to realize why the average American sees in consolidation the solution of the whole problem. In place of half a dozen ill-equipped and often unattractive buildings, there is a central school that in its very appearance commands a certain amount of attention and no small measure of respect. The American citizen answers readily to a "square-built" appeal, if I may term it so. He is prone to admire solid brick and mortar, one means he uses to measure the standard of prosperity of persons and things. Further, the consolidated school can get and retain experienced teachers. Its equipment is generally up-to-date and its surroundings attractive. The whole thing—the school, its setting, its teachers, and the keen interest displayed by parents
in the service they are getting—bespeaks progressiveness and captures the imagination. Now we have digressed more than we had intended, for consolidation as a subject will be treated more fully in later pages. We shall continue from where we left off and indicate yet another phase of the rural-school problem.

It has been stated previously that the course of study undertaken in rural schools is often very formal and devoid of that close connexion which should exist between school subjects and community life and work. This fact is generally very apparent to the rural teacher, who is often reminded both directly and incidentally of the need for closer connexion between school and community life. Where a parent, however kindly intentioned, draws a line of demarcation between the “school lesson” and the work of daily life, he is—unwittingly maybe—pointing an accusing finger at the instructional side of school work. As a consequence, it behoves the modern teacher to build up a good tradition respecting the reality and usefulness of the subjects of the curriculum. In actual life a great deal is learned through experience; therefore, if the child is to follow nature to any extent, he should be influenced at every turn by the desire for discovery. This is the spirit of heuristic teaching, and it is also a strong characteristic of youth of every kind. The atmosphere of a good school should bespeak the heuristic sentiment in all that is done within its walls. If such a spirit is present, it will exert power of the highest kind; if it is absent, its absence will be positively missed. Further, if the subjects of the curriculum are to serve the purpose for which they are included, it is imperative that the method of learning in the school should be such as to give life and interest to the process. Therefore, as regards both matter and method, rural-school teaching must constantly take stock of what it offers its pupils. Perhaps the subject closest to hand in the rural school is agriculture in some form or other. As a recent authority on rural-school teaching points out, “there is now a rather general impression that this whole task of regenerating
the country school can be settled by the introduction of a little formal agriculture.”

For us there are two sides to this question. In the first place, it is essential that the rich educative materials that surround the school should not be neglected. Therefore, the good rural-school teacher should find in the child’s knowledge of farm experience the wherewithal to vitalize and to give full insight into the various subjects of the curriculum. Project teaching has shown to what extent such experiences can be used. The reading lesson that has to do with “the cat sitting on the mat” shows equally well how such experiences can be ignored. In reading, much of the groundwork can be done with familiar related objects as the topics on which the subject-matter turns. In arithmetic, the problems that confront the man on the land as well as the man in the street should be introduced to give reality to the rules, definitions, etc., taught in school. Agriculture should be taught largely through home projects. To look upon agriculture, however, as one might regard arithmetic or reading, is to some extent a real mistake, for, to the rural child, agriculture should need no formal introduction at all. It should be taught not to interest pupils in a subject of the curriculum, but to widen the pupils’ farm or country experience. Thus, the known can be made the means of showing the pupil the extent of and the purpose in investigating the unknown.

On the other hand, no rural school should so narrow its teaching as to deal only with the immediate interests either of the child or of the locality. There is a wider world than the world of the rural dweller; and much of the provincialism that characterizes country folk in every part of the world would tend to disappear if the country child were more often shown the world in its true perspective.

It is not now generally conceded that the rural child should be induced to remain in the country, and thus find his life’s work there. “The cry against the city-

6. Carney, Country Life and the Country School, p. 239.
ward movement of the population has lost to-day much of the force that it had a few years ago. It is now clear that this movement has been determined very largely by economic factors. There are relatively fewer farmers in the United States than there were a generation ago, and yet much more food is being produced. During the past few years, indeed, there has been so serious an over-production that hundreds of thousands of farmers have been unable to dispose of their crops at a profit. They have literally been driven to the town and city, not because of any defects in their early education which failed to adjust them to country life, but because the supply of farmers exceeded the demand. This shifting of the economic balance will doubtless go on for some time to come, and thousands of boys and girls now living in the open country and attending rural schools will become city-dwellers. It would be shortsighted, indeed, for rural education not to recognize this clear probability. At any rate, it is imperative that the rural pupil be given more than a mere acquaintance with occupations outside his own little world. He should be familiar, in broad outline, with the more important activities of urban life; and with the knowledge thus acquired he should be able to round off his first picture of "life in the big, big world." The opportunities presented in urban life and the limitations of such life are not matters about which the country child should be ignorant. On the contrary, the advantages and handicaps both of rural and of town life should be topics that the rural child has thought about before he goes out to make his way in the world of men and women. It should be clear that to view the rural school as having a distinctly vocational function in life cannot be wholly right. Dr. Foght, President of the State Teachers' College at Aberdeen, South Dakota, strongly advocates preparing pupils of rural districts for country occupations. This may be an excellent and a justifiable aim in certain circumstances, not the least important of which is that economic conditions are satisfied by the ensuing

result. In Denmark, some such aim appears to have occupied a prominent place in the larger scheme of education; but this outcome is incidental to, rather than consequent upon, the educational system in operation throughout the land. In this case, the very nature of Danish country and national life appears to have been the direct determining force.

In this connexion may be quoted a passage from the monograph on rural education in Denmark written by Mr. Frank Tate, Director of Education for Victoria:—

It must not, however, be thought that, when I make this statement, I mean that practical agriculture and dairying are taught in the primary school. Far from it. There is, in point of fact, less school gardening and less teaching of agriculture in Danish rural schools than in Victorian schools. The Dane will tell you it is not necessary to teach these things in school, and he is right—for Denmark. The children live on farms where, every day, they see farm work done in accordance with excellent methods. They hear farm problems discussed at home by keen and intelligent farm people. For the efforts made to improve Danish rural industry in the past fifty years have produced a body of efficient farmer craftsmen who carry on the practical work of farming wonderfully well. Their children copy their methods, and in course of time improve upon them. It is, therefore, not in the direct teaching of agriculture, but it is rather in the application of the general subjects of the course of study to the life interests of the district, and in stimulating his pupils to take delight in country life, that the capable teacher of a Danish rural school does his best work. The maxim of Froebel, “Come, let us live with our children,” has been given a very special application by these rural-minded Danish village schoolmasters. They accept country life as an end in itself, and not as a stepping-stone to the coveted promotion to some large city school. In doing so, they are in harmony with the views of the people around them. For Danish country life is not something which is second-best to the life of the city. It is good in itself, and it has an importance of its own, and a culture of its own.8

As far as Victoria is concerned, it would not be practical to give rural schools, as we know them, a distinctly vocational function, that is, to aim specifically at turn-

8. Tate, Some Lessons from Rural Denmark, p. 17.
ing out pupils for farming and other occupations akin to it. Economic conditions alone would soon operate against the continuance of such a scheme. In essentials the function of the elementary school is constant throughout Victoria. Rural and urban districts fare alike as regards both teachers and curriculum. In the matter of buildings and equipment, the rural school is often better off than the larger town or city school. Victorian teachers, at any rate most of them, have had to prove themselves in the field of rural teaching before gaining promotion to the higher classes in the service. As a result, Victorians are justly proud of the general efficiency that has marked the work of the rural teacher.

In the realm of secondary education, the institution of country high schools has done much to ameliorate the lot of the country youth; however, it is only in the more central part of the area that such schools can be opened. Consequently, one of the problems facing us to-day is how to bring our rural scholars into closer contact with higher education without at the same time impairing the existing efficiency of the work done in our rural schools. This touches on the question of consolidation; hence, the attempt to supply a solution of the difficulty will be made in a subsequent chapter.

Lastly, it is necessary that the rural-school teacher should be well versed in the various branches of his work. That he should understand each of his pupils goes without saying. What is particularly essential, however, is that he be trained to criticize both his own efforts and the work of his school. This he should be able to do not in any casual or perfunctory manner but along scientific lines. Only thus can the teacher hope to be an integral part of that progressive educational life which should dominate the whole State system of education. The service of such a teacher will be marked by vigor, initiative, and genuine enthusiasm, all well-disciplined both for carrying out the task immediately before him and for sustaining his efforts in the field of education as a whole. The personality and qualifications of the rural-school teacher are matters that
demand treatment commensurate with their importance; therefore they will be discussed at length in another part of the book. It is hoped that, in this chapter, the more important general problems of the rural school have been touched upon in outline. As the subject is developed, it will be part of our purpose to indicate ways and means of reaching a solution of the difficulties to be faced. Incidentally, certain modern developments in education will be discussed in their bearing on rural-school work in general and on Victorian rural teaching in particular. What has been said above regarding the good teacher both explains and justifies our dealing with such phases of teaching as may be embraced by the term “modern developments in education.”
The supreme virtue of the Dalton Plan lies in the kind and quantity of individual work that is claimed to result from its application. That there are advantages accruing to a well-organized scheme of individual work cannot be denied, for any child who enters upon such work successfully is certainly "taking a hand in his own education." He not only sets himself a definite task, but he works at his own rate of speed. Consequently, what he does is done intelligently and independently. Each task promptly attacked and satisfactorily completed is a means of generating power than can be readily drawn upon in facing every subsequent task. Therefore, advance through "individual work" is more along the lines of geometrical than of arithmetical progression. The growth in power thus implied is said to constitute the strongest reason for advocating an extension of the plan to all branches of teaching. There is yet another feature of individual work that is most important. Too often, under the system of class teaching, a child does not see the point of an exposition or an explanation, and the teacher makes little real effort to ascertain whether or not his work has left a clear impression on the child’s mind. Often, too, children “think” they know, and work on that assumption until they are more or less hopelessly befogged. Valuable time elapses before they are aware that, after all, they know considerably less than they thought they did. To remedy matters, the subject about which they have such confused ideas has practically to be retaught. Under the system of class-teaching, too, it not infrequently happens that
children are mesmerized, as it were, into belief. The teacher has explained the whole matter, the child assents to the several successive points made, and the whole is gathered up—by the teacher—into one grand final education. In class-teaching it is generally the teacher’s mode of exposition that receives most attention. Questioning by the pupils is the exception, not the rule. As a result, the child soon comes to feel that he is expected to “learn” as a matter of course. He is rarely invited to state his view, confess his inability to see a point, or acknowledge his diffidence about undertaking any section of the work before him. But, if a child is to learn intelligently, he must practise auto-criticism, even if it is only to the extent of deciding wherein his ignorance of a subject lies. When he is encouraged to be frank both to himself and to his teacher, a child’s tendency to deceive is being overcome. Herein lies another advantage arising from properly organized individual work. It is a means of giving those who practise it confidence in the mission of the teacher. He becomes a guide, a helper, and a friendly critic. His advice is eagerly sought after and is freely given. No child is chary of admitting his doubts and difficulties to his teacher. While there can be little doubt that these results are more readily discerned where the practice of individual work is in operation, it would, of course, be most unfair to assert or even to suggest that good teaching characterizes only the more systematic type of individual work. Good teaching is something more than mere procedure; education is something more than merely learning. As Thring expresses it, education, true education, is “the transmission of life from the living teacher to the living child.” Consequently, when men and women are giving the best that is in them to the work of education, their personality is the determining factor in the task before them, and personality can generally triumph over systems. Miss Dewey puts the matter plainly when she says, “Indeed, the vice of all these new ‘plans’ is that they tend to ignore the greatest factor of all, the teacher’s personality, and to suggest that a certain method
of teaching or of organization will, if adopted, prove a panacea for our educational woes."

This rather brief discussion of the nature and value of individual work should serve to emphasize the point that the teacher’s function is to help and to educate. On the teaching side these are essential features of the Dalton Plan. The question now before us is to what extent can the ordinary rural-school teacher successfully adopt the general scheme of Dalton Plan work.

In the case of Victorian rural schools, there need be little hesitation about the answer. The good work that has been done in these schools has been due, in large measure, to the fact that individual work was the basis of the instruction given. Where the teacher successfully manages eight grades, it is clear that his “class” or “mass” lesson must be brief. He soon learns to dispense with unessentials. His exposition is not only terse, it is orderly and adequate without being bald. In fact, the good rural teacher does precisely what adherents of the Dalton Plan advocate—he teaches only when the occasion arises. The difference, then, between the method of procedure in our good rural schools and that which characterizes the application of the Dalton Plan is one of degree, not of kind. In each case the system is the same; but, whereas in the one it is incidental to the very nature of the type of school, in the other it is an organized means of obtaining educational efficiency of a certain definite kind. Naturally, the Dalton Plan involves the more systematic if not the more efficient organization of the two. This does not imply that, in the rural school, the contract, i.e., the year’s work in any given subject, requires to be given greater consideration than it now gets. In Victoria, the year’s program of work is set by the educational authorities for all schools alike. It does not even mean that what are termed the “assignments,” the “periods,” or the “units” have to be more systematically prepared. Every good rural-school teacher does all these things most carefully. But he does them by virtue of having the program of work at his fingers’ ends. He has learnt
what can be accomplished in one week: he knows just what should be covered each calendar month. Experience has taught him what he knows, and each year sees him with a surer grasp of all phases of the program of work. This at once suggests the strength and the weakness of the situation, for too often, alas! those teachers who cannot readily profit by experience do very mediocre work. Under the Dalton Plan, experience still teaches; but the organization of the work would appear to be so systematic as to give both pupils and teacher a quicker and more definite grasp of the task ahead of them. Where a teacher is able to build upon the experience of another, his own organizing power is put to less strain than it otherwise would be. Therefore the application of the Plan should make for increased definiteness in connexion with all phases of the year’s work, and this for both teacher and pupils alike.

It must be admitted that the adoption of the Plan in a Victorian rural school would mean more work for the teacher. The systematic setting out of assignments, periods, and units alone would warrant this assertion. Add to this the fact that, as regards method and gradation of examples, few books at present lend themselves to use under the Dalton Plan, and you get some idea of what its adoption would mean for the average rural teacher. The correction of written work entails more labor; but this is of a type with which the teacher is already familiar. Consequently, it is not in this connexion that the difficulty lies. To ensure anything like successful work, the rural-school teacher who proposes to Daltonize his procedure should not enter upon his task either with haste or with misgivings. He must first of all be convinced that the Plan is well worth trying. Further, he must not deceive himself in regard to the fact that it is the teacher not the Plan that ultimately counts. There are teachers who will make a success of any plan; but no plan, however good it may be in itself, can save a teacher from the results of carrying out his work perfunctorily or inefficiently. Having once decided that the Plan is worth trying, what steps
should a teacher take before adopting it? From the outset he should be satisfied that his school equipment is satisfactory, that the necessary reference books are to hand, that his school library is adequate to the call that will be made upon it, and that his school fund is capable of meeting any incidental expenses that occur during the year. It might be reasonable, but it certainly would be foolish, to expect the State Education Department to make the grant necessary to satisfy those needs. Moreover, an enthusiastic teacher can easily get community help in a laudable venture; and, even if the Dalton scheme of work were dropped later on, the addition to the school of such a collection of books and apparatus as the successful carrying out of the Plan demands could not but exert a most beneficial influence on the school instruction generally. Once the necessary textbooks are obtained, the teacher must consider how he will set out his assignments. In this connexion, printed syllabuses of work are to be desired; but it is hardly probable that good printed assignments suitable for use in a Victorian school will be obtained for some years to come. Consequently, a good typewriter and a duplicating machine are almost essential for the successful and expeditious preparation of the assignment sheets. Once textbooks and syllabuses of work are ready, the next step is to introduce the pupils to the mode of procedure that characterizes the Plan. On its introduction, pupils could naturally be expected to set about their task with commendable eagerness. What the teacher must be careful to stress is that the Plan, whilst giving freedom of a kind, imposes in return definite obligations; that these obligations must be met cheerfully but resolutely, and that the mode of working is such as to connect what is done in school with life as we know it to be.

It is not proposed here to discuss fully the working of the Dalton Plan in its several more important phases. In both Miss Parkhurst’s and Mr. Lynch’s books a full treatment is given, and to these the reader should turn for full information. The assignments of work demand
very close attention from the teacher; they are the crux of the whole Plan. The teacher whose assignments contain too much work is placing an unnecessary obstacle in the way of the child. The efforts of even an adult beginner need to be encouraged; still more necessary is it to stimulate the child’s endeavor by so grading the work that he meets with but one difficulty at a time. On the other hand, unless the assignment in its several sections calls for determined effort, the pupil may treat the whole matter too lightly. This is most undesirable; hence the necessity for setting an appropriate amount of work for a specified time. Several pages could be devoted to discussing the main difficulties inseparable from the introduction of the Dalton Plan in a Victorian rural school; but, since these are difficulties peculiar to all kinds of individual work, it would seem unnecessary here to do more than merely touch lightly on them. The operation of the Plan is said to give the dull boy a better chance than formerly of accomplishing his school work satisfactorily. This is true in so far as he works honestly, and frankly admits his difficulties. Otherwise, he may learn to practise deception. The good rural-school teacher will soon perceive to what extent each pupil is benefiting by the introduction of the Plan, and will act accordingly. The slow child should also be helped materially when he is free to work at a rate normal to his capacity. If the teacher is satisfied that such a pupil is advancing with his work, then he may be safely left to plod along; for mastery of a subject, no matter how slow the progress made, usually implies the possession of increased power and confidence on the part of the learner.

Teachers who are averse to adopting the Plan often state as a serious objection the fact that children, whilst readily doing what they like, are particularly prone to shirk a section of the work they dislike. Even if we admit the force of the argument in relation to the child’s disposition to neglect certain kinds of work, it does not give validity to the objection in question. Any good rural-school teacher is alive to all that goes on in his
school. He is not only quick to detect shirking of any kind, but he is trained by the very nature of his work to know intuitively, as it were, just where difficulties are likely to occur. Through his assignments he can prepare against these difficulties; in his teaching he can help pupils in overcoming them.

Copying may be practised under the Plan; but, since it is common to the conditions under which most school work is carried out, and is an ever-present problem to the teacher of any school, it need not be discussed further in this chapter.

It goes without saying that the process of changing from the ordinary school procedure to the Dalton Plan is a serious matter. The change must be effected smoothly if the work of the pupils is not to suffer. Further, the pupils must be introduced to the Plan without harassment.

Disturbant situations have an associative force that requires to be taken into account when any important changes are contemplated. In a rural school the inception of the Plan should be marked by a minimum of difficulty, for the change is one merely of systematization, not of system, and should be understood and accepted as such by pupils.

In a number of English schools, the Dalton Plan has been in operation now for several years. At a recent conference of teachers, statements made by experienced headmasters showed that the Plan was capable of yielding good results in a rural school. Mr. B. C. Prior, of Uley School, Gloucester, giving his experience of the application of the Plan to his school containing 150 "mixed and infants," stressed the fact that pupils now showed greater interest in their school work generally. Closer co-operation between teacher and children had also resulted. Mr. Prior did not conceal the fact that he thought the work had become more strenuous for the teacher, but he considered the gain to the pupil more than justified the efforts made. The school, in its work, was now less of a school and more of a miniature of real life. There was true discipline, and, as a consequence,
corporal punishment had become largely unnecessary. On the actual working of the Plan, Mr. Prior supplied the following useful information:

In this school there were 50 infants. Here one wanted the best teacher possible, for it was among these little ones that unconsciously the seeds of the Dalton spirit could be sown, the spirit of self-reliance and co-operation. The most difficult time was the period of transition when the child came from the kindergarten at the age of seven into the lower form of the upper school. A good preparation for Dalton work could be obtained by breaking the larger groups into smaller ones, and the more advanced of these could be taught to work by themselves. An assignment of work for the week was prepared by the teacher, written out very plainly, and placed on the notice board. The teacher and scholars talked about this for a little while every Monday morning, and this encouraged the great ideal of an aim for the week. Many teachers did not advocate the Dalton Plan for children under nine years, but his experience had been that the gradual training was of enormous benefit and help later on. In the next group, of children from 9 to 11 years, a fuller weekly assignment of work was made. The assignments followed on from week to week, and sequence was secured. The co-operation of the children was asked for in drawing them up. The assignment was arranged for two groups, nine to ten and ten to eleven years, but mental ability was the chief determining factor. The teacher should be in touch with every child, quietly asking for a child’s work, and how much of the assignment had been done, reminding them individually that there was such a thing as an assignment in the room, and that it was worth studying. The greater part of the teacher’s time should be devoted to the slower children, helping them to keep as nearly as possible in touch with the brighter ones. Children of eleven showed great keenness in getting the work done and were very eager to help others over the stiles. The children were free to move about as necessary. The last group consisted of children from eleven to fourteen. After 10.30, the whole of the day was free for these, and the different subjects were taken when the children pleased. A term’s work was arranged on the first day after the holidays. A whole day was given to the discussion and preparation of this by the children and teacher. Any suggestions the children made were freely considered by the whole group. This method of arranging
a term’s assignment has worked well. Some of the scholars arranged the assignment on a large sheet of cardboard . . . A frame was provided and the work for the whole term was in front of the class. The children were trusted every Monday morning to make a weekly assignment from the one for the term. The weekly assignment was written at the beginning of each week’s work in the English book, taking up about three-quarters of a page. The remainder of the leaf was used for a time-record, ruled into five days, with columns for subjects. As soon as a child had done any work in a subject, the time spent was put down in the proper column, and at the end of the day totalled up. The teacher had only to ask for a child’s time-record to see what work had been done, and a little talk with a child would show whether it had been done well or not. It was soon easy to see which children required to be asked to show time-records. On Thursday afternoon, the amount of work done was asked. Most children would have finished the week’s assignment and the remaining day could be used for further reading, or decoration and painting in their exercise books. Very few failed to do the allotted task, because it was their own chosen amount.

Another speaker at the conference, Mr. J. A. Radcliffe, stressed the necessity of providing safeguards for the protection of the lazy and backward child. In his own school, he allowed no child to be two assignments behind-hand unless it were for some unavoidable cause. If a child did fall behind with his work in any subject, he was immediately drafted into a special class dealing with the subject in question. In this way the backward child was kept under close supervision.

The Dalton Plan is now well known among teachers. It has influenced educationists the world over—as is instanced by its adoption in China in 1922—and it is likely to wield even a greater influence in the years to come. This is not because of any great virtue inherent in the working of the Plan itself. Rather is it due to the fact that the spirit behind the Plan is one in thorough

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1. “Within the last ten years there has been a twofold movement in the educational life of China, one working towards the revival of individual teaching through the use of the group system and the adoption of intelligence tests; the other towards the socialization of school life. The Dalton Plan appeared as a practical way of combining and realizing these ideals.”—(Extract from the letter of a Chinese schoolmaster writing in connexion with the reorganization of Chinese schools.)
accord with that of present-day teachings of democracy. A revivifying agency has been introduced into the schoolroom. Pupils undertake their appointed tasks happily, and find pleasure in the means by which they are helped to overcome the difficulties that confront them. The weak are given the assistance they require; the strong are allowed the freedom necessary for them to do justice to their capacity.

In the good rural school, this spirit is never really absent, for no rural school can be characterized as good which is not permeated by the innervating influence inseparable from well-directed and closely supervised individual work. It is not that the good rural-school teacher consciously strives for this effect. On the contrary, his mind is preoccupied with his immediate task, and, in accomplishing it, he is forced to concentrate almost solely on the attitude and responses of his pupils. Consequently, the spirit that pervades his school is the natural outcome of the situation in which a capable organizer and a clear thinker finds himself—one teacher among 10, 20, or 30, or 40 rural children, all of different mental capacity or at different stages of mental growth, divided into eight grades or classes, and all pursuing their course under the skilful direction of one man.

What the Dalton Plan can do for the rural school will depend upon the manner in which the Plan is introduced and operated. When it is the means of systematizing and vitalizing still further the normally good work of a rural school, its introduction cannot but be beneficial, for it means increased efficiency in the work carried out. Under the strong and enthusiastic teacher, the Plan is not likely to fail; under the weak teacher, it will be surprising if its adoption does not lead to worse instead of better results. A strong teacher can supply the vitality necessary to generate power in any plan. The inherently weak teacher, expecting to be saved by a plan, usually finds that the task of operating a complex scheme with any degree of success is beyond him; that his attempt leads to endless confusion; and that it
is much more profitable for him to plod along in his own familiar, if somewhat ineffective, way than to adopt a mode of procedure for which his capacity is not adapted.

To sum up, then, the Dalton Plan has much in common with the best rural-school procedure. To operate the Plan successfully in a rural school demands, on the part of the teacher, organizing ability and genuine enthusiasm for his work. He must be a man of personality, a good disciplinarian of the right type, and a keen judge of what constitutes the right amount of work to expect from a child in a given unit of time. Consequently, the success that is likely to make the adoption of the Plan in any rural school will always be directly proportionate to the capacity and skill of the teacher who introduces it. As in every phase of life and work, it is the personal factor ultimately that counts.
CHAPTER V.
THE RURAL SCHOOL AND THE PROJECT METHOD.

Most teachers are hard to please in the matter of pupils' textbooks. What suits one teacher often meets with disapproval from another, and the objections raised take many forms. In general, the criticisms that are passed are well deserved: for, too often, writers of textbooks have looked more to stating academic facts or to grading series of somewhat conventional "examples" than to presenting pupils with problems of immediate interest. Almost any ordinary textbook on arithmetic will be found to contain "examples" of the kind to which I refer—examples that only remotely touch on the work of everyday life. The ideal textbook is not hard to define. It should cover a definite syllabus of work. The methods used and advocated in it should conform in all essentials to the best pedagogical principles, and the matter (the examples, for instance) should be that suited to the child and his environment. What is true in connexion with the compiling of pupils' textbooks is true also of teaching-method in general. The subjects of the curriculum should be dealt with not artificially but naturally; the treatment given should have a practical bias. In other words, arithmetic, history, geography should be treated not as mere school subjects, but as materials of education to be used in solving the actual problems of life. This implies that the problem should become the matter of primary consideration, the knowledge necessary for reaching a solution of it being of secondary importance. To the ordinary teacher, this mode of procedure looks like "putting the cart before the horse." This is not so, however. As Sir John Adams points out, the modern tendency in
education is to make the child the central factor in the work of the school, a procedure that gives the human element precedence over curricula. Carried to its logical conclusion, this means that each school should be responsible for its own syllabus of work. This is precisely the basis of the project method, the working of which may be best understood by the perusal of such a book as Collings’s *An Experiment with a Project Curriculum*.

Everything about the project method is of deep interest to educationists. The method itself is the practical outcome of the teachings of John Dewey. Its ablest exponent to-day, Professor Kilpatrick, has absorbed Dewey’s philosophy, and is imbued with the spirit and faith of his teacher. In his preface to Collings’s book, Kilpatrick says:—“Professor Collings did not teach ‘subjects’ as these are commonly understood. The actual aims of his school were not the conventional knowledge or skill, but the bettering of the present child life of his pupils. His starting-point accordingly was the actual present life of the boys and girls themselves, with all their interests and desires, good and bad. His first step forward was to help guide these children to choose the most interesting and fruitful parts of this life as the content of their school activity. Following this, his aim was twofold, first to help the boys and girls do better than they otherwise would the precise things they had chosen, and second, by means of the experience of choosing and through the experience of more effectual activity, gradually to broaden the outlook of the boys and girls as to what they might further choose, and then to help them better effect these new choices.”

It will be seen from this that the project method tends to sweep away the idea of a conventional curriculum. It implies the necessity for organic connexion between school and community, and it aims to replace artificiality with reality of instruction. It is not intended here either to restate Dewey’s teaching or to defend the philo-

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1. Published by the Macmillan Company.
Sophie basis of project teaching—readers who wish information on these points should turn to the writings of Dewey and Kilpatrick—therefore, we shall limit the purpose before us to a discussion of the place of project work in the rural school.

The problem before us is capable of solution along two distinct lines. Where teachers have the necessary freedom of choice in the matter of curricular activity, as is largely the case in England and America, it rests with them to what extent they introduce project teaching into their schools. Only a good teacher, it would seem, or at any rate one with some vision and enthusiasm, should adopt the method in its entirety. Only teachers with a strong sense of responsibility and no little acumen are likely to achieve success by so doing. Rarely, however, will a teacher make a deep plunge into a new educational venture without taking his bearings and viewing the situation from different angles. Local authorities are usually very critical of innovations in teaching; hence, at present, it is not at all likely that the project method would be adopted in toto in many schools in Australia.

Let us now see what a thorough adoption of the method would imply in the matter of curriculum and teaching. We shall begin by formulating a working definition of the term “project.” Charters defines a project as “an act carried to completion in its natural setting and involving the solution of a relatively complex problem.” Kilpatrick’s definition—quite as comprehensive, but perhaps not so simply stated as Charters’s—reads thus:—“A whole-hearted, purposeful activity proceeding in a social environment, or, more briefly . . . the unit element of such activity, the hearty, purposeful act.”

A study of Collings’s experimental school curriculum and its working will show that, in subdividing his pupils, he followed what he distinguishes as a “Three-group Program,” his groups being known as “First
Group,” “Second Group” and “Third Group” respectively. In a typical rural school, Group I. would include pupils from six to about nine years of age. Children between about nine and eleven would constitute Group II., whilst those over eleven would form Group III. The projects themselves were divided into four main classes—excursion projects, hand projects, play projects, and story projects. Compared with the time-table of any ordinary rural school, the project time-table is a very simple affair. All that is necessary is to have the three groups carrying out their four different kinds of project work at appointed times. A copy of Collings’s daily program of studies is given:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>First Group</th>
<th>Second Group</th>
<th>Third Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9.30 - 10.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.00 - 10.30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.55 - 11.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.20 - 11.45</td>
<td>Noonday Luncheon.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.45 - 12.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.15 - 1.15</td>
<td>Playground Games.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.40 - 2.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.05 - 2.30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.30 - 3.00</td>
<td>Excursion Projects.</td>
<td>Excursion Projects.</td>
<td>Excursion Projects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.00 - 3.30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.30 - 4.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It may not be inapposite here to refute a statement made by Collings in support of his departure from the ordinary grouping according to grades or classes. He maintains that his experimentation “has revealed two facts fundamental to the organization of the one-teacher school. First, the grade organization patterned after the city school is an impossible organization. Its provision for about twenty-five different classes per day makes it absolutely impossible for the most efficient teacher to do real teaching. The eight grade-groupings practically prohibit the growth of many of the social traits of boys and girls, since many of these groups have no more than two or three children. It reduces the school, as the writer sees it, to an artificial, individualistic procedure instead of providing for natural, social participation. Second, the mental, social, and interest factors are the fundamental points to consider in grouping children of the one-room country school. Similarity of mental abilities should be one of the guiding principles. Provision for sufficient number of children in each group to ensure natural, social participation should be another. A third principle of fundamental importance is similarity of the interests of boys and girls.” That the first “fact” does not hold good for the Australian rural school has been repeatedly proved by the high grade of efficiency that, in general, has characterized the work of Australian rural teachers. “Facts” two and three may be accepted without demur; but there is nothing in the present organization of the Australian rural school out of harmony with the practice posited by an acceptance of such “facts.” Collings holds that his plan represents “an attempt to group children on a natural basis.” This is certainly a laudable aim, but it would not be difficult to prove that there is nothing unnatural about the existing means of grouping pupils in Australian rural schools. To some extent, we have deviated from the main topic, but we have digressed for a purpose. We wish to show at the outset that the introduction of project work into the ordinary Australian school must be justified on other grounds.
A survey of the work accomplished under Professor Collings's supervision is most interesting and highly instructive. The number of projects carried out during the four years of experimentation, the care devoted to all recorded work, the wide scope of the activities undertaken by pupils, and the interest they undoubtedly manifested in the performance of their tasks, all attest the value of the experiment as an excellent piece of pioneering work. A condensed account of a typical excursion project will give readers some idea of the method of procedure that characterized this type of work:

MRS. MURPHY’S SUNFLOWERS.

1. The Visit to Mrs. Murphy’s Sunflowers.—As the result of a discussion among several of the boys, it was decided to take steps towards finding out why Mrs. Murphy grew sunflowers along the rear end of her vegetable garden. A visit was planned in order to clear up the two following points:

(a) Why the sunflowers were grown in that particular part of her garden.
(b) How Mrs. Murphy’s sunflowers differed from other flowers.

2. Result of the Visit.—As was agreed upon, the pupils of the First Group interviewed Mrs. Murphy and discussed with her the immediate purpose of their visit. They questioned her freely and the answers given satisfied them in respect to the points they had raised.

3. The Report of the Visit.—On the return from their interview, pupils had occasion to consult reference books in connexion with the cultivation, uses, etc., of the sunflower. One boy expressed his intention of growing some sunflowers at home during the next spring. Each pupil entered in his book a full account of what he

3. For a full account of the working out of this project, see Collings, An Experiment with a Project Curriculum, p. 50.

3a. Reprinted by permission of the Macmillan Company and McMillan and Co. Ltd.
had learnt about the flower in question, this account being accompanied where necessary by suitable drawings.

4. Associated Project.—Arising from this study, another project was proposed, namely, “How does Mrs. Murphy’s sunflower differ from the wild sunflower?”

Kilpatrick asserts that Collings’s experiment will provide a topic for pointed discussion amongst teachers. It will. Perhaps the first thing a practical teacher will want to know is “To what extent does project work give pupils the necessary grounding in the essentials of formal knowledge, in the mastering of the ability to read, write, and use figures intelligently”? How are “tables” learnt under the system? In “reading,” are intelligibility and pleasantness of delivery more easily secured through project work than they are when the subject is taught in the traditional way? Do “spelling” and “writing” present fewer difficulties than formerly? And, finally, “Does project teaching result in pupils attaining a requisite degree of accuracy in computation and showing adequate orderliness of arrangement in all arithmetical work?”

For the experiment in project work carried out under the supervision of Collings, three rural schools were selected, one being termed the Experimental School, the other two being known as the Control Schools. To all three schools recognized tests of attainment in the following subjects were given at the end of the four years’ period:—

1. Penmanship quality.
2. Written composition.
3. Spelling accuracy.
5. Geographical information.
6. Reading comprehension.
7. Addition accuracy.
8. Multiplication accuracy.
9. Subtraction accuracy.
10. Division accuracy.
On the whole, the records show that the results of the tests were decidedly in favor of project teaching. A comparison of median scores for the fifth grade is given:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Control School</th>
<th>Experimental School</th>
<th>Difference in median scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Penmanship</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Composition</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>51.0</td>
<td>62.0</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American History</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>82.0</td>
<td>54.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>46.0</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addition</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subtraction</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiplication</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Division</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One further point made by Collings strengthens the case in favor of project teaching: “The traditional subjects were not taught, as such, to the boys and girls of the Experimental School. The subject matter of these subjects received attention only where it contributed genuinely to a more effective realization of the purpose of boys and girls at the time. The use of number and writing by the First Group of children in keeping scores in playing Roly Poly, the use of percentage by the Second Group of children in expressing the facts of their survey of community diseases... are typical illustrations of the use of subject-matter by boys and girls in realizing their own purposes. Subject-matter used in this fashion plays a very genuine part in the realization of the purposes of boys and girls, and, as such, is of appreciative and immediate value to them.”

Collings makes out a good case for the project method, and one must accept his results as a genuine statement of the matter so far as his observations and records are concerned. At the same time, there can be little doubt

that the time and attention devoted to several of the projects hardly appear to be justified. "Making Cocoa for the School Luncheon," a project of the Second Group, would appear to be peculiarly open to criticism in this respect. However, in the face of the recorded results, not only of Collings but of other experimentalists in the same field of activity, it would seem only fair to assert that, where teachers have the necessary freedom in drawing up their own curriculum, they should find in the project method a sure means of giving vitality and of lending interest to the school work generally.

It was stated at the outset that the advisableness of introducing the project method into the school might be considered from two standpoints. What has been said so far has reference to the case of a teacher who is more or less free to work out his own curriculum. We have now to consider what place there is for project teaching under conditions such as exist in most of the Australian rural schools at the present time, where the teacher is not free to depart from a prescribed syllabus of work. In this case, the teacher's duty is very clear. He must educate his pupils, giving them sound instruction in the fundamentals of elementary knowledge, and using as subject-media for his work the topics set out in the aforementioned syllabus or course of study. Under these conditions, it might seem that the scope of the teacher's work was unduly limited, that, in the execution of his appointed task, he was given little opportunity of drawing upon his powers of initiative or originality. But this is not so, for the teacher is left free in one important respect—he can please himself as to the manner in which he deals with the prescribed course of study. In other words, his program of work is set for him, his method of procedure is his own. Thus, the Victorian teacher must teach his third-grade pupils "the four simple rules, multiplier and divisor not to exceed 12, etc."; in geography, he must acquaint

---
them with “Australia and its divisions”; and in history he must deal with stories of men and women who performed notable deeds, such as “Leonidas, the Spartan, and his Men,” “Regulus, the Roman General,” and the like. How, then, will he deal with these topics? In the case of the first two subjects, he may proceed along demonstrative or heuristic lines; in the case of the history topics, the narrative method will most likely be used. In any case his choice of method is not at all confined: he is thus enabled to apply a selective process in regard to his mode of dealing with subject-matter. Any method, however, is satisfactory only to the extent that it evokes pupils’ interest and induces their active participation in the work done. These conditions—tests of a true method of teaching—are not new to education: they are as old as life itself, and there is little likelihood that they will not long remain the surest criteria by which teachers can judge their work. The appositeness of this statement to the matter under discussion becomes apparent when it is realized that these conditions would seem to be met particularly well by the project method. Hence, in dealing with the various topics prescribed for treatment, a rural-school teacher may well turn to project work when he deems such a course expedient. This qualification does not mean that he should use the project in any casual manner, or that the service it renders should be of that adjunctory kind that often characterizes the adoption of contrivance or makeshift. The rural-school teacher may use the project method in his school with a twofold purpose in view. First, a project may take the form of application work, in which case it can serve the important additional function of giving reality to what has been learnt. Or the project may be the means used to introduce pupils to some practical problem, the solution of which is arrived at only when the project has been carried to a successful completion. As an example of the applicative use of a project, let us take the case of an arithmetic lesson on “the carpeting of a room.” Here the actual learning of the rule to be followed may
be the outcome of heuristic teaching. The school floor, or the master’s table, may be covered with paper previously rolled by the teacher or the pupils to represent carpet. As the paper is unrolled and the floor-space covered, pupils perceive the real nature of the procedure, and are thus led to see how the required length of carpet may be calculated. Their observations of the interiors of their own homes should acquaint pupils with the fact that the floor-space of a room is not always completely covered with carpet or linoleum. A stained border may surround a carpet or a congoleum square. Thus the matter of “carpeting” a room may be approached from several sides. Ultimately, pupils should show that they are capable of dealing with simple problems in connexion with the “carpeting” of rooms. They will then enjoy a project, one, for example, that will require them to draw the plan of a four or a five-roomed house, showing the floors “carpeted” in a certain approved fashion. To find the cost of such “carpeting,” pupils may be set to consult an up-to-date catalogue of some furnishing company. Their parents should be appealed to for guidance in the matter of kind and style of carpet or linoleum. In short, all the information gleaned should be of the best practical kind. Carried out in this way, a project lends reality to the preliminary teaching, and gives pupils a practical outlook on their school work. In the same way, a first lesson on “easy application of graphs” to Grade VIII. should ultimate in a project such as, “A Melbourne furnishing company advertises the following rates at which furniture may be bought by monthly payment:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value of Furniture</th>
<th>£10</th>
<th>£20</th>
<th>£50</th>
<th>£75</th>
<th>£100</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Monthly payment</td>
<td>8s.</td>
<td>14s.</td>
<td>35s.</td>
<td>55s.</td>
<td>70s.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What monthly payment should secure furniture to the value of (1) £30, (2) £40, (3) £80?”
It is not difficult to find projects that at the very outset introduce pupils to the practical work before them. As an example let us take the case of an excursion project:

(a) Two boys interested in shearing acknowledge that they would like to find out all they can about the matter. It is known that, during the next week, shearing will be commenced at a near-by farm. One boy suggests that, in order to observe the whole process, they obtain permission to visit this farm during shearing operations. Preparatory to the visit, there is a certain amount of information to be gained, and the teacher aids the interested pupils in obtaining this. He suggests what can be found out from books, magazines, and the like, and then leaves pupils to undertake the necessary reading for themselves.

(b) The next step is the visit to the farm. Pupils have an idea what to look for, and, as they watch the shearsers at work, they note the method of shearing, and the manner in which the fleeces are disposed of. Where it is deemed necessary, questions are put to those who have time to give the required information. An hour spent in this way will give pupils a knowledge of the shearing process that no amount of reading could alone supply.

(c) On his return to the school, each pupil should prepare a report on the visit. The account should be very carefully set out, and should be accompanied, where necessary, by suitable diagrams. Further, those having first-hand information on the shearing process should now be prepared to describe their experiences—Littleman-lecture fashion—and to discuss fully what they have learnt from their visit.

(d) To complete the project, it would be necessary for pupils to obtain reliable information in regard to the handling of a season’s wool.
clip. They might be fortunate enough to see a good moving picture that supplied all details, from the arrival of the bales of wool at Geelong to their shipment from Australia or removal to a local town or city where woollen goods are manufactured. What cannot be obtained in this way or through first-hand information may be gleaned from suitable books, magazines, or the like.

Other examples of this type of project are "Mrs. Murphy's Sunflowers" as recorded by Collings, and "The Mystery of the Marie Céleste" as treated under "Composition" in the author's work Technique and Principles of Teaching.

How far project work of this kind justifies its introduction into rural-school teaching is a matter that depends ultimately upon the individual teacher. There can be little doubt about the efficacy of the method where it is applied with due regard to economy of time and directness of purpose. At any rate, to the up-to-date teacher project work should be more than an interesting phase of school method: it should be given the attention it deserves as perhaps the most important means of socializing the curriculum. Bagley's view that "it contains much that is both new and old" should be sufficient to interest all grades and kinds of teachers in the value of project work. Finally, no method that helps to socialize the work of the school should be ignored, for the greatest student of educational problems to-day, John Dewey, has built up his philosophy of education on the basis of universal socialization:—

"In order that the child may become, with increasing years, a more efficient citizen and man who can render more and more aid to the State, he needs to be trained so as to develop to the best advantage all his powers, physical, mental, moral, and religious, and then to devote them to the service of society." The following quotation will serve to add concreteness to the same point of view:

"To do this means to make each one of our schools an embryonic community life, active with types of occupations that reflect the life of the larger society, and permeated throughout with the spirit of art, history, and science. When the school introduces and trains each child of society into membership within such a little community, saturating him with the spirit of service, and providing him with the instruments of effective self-direction, we shall have the deepest and best guarantee of a larger society which is worthy, lovely, and harmonious."

Closely allied to the project is what is termed the home project. As the name implies, a home project is concerned primarily with the carrying out by pupils of some experimental work at home and under the impulse of individual interest and effort. Since the child’s effort takes root in the home life, the results of such work can be measured in terms of economic value as well as of individual development. In carrying through his project, the child must draw upon his own interest, enthusiasm, intelligence, and his own sense of responsibility. This cannot but widen his outlook; help to make him practical, efficient, and careful; and show him the value of sustained effort. The following details of a dairying project carried out at a Victorian rural school will indicate both the nature of the work and the care with which it was carried out:—

Each pupil who undertook the project selected from his father’s herd a cow certified to be sound by the local dairy inspector. During the period of the test, the pupil milked this cow night and morning. The milk was weighed, the results of the weighing were recorded twice daily, and a test was taken weekly at the local butter-factory. The pupils’ notebook entries showed the following:—

1. Each month’s record of the weight of milk, the results of the tests, and the yield and market value of the butter-fat.

7. John Dewey, in The School and Society, p. 44.
2. A summary of the work done in the fodder plot, together with any observations thereon which might be deemed worthy of inclusion.

The tabulated results of the test were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Days occupied with the Test</th>
<th>182</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I.C.</td>
<td>4480</td>
<td>5.41.</td>
<td>242.78.</td>
<td>£30 8 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.B.</td>
<td>4306½</td>
<td>5.15.</td>
<td>222.14.</td>
<td>£28 1 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C.W.</td>
<td>4631</td>
<td>4.7.</td>
<td>217.72.</td>
<td>£27 7 9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The marks allotted by a competent adjudicator were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Production</th>
<th>Record-book</th>
<th>Composition</th>
<th>Fodder Plot</th>
<th>Total Marks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maximum marks obtainable</td>
<td>75.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I.C.</td>
<td>60.7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.B.</td>
<td>55.5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C.W.</td>
<td>54.4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In carrying out a project of this type, the pupil is exercising his mind in a number of directions. He learns the value of keeping records, and he puts his knowledge of English and arithmetic to practical use. In what is done, English, arithmetic, and agriculture are closely correlated throughout. To sum up:

In this country there is much pioneering work to be done by teachers in connexion with both projects and home projects. If the work is as valuable as leading American educationists would have us believe, there can be little doubt that due recognition will be given to those who undertake it. In any case, teachers who contemplate introducing the project method in the rural school are recommended to undertake it.

8. The information in regard to this project was supplied by Mr. J. E. Hall, whose pupils carried out the dairying project at Won Wron School, Victoria.
school can rest assured that the scheme is a workable one. To be sure, its adoption means added work for them, but every good teacher knows that his power of organization is seen to best advantage when he is following such processes of education as lead to the natural development of the child. Natural, not artificial, methods are the fundamental element in socializing the curriculum. "When nature and society can live in the schoolroom, when the forms and tools of learning are subordinated to the substance of experience, then shall there be an opportunity for this identification (in which the life that the individual lives is informed with the life of nature and of society), and culture shall be the democratic password."  

CHAPTER VI.
THE RURAL SCHOOL AND ITS LIBRARY.

"In order to obtain the rich disciplinary value of reading, much of the instruction in the subject must consist in teaching the effective use of the library."

"A school without an easily accessible library of at least a thousand volumes is really scarcely a school at all—it is a dispensary with bottles, a kitchen without a pantry."

How many of our rural schools would Mr. Wells class as efficient in the full sense of the term? Since statistics are not to hand, we cannot answer; but we should hope that most of them are well on the road to efficiency so far as the school library is concerned. Certainly, most rural schools have made a start in this matter. In the States, almost every school either has a library of its own or the means of getting one, towards the maintenance of which a special grant is made, or is associated with a public library from which it draws a supply of literature from time to time. The following extracts will serve both to substantiate and to supplement this statement:

"The qualified school electors at any annual or special meeting may do the following things:

Establish a school library. As soon as a majority vote in favor of a district library, the school board should notify the township clerk and receive its share of the township library if there are any such books. It should receive its share of the penal fines paid into the county treasury. It does not cost the district a cent to establish a library . . . ."

1. E. Morris Miller, Libraries and Education.
3. The reference is to a "district meeting."
“A separate department for children has existed in the Boston Public Library since 1895. It occupies two rooms, one for recreative reading and the other for study, both furnished with low tables, chairs, and bookcases. Children over the age of ten years can be card-holders and may draw two books at a time. In the reference room, lessons are studied, compositions written, and other preparations for school are done. One feature of the room which is constantly proving its value is the collection of textbooks used in the Boston public schools. Teachers are invited to come to the Library with classes and themselves to give instruction or make use of books reserved for them as they may request."

The former extract was drawn from a digest of the School Laws of Michigan (1921); the latter is part of the evidence submitted before the Moseley Commission. An article published in Educational Foundations of June, 1901, shows that the co-operation of library and school was a subject that for some time past had been seriously engaging the attention of American educators.

To the rural school in particular, a library is an indispensable part of the school equipment. People in country districts have to acquire much of their information concerning the outside world through books and newspapers. To such people, exchange of ideas in the ordinary way is not so common as it is with city-dwellers. As in the socialization of rural life the library plays an important part, so, too, in the rural school the library is an informing and unifying agency. In reading the same books, pupils are given the same sidelights on various topics of interest, and a discussion of the contents of these books is one means of securing that interchange of experiences which makes for true social progress. A good library should contain, it is said, at least a thousand volumes. It does not follow, however, that a thousand volumes constitutes a good library. No library can be classed as efficient which does not cater

4. The article is entitled “Library and School” and was written by A. L. Peck, Librarian, Gloversville, N.Y.
for its readers in the best interests both of good literature and of individual taste in reading. Further, the school library that fails to recognize the pupils’ home reading as part of the general scheme of self-education is falling short in one of its main purposes.

The experience of most teachers would support the view that, on the whole, pupils of a rural school make greater demands on their library than do the pupils of the city schools on theirs. This is an additional reason why the library of the rural school should be capable of realizing its serviceableness to the fullest extent. The very nature of rural-school work tends to make children readers, for it gives them the right attitude towards discovering things for themselves. In other words, they have to depend so much on what they get through books that their method of procedure is closely allied to Dalton Plan work. They learn how to use books, and, as a result, are better able to enjoy those that they read for pleasure. At the free-reading time, the call upon the library is most noticeable, whilst pupils not infrequently turn to reading during their free-period. Again, curricular subjects, the treatment of which is supplemented by reference to books, assuredly gain in interest and meaning to the child, for it is through books that sidelights are thrown on to the history topic and the geography lesson. Finally, when a library is able to cater for the needs of its pupils, the desire engendered in them by the enjoyment of certain selected passages in their school reader reaches fruition without delay. Just as, with seniors, the reading of “The Parson’s Battle” induces a wish to read the whole of Bubble Fortune, so the reading of a passage from Ivanhoe or from Westward Ho implants in the pupil a desire to read the whole book. It is of prime importance that books of this type are readily accessible to the pupils who are thus prepared to read them. Then, no library is complete unless it contains a minimum number of books of reference. These are as much a necessity in the school as are the more

5. By Gilbert Sheldon
advanced type of reference books in the shelves of the public libraries. It is only through the use of such informational works that library and school are able to co-operate to the full extent in the work of education. We may conclude this section of the chapter by affirming that it is only when the books of a school library are being freely circulated, reaching every pupil and every home, that the library is fulfilling its purpose.

Thus far we have discussed the library as an organic part of the school equipment. Let us now see what this implies in the matter of enriching the cultural and intellectual side of school life. To function adequately, a school library requires to be at the service of pupils who know how to use it; consequently, what the library can do and be depends largely on how the teacher regards it, and in what manner he has trained his pupils to use it. A good teacher, being well informed about the school curriculum, chooses certain books that are suitable for collateral reading in connexion with school work; further, in his treatment of a topic he knows what to leave pupils to find out for themselves. The library and the way in which he sets pupils to use it do the rest. Such a method of procedure in connexion with any school subject must be followed with the utmost care; for, if children are discouraged in their efforts to gain the necessary information, more harm than good may be done. What pupils are set to find out for themselves should be such as can be gleaned from reference books and the like without undue difficulty. If a teacher trains his pupils properly in the use of such books, they will soon acquire the practice of turning freely towards the library for information on matters of general as well as of special interest. Amongst the reference books in a good school library should be numbered the following volumes:

Cassell’s *New English Dictionary*, or *The Concise Oxford*.
Whittaker’s *Almanac*, or *Hazell’s Annual Cyclopaedia*. 
On the side of general reading, it would seem that the school library can exert a most profound influence. This statement is not unreservedly accepted, for there are teachers who hold that readers—like poets—are born, not made. Such teachers believe that with certain pupils no amount of encouragement can induce a desire for free reading, whilst with other pupils nothing short of a complete lack of reading-matter can prevent their turning to books at every available opportunity. Let us analyse the situation and see if this view is wholly defensible. We know that most pupils at about the age of six are intensely interested in fairy stories, myths, and the like. What is it in these stories that wins the child's approbation? Is it not that the story centers on some phase of the life history and action of real or imagined personalities? But these stories, well told, constitute literature, oral literature; consequently, in liking the story as it is told, the child is showing, in a sense, his liking for literature. From the age of about ten years and onwards pupils display great interest in tales of adventure. This is the stage at which boys develop a liking for the “Buffalo Bill,” the “Robin Hood,” the “Sexton Blake,” and the like. The girls' taste for adventure books would appear to be positive but less pronounced, such books as The Young Marooners, Red Feather, and Coral Island, in this case supplying the necessary delight in action and exploit. What is it that makes the appeal in these cases? Is it not that the boy or girl is interested in action that satisfies his
or her own youthful conception of what is heroic or cowardly or base? In the main the books that are read at this period of a child's growth are almost fiercely moral. They uphold right in every way, and the emotions they call forth in the reader's breast are anything but base. Thus far the discussion has carried us to the point where we may aver that most pupils in the elementary school are interested in the life-stories and actions of real or imagined personalities.

Now, whilst it may be admitted that there will always be some pupils in nearly every school who would seem to be temperamentally unfitted for enjoying reading, it is clear that the majority of pupils are ready to respond to the teacher's efforts in this direction. Knowing that these pupils are interested in action and deeds of noble worth, the teacher should endeavor to sustain this interest. He should tell his junior pupils good stories and should take pains to tell them well. In fact, at no stage of the pupils' work should the telling of stories be wholly omitted from the course. The teacher's aim should be to pass gradually from the oral narration to developing in pupils an interest in the written account. It is not difficult in this way to reach the point where children of eleven and twelve are eager to read *Treasure Island*, *Robinson Crusoe*, and *Tom Sawyer*. It is not too much to say that pupils in reading such books give practically no thought at all to the form in which the matter is presented. They are not prone to question the author's mode of writing. That they understand and enjoy what they read is enough. The content—the story and its development—is what holds their attention. Now it is at this stage that the teacher can insinuate his influence. He can bring pupils into touch with literature in which attention is paid to style, language, and expression. He can, quite incidentally, show the superiority of *Treasure Island* over *Buffalo Bill's Daring Deed*, and, when this is once done effectively, a pupil has taken his first stride towards a real preference for good literature in general and good books in particular. What we have endeavored to prove
in this discussion is that the process outlined in leading pupils to appreciate good, well-told stories is nothing more than the careful bridging of successive gaps. If these are bridged properly—in the right way, and at the appropriate time—the teacher will have gone far towards developing in pupils a genuine liking for reading. Naturally, where the bridging is carried out in a half-hearted or perfunctory manner, there will be anything but satisfactory results. Thus, the teacher can play no small part in awakening in pupils a delight for reading. “Children do not naturally take to reading; their native bent for amusement finds an outlet more freely in the active movements of play; and educationists encourage this spontaneous outflow of spirit to a large degree; for, by means of the external expression of inward feelings, children may be led to realize the rhythm of song and ballad, the charmed symmetry of the dance, and the fascinations of heroic story, myth, or fable. Reading comes as a result of educative influence. The cultivation of the imagination in outdoor exercises, and the awakening of responses in the child to the call of nature, in field and garden, prepare the desire for acquaintance with written expression of these things. Reading is rather a cultural acquisition than a mental heritage, and the sources through which the mind inclines toward desirable material are therefore factors of highest moment.”

Having digressed to prove the positive nature of a teacher’s influence in imbuing pupils with a liking for reading, we shall resume the discussion on the school library. To achieve its aim it is clear that the school library must be looked upon with favor by pupils. Should they turn to it without enthusiasm as to something that is “of the school” in the narrowest sense of the term, then indeed is it a mere collection of books more or less remote from the conscious interests of pupils. On the other hand, where the needs of individual children are studied, and, as far as possible, satisfied by the books they read, then the library makes a

voluntary appeal, and is on the right way towards realizing its function as an important educational agency. In choosing a collection of books for a school library, two things should be kept in view by the teacher. He should endeavor to cater for the individual tastes of his pupils as regards reading-matter and for the welfare of readers as regards the style of type. It will be found, too, that a teacher needs to be familiar with the contents of the school library in more ways than one. This is necessary if he is to advise pupils in their choice of reading-matter. Finally, we might almost say that the whole secret of success in inducing pupils to read library books is to have books at once interesting enough and simple enough to suit the different readers. There is only a limited appeal in books of a purely informative type; consequently such books, while essential to the library, should form but a small part of it. On the other hand, books of an inspirational kind should form the bulk of the reading matter. Therefore, most of the books in the school library will be novels—fictional stories told in prose—and amongst the kinds that may be expected to make a definite appeal to the youthful reader are the historical novel, the pure romance, the picturesque novel, and the novel of common life. The first and most essential thing in these books is the story. That in itself should make an irresistible appeal. If the child is once interested in the story, slight difficulties of language are hardly likely to deter him. We have endeavored to stress the fact that the teacher’s choice of reading matter for his school library is by no means an unimportant affair. It remains to be added that there should be a place in every children’s library for the many interesting books that, since their first appearance, have been read, and enjoyed, and re-read by boys and girls. With regard to the kinds of books that should be included in such a selection as we have in mind, we cannot do better to clinch the argument than submit the following list:
Informational Works—
The Children’s Encyclopædia.
The Children’s Treasure House.
The Children’s Book of Wonder.

Books of Adventure, Wonder Tales, School Stories, and the Like—
Ivanhoe.
Treasure Island.
Tom Brown’s Schooldays.
Kidnapped.
Two Scapegraces.
Robinson Crusoe.
Silas Marner.
Last of the Mohicans.
The White Company.
Micah Clarke.
Conquest of Mexico.
Conquest of Peru.
Harold.
The Heroes (Kingsley).
The Jungle Book.
Puck of Pook’s Hill.
Geoffrey Hamlyn.

Girls—
The Daisy Chain.
Heir of Redclyffe.
The Lamplighter.
Wives and Daughters.
Little Women.
Seven Little Australians.

Juniors—
Alice in Wonderland.
Through the Looking-glass.
Grimm’s Fairy Tales.
Verse—
Palgrave’s *Golden Treasury*.
Quiller-Couch—The *Oxford Book of English Verse*.
*Britannia Book of Poetry* (Edward Arnold).
*A First Book of Modern Poetry* (Macmillan & Co.).
*The Golden Book of Narrative Verse* (Blackie & Sons).
*Poems of To-day*.
*Cassell’s Select Poetry Books*.
*Nelson’s Literature Practice*.
*Children’s First Book of Poetry* (Blake).
*Longfellow’s Poems*.
*Golden Treasury of Australian Verse*.
*A Child’s Garland of Verses* (Stevenson).

This list is not meant to be either comprehensive or exclusive. It merely suggests the type of literature that would seem to be suitable for inclusion in a library designed to appeal to the normal boy or girl.

It must not be forgotten that the reading done in school hours should react on the pupil’s reading activity out of school. Consequently, he should be encouraged to use free libraries where these are accessible. A teacher may be rightly expected to advise his pupils as to the kinds of books they should elect to read. Further, he should be sufficiently interested in their intellectual activities to find out what use pupils actually make of the books they choose. In this respect, however, his inquiries should on no account be of a censorious nature; they should be prompted by a spontaneous interest in pupils’ reading, and a genuine desire to help them further towards satisfying their liking for it.

Since the aim of this discussion is to indicate in a general way the function of school libraries and reading, we have purposely refrained from dealing with methods of cataloguing and of classification. Teachers who require information on these matters should procure a copy of *Sayers’s Children’s Library* and of *Richardson’s Classification*, in both of which they will get valuable information. Finally, the rural-school teacher who
is interested in library organization cannot do better than read *Libraries and Education*, by Dr. E. Morris Miller. It might seem that in this chapter little more is done than merely to introduce the subject of school libraries. This is so. The subject, besides being inexhaustible, is one that in a general way can only be lightly touched upon; for each school must work out its own solution of the library problem. It is with the hope of helping towards this end that the chapter is included.
CHAPTER VII.
THE RURAL SCHOOL AND CERTAIN ASPECTS OF CONSOLIDATION.

It is admittedly no exaggeration to say that the rural school has been, and still is, one of the best features of the Australian educational system. That this is so is largely due to the fact that there is no line of demarcation in regard to either status or function between the rural teacher and the teacher in the town or city school. Both are members of the one service—the State Teachers Service—and are subject to one set of official regulations. The work of each lies in the elementary school and is concerned with a common syllabus of study. Finally, the avenue to promotion is open to all elementary teachers alike. Almost invariably the town or city teacher has had to spend some time in a one-teacher school, and, the more successful is his work in this connexion, the more efficient does he usually show himself as a class-teacher in the larger type of school. In fact, amongst the higher officers of the Education Department of each Australian State, it would be difficult to find one who is without first-hand knowledge of the more important features of rural-school work. The success that has marked rural-school teaching in Australia stands in strong contrast with the quality of the work that, in the past, has so often characterized the American one-teacher school. In the one case, the schools are organized in a way that puts at their service a good type of teacher; in the other, the teacher is more or less an unknown quantity. The Australian rural teacher generally goes out well equipped for his work, and he attacks it with skill and enthusiasm. It is to him part—and a most important part, too—of his lifework. During his rural-school period, he cannot afford
to let himself drift even for a short time, for the system
of which he is a unit takes cognizance of his first efforts
and appraises them in a way that may react on his
chance of promotion at a subsequent date. He may or
he may not like country life, but this need not materially
affect his work. Of course, the more a teacher likes his
surroundings and the conditions under which he is
working, the better the results are likely to be; but,
if he is keen and able, he no doubt finds in his work the
necessary compensation to whatever may be uncongenial
about the situation. At any rate, the fact remains
that up to the present the Australian one-teacher schools
have reflected credit on the system of which they form
part. The American one-teacher schools have been dis-
cussed in Chapter III. Generally the teachers of these
schools are women, and young women at that. They no
doubt bring to their allotted tasks the enthusiasm of
youth; but it is the enthusiasm that marks one’s entry
upon his or her life-work that is one’s most valuable
asset. It is the latter kind of enthusiasm that has meant
so much to the average Australian rural teacher. The
American rural-school teacher, generally with “one-
year” plans, is not part of any but an almost purely local
organization. Where the organization or system is poor,
as it too often is, the work of the one-teacher school is
correspondingly weak. In most part the teacher’s
training is inadequate, and is effected less through any
systematized course of training under skilled teachers
than through attendance at teachers’ institutes. We are
speaking, of course, in a general way, and are not
ignorant of the good work done by such institutions as
the Western State Normal School at Kalamazoo, Michi-
gan, where special emphasis is placed on the training of
teachers for rural schools. Further, whilst the weakness
of the American one-teacher school may be traceable
to the young teacher’s inability to meet the exigencies
of the situation confronting her, it is by no means wholly
due to this. The pupils of these schools are often the
children of very poor parents or of share-farmers who,
like the teacher, have only one-year plans. Again, school
costs in America have steadily increased for a number of years, and the inability of local bodies to meet consequent demands has had a detrimental effect on school work generally. This has been most noticeable in the condition of the schoolhouse itself and of its surroundings, and in the meagre equipment available for teaching purposes. In some cases the necessary appendages (of teaching purposes) for the schoolhouse have comprised little beyond a set of wall-maps, a globe, and a dictionary. Another matter of vital concern to successful teaching is attendance at school. Here, too, the American rural school has suffered in the past; for, in many cases, it was left to qualified school electors at an annual district meeting to fix the length of term. Even where State authorities laid down certain requirements in connexion with a minimal term length, as is generally the case to-day, the condition of affairs with regard to attendance at school was anything but satisfactory.

"All of the States have laws requiring the compulsory attendance at school of all children between certain ages, usually between eight and fourteen. The laws vary widely with regard to length of time that such children shall attend school each year, and they also vary widely in the rigor with which they are enforced. Generally speaking, compulsory-attendance laws throughout the country are well enforced in the large cities; except in a few States the enforcement of these laws in the villages and rural districts is extremely lax."

Thus, through one cause or another, the American one-teacher schools have become a source of concern to their educationists, and the endeavor to apply a remedy to existing defects is seen, in one of its phases, in the determined movement that is being made towards what is called consolidation of schools. Consolidation, as the name implies, is the joining together of two or more districts under one directing authority, with provision for transporting to the central school thus formed pupils who live more than a certain distance from it. It is

claimed for the movement that it results in providing a better type of school building and more approved equipment, and that it gives better grading of pupils. This in turn makes for economy of effort and time on the part of pupils, who thus benefit in two ways. They learn more in a given time, and their learning is both more pleasant and less effortful. Not being isolated to the extent that most one-teacher schools are, the consolidated school is served by teachers with adequate qualifications. Contact with their own kind makes for sociability among the teaching staff, whilst contact with a larger number of children provides the necessary social and cultural atmosphere for the young pupil. Further, the system of consolidation is said to have a very definite effect on irregular attendance of children at school. Other advantages claimed for the system are:

1. An attractive school in the district acts as an inspirational agency: it induces parents to think well of their educational institutions, and it inspires respect for the teaching service generally.
2. The grading of the work ensures a satisfactory division of labor among teachers.
3. It does away with overlapping, and thus makes for economy and concentration of effort in the work of education.
4. It militates against the inequality in capacity among districts to meet a constantly increasing expenditure on education.

To both educationists and parents, consolidation in the States has proved generally acceptable, with the result that not one but several types of consolidated school are now in existence. As classified by Carney² these are:

1. The complete or township type, embracing all the schools of a whole township.
2. The partial type, including but a fractional part of a township.

² Carney, Country Life and the Country School, pp. 149-150.
3. The village or town type, located in a town or village.

4. The country type, by which is meant the consolidated school located in the open country.

Whilst confining ourselves more particularly to the last-named class, we shall endeavor to show the bearing of consolidation on the entire school system of an Australian State.

There is one phase of the consolidation question that we have not yet touched on, namely, transportation of pupils to the central school. The vehicles used for this purpose are of several types, but that mostly used appears to be the motor-bus. On the whole, as far as cheapness, quickness, and general utility are concerned, motor transport gives the greatest satisfaction. Much depends, of course, upon the state of the roads over which pupils have to be conveyed, and it is claimed in favor of consolidation that one of its immediate effects is to hasten the improvement of the roads in a district. Naturally, the responsible authorities are more likely to attend to roads that are used for the transportation of pupils than they are to those that are not put to this use. At any rate, parents are not slow to complain when the state of a road renders conveyance risky or causes unnecessary delay. There are in Victoria, as in the States, country roads that are almost impassable during the depths of winter; but, on the whole, the road problem in the latter country is more difficult of solution than is the case in Victoria. In certain of the American States, the nature of the country is favorable to the easy maintenance of good roads. In such cases, consolidation of schools presents few transportation difficulties. On the other hand, in the hilly and more sparsely-populated parts of several States, those parts in fact that have most to gain from consolidation, the difficulty of transportation, even for ordinary purposes, becomes very acute during winter months. So far as Australia is concerned (that is, those parts to which a practicable scheme of consolidation might be advantageously applied), there seems no reason for an-
participating any insuperable difficulties in connexion with the transportation of pupils. And one need not hesitate to say that here, too, the effect of using roads for conveying pupils to a centralized school would be as influential on the state of roads generally as it has been in America. Should a scheme of consolidation ever be adopted here, it might not be found advisable, particularly in such parts as southern Gippsland or the north-east of Victoria, to use motor transport; but other vehicles suitable for the conveyance of pupils could be used. Further, there is no part of Victoria in which climatic conditions are as severe as in the hilly regions of the northern and north-western American States. In these parts, the vehicles used must be enclosed to keep out rain or snow, and must be provided “with robes and foot-warmers during cold weather.”

So far, we have discussed consolidation in a general way. Incidentally, we have set down some of the advantages claimed for it and several of the difficulties that have to be overcome if it is adopted in rural districts. However, our discussion was throughout more or less relevant to American conditions. Keeping in mind what consolidation means for the States, we shall now proceed to deal with its application to typical Australian, or at least Victorian, conditions. To do this at all adequately, it will be necessary to keep in view from the outset the needs both of the curriculum and of the district as an educational unit. On p. 77 is a rough map of the particular section of the State selected as a suitable unit-district in connexion with the application of a practicable scheme of consolidation.

The key to the map indicates the type of school in each locality, together with its average attendance of pupils. School (H) has a School of Mines, connected with which is a junior technical school. At present the curriculum for all the schools catering for the needs of pupils up to twelve years of age is the same, namely, that prescribed by the Victorian Education Department in its General Course of Study for Elementary Schools,
CONSOLIDATION

KEY
Rural School, Class V.
Rural School, Class IV.
Elementary School.
Attendance over 150.
Higher Elementary School.
High School.
Junior Technical School.
Technical School. Senior.

Rail
Road

Diagram showing the consolidation of rural schools and their relationship to larger educational institutions.
ARITHMETIC AND ELEMENTARY MATHEMATICS.

Middle Department (Third and Fourth Grades).

Grade III.

(a) Practical.—Exercises to find by measurement, or by objects, or by paper-folding, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{12}$ of given numbers or quantities.

Measurement of length with the foot-rule and the yard-measure, for example, the length of the desk, the room, the fence.

To measure liquids with the gallon, quart, and pint measures. Use of the pound and the ounce in weighing. Halves and quarters of quantities found by measurement and by weighing.

To recognize and name the coins in use; their relative values. Dozen and score. Minute, hour, day, week.

(b) Oral and Written.—Revision and extension of the work of previous grades.

To read and write numbers up to 9,999. To know the local and the intrinsic value of digits, singly and in pairs.

The four simple rules, multipliers and divisors not to exceed 12, products and dividends not to exceed 9,999.

Multiplication tables up to 12 times 12, with the correlated division tables. Easy applications of multiplication and division to one-step reduction in the weights and measures learnt, products and dividends not to exceed 99.

Use and application of symbols $+,-, \times, \div, =$.

(c) Mental.—Exercises in concrete quantities based upon the above-mentioned work, leading to operations with abstract numbers.

Grade IV.

(a) Practical.—Measures of length—inch, foot, yard, chain. Ideas of a mile. Measures of weight—ounce, pound, quarter, hundredweight; and of capacity—gallon, quart, pint.
To estimate quantities, and check estimates by measuring and weighing.

Applications of such fractions as $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{5}{8}$ to simple quantities.

(b) Oral and Written.—Revision and extension of the work of previous grades.

Numeration and notation of numbers up to 10,000,00.

The four simple rules—multipliers not to exceed 999, divisors not to exceed 99 (except for verification).

Money tables. The four compound rules restricted to money—multipliers and divisors not to exceed 10. Reduction of pounds, shillings, pence and halfpence.

Easy problems involving not more than two operations.

(c) Mental.—Concrete exercises (limited as indicated above) based upon practical work and upon facts within the range of the experience of the pupils. Easy one-step reduction in weights and measures, and simple shopping transactions. Dozen and score rules.

Notes.—1. In Grade IV. and the lower grades, much attention should be given to imparting a thorough knowledge of the tables, and developing power to compute quickly and accurately.

2. Applied problems set as examination tests in this grade will be restricted to the four simple rules, and no quantity in either question or answer will exceed 1,000.

Upper Department (Fifth and Sixth Grades).

Grade V.

(a) Practical.—Exercises in showing, on strips of paper, on squares, and by other means, simple fractional parts, both vulgar and decimal, the latter limited to tenths and hundredths. To measure rectangular surfaces in order to find areas and perimeters.

(b) Oral and Written.—Revision and extension of the work of previous grades.

Tables of length, area, weight, capacity, and time (see Tables). The four rules and reduction.

Fractional parts, denominator not to exceed 12.

Unitary method.

Bills of parcels. Receipting accounts.
Long tots.
Simple problems involving not more than two operations, including household and shop transactions familiar to the children.

(c) Mental.—Exercises applying the above-mentioned work to transactions within the range of the pupils’ experience.

Rule for the gross. Aliquot parts of £1.

Notes.—1. The oral arithmetic should illustrate processes, and should lead to the written work. Short methods in common use are to be taught.
2. Only oral and practical exercises in area will be required in this grade.

Grade VI.

(a) Practical.—Exercises in operations in the four rules, using only fractions such as halves, thirds, fourths, sixths, eighths, and tenths. Measurement of length and area (rectangles only), for example, the schoolground, the schoolroom, garden plots. Measurement of rectangular objects to find cubical contents.

(b) Oral and Written.—Revision and extension of the work of previous grades.

The four rules and reduction in the prescribed weights and measures, including cubic measure.

Factors and multiples. Easy exercises in H.C.F. and L.C.M.

Extension of decimal notation to quantities less than unity. The four rules in vulgar fractions and terminating decimal fractions. To convert vulgar fractions into decimal fractions, and vice versa.

Application of simple vulgar fractions and decimal fractions to familiar concrete examples.


To set out in fractional form the working of problems. Long tots and cross calculations restricted to money denominations.

Symbols and their use—the bracket, the various signs
expressing division. Easy exercises in mensuration, based on the practical work specified above.

Pupils who attend the schools marked H and N take the same course of study up to Grade VI. as those of any other school irrespective of the size of the latter. The teacher at C is a Fifth-class primary (or elementary-school) teacher with very good literary qualifications; the one at P is a younger man, but a good teacher also. Each of the schools named A, B, C, etc., is good or not according to the type of teacher in charge. School N receives into its "higher elementary" branch, N¹, the qualified pupils of its own, together with those of any neighboring school who care to attend, the entrance qualification in each case being the passing of a Departmental qualifying examination. Such pupils as pass into N¹ proceed with a course of study designed for pupils of a junior secondary school. They undertake a study of English language and literature approached mainly from the side of appreciation, and they pursue a course of mathematics rich in algebra and geometry. They may also commence the learning of a foreign language. At H, a pupil on leaving the elementary school may enter the "High School" (H¹) or the "Junior Technical School" (H²). If he enters the former, his work is of a similar type to that undertaken at school N¹, but he may pursue his studies further. Whereas pupils of N¹ are not taken beyond the Intermediate Certificate standard, those of H¹ may be prepared for the Leaving Certificate examination of the University of Melbourne. H¹ is a secondary school in the full sense of the term, N¹ is but partly one.

As the district schools are organized at present, it would be difficult to apply to their working any elaborate or even very definite scheme of consolidation. As far as instruction is concerned, it may easily happen that school C is more efficient than school N; for, with the exception of the head teacher and the first female assistant, there may be no teacher at the latter school so well qualified or so experienced as the teacher at
C. Further, while the instruction at C is so good, parents may be very loath to send their pupils six or eight miles to N. Consequently, any application of a system of consolidation would have to be a general one, an authorized one, to be at all effective. We have previously stressed the fact that the one-teacher school in Victoria is, on the whole, a very efficient agent of instruction. The problem before us, then, is this. How can we keep the schools A, B, C, etc., as efficient as ever on the side of elementary instruction, and at the same time make it possible for pupils over twelve years of age to enjoy the benefits accruing to consolidation? This is the problem that we shall now attempt to solve.

In the first place, before a modified form of consolidation could be successfully applied to the district, it would be necessary to have approved courses of study for the different types of school concerned. Any danger from overlapping must be guarded against.

In drawing up such courses of study, it would be necessary to keep in view both the loftiest practicable conception of education and the experience of the ages. In particular, a study of the movement in America towards the formation of junior high schools, together with a careful analysis of what information can be gleaned about the working of the system, should prove most valuable to us.

At present, our system of higher education is being cramped by the compulsory Intermediate examination of the University of Melbourne, for the development of the course of study for all pupils in both high schools and higher elementary schools is more or less subject to bias from the working out of the course of study for this examination. It is as wrong, however, to disregard the needs of the few as it is those of the many: hence, whatever course of study is officially adopted in these schools must cater for the needs of pupils who wish to proceed with a university course as well as of those who do not. Keeping in mind the ideas expressed in the foregoing discussion, we cannot do better now than set down what would seem to be the fundamental prin-
principles of a workable scheme in connexion with a suitable course of study.

1. As is the case at present, attendance at the nearest primary (elementary) school should be compulsory for all pupils between the ages of six and twelve years. Each such school should take the course of study as now prescribed for, say, Victorian elementary schools up to and including the work of Grade VI. By the age of twelve, the normal child should have completed the work of the primary school and thus qualified for admission to the central school.

2. On the completion of the work indicated under 1 (above) pupils of schools A, B, C, D, K, L, M, O, P, Q should be enrolled at N, to which center they should be transported daily by the most convenient means. Similarly pupils of E, F, G, I, J, should attend at school H. (Under this scheme, the junior technical school in connexion with H would cease to exist, for the work of H would be planned to embrace all instruction given between the ages of twelve and sixteen. During the years 12-14 the course of study undertaken at N and H should be developed in accordance with the needs of the many, not of the few. Therefore, it should be a course quite independent of anything suggestive of a university intermediate certificate course. It should be organized so as to minister chiefly to the wants of those whose education is not meant to be in any way specialistic. As such, the syllabus of study should develop a course rich in literature and manual training (both studied from the appreciative rather than the formal side), elementary mathematics, including arithmetic, algebra, and geometry, general science, social science, and singing. (For girls sewing to be substituted for manual training and domestic science for general science). On the elective side French and Latin should be included.

3. During the years 14-16, the course of study should
be given a bias to meet the needs of any one of three distinct classes of pupils. There will be those who wish ultimately to proceed with a university course. During these years, therefore, such pupils will undertake work leading up to the academic course of the period 16-18 years. The course of the years 14-16 should include the study of English, of at least one language other than English, of one or more of the sciences, of mathematics, and of manual training.

Another class of pupil may desire to undertake a commercial course. Consequently, the work of these pupils during the years 14-16 should be given enough bias in the desired direction to leave them at the age of sixteen possessed of a practical elementary knowledge of their subject. At the same time, the course at this stage should be so designed as to make it preparatory to the more advanced work undertaken by pupils of commercial classes during the years 16-18.

A third class of pupil may desire to pursue a course of study somewhat similar to that undertaken at present at a technical school. This may be termed a vocational course. During the years 14-16, pupils who elect this course should undertake certain work in English, one or more of the sciences, algebra and geometry. Woodwork (for boys) or cooking, sewing (for girls) should now be given about 8-10 hours’ work a week.

4. During the years 16-18, the students who elect to continue their study should be swung into the full tide of a Leaving Certificate course or a commercial course, or an advanced vocational course. In the case of either the first or the second of these courses, attendance at a high school would be necessary. The advanced vocational course should be pursued at a technical school. From the ages of 12-16 years, pupils would attend whichever was the more convenient center; but, after that period, they would have no option but to attend the
nearest high school or technical school, in this case $H^1$ or $H^2$.

A glance at our map will show the extent of the suggested scheme and its influence on the school organization of the district concerned. Under its operation, pupils of schools A, B, C, D, E, F, etc., would have to remain at their respective schools until they attained the age of twelve years. During this time, they would be taught by ordinary primary (elementary) teachers, and would undertake the work set out in the general course of study for elementary schools up to and including that of the sixth grade. At the age of twelve years, pupils of schools A, B, C, D, K, L, M, O, P, Q would be enrolled at the central school $N^1$. To this school they would be conveyed daily in vehicles provided by the State. Competent drivers would be in charge of these vehicles, and the routes to be followed would be such as gave the best service to the pupils concerned. The teachers at schools $N$ and $H$, like those of schools A, B, etc., would be primary teachers who might not be of a higher class than the latter as regards the teacher’s classified roll. In consequence of the attendance at $N^1$ and $H^1$, and of the status these schools enjoy as the highest educational institutions in the district, they should be in every way fitted for fulfilling their purpose. In appearance, the buildings should be impressive without being unduly ostentatious. Classrooms should be spacious, equipment adequate in every respect, and the general surroundings of the schools as attractive and hygienic as possible. Above all, the teachers of these schools should be picked members of the teaching profession, chosen by virtue of their qualifications to impart instruction and to educate the adolescent. By transporting pupils from the surrounding district to the central school, a means is opened up whereby pupils are provided with a secondary school course. They are given the best as regards instruction, and in addition are free to participate in a school life that is rich both socially and culturally. At $H$, there would

3. $H^2$, of course, ranks with $H^1$ in this respect.
still be three schools, H, H¹ and H²; but whereas H² formerly comprised a junior as well as a senior technical branch, its efforts would now be confined to the latter. Thus, during the years 12-16 pupils of the surrounding district would attend at H¹. On reaching the age of sixteen, those who wished to pursue the senior technical school (vocational) course would transfer to H²; those others, who desired to continue their school studies, would remain at H¹.

On the face of it, the problem in relation to the schools shown on map No. 1 may seem to have been solved altogether too easily and somewhat casually. It may be objected that the distances between the central schools and the other schools concerned are too great, and that the roads to be traversed are not yet good enough to allow the necessary transportations to be carried out satisfactorily. To this one might reply that, if the state of the roads in a district is bad, there is nothing more likely to spur authorities to action in respect to them than the knowledge that their present condition is acting as a deterrent to carrying into effect a sound and progressive program in educational organization.

The matter of distance is a more serious affair. A glance at the map shows that the transportation of pupils (who should reach the central school, say N¹ or H¹, not later than 9.15 a.m.) would have to begin in some cases as early as 8.15 a.m., for it is not only the children at and on this (the central school) side of N¹ or H¹ who must be brought in, but also those residing on the far side of the place. The same is true in regard to every locality that contributes pupils to a central or a consolidated school. The inference is that, if a satisfactory scheme of transportation were evolved, it would of necessity be a somewhat costly one. Further, there would be a distinct limit to the localities that would be in a position to enjoy the privileges of being linked up with the central schools.

Another case where consolidation might be applied with considerable advantage is illustrated by reference to the following rough sketch:—
In this district, there are six Fifth-class schools, in none of which the attendance exceeds fifty pupils. X is the largest of the five; but the teacher there is not a strong man. Still less is this the case as regards school Z. On the other hand, the teacher at W has proved himself most efficient. As a result there are enrolled at W no fewer than seven pupils who would ordinarily be attending other schools. Of these, three are boys who daily pass schools Y and X to get to W. Two prefer to ride the three miles to the latter school to attending at X, whilst the remaining two ride four miles to W when school V is but two miles from their own home. Of the six schoolhouses, four are State-owned. Y is a rented building erected in the first place to do service as the local hall. Now, if only because one good building is better than four passable and two poor ones, the transportation of the pupils of schools V, W, Y, and Z to school X (which would be remodelled to suit existing needs) should be given the utmost consideration. In the States, the consolidation of schools in such a unit-district as that described above has resulted in the erection of an imposing central school, well equipped as regards apparatus, and generally well

4. A Fifth-class school in Victoria is one with an attendance not exceeding 70 pupils, and in which there is but one fully qualified teacher.
staffed with fully qualified teachers. A glance at the accompanying pictures taken from Mr. M. P. Hansen’s Report upon Education in Great Britain and America supplies abundant proof as regards the first part of this statement.

Again, it is clear that six teachers working independently and in separate schools cannot give the same efficient service as even four or five of these teachers working together under the direction of a capable headmaster can give. Hence, as regards the type of district unit under discussion, there can be little doubt about the ultimate effect of consolidation; for, from the viewpoint either of efficiency of instruction or of character and serviceableness of school building and equipment generally, such a solution would seem to offer immense advantages. It is only just to add, however, that, in this case, too, the distances between the consolidated school X and the localities whence pupils would be drawn (districts round U, V, W, Y, Z) are more significant than might appear at first sight. The school at Y is now attended by pupils some of whom come from, say, three miles the other side of Y. Hence, in considering the transportation of pupils in district Y, provision would have to be made to work over a distance not less than about eight miles from the consolidated or central school. This is much greater than the distances that have to be taken into account in the consolidating of an average American school district. If the difficulty in this respect is one that can be surmounted, a scheme of consolidation applied to the district shown on map No. 2 would result in something like the following service:

1. To the central (consolidated) school at X pupils would be transported daily from the five surrounding schools, the cost of such transportation being borne by the State Education Department.

2. The syllabus of work (see pages 78-80) for pupils at X would be similar in every way to that for pupils at schools A, B, C, etc., of the first unit-district discussed above, with the exception that,
Consolidated School at Capleville, Tennessee.

The Kelly School
Discontinued on consolidation

Ten Mile Branch School
Discontinued on consolidation

Old Capleville School—two teachers

A School Motor Van.
under certain conditions, pupils of over twelve years of age in these schools (i.e., of type X) would take the first two (or three) years’ work of the course of study for central schools of the type N. Such a course would be followed where school X was not designed to provide instruction up to the standard of that given by the central school of the type N, and pupils were not near enough to one of the latter type to be transported daily to it.

Not the least good result of the application of such a scheme of consolidation would be that pupils of Grades I. and II. would be under the charge of a competent infant-mistress.

(It will be noticed that we have used the term “central” in connexion with two partly different types of school. For purposes of distinction, the larger (N) type might be designated “intermediate schools”—to those of the other type—to which X may or may not belong—the name “central schools” could be applied.)

Such is the general way in which we have endeavored to answer the question, “How far can consolidation be applied to the educational system of an Australian State?” The reader may think we have taken a somewhat roundabout way of approaching the solution, or that the solution itself is, after all, a very small thing. We should certainly agree that the solution is somewhat disappointing; but it would seem to be necessarily so. A thing is important or not according as it meets great or small situations, and as it does effectively or ineffectively what it was designed to do. In America, the problem of the rural school is both weighty and urgent; in Australia, on the other hand, it is only since the establishment of State high schools that our rural-school system has occasioned our educationists any anxiety at all. Even now, it is not so much that country pupils lose on the instructional side, as that they miss the social and cultural contact with their own associates which is so necessary for the adolescent. At any rate, it seems clear that, in America, consolidation is a means...
of solving an important educational problem. It is valued accordingly, and rightly so. We in Australia—it is uncomplacently submitted—are not faced with the same situation. Certainly, there is a problem before us, more or less cognate with that which gave rise to the country type of American consolidated school, but that problem, at present, can hardly be called grave or even urgent. Its solution should not be attended by any fundamental change in educational administration or organization. In Mr. M. P. Hansen’s *Report upon Education in Great Britain and America*, a new light is thrown upon the question of consolidation. We shall conclude this chapter with an extract from the report in question and a quotation from an English writer showing that England has taken a step along the line to consolidation. The Australian writer says:

In Victoria consolidation is not so generally applicable as in some of the American States, where there are more populous districts, better roads, and cheaper means of transport. But in some places it could be carried out. Two teachers in one school will probably do more effective work than they would do separately in two schools, and if these schools were consolidated the work would be more effective still. But it is in connexion with applications for the establishment of higher elementary and high schools that for some time this method will find most immediate application.

Applications for the establishment of these schools have been received from such places as—

- Maffra (12 miles from Sale High School).
- Gisborne (17 miles from Kyneton High School).
- Avoca (17 miles from Maryborough High School).

It would be far better to transport the pupils to existing high schools daily rather than incur the high costs of buildings, maintenance, and staffing for relatively small numbers in such places. Their education could be more effectively provided, they would have a wider choice of courses, and the system should be more economical.

The Englishman states:

The question of the unification of such small schools into a central one, or their absorption into existing larger and neighboring centers, has been successfully dealt with in some countries.... In America this plan is extensively prac-
tised. Canada, too, has recognized its utility. ... In this country, Devon, Cornwall, Gloucestershire, and other areas bring children of scattered districts to school in this way. The attractions of a ride, combined with protection from rain and other inclemencies of the weather, have brought about a better attendance; whilst the advantage of instruction in a large school, meeting in a healthy, commodious building, possessing a stimulating *esprit de corps*, and permitting an organization on a basis of sound classification, are too evident to be named.®

CHAPTER VIII.
MISTAKES IN RURAL-SCHOOL ORGANIZATION AND METHOD.

1. The School and Its Surroundings.—It is a mistake for a teacher not to make ample provision for ensuring that both the school and its surroundings favorably impress those by whom they are observed. Nothing creates a worse impression upon an inspector than to walk into a schoolground that exhibits all the marks of untidiness or neglect. Such a state of affairs has even a greater effect on the residents of the locality, who see in neglected or untidy school surroundings nothing that is to the credit of the teacher (or the district for that matter), and much that they can whole-heartedly condemn.

2. The Teacher and the Preparation of His Work.—It is a mistake for a teacher not to have each day’s work thoroughly prepared. Only through careful attention to such a necessity will a teacher’s school organization become really effective. In other words, only the teacher whose preparation is adequate exhibits in his handling of his daily tasks the sureness, directness, and promptness that characterize the work of the competent rural-school teacher.

3. The Teacher and His Work.—It is a mistake for a teacher to be late in commencing duty. It generally follows that, when this occurs, the preparation for the day’s work falls short in one or more respects. This in itself is bad; but the worst effect of a teacher’s coming late to school is seen in its reaction upon pupils and parents. Pupils are set a bad example, and their attitude to their work suffers in consequence. In time this tends to alter the
whole atmosphere of the school from one of healthy activity and achievement to one marked by a disinclination to undertake anything beyond what is regarded as absolutely compulsory. Parents, too, soon sense a teacher’s attitude to his work, and the teacher who is habitually late in opening his school has nobody but himself to blame if the community generally doubts his sincerity of purpose and discredits what he actually does accomplish.

4. Knowledge and the Pupil.—That “knowledge is power” is true; but no teacher worthy of the name so far forgets his mission in life as to put the acquiring of knowledge by a scholar before his obligation to produce an intelligent pupil, one that can use his inherent capacity to good purpose in all that he undertakes either in work or in leisure. To help to develop the individual is the teacher’s task, and he can never go far towards realizing this aim so long as he over-estimates the acquirement of mere facts and undervalues the human factor in education. It follows that a teacher should feel it incumbent upon him to keep well in touch with modern developments in educational practice and psychology. By so doing, he should be more able to help towards fitting his pupils not only to acquire and assimilate academic facts, but also “to share in the spiritual life of the race,” to utilize their leisure hours profitably, and to derive real pleasure from finding all they do meaningful and worth while.

5. The Proper Spirit in Teaching.—It is a mistake for a teacher to enter carelessly upon his task or to bring to bear upon his teaching a superficial knowledge of educational aims or methods. Thorndike has this to say in regard to the attitude of mind that should underlie the teacher’s purpose:—“If a teacher does not appreciate, at least crudely, the general aims of education, he will not fully appreciate the general aims of school education; if he does not appreciate the general aims of school education, he will not fully appreciate the aims of his special grade or of any one special subject; if he does not have fairly clear ideas of what the
year's work as a whole or of what each subject as a whole ought to accomplish for the scholars, he will not know exactly what he is about in any particular day's work. The teacher is something more than the carpenter who follows without reflection the architect's plan, or the nurse who merely administers the physician's prescriptions."

6. Matter to be Taught.—It is a mistake to try to cover too much ground in the work of either a day or a week. This is particularly true of rural-school work, where the teacher has less time to give to individual pupils than has the teacher in the larger town or city schools. Good teaching is concerned less with the giving of information than with the receiving and assimilation of it; consequently, the rural-school teacher should assign an adequate amount of work and satisfy himself at the close of each day, and also of each week, that the matter taught has been assimilated and the chief points have been thoroughly driven home. This driving home of essentials is often referred to as the "clinching" of the work of a period, a day, or the like. A good rural-school teacher is a past master in the art of driving home the fundamental points of a lesson. To be such implies that he is accurate as regards his statements and clear and concise in regard to his expression and exposition.

7. The Giving of Information to Pupils.—"The primary principle of education is the determination of the pupil to self-activity—the doing nothing for him which he is able to do for himself." It is a mistake to tell pupils anything that they can be led to find out for themselves, that is, of course, within a reasonable time. To teachers this is a truism, and it is mentioned here only because of the fact that it embodies the principle underlying all successful rural-school work. In a one-teacher school, eight grades have to be kept actively occupied at the same time. This can be successfully done only where pupils have learnt to work diligently by themselves, to make their own observa-

A teacher should never forget that each effort a child makes for himself gives him new power, an added efficiency in handling his next task. Therefore, it is the paramount duty of the rural-school teacher so to train his pupils that they can delve for themselves. It follows that where this is done the teacher is observing a sound educational maxim: he is teaching only when the occasion requires. The standard of the work done in a rural school may generally be gauged by noting the amount of actual work pupils do for themselves.

8. Control in a Rural School.—The training that characterizes the good rural school is disciplinary in the best sense of the term. It is not a learning for learning’s sake—it is learning for thinking’s sake, and, where a pupil is being trained to think for himself, he is also being trained to control himself. It follows that the disciplinary troubles of an older day should be largely non-existent in a good modern rural school. That there should be rules to be observed goes without saying; but it is as great a mistake to have too many rules as it is to have none at all. Further, what rules are laid down should be such as prevent anti-social action on the part of pupils. In other words, there should be nothing in such rules to hinder a pupil’s realizing his own individuality so long as his conduct does not interfere with the best interests of his fellow pupils. Where a rule is broken, pupils should not be made to feel that they have done anything against which the teacher has set his decree, rather should they be led to see their action as one unfair to their comrades and out of harmony with established authority. Where punishment is meted out, the teacher should endeavor to act in a quite impersonal manner, as merely the agent, as it were, of authority within the school. There must, of course, be some “Thou shalt not” rules; but the spirit underlying discipline to-day should be that of the New rather than of the Old Testament. Moreover, it is a mistake to lay down a rule before circumstances render it necessary. The boys who were warned
against kicking an irritable old gentleman’s galvanized iron fence as they passed it proved that they were only boys after all. Left to themselves, they might never have thought of such a pleasant means of diversion as the information provided them with. Finally, pupils should be led to see as clearly as possible the justness of the rules imposed upon the school, and it may even happen that the assistance of pupils themselves may be enlisted in framing a new rule.

9. The Teacher’s Distribution of Time.—It is a grave mistake for a teacher not to take pains to make an equitable distribution of his time among the various grades of his school. His lesson with any particular department or grade should not absorb his whole attention, nor should he hesitate, when the occasion demands it, to drop his immediate work and pass quickly to where he feels his attention to be urgently needed. In supervising pupils’ work, his passage from grade to grade should be marked by purposeful criticism and keen insight into all that is being done. Only by doing this can a teacher hope to keep in touch with the work of the whole school. What he does, however, in this connexion must be done expeditiously and quietly. A successful teacher distributes his time wisely and wastes no energy in worry or bustle.

10. Losing Sight of a Grade.—A teacher’s control is asserted mainly by means of the voice and the look; too often through his former. To the rural-school teacher the eye becomes the chief medium of control, and rightly so. From the nature of things his teaching must be of the intensive kind; consequently, when giving a class lesson to one department or grade, he must avoid as much as possible interrupting the course of his work. The teacher who breaks off his lesson to speak to the pupils that need admonishing is often doing with the tongue what he should do with the eye. The good rural-school teacher cultivates the power to use his eye to good purpose. Further, no matter what he is engaged upon, he naturally takes up a position that enables him to see the whole school to best advantage.
he is working at the blackboard, he stands to the right or to the left, as the occasion demands. A mistake he does not make is to stand too near his grade when engaged in teaching or exposition. The teacher who offends in this respect impairs his chance of being able to see all his school at the one time, and thus inattention or restlessness may often pass unchecked.

11. **Monitorial Training.**—(a) A teacher should regard all pupils as potential monitors and should take steps to see that the monitors are trained to carry out their duties. He should make special provision for such training by allowing the school an opportunity to watch a monitor at work with a group of pupils. The lessons thus given should be regarded as example lessons and an ensuing discussion should be one of the chief means of calling attention to the more important features of monitorial work in the school.

(b) It is a mistake to choose monitors haphazardly. A rural-school teacher should study his pupils sufficiently closely to be able to determine what kind of work suits his several monitors. As far as is wise, he will assign monitorial work in accordance with individual preferences. In other words, the monitor that shows an aptitude or a liking for taking a lesson in reading but not in arithmetic should be given such work as suits him in these respects.

(c) It is a mistake not to have a roster showing the weekly distribution of the work among monitors. The roster should show also the subject or subjects taken by each monitor, together with the periods of duty. Further, the roster should show a list of emergency monitors, for it may happen at any time that an ordinary monitor is unable to carry out his duties.

12. **The Free Period.**—During the free period, children should be allowed to work out their own ideas so long as what they do is not of such a nature as to be subversive of good discipline or does not entail any interference with the work of other pupils. On the positive side, the teacher should not neglect to encourage pupils to take up hobbies or to follow a strong bent in
any particular direction. It is a mistake for a teacher not to take every opportunity to develop the possibilities of the free period. Further, he should so keep himself in touch with the free-period work as to be able to assign praise in proportion to either perseverance or result. Finally, no teacher should neglect to exercise a close supervision over all work undertaken during the free period.

13. The Time-table.—It is a mistake to use a time-table that does not conform to modern requirements in regard to sequences, fatigue effects, and monitorial work. Certain subjects naturally pave the way for work in other subjects; for example, history and stories supply the subject-matter for certain kinds of composition; word-building, dictation, and spelling usually follow the reading lesson. Subjects that demand a deal of mental effort should be taken when the pupils are fresh, that is at the beginning of the morning or of the afternoon period. Thus, arithmetic is generally the first subject of the morning’s work; history and geography come early in the afternoon session. Monitors should not be drawn from their grades at inopportune times; they should be assigned charge of grades other than their own only when their absence does not entail their missing important work in their own department. For example, a good time-table provides that, when the upper and supplementary grades are taking geography, the other grades are in charge of monitors drawn from their own departments.

14. Work-programs.—It is a mistake not to keep work-programs up to date. They are practically the only means of showing the teacher’s arrangement of lessons and the grading of the course of work in all school subjects. As such, work-programs provide an inspector with the chief and often the only means of deciding in what way the year’s work is being developed throughout the school.

15. Examinations.—The teacher’s first duty is to educate his pupils, and examinations should always be kept subordinate to this purpose. At the same time,
when an examination is undertaken, it should be thorough. As regards the two compulsory examinations that Victorian teachers are enjoined to hold yearly, it is a mistake not to record carefully all the questions set in each subject, together with the system of marking used. It is a grave omission not to state clearly, in the examination register, what steps a teacher intends to take in regard to re-classification or rearrangement of pupils, or to strengthening weak subjects in any part of the school.

16. Advancement in the Grades.—The prescribed syllabus of work for any one year is designed to suit, as nearly as may be possible, the capacity of the average normal pupil; consequently, it is a mistake for such a pupil not to be advanced at least a grade a year. It follows that it is a teacher’s duty so to examine his pupils that their progress through the grades is not only unretarded in any way but is, in the main, based upon individual capacity. Thus it is incumbent upon the teacher to see that provision is made for both the subnormal and the supernormal pupil. The former should be given the help and encouragement he needs, the latter should be allowed to advance at a rate adapted to his capacity.

17. Detention in School.—It is unwise not to give pupils at recess time an opportunity for rest, change, and exercise. When it is deemed expedient to detain pupils, the period of detention should not be longer than that provided for by Departmental regulations; it should occur at the close of either the morning or the afternoon period. In assigning punishment entailing detention after school hours, the wise teacher will not forget to take into account the distance a pupil lives from the school.

18. Yard Supervision.—It is a mistake for a teacher to ignore the behavior of his pupils at recess time. His duty in this respect lies in seeing that no unbecoming conduct takes place, that no roughness characterizes the playing of games, and that nothing is done

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2. This is now attached to the attendance roll.
that may endanger the limbs of pupils. It speaks well for a teacher that his pupils know how to control themselves in the playground. Further, it is well to remember that pupils whose conduct outside the school-room is exemplary are usually very amenable to management in the schoolroom, and vice versa.

19. Upon Taking Over a School.—When a teacher takes charge of a school, it is to his advantage to make a good impression on both pupils and parents, and it is a duty he owes himself to do nothing that might prejudice him in this respect. On two important matters he should exhibit no small degree of circumspection. He should neither speak disparagingly of his predecessor’s work nor give residents of the locality the impression that his mission in life is largely concerned with reforming country communities in general and their own district in particular. If the previous teacher has been neglectful of his duties or inefficient in his teaching, harping on the matter will do no good. The inspector, knowing all the facts, may be depended upon to see that the incoming teacher suffers no disadvantages through following a weak brother. So far as his standing in the district is concerned—and with the Departmental authorities, too, for that matter—a good teacher is often fortunate in succeeding an incompetent. If the former is really strong, the comparison in the school work of the two teachers should be the means of throwing into relief the good work of the better teacher. With regard to the second matter, it cannot be denied that a certain provincialism often shows itself in the idea and actions of a number of country folk; but townspeople, particularly those who are more or less ignorant of the true condition of things, make altogether too much of this. A teacher taking charge of a country school for the first time should beware of being hypercritical of his new surroundings, and should be slow to voice any ideas he may have of devoting himself to community reform. He will find that the average rural dweller is a sincere admirer of the local school and can be of valuable assistance to a teacher in many ways. Moreover, most
people are more easily led than driven, and the teacher who wishes to better community ways should begin by going with the people. When he finally wins their confidence, then it is time enough to introduce ideas of a distinctly innovatory nature. In other words, the more people find a teacher conversant and sympathetic with their ideas and aspirations, and discreet and capable in all that he says and does, the more inclined will they be to accept the turn he gives to local affairs and ultimately to follow his lead when he sets a course. Since it is part of a rural teacher’s work to arouse the co-operative interest of parents in all school activities, it is a great mistake for him to neglect any opportunity that will lead to this end.
CHAPTER IX.
WHAT EVERY RURAL-SCHOOL TEACHER SHOULD KNOW.

1. The Work of Each Grade.—The work of any grade above Grade I. is held to include that of any lower grade. Thus, an inspector is acting quite within his rights when he sets Grade VIII. an exercise in detailed analysis, or Grade VII. a problem based on ordinary Fifth-grade work in arithmetic.

2. Examinations.—

A. Every Victorian rural-school teacher is expected to conduct two\(^1\) fully-recorded examinations of his school each year, one in June, and the other in December. In each case, the school record of such examinations should show clearly:

(a) The list of questions set in each subject, together with the time allowed and the marks allotted in each case;

(b) The marks gained by each pupil—these should be entered opposite the pupil’s name;

(c) A review by the teacher of the results of the examination, together with a statement setting out the means he intends to take to strengthen weak subjects, help retarded scholars, and the like.

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1. N.B.—In view of the fact that there are now terminal holidays that break the working year into three distinct sections, some inspectors advocate holding three examinations yearly. The third week in May suggests itself as a suitable time for the holding of the first terminal examination. On the same week in September the second one could be held. The final examination would still be held in December.
B. One of the most important matters in connexion with the whole examination is the marking of pupils’ papers. A teacher should correct the written work most carefully. If an inspector finds a teacher careless in this respect, he is naturally inclined to discount results generally. The consequence of this is far reaching and may be the means whereby the teacher’s marks at the October test prior to the Qualifying and the Merit Certificate examinations may be accepted with decided reservation.

C. Where the examination questions entail written answers, the latter should be set down in books kept for that specific purpose or on sheets of paper of uniform size. In the second case, only one side of the paper should be written on. For obvious reasons the use of sheets of paper seems preferable to the use of examination books.

D. It is important that a teacher assigns marks in each subject; where a class mark, say 8, is given, the 8 should be entered up opposite the name of each pupil in the grade.

E. A teacher should see that a pupil writes his name on each sheet of paper used. After the papers have been marked and the marks recorded, pupils should be shown their papers and thus be given an opportunity to see where they made mistakes and lost marks. After this has been done, the papers should be neatly arranged with the examination questions pinned on the front as a face paper. In the same way, there should be a face paper attached to each pupil’s answers. This should show the following information:

2. This is purely the writer’s suggestion and is in no way the outcome of any Departmental ruling on the matter.
The papers should now be neatly wrapped up in brown paper, and on the outside of the packet should be boldly set out some such data as the following:

**PUPILS’ EXAMINATION PAPERS.**
**JUNE EXAMINATION.**
**1925.**

The papers should then be deposited in a desk or cupboard in such a position that they are available for inspection at a minute’s notice.

3. **Work-Programs.**—

A. The ordinary school work-program should be made up in advance and for either weekly or fortnightly periods. It is usually made up under the following heads:

- **English**
- **History**
- **Elementary Mathematics**
- **Singing**
- **Nature Knowledge**
- **Physical Exercises**
- **Manual Training**

These, in turn, are generally divided into sub-sections as follows:

**ENGLISH.**

Phonics, Literature, Language, Writing, Composition.

**Elementary Mathematics.**

Practical Arithmetic, Oral Exercises, Written Work.

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3 It seems advisable to mention that on no account should the papers be rolled, as that renders them far less easy of careful examination.
NATURE-KNOWLEDGE.

Hygiene, Geography, Science.

HISTORY.

History-Stories, History, Civics.

MANUAL TRAINING.

Drawing, Occupations.

B. Such a program of work should be a teacher’s guide, and, for the information both of himself and of the inspector, he should immediately indicate opposite to or under the set work for the weekly or fortnightly period any matter he has been unable to treat in the time. This insures the teacher against the chance of omitting to deal with such topics later, and of their being involved in the examination questions set by the district inspector on the occasion of his visit to examine the school. Where revisional work is included, it should be shown in red ink. In every case, the work set out under the heads and sub-heads listed above should be shown clearly and concisely. On the next two pages are given certain sections of a work program that would seem to fulfill these requirements.

C. There are at least three sections that need more detailed treatment than is given in the ordinary weekly or fortnightly program of work. These are nature-study, drawing, and physical exercises. They may be treated as indicated on page 108.

III. 
(a) Reading—
April School Paper, Selections:
1. 
2. 
3. 
(b) Poetry—
1. 
2. 
3. 

IV. 
1. Sound of "a" as in mat.
2. Sound of "a" in the verse, Oh, for a trap, a trap, a trap!
3. Dangers of mispronunciation in "a," e.g., rendering m'yat for mat, and the like.

V. 
1. Sound of "a" as in mat.
2. Sound of "a" in the verse, Oh, for a trap, a trap, a trap!
3. Dangers of mispronunciation in "a," e.g., rendering m'yat for mat, and the like.

VI. 
1. Sound of "a" as in mat.
2. Sound of "a" in the verse, Oh, for a trap, a trap, a trap!
3. Dangers of mispronunciation in "a," e.g., rendering m'yat for mat, and the like.

(a) Reading—
The April School Paper, Selections:
1. 
2. 
3. 
(b) Poetry—
1. 
2. 
3. 

VII. 
1. Sound of "a" as in mat.
2. Sound of "a" in the verse, Oh, for a trap, a trap, a trap!
3. Dangers of mispronunciation in "a," e.g., rendering m'yat for mat, and the like.

(a) Reading—
April School Paper, Selections:
1. 
2. 
3. 
(b) Poetry—
1. 
2. 
3. 

VIII. 
1. Sound of "a" as in mat.
2. Sound of "a" in the verse, Oh, for a trap, a trap, a trap!
3. Dangers of mispronunciation in "a," e.g., rendering m'yat for mat, and the like.

(a) Reading—
April School Paper, Selections:
1. 
2. 
3. 
(b) Poetry—
1. 
2. 
3. 

1. All revisional work should be shown in red ink. See italics above.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Experimental Work</th>
<th>Week Ending</th>
<th>Observation Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Tomato</td>
<td>Experiment to prove (a) that plants require water, (b) that they cannot live on water alone.</td>
<td>Feb. 4th</td>
<td>Young wild ducks are able to fly. The last eggs of the season are laid by pigeons. Sparrows are flocking now. Small insect-eating birds are abroad. Termites are very busy. Grasses are seeding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Cactus</td>
<td>Experiment to prove that a tough coat prevents loss of water.</td>
<td>Feb. 11th</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Termite</td>
<td>Experiment to prove (a) that plants breathe.</td>
<td>Feb. 18th</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Grasshopper</td>
<td>(b) that grasshoppers breathe.</td>
<td>Feb. 25th</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**February**

**General**

- Young wild ducks are able to fly. The last eggs of the season are laid by pigeons. Sparrows are flocking now. Small insect-eating birds are abroad. Termites are very busy. Grasses are seeding.

**Special**

- The homes of termites.

**The Rural School**

Nature-Study—At the back of the ordinary work for each month will be given some such information as the following—At the back of the ordinary work for the school for the ensuing twelve months, the teacher can set out the whole of the nature-study for the school for the ensuing twelve months.
Drawing.—As regards the order of the lessons, the whole of the year’s work can be shown as follows:

### GRADES III. and IV.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month</th>
<th>Freearm</th>
<th>Freew-hand</th>
<th>Ruled</th>
<th>Freew-hand</th>
<th>Ruled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>February</td>
<td>1st</td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>8th</td>
<td>10th</td>
<td>15th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17th</td>
<td>22nd</td>
<td>24th</td>
<td>1st</td>
<td>3rd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
<td>8th</td>
<td>10th</td>
<td>15th</td>
<td>17th</td>
<td>22nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24th</td>
<td>29th</td>
<td>31st</td>
<td>5th</td>
<td>7th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>12th</td>
<td>14th</td>
<td>etc.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### GRADES V.-VIII.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month</th>
<th>Freearm and Freew-hand</th>
<th>Geometry</th>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Freehand and Memory</th>
<th>Geometry</th>
<th>Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>February</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26</td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the two geometry lessons in each group, the former should generally be devoted to plane geometry, the latter to application work in connexion with the principles dealt with in the former.

**Physical Exercises.**—In each school there should be a copy of the 1922 reprint of Part I. of the *Junior Cadet Training Text Book*. Teachers should lose no time in making themselves familiar with the matter contained in this book, but more particularly with that part of it contained on the following pages:

Page 27.—The Relation of Lessons in Physical Training to School Lessons.
Pages 29-33.—General Directions to Instructors.
Pages 82—The Tables of Exercises.
Arrangement of Classes.—Boys and girls should be arranged in separate single ranks six paces apart, and with the upper grades on the right. After the ranks are opened out, the whole of the pupils should be turned to the right; this enables the teacher to control from a flank. Further, this arrangement is such as provides the junior pupils with a copy, for they can see from the actions of those in front of them how each exercise or movements is carried out.

Tables of Exercises.—Tables should always follow a definite sequence, for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Introductory</th>
<th>Balance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Head</td>
<td>Trunk (lateral)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trunk (dorsal)</td>
<td>Marching (running, jumping, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arm</td>
<td>Breathing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the games and running, the junior grades could be left with a monitor; but at least once a week they should do some of the easier exercises directly under the teacher’s eye. No demand for accuracy of movement should be made in these grades, and very little in Grades III. and IV. In the upper and supplementary grades, however, precision of movement and smartness in execution should be insisted upon.

Games.—There are three points of importance in connexion with these:

(a) Games should be recreative and enjoyable, and children should not feel themselves hampered by a teacher’s over-intricate directing of the games that are being played.

(b) Games should introduce the competitive element, and either individuals or teams should be set one against the other.

(c) Games should entail some physical exercise, such as running, jumping, arm and body movements, and the like.

N.B.—Since the teacher is expected to use his freedom and initiative in making up his tables of exercises, none are given here. All the information that is required in connexion with the tables is supplied in pages 86-166 of the textbook referred to above.
4. **Recorded Work.**—Under appropriate heads the teacher should have the necessary information concerning the following matters set out and exhibited in a suitable place:

(a) The Year’s Work in Poetry.
(b) The Year’s Work in Science.
(c) School Songs.
(d) Time-table for the Current Year.
(e) Summary of the Syllabus of Work.

(a) **The Year’s Work in Poetry.**—The requirements in connexion with this are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades III. and IV.</th>
<th>Teacher’s selection—at least 100 lines.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Own selection—50-100 lines.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades V. and VI.</th>
<th>Teacher’s selection—at least 100 lines.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Own selection—50-100 lines.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades VII. and VIII.</th>
<th>Teacher’s selection—at least 150 lines.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Own selection—50-100 lines.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following is a way in which the required information may be set out:

1. **TEACHER’S SELECTION.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Selection and Particulars</th>
<th>Lines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supplementary</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>“Oates” (Bain), Page 6, February School Paper.</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>“Prospice” (Browning), Page 22, March School Paper.</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>“The Earth Veil” (Ruskin), Page 13, Feb. School Paper.</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Prose.
2. — PUPIL’S OWN SELECTION.

GRADE VIII.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Selection</th>
<th>Lines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thomas Jones</td>
<td>“Sohrab and Rustum” (M. Arnold), lines 467-523.</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Irene Hope         | “Wind and Sea” (Bayard Taylor).  
                    | “Tubal Cain” (Charles Mackay).               | 24 + 60 |
|                    | **Total**                                      | **84**|

(b) The Year’s Work in Science. — The science subject may be science or agriculture, nature-study, horticulture or dairying. We shall suppose that a teacher has the approval of an inspector to take dairying as a subject. Then, his school record should show the following information.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theoretical Work</th>
<th>Experimental Work</th>
<th>Practical Work</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nature and composition of milk</td>
<td>Experiment No. 1</td>
<td></td>
<td>February 2nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature and composition of butter-fat</td>
<td>Determination of the specific gravity of milk</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disadvantages of the old method of setting milk for cream</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The constituents of milk</td>
<td>Experiment No. 2</td>
<td></td>
<td>February 9th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Determination of the percentage of water in milk</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sample of milk (chosen at haphazard) tested in order to show pupils the methods to be employed in the testing of their own samples on the following week.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practical work of testing samples</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>February 16th</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Before he can take nature-study as a subject in the Supplementary grades, a teacher must obtain the sanction of the district inspector.
(c) **School Songs.**—These may be set out on a piece of cardboard, hung in a conspicuous place, and suitably ruled to show the following:

1. The name of the song, *e.g.*, “The Mighty Norseman.”
   - The School Paper in which it appears, *e.g.*, April, 1923.
   - The key—B♭.
   - The starting note—S.

2. The voice exercises practised during the year.
3. Rounds and catches. (Give particulars as above.)

(d) **The Time-table.**—The rural-school teacher should take some trouble to procure a good time-table, one conforming to modern ideas in regard to sequence, fatigue effects, and the like. Such a time-table can be procured from Mr. A. L. Maher, College Rural School, Grattan-st., Carlton, Victoria. The time-table should be mounted or framed and hung in a central position. It should be the teacher’s aim to see that both he and his pupils observe the time-table strictly, and that they ultimately know by heart the daily time-allotments of the several subjects. A good time-table lends itself to usage in this way.

(e) **Summary of the Syllabus of Work.**—A teacher will find it an advantage to set out at the beginning of the year a graded summary of the year’s syllabus of work. Then, as each topic of the summary is dealt with, it can be marked off. If this is done, an inspector on entering the school can see at a glance exactly what part of the year’s work has been dealt with up to date. A sample page of such a summary is given here:

**GEOGRAPHY.**

**Grades III. and IV.**—

1. The points of the compass. V
2. River action. V
3. Topography of the district (simple treatment). V
4. Chief occupations of the people in the district.

5. Means of communication with the town of __________.

6. Ideas of distance and direction.

7. Plans—school, playground, locality.

8. Continents and oceans.


Etc.

Additional for Grade IV.—

1. Physical features of Victoria.

2. Principal products of each of the four main divisions of Victoria.

3. Exchange of products.

4. The five trunk railways.

5. Towns of Victoria.

6. Victorian coastal trade.

Etc.

5. School Hours.—In rural schools the hours of instruction are these:

   Morning Meeting—9.15 to 12.15.

   Afternoon Meeting—1.15 to 3.30.

6. Detention.—Detention for disciplinary purposes should be confined to short periods after school hours; but the Departmental regulations expressly forbid teachers to detain pupils more than three-quarters of an hour at any one time. No pupil should be given less than a clear hour for the midday recess, whilst detention during the morning or afternoon play periods should be resorted to only in special cases.

7. Records.—The teacher should see that the following records are kept up to date in the respects indicated below. Further, he should leave them in a place easy of access. For the full list of records and documents to be kept the teacher should see page 43, Regulations and Instructions, 1925.

   (a) Pupil’s Register.—When a new child is admitted, the required information concerning him or her
should be entered up as soon as possible, the admission form initialed and put away, and the register heads filled in at once. The teacher should be particularly careful to see

(a) that the grades in which pupils are placed are shown in the register, and that this information is entered up promptly at the beginning of each half year;
(b) that pupil’s attendances are entered up without delay;
(c) that the destination of pupils who leave the school is fully shown.

(b) Examination Record.—This is now attached to the attendance roll. The marks gained at each of the two chief examinations should be entered up as soon as possible after the examination papers are marked.

(c) Absence Register.—A teacher should see that every absence is entered up without delay. He should set out clearly and concisely the reason for such absence, together with the result of the Department’s action concerning it.

(d) Register of Corporal Punishment.—In case the inflicting of corporal punishment leads to inquiry at any time, it is to the teacher’s own advantage to set out the details required in connexion with the administration of such punishment.

8. Holidays in Victoria—

(a) A teacher is allowed to observe a holiday on the occasion of the nearest agricultural show.
(b) The school committee has the power to grant, each year, one holiday for the purpose of a school celebration or local festivity.
(c) A teacher in a remote district may be granted one day in addition to the ordinary vacation holidays.
(d) When a teacher has attended a certain course of instruction, his school may be closed for
an additional week in conjunction with one of the three chief vacations.

A teacher should not fail to give his district inspector ample notification of any holidays to be observed in respect to (a), (b), (c), or (d), above.

9. Nil Returns.—The "nil" returns are meant to be used where prompt action is desirable in respect to pupils who have been absent from school for a full week without justifiable cause.

10. School Activities.—Teachers should find it to their advantage to have ready for perusal at any time a list of the school activities. This should provide the necessary information in connexion with such things as

(a) school functions,
(b) money raised for all school purposes,
(c) trees planted on Arbor Day,
(d) Junior Red Cross work, or work of similar character.

11. Plan of Schoolground and Locality.—A teacher should not fail to so combine nature-knowledge and handwork that he has on hand:

(a) a good plan of the schoolground, showing all the information necessary in regard to building, trees planted, and the like;
(b) a large-sized plan of the locality, which should supply the following details:
   (i.) the geographical position of the trees, shrubs, and wild flowers of the district,
   (ii.) the situation of the main streams and ponds in the locality, together with an indication of the plant and animal life in each,
   (iii.) the location of all the important geographical features of the district, for example, rivers, hills, roads, etc.

Such work as this forms an excellent project; for it makes both geography and drawing thinking sub-
jects, and starts the work in the former with present interests and the pupil’s own problem.

12. Filling in of Forms.—There are in particular three forms in the filling in of which teachers should exercise the greatest care. These are:

- Form G
- Form H
- Form T

Form G.—An outline of the chief heads of this form is given here. (See p. 118 for Table A, which appears on the reverse side of the form.)

On the obverse side of the form there are two important parts. The first is at the head and the second at the foot of the page. These should be filled in as follows:

- Nc. of School .... 2509.
- Name of School .... Tralee.
- Head Teacher .... Joseph W. Anderson.
- Inspector .......... —
- Date of Inspection* —

TEACHING STAFF.

Rural Schools.†

- Head Teacher .... Joseph W. Anderson.
- Assistants .... Emily L. Tonkin.
- Junior Teachers .. Jane B. Smith (Sewing Mistress).

In regard to the filling in of form G, the following points should be noted:

(a) All columns must be filled in. Where there is nothing to show in a space, a nought should be entered.

(b) The numbers present on the day of the inspector’s visit should be shown first in grades and

*The teacher should not enter in either the inspector’s name or the date of inspection. The inspector will fill these in himself.

†This is the section to be used in the case of either Fifth-class or Fourth-class schools.
### A. Ages calculated to 1/7/..

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Under 6 years</th>
<th>6 to 7 years</th>
<th>7 to 8 years</th>
<th>8 to 9 years</th>
<th>9 to 10 years</th>
<th>10 to 11 years</th>
<th>11 to 12 years</th>
<th>12 to 13 years</th>
<th>13 to 14 years</th>
<th>14 to 15 years</th>
<th>15 to 16 years</th>
<th>Over 16 years</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII. or Form F</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII. or Form E</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form D</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form C</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Promotions

- New Pupils: 4, 4, 5, 5, 6, 4, 0, 0, 3, 3, 1, 2
- Less than one year in Grade: 0, 0, 1, 4, 0, 0, 0, 0, 4, 4, 1, 1
- More than one year in Grade: 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 5, 0, 0, 0, 0, 2, 0
- Present at Inspector's visit: 3, 4, 4, 4, 5, 5, 3, 3, 2, 2, 2, 2

Total Promotions: 28
then as a total. Teachers often fail to give the number “in grades.”

(c) Particular attention should be paid to the filling in of the columns headed.

**PROMOTIONS.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>New Pupils</th>
<th>Less than one year in Grade</th>
<th>More than one year in Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*New pupils* are those who have been admitted either at the beginning of the year or subsequently to that date, that is, those who, up to the first day of July of the year concerned, have been in attendance less than six months.

*Pupils less than one year in grade* are those who may have entered towards the latter part of the previous year, or who have been promoted since the beginning of the year.

*Pupils more than one year in grade* are those who have not been promoted.

(d) The form G should be attached to the H form when the latter is sent to the inspector after his visit to the school.

**Form H.**

(a) This form, left by the inspector on the occasion of each visit to the school, should be filled in and returned to him as soon as possible. The “filling in” consists of copying on the form the whole of the inspector’s report. This should be done with great care.

(b) Teachers should not omit to fill in all the details required in connexion with the following portion of the return.
RETURN TO BE FILLED UP AND SIGNED BY THE HEAD TEACHER.

1. Number of broken or cracked panes—
2. Condition of locks—
3. Date of cleaning tanks—
4. Date when chimneys were last swept—
5. Mention any circumstances which have specially affected the work of the school—

Signature of H.T..................................
CHAPTER X.
HORTICULTURE IN THE RURAL SCHOOL

"Horticulture, as differentiated from agriculture, includes the more intensive cultivation, as usually practised in gardens, of fruits, vegetables, flowers, shrubs, and ornamental trees."

School gardening has come into the schools of late years—the result of enthusiastic teachers who were lovers of flowers and who could see how this inherent love of flowers could have a great influence in moulding the character of the child.

The attempts at making these gardens so that the child during school life shall be surrounded by beautiful flowers, shrubs, and trees, have been in many cases very good, but it was seen that training was required in this subject, and out of this has arisen school horticulture.

The main idea in teaching horticulture is to encourage the love which all children possess for flowers, and through this to lead to their cultivation in the school garden. The children are taught in a practical way how to beautify the grounds, and this, in turn, promotes in them an active interest in their own home grounds. Horticulture is one of the subjects that best link the home with the school, for the school garden soon becomes the center of interest in the district. As a consequence, children soon wish to make a home garden, and this leads to a system of exchange of plants between the school and the home.

Horticulture can be easily correlated with the other subjects of the curriculum—drawing, nature-study, arithmetic, composition, formal grammar, and geography.

1. By F. A. Hughes, Supervisor of School Gardening, Victorian Education Department.
In going round a garden, the children soon learn to know the names of the flowers, and then they are anxious to spell these names. This is a great help to them in their spelling. Derivations may be given a real interest when the children see that the word *gladiolus* is named on account of the leaf, from the Latin *gladius*—a sword. Incidentally, children may be told from what country certain trees and shrubs originated. The search on a map for these countries will stimulate and help them very much in their geography lesson.

Now the main idea, the influence of this subject on the child’s character, must never be lost sight of. At the same time, it must not be forgotten that it is only when the practical side of the work is being successfully carried out, that the main aim is likely to be fully realized. Therefore, in order to give teachers some definite help, we shall deal with the practical work in horticulture under the following heads:

(a) Schoolground plantation.
(b) The garden.
(c) The plots.
(d) Indoor experimental and recorded work.
(e) Interior decoration.

(a) Schoolground Plantation.—In the beautification of the schoolground, the aid of the school committee should be sought. With the co-operation of school committee and parents, the teacher should not find it difficult to make his schoolground the beauty spot of the district. However, before he attempts to do anything in this respect, the teacher should draw up a plan showing just what he intends to do. This will ensure that succeeding teachers have a definite guide in carrying on the work of beautification. The necessity for having such a plan cannot be too strongly stressed, for it is only by continuous effort spread over a number of years that a schoolground can be made to present an appearance that commands the attention of the district. The next page shows a plan that would seem to satisfy all requirements in connexion with schoolground plantation.
PLAN FOR COUNTRY SCHOOLGROUND.

Explanation of the Plan.—The plan is of an imaginary schoolground having a frontage of 4 chains by a depth of 5 chains: it is not intended as a model to be copied, but merely to illustrate the points of good schoolground planning. The special features of the plan are—(a) Large open playing spaces for the senior boys and girls, (b) a specially equipped playground for the infants, (c) a flower garden of simple design with a permanent framework of shrubs situated between the school building and the roadway, (d) protection from all winds, (e) a belt of shrubs and trees from 10 to 15 feet in width, of sufficient variety in color, habit of growth, and height to avoid monotony, completely surrounding the playing spaces, and (f) a horticultural plot with no large trees nearer than from 15 to 20 feet. The planting of the grounds would be spread over a number of years.
Since the shape of the schoolground determines more or less what form the plan takes, most teachers will make their own plans. In doing this, they should keep in view the following considerations:—

The schoolground is mainly a place for the playing of games, therefore the playing spaces must not be restricted. To ensure that ample playing space is provided, the plantation should be near the boundary fences. A space 20 feet from the fence should be allowed for the plantation, and the ground should be ploughed either in autumn or in spring and kept worked through the winter and summer. Three lines of trees and shrubs of varying heights should be planted, and thus protection will be afforded to the children from prevailing winds.

In selecting the trees and shrubs, a teacher should note well what ones do best in his district. He should use these as well as the native trees and shrubs that are available. When planting, he should see that the trees are diversified in regard to height, foliage, and flowers. For example, he should not put those with variegated foliage all together, but should place them in among the green ones to brighten the border. Again, he should not put all deciduous trees together, but should intersperse them among evergreens. The same procedure should be applied in the case of flowering shrubs. Sometimes too many trees and shrubs are planted at the one time. This is a mistake, as a teacher should not plant more of his plantation than can be looked after. He should map out a section to be done in one year, and then devote his attention to getting the trees and shrubs he has planted well established. Frequent watering is necessary. The next year, this section of the plantation will not require so much care, and another section can be attempted. So far we have been speaking of a school in which there is no boundary plantation. If one has been started, however, a teacher should consult the plan left in the school by his predecessor. He should study the latter’s design carefully, and not intrude his own ideas into the scheme unless they constitute a decided improvement.
Other considerations to be taken into account when a teacher is drawing up a plan of his own are:

(a) He should mark out on his plan the positions of the school garden, the horticultural plots, shelter sheds, and the like.

(b) He should make provision for the screening of the out-offices and of any unsightly objects that may be visible from the grounds.

(c) It occasionally happens that a good view of a mountain or a lake may be had from the school-ground. In such a case, a teacher should be careful not to shut out the view by planting high trees, for a few low shrubs judiciously placed can give aid towards forming a fine vista.

(d) A teacher should commence the planting of his ground from the front of the school, and should then work towards the rear boundary fence.

(b) The Garden.—Since the flower garden forms a component part of the whole plan of the school-ground, a teacher should make sure that pupils see it as such. Further, they should see also the necessity for drawing a more detailed and larger plan of the garden by itself. The first consideration in fixing the garden site should be that of general position. It should be placed between the school and the main road, for the garden bears to the school, it should be remembered, the same relation that the cottage garden does to the cottage. Sometimes such a position may be unsuitable on account of stony or swampy ground; but a teacher should be ready to overcome as many difficulties as possible in order to have the garden in the desired place. If circumstances will not permit of the garden’s occupying the position advocated, the teacher should get it as near as possible to the school, for it is most desirable to have the school as the central part of the gardens and lawns. If a school garden is to be a success, a supply of water is essential; consequently, every teacher should do his best to arrange for such a supply. Many school committees
and teachers have overcome difficulties by making
dams, sinking wells, and erecting windmills.

Having made up his mind in regard to position, the
teacher should now have the whole area ploughed
thoroughly and subsoiled. As much animal manure
and other humus-forming material as can be had should
be strewn over the surface, and then the ploughing or
digging can be done preparatory to the setting out of
the beds. At drawing time both teacher and pupils can
set about forming a plan showing beds and paths. The
paths should be wide in order that children may be
able to move about freely without fear of trampling
on the beds. It is wise also to see that the paths form
broad, sweeping curves and do not end in a blind alley.
Paths should lead definitely to some such place as the
entrance to the school or to other buildings. If
the gate happens to be only a short distance from the
school door, it is obviously an advantage, in this case, to
have the path straight. Beds should be large, as when
planted they look much better. Further, the moisture
is more easily conserved in a large bed than in a small
one. The plan should be as simple as possible. It is
a mistake when working it out to introduce an intricate
design or any involved geometrical patterns, such as a
six-pointed star. Beds shaped thus are always hard to
keep in good order; and, as a general rule, the simpler
the design the easier it is to control. As in the school
plantation, there should be no attempt to do everything
in one year. A teacher should remember that the
amount he is able to do is restricted by the time allotted,
the number of children in attendance, and the appli-
cances at his disposal. If water is laid on to the school-
ground, it is best to have a lawn as the basis of the
garden. Nothing gives a better effect than an ex-
panse of lawn with a few flower beds inset, and with a
background of shrubs and masses of bright-flowering
annuals.

In many of our Victorian schools, it is not possible to
have a lawn. In such a case, a teacher should work out
a simple design, planting up with good flowering shrubs
as a background, and placing others in the beds with masses of annuals in between. Of course, in selecting plants, a person must be guided largely by the climate of a place and the water-supply available for use. Provided that the right plants are selected, there is no reason why a garden may not be planted at any school. To ensure the permanence of a garden, it is imperative that it contain plenty of perennial shrubs and flowers. In order to have an abundance of seedlings for massed planting, seed may be sown in the horticultural plots. In this way a feeder is provided for the garden.

In horticulture, the school garden is of great importance, for much of the practical work can be carried out in it, and all the theory lessons can be given a direct bearing upon the practical work. For example:—A great many seedlings are required for summer planting, so a lesson is given on seeds and their germination. This is followed up by another on seed-sowing. The seeds could be sown in boxes and tended by the children, who might be expected to take reasonable pride in the task allotted to them. After the seeds have germinated and grown, another lesson could be devoted to stressing the need for thinning out into other boxes so that sturdy plants may result. With the proper care and attention, seedlings become very sturdy plants. As soon as they are ready to transplant and the weather is favorable, a lesson should be given on planting out.

If the young plants were then put out in masses, pupils would see, when the flowers were in bloom, the value of mass planting.

(c) The Plots. — The horticultural plots are used as a feeder for the garden and boundary plantation and also as a means for carrying out the practical work in which this subject abounds. Every child doing a course of horticulture should have a broad training in the growing of vegetables, and the work in these plots follows most of the theoretical lessons given in the schoolroom.

A suggested plan of horticultural plots is here given:
In this plan the work is definitely shown. Further, it can be adapted to a small school as well as to a large school. The size of the plots will be governed by the number of children under instruction, therefore the size of the whole plot will be restricted by the number of dual plots used. The size of the other plots will also be regulated by the dual plots that are being cultivated.

The whole of the plots, if enclosed with a brush fence 5 to 6 feet high, will benefit from the shelter from winds thus afforded. Tall trees and high-growing shrubs should not be planted near the plots, as they would rob the ground of the moisture necessary for the plots.

The dual plots are used for the growing of the vegetables in common use, and it is advisable, so that the moisture may be conserved, to have no paths in between. The boundary of each plot may be marked off by means of pegs driven into the ground.

In the next diagram, rotation of crops and the subsequent good to the ground is indicated.

### ROTATION OF CROPS IN DUAL² PLOT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plot No. 1.</th>
<th>Plot No. 1.</th>
<th>Plot No. 1.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st season.</td>
<td>2nd season.</td>
<td>3rd season.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaf</td>
<td>Root</td>
<td>Pod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lettuce</td>
<td>Parsnip</td>
<td>Pea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cabbage</td>
<td>Carrot</td>
<td>Broad Bean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pea</td>
<td>Broad Bean</td>
<td>Lettuce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broad Bean</td>
<td>Onion</td>
<td>Carrot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Onion</td>
<td>Lettuce</td>
<td>Broad Bean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Root</td>
<td>Pod</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pea</td>
<td>Broad Bean</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broad Bean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pod</td>
<td></td>
<td>Leaf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pea</td>
<td></td>
<td>Cabbage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broad Bean</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A glance at the diagram will show that leaf crops, such as cabbage and lettuce, occupy one-third of the plot, legumes, such as peas and beans, occupy another third, and root crops, such as parsnip and carrot, occupy the remaining third. As one crop matures, it is followed

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2. “Dual,” because the plot is tended by two boys.
by one of another nature. Care should be shown that this rotation takes place so that the ground benefits accordingly.

Each dual plot should be tended by a senior boy and a junior boy. By this means the senior boy can instruct the junior boy in his efforts at vegetable growing.

The single plot is in charge of the best boy, who acts as captain of the squad, and is allowed to grow vegetables, such as leeks and kohl rabi, that are not in such common use.

The common plot is tended, as its name indicates, by all the class. In it fruits that are common to the district are grown, and lessons can be given at suitable times on pruning, on diseases and pests common to them, and on means of eradication. In this plot are also grown crops such as marrows, pumpkins, asparagus, rhubarb, that are unsuitable for growing in the dual plots on account of the length of time some of them would occupy the ground, or on account of the trailing habits of others.

The next plan shows manure test plots (see p. 131).

The manure test plots are used to test the effect of the fertilizers containing phosphorus, potash, and nitrogen—the three necessary plant foods—on the vegetables.

The 8-plot manure test is the best for school plots. The test plots may be of any convenient size. Every class of crop crosses the plots. These are treated with every class of fertilizer both singly and in combination. The test is qualitative, not quantitative, and a record should be made of any difference in growth apparent to the eye. Each plot should be compared with the “no manure” plot. Weighing of produce from very small plots usually gives misleading results.

Suitable applications of fertilizers are superphosphate, 1 oz. per square yard. As vegetables are usually sown or planted in rows, it is wise to take this into account when calculating the quantity of fertilizer to use; therefore use 1 oz. to the square yard when the rows are 6 feet long and 18 inches apart, when rows are 4½ feet
**MANURE TEST PLOTS.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Peas</th>
<th>Cabbages</th>
<th>Potatoes</th>
<th>Potatoes</th>
<th>Cabbages</th>
<th>Peas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PK</td>
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<td>NK</td>
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<tr>
<td>NKP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Manure</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

16 ft. 6 in.

**N** = Nitrogen, as nitrate of soda.
**P** = Phosphorus, as superphosphate,
**K** = Potash, as sulphate of potash.

long and 2 feet apart and so on; potash 3 oz. to the square yard, and nitrate of soda 4 oz. to the square yard. When two manures are combined, use half the quantity of each, and, when the combination of three is used, put one-third of each. Mix the manures thoroughly with the soil in the drills before sowing the seed or putting out the young plants.

In the seed-saving plot, make up your mind as to the flower or vegetable whose seed you would like to save. Teaching children seed selection is a very valuable lesson, and one that will be of great benefit to them in their future lives.

The seed may be sown in boxes, then pricked out, and later planted in rows in the plot. The dwarf plants...
may be planted in three rows each 1 ft. apart, with 6 inches between the plants in the rows. Another group of three rows could be planted 3 ft. from the other rows. This will enable the children to go along each side and reach across without damaging the plants.

In order that children should thoroughly understand how nature works, lessons should be given on the parts of the flower, and also on cross-pollination. They will then be able to see why flowers should be pollinated only by those of the best class, and why all plants carrying inferior blooms should be ruthlessly pulled up or thrown aside. At suitable times, lessons should be given on culling out and on the harvesting and cleaning of seed. The seed saved should be sown the following year, and, in about three years' time, the strain should have improved greatly.

There is another way by which the strain may be kept up to the standard, that is, to plant one-half the bed with seed saved from the previous year, and the other half with seed obtained from a reliable source. Where this plan is followed, a comparison may be made, and one can see whether improvement has taken place. Children should be encouraged to sow some of the school seed in their home gardens, and later to exhibit in school some of the best blooms they have grown.

In the bed for budding, suitable stocks should be planted at the proper time. For example, lessons on preparing the stocks, say for roses, should be given in June and the stocks planted. In November a lesson on budding should be given, and the children should be given practice before being allowed to bud the stocks in the plots. Subsequent care should give good results.

The bed for layering should contain stock plants, say for carnations, which should be planted in May, and these could be layered at the end of January or in February.

Pips of pears, apples, or lemons, peach stones, or other suitable seed could be sown in the bed for grafting, so that in future there would be some trees that
could be used by the children in doing practical work in whip or crown grafting.

In the seed-raising bed, seeds of flowers, shrubs and trees could be sown, and, later on, the young shrubs and trees could be potted up into tins of a suitable size. They would then be ready to plant out on Arbor Day.

Lessons on hard-wooded cuttings of deciduous and evergreen shrubs could be given in June and July. The children could, after practice, make cuttings, and the deciduous ones could be planted in rows in the open ground; but the cuttings of evergreen shrubs could be planted in boxes and placed under a hessian frame. The cuttings should be about 6 to 9 inches long and two-thirds of the length should be planted in the ground. Soft-wooded cuttings of suitable shrubs could be made when the new growth started, planted in boxes, and placed under the hessian frame. These soft-wooded cuttings should be taken from the new growth, and should not be longer than three nodes. They can be taken from various varieties of shrubs throughout the year, but the spring and summer months are the best time to do it.

The four corner areas should be screened, and would serve as places to store surplus manure and compost heaps. If desired, a hotbed could be made in one of these places and thus early plants could be obtained.

These plots, besides being a training ground for the pupils in horticulture, should supply the garden and school plantations with trees, shrubs, and seedlings, and the school will, if the subject is taught under the proper conditions, be able to supply most, if not all, of its own needs in this respect.

(d) Indoor Experimental and Recorded Work.—Even the indoor lessons in horticulture should be as practical as possible, although experimental work should fill part of the time. From 16 to 20 experiments should be recorded during the year.

Below are given suggestive courses for a first and a second year. It is advisable to have the course for the year set out on a sheet of paper and placed on the wall,
so that the children may set up the experiments or commence making the necessary collections some time before the lesson is taken.

Experiments should be recorded and drawings made of the collections by each child.

At least one life history of some garden pest should be made, and specimens of the pest in all stages of development should be preserved and neatly mounted for future references. Lessons should also be given on useful insects and birds that frequent the school garden.
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<th>Lesson</th>
<th>Experiments, etc.</th>
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<td>(a) Collection of soils (b) Tests showing plants require air, light, warmth, etc.</td>
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<td>(a) Collection of stems (b) Original plans by children. (c) Tests with farmyard manures</td>
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<td>Experiments, etc.</td>
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<td>(c) 1. Collection of leaves 2. Tests to prove leaves contain starch</td>
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<td>(a) Rate of percolation in different kinds of soils</td>
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<td>(b) Drainage</td>
<td>(b) Necessity for drainage</td>
<td>(b) Compare plants grown in drained and undrained pots</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(c) Scale on plants</td>
<td>(c) Life history of scale</td>
<td>(c) Tests with starch</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(d) The rose</td>
<td>(d) Method of planting</td>
<td></td>
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<td>(a) Kinds to plant. Habits of growth</td>
<td>(a) List of shrubs — flowering, deciduous, evergreen, etc.</td>
</tr>
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<td>(b) A vegetable</td>
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<td>(b) Effect of depth of planting</td>
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<td>Subtopics</td>
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<td>September</td>
<td>(a) Chrysanthemum</td>
<td>(a) History, kinds, habits, and methods of planting</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>(b) Life history; effects, and methods of combating</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(c) Pricking out</td>
<td>(c) Pricking out seedlings, and note difference between pricked out seedlings and others left in box</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>October</td>
<td>(a) The flower</td>
<td>(a) Chief parts of a flower, and tests in cross pollination</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) Spring flowers</td>
<td>(b) Spring-blooming plants, and lists of spring flowers with date when seed was sown, or plants set out in garden</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) Planting</td>
<td>(c) Method of planting, and study of planting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>November</td>
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<td>(a) How soil-water can be conserved, and tests with sprays. List of pests and cures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(b) A shrub</td>
<td>(b) Study of a shrub. Value, and list of shrubs suitable for district use</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) Leaf-eating insects</td>
<td>(c) Leaf-eating pests, and methods of combating</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>December</td>
<td>(a) Fruits</td>
<td>(a) Study of fruits and classification, and collection of seed vessels</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>(b) Seed-saving</td>
<td>(b) Methods of harvesting, and collection of seeds drying, and cleaning</td>
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<tr>
<td>Month</td>
<td>Topic</td>
<td>Lesson</td>
<td>Experiments, etc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>January</td>
<td>(a) Drought-resisting plants</td>
<td>(a) Adaptation of plants to dry conditions</td>
<td>Collection of drought-resisting plants</td>
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<tr>
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<td>(b) Transpiration</td>
<td>(b) Why and how leaves transpire</td>
<td>(b) Bottle on leaf</td>
</tr>
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<td>February</td>
<td>(a) Origin of soils</td>
<td>(a) Formation of soils</td>
<td>Analysis of soils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>(b) Conditions of growth, air, warmth, moisture, light, food</td>
<td>Tests—limiting factors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(c) Planning plots</td>
<td>(c) Planning plots suitable to locality</td>
<td>Comparison between cultivated and uncultivated plants</td>
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<td>(a) Types of soil</td>
<td>(a) Various types of soil</td>
<td>Collection of different soils in bottles</td>
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<td>(b) How to prepare seed-beds and boxes</td>
<td>Germinating seeds</td>
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<td>(c) General cultivation of dahlia</td>
<td>Comparison between cultivated and uncultivated plants</td>
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<td>April</td>
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<td>(a) General principles in garden-planning</td>
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<td>Germinating beans behind glass</td>
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<td>(c) Farmyard manures</td>
<td>(c) Uses. When and how to use. Storage</td>
<td>Tests with liquid manures</td>
</tr>
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<td>May</td>
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<td>(a) How to make and plant hard-wooded cuttings of evergreen bulbs</td>
<td>Hardwood cuttings in pots. Note “Callus”</td>
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<td>(b) Humus</td>
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<th>June</th>
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<th>(a) How moisture percolates downwards</th>
<th>Percolation—various soils in lamp chimneys</th>
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<tr>
<td>Month</td>
<td>Topic</td>
<td>Lesson</td>
<td>Experiments, etc.</td>
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<td>(d) Note results in the plots</td>
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(e) Interior Decoration.—For the interior decoration, two baskets, a few well-grown plants, interspersed with cut flowers from the garden, will have a very brightening effect on the schoolroom. The plants must be well cared for, and suitable lessons on the preparation and filling of a basket, the repotting and care of plants, and the making and filling of a window-box could be substituted for some of the lessons in the syllabus.

Note 1.—When children are engaged in outdoor work, there should be no relaxing of the normal school discipline. Each child should have a definite task set him, and the whole class should work under the teacher’s supervision. Later on, those pupils who show themselves trustworthy may be assigned the tasks that take them out of the immediate range of the teacher’s vision.

Note 2.—Below is given a flower calendar on which is shown, among other things, the times when seeds were sown or when perennials were planted. The keeping of such records is very useful, for they enable a teacher to calculate when to sow seeds in order to get certain blooms at particular times of the year.
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<th>PERENNIALS</th>
<th>Sown or Planted</th>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Marigold (French)</td>
<td>November</td>
<td>Salvia</td>
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**THE RURAL SCHOOL**
CHAPTER XI.

THE GROUP SYSTEM

A centralized system of education, such as that of Victoria or of France, has much to recommend it, though its drawbacks are not few.

Centralization permits of a very high standard of organization, and stands for widely distributed efficiency, which infers that rural schools and city schools are on the same footing. Indeed, it is well-known that in Victoria the standard of instruction gained in a small, remote rural school of 15 pupils compares very favorably with that in a city school of 1,500 pupils.

The system, however, is too narrow, too stereotyped, too uniform. It gains in instruction, but loses in education. It results in poor buildings, poor equipment, and a poor measure of support from local bodies. The lack of local interest in most rural school districts, and the exiguity of effort to increase the value of the school to the community arise from the community's sense of the Department's responsibility.

The teacher has the task of arousing in the district a school conscience. He is, however, merely a unit, and a movable unit at that.

Hence we have 3,000 units dotted over Victoria—each working away in his little district, receiving his instructions from the Education Department's Office in Melbourne, and carrying out the same prescriptions as all the others are doing.

But there is no connexion between unit and unit, and so the rural-school teacher is, in nearly every case, a lone craftsman. When he transfers, the continuity of his work is broken; his successor probably has different

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tastes and talents, and introduces at once a set of innovations. This applies very largely to the subject of occupations, and to kindred subjects such as agriculture, horticulture, and viticulture.

The Group System, devised by Mr. J. Gray, M.A., Inspector of Schools, in collaboration with the late Mr. John Cooke, Head-master at Numurkah, had for its aim the elimination of the defects of the Centralized System; the retention of its excellencies; and the formulation of a plan whereby a scheme of experimental agriculture might be carried out with the utmost thoroughness and continuity throughout the whole inspectorial district.

It therefore sought to effect:

1. Unanimity throughout the whole inspectorial district.
2. Closer intercourse between teachers.
3. Increased general efficiency in schools.
4. Rapid response to any changes desired.
5. Stimulation of the school conscience.
6. Arousing of local interest; and, as a corollary, better aesthetic conditions in and about the school, better equipment, and more general assistance from parents.
7. A district scheme of agriculture, horticulture, or viticulture, continuous from year to year, instead of scattered individual efforts fitfully carried out.
8. A more attractive and less lonely life for young teachers.

The Group System aimed at making each little group of schools—5, 6, or 7—a community for mutual benefit. This was the plan:—The inspectorial district contained about 90 schools, grouped into 13 or 14 sub-districts. The senior male head teacher in each district was appointed group-supervisor, and over the whole district an organizer was established. The organizer was a man specially chosen for his knowledge of agriculture and for his organizing ability. Thus there was
an organizer in close touch with the district inspector; there were 13 or 14 group-supervisors who carried out instructions issued by the organizer; and 90 schools grouped in a natural way, working out the same set of experimental work under the guidance of the group-supervisors.

The duties of the organizer were:

(a) To send out, from time to time, notices of conferences to be held with the district inspector, and to arrange for meetings.
(b) To organize the year’s course in agriculture.
(c) To send out regularly to each teacher instructions telling how to carry out the experimental work and how to record the results.
(d) To visit each group-supervisor from time to time in order to give help or advice where required.
(e) To obtain from group-supervisors reports of each district’s activities, and to tabulate, at the end of the year, the results of the whole inspectorate’s efforts.
(f) To secure supplies of seed and manures and to supply to each group-supervisor sufficient for distribution among the schools in his group.
(g) To keep in touch with all the latest movements of interest to the teachers of the inspectorate, and to discuss new methods with group-supervisors at conferences.
(h) To arrange district exhibitions from time to time.

The organizer, it will readily be granted, must be a man of outstanding ability and enterprise. An allowance is granted him, and he is given sufficient days off duty from his school to enable him to carry out the duties assigned to him.

On him rests a great responsibility, and his influence has a remarkably far-reaching effect if he is a man who can make his influence felt.

The duties of the group-supervisor are not light, but
they are of a pleasant nature, and bring him into close touch with the teachers of his own district, and also with the other group-supervisors of the inspectorate.

His duties are:—

(a) To welcome new teachers to the district, and, in the case of a woman teacher, to see that proper board can be procured.

(b) To advise teachers in the group, if required, regarding all matters pertaining to the general scheme of agriculture, horticulture, or the like.

(c) To receive instructions regularly from the organizer, and to see that each teacher in the group is able to carry out the general plan.

(d) To assist group teachers in the carrying out of indoor and outdoor experimental work by arranging that each school is properly equipped for that purpose.

(e) To call group meetings at least twice a year, so that results may be compared and any difficulties discussed.

(f) To arrange group functions such as district picnics, schools excursions, and the like.

(g) To take charge of material left in any school that may be closed, and to distribute such material or property, if necessary, among the remaining schools.

(h) To tabulate results of outdoor experimental work received from group schools, and to forward these to the organizer.

(i) To distribute seed and manure.

(j) To take charge of the group library.

The Group System is especially helpful to young teachers, for it tends to lighten their load and dissipate their loneliness. As a rule, a group consists of a majority of these young teachers. The group supervisor will take the first opportunity of making the acquaintance of a new arrival, and, by tactful advice, render the early days of the newcomer less strange and strained.
He will see that the scheme of agriculture is carried on and, if need be, initiate the teacher into the principles and practice of the subject.

It is sometimes very difficult for a very small rural school to obtain funds for apparatus. It is essential that a uniform standard be set in this respect throughout the inspectorate. Here is an illustration of the means by which one group-supervisor made certain that each school in his group had a sparrow-proof cage, of standard size, to prevent the destruction of the matured crops on the plots by birds:

A meeting of group teachers was called. The group-supervisor pointed out the necessity for a cage at each school. The cost would be about £8 per school. He could procure from the Department the loan of a Pathé Frères cinematograph, and could hire a supply of films for a week. It was decided that each teacher should invoke the aid of the school committee, and should organize a social evening, at which the group-supervisor would give a cinema entertainment.

By this means the one set of films served all the schools in the group, and every school was successful in obtaining sufficient money for the cage.

Soon meetings were being held by representatives of all the school committees, and the advantages of the Group System began to show themselves clearly to the whole of the school communities. District sports and picnics were arranged at various times, and the intermingling of pupils, parents, and teachers of the group led to a much increased local interest in school matters, and a quickening of the school conscience.

One of the most valuable results of the Group System is seen in the formation of a group library. Most small schools have libraries consisting of just a few books, which are soon read through. But the formation of a group library brings it about that a very large collection of books are at the disposal of the pupils. For example, a group of six schools could obtain from a combined social or other function sufficient money to procure 300 books. These would be sorted out, after
having been stamped and marked at one of the group meetings, and each teacher would take to the school his quota for a given period—say, three months. At the next group-meeting, three months later, an exchange would be made, the group-supervisor keeping an account of each teacher's quota either received or returned. By this means, each school has the use of 300 books, instead of, say, 50. In actual experience, there is very little trouble attached to the scheme, and the gain is enormous.

The Group System lends itself admirably to school projects. In an agricultural district, there are many opportunities for the undertaking of useful projects. For example, a boy may secure a young pig from his father. At the time the project commences, he will enter in his "project notebook" the age of the animal. He will rear the pig for a certain period and then dispose of it at the market as a prime fat porker. Meanwhile, he must keep a tally of all expenses, a price being allowed for all feeding. He must rear that pig in the proper scientific manner, and will thus have to prepare a suitable sty, with feed-troughs and coverings against hot weather. He must use the proper class of food, and this must be noted in his book. All details must be entered, and, after the sale, a final balance-sheet must be submitted. Other pupils will probably make use of sheep, poultry, lucerne, calves, wheat, grapes, or something else that is likely to pay them for their trouble. To make these projects successful, there must be guidance and supervision.

The Group System admits of an excellent procedure which may be thus outlined:

A list of all pupils doing projects is sent to the group-supervisor. Each individual teacher will have the projects of his own pupils under his supervision, and will see that records are properly kept.

But, in order to have expert advice available to the pupil, the group-supervisor gets into touch with three or four of the most efficient men of the district, and persuades them to take an interest in the projects. A man who is, for instance, an authority on pigs could be
persuaded to look into the pig-projects and give the pupil advice when required. A poultry-fancier would similarly give the benefit of his experience and skill to the poultry-project workers. This has been found quite feasible, for it is no trouble to obtain the services of expert men when they are approached in the proper manner.

The danger lies in half-heartedness, which brings only ridicule upon the whole plan.

A good group-supervisor, however, obviates such a result, and infuses his own enthusiasm into the whole district. The school becomes a moving force in the community, and the co-operation of parent and teacher in the supervision of pupils’ projects has everything to recommend it.

A boy of twelve to fourteen years persuades his father to let him have one acre of cropping land for a year. The lad prepares the land, procures seed, and plants it, recording throughout all details of operations, times, and costs. Teacher and parent watch results with interest, and the discussions which arise bring about a closer understanding between them. Other projects create interest also, and so the whole scheme heightens the value of the school to the community, and this feeling spreads to the other portions of the group.

The group meetings may become a source of great value to members of the group. These meetings are held at intervals of, say, three months. Minutes must be kept, and the business carried out in a proper manner. Any instructions from the organizer or from the district inspector are dealt with, and the results of the experimental work are discussed. Questions of moment in any branch of the school work are debated and points of interest brought forward by members. Occasionally, lectures may be arranged, and teachers with special knowledge of a subject may be given the opportunity of assisting their fellows.

Discussions relating to the program of work are very valuable, and many a young teacher may be materially
assisted in his or her work by attending these meetings.

After the Merit Certificate and Qualifying examinations, a group-meeting can obtain much food for thought by a discussion on the reasons for failures in certain subjects and the probable remedy in the several cases.

Many pupils do badly in drawing at examination. There is generally an efficient teacher of that subject whose services may be used to the advantage of the whole group. At a meeting such a teacher can give most helpful advice to his fellow workers. The spirit of friendship and co-operation which springs from the group activities has unbounded possibilities.

During the war period, the Group System was found a very effective means of organization for the raising of funds and supplies, and the disposal of Red Cross material.

From a Departmental standpoint, the system is a fine aid to the general scheme of organization, for it co-ordinates the scattered units in each district. Moreover, it admits of saving of much school property from waste. When the attendance at a school falls to such an extent that the school is closed, a supply of furniture and apparatus is often left in the vacant schoolroom. Unless the building itself is shifted, it soon becomes a dilapidated, uncared-for ramshackle.

Under the Group System, however, the group-supervisor would receive the key and would take charge of all material. The library books would be placed in the group library, the furniture would be sent to schools requiring it, and the apparatus would be stored at the center, or more probably would be distributed among the remaining schools. Should the school be reopened, the books and apparatus could be returned to that school.

The school gardens, too, may come under the scope of the Group System. Plants and seeds, ordered for all the schools in the group at one time, may be distributed to the more general satisfaction than if procured by each individual teacher separately. Economy of effort as well as of cost is thus effected. Further, an
interchange of cuttings, seedlings, and seeds is possible. Each teacher may grow certain seedlings for the whole group. For instance, A grows phlox and zinnias, B grows marigolds and violas, and so on. When the zinnias are ready, A will send along to B and C and the other members of the group a supply of the seedlings. In turn he receives from the others supplies of other seedlings.

The weaker or younger teacher stands to gain in a material way by this means, and each school has a well-stocked garden at a very small cost.

In most districts the Group System lends itself admirably to the fostering of debating societies, physical culture classes, social unions, and the like. Lectures and demonstrations on topical subjects may be arranged and residents of each section of the group invited to attend. As an example, we may take a fruit-growing district. An expert in fruit-preserving can be procured to give demonstrations in correct methods of preserving fruit. It is found that these meetings are well attended, and the result is seen not only in the immediate gain of knowledge, but in the increased interest taken in the schools. The teacher's value to the community is heightened; his future appeals for assistance are readily responded to; and, best of all, the spirit engendered throughout the group is no longer that of rivalry, but of a desire that all should strive for the benefit of all.

BOOKS RECOMMENDED TO TEACHERS.

The Rural School in Australasia—Smyth.
The Improvement of Teaching—Freeland.
An Introduction to Teaching—Bagley and Keith.
Rural Education—Brim.
Successful Teaching in Rural Schools—Pitman.
Country Life and the Country School—Carney.
Democracy in the Schoolroom—McClure and Lord.
School Organization—Bray.
The Consolidated Rural School—Rapeer.
Some Lessons from Rural Denmark—Tate.
Cyclopaedia of Education, Vols. II. and IV.
An Experiment with a Project Curriculum—Collings.
Problems of Secondary Education—Sneddon.
The Victorian Rural School Manual—Elijah and Maher.
Principles and Technique of Teaching.—Elijah.
Better Rural Schools—Betts.
New Ideas in Rural Schools—Betts.
Two Types of Rural Schools—Burnham.
Rural Life and Education—Cubberley.
The Improvement of Rural Schools—Cubberley.
The American Rural School—Foghett.
The Rural Teacher and His Work—Foghett.
Rural School Management—Wilkinson.
Libraries and Education—E. Morris Miller.
Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading—E. E. Huey.
Children’s Libraries—Sayers.
Elementary Library Instruction—G. O. Ward.
The Rural School from Within—Kirkpatrick.
Rural Life—Galpin, C. J.
Rural Problems of To-day—Grove.
Among Country Schools—Kern.
Educational Advantages of Consolidation—Monahan.
The Rural School and Rural Education—Campbell.
My Ideals in Rural Schools—Betts.
Teaching in Rural Schools—Woofter.
The Binet-Simon Measuring Scale of Intelligence—Goddard.
The Measurement of Intelligence—Terman.
The Examination of School Children—Pyle.
Educational Psychology—Thorndike.
An Introduction to the Theory of Mental and School Measurements—Thorndike.
Mental and Scholastic Tests—Burt.
A Handbook of Mental Tests—Kuhlmann.
Intelligence Testing—Pintner.
The Mental Survey—Pintner.
The New Examiner—Ballard.
Group Tests of Intelligence—Ballard.
Mental Tests—Ballard.
Report of the Consultative Committee on Tests of Educable Ability—Board of Education.