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THE PLACE OF PHYSICAL CULTURE IN EDUCATION

By Miss GWENDDA HUGH JONES, Assistant Head-Mistress, English High School for Girls, Pera

The importance we attach to physical culture in education depends on what we consider the *aim* of education. If education is simply the amassing of a certain number of facts on different subjects,—for learning how to do certain things, for reading a certain number of set books,—then physical education would be looked upon as somewhat of a waste of time.

Very few people, I take it, now hold this view, but yet it is no easy matter to say in so many words what we do hope to achieve in education. Aristotle in his *Ethics* comes very near the truth:—"To learn to like and dislike the right things, that is real education,—to choose voluntarily what is good, straight, beautiful, in preference to what is wrong, crooked, ugly. No one is really educated what has not learned to like and admire the true and the beautiful, and to dislike and avoid the untrue and the ugly, and to do this, not to make a good impression or because it pays, but because it is one's choice."

Now if that is education, what are these "right things" which we wish the children to learn at school? We want them to like their lessons, to win their certificates, but besides this it is vital to them during their whole lives to learn *how to behave*,—to be straight, loyal, courteous even to opponents, to take defeat good-humoredly, and to take success without conceit,—in a word, *"to play the game,"*—our very expression for all this is borrowed from a branch of physical culture.

The point is, that physical culture, if organized on the the right lines, can and does go a long way towards teaching the underlying principles of how to behave.

I want to speak of physical culture in the three branches usnally taught in English schools: organized games, gymnastics, and dancing.

I put games first because from the viewpoint of character-building I think organized games stand first. One of the first things we wish children to learn is to be *straight*,—not because serious penalties may fall on them in the school if they are not; we want them to admire straightness for its own sake. This is also the first essential in playing a game,—to *play fair* --to play for the sake of the game, and not to win at all costs. That is the British tradition. Really to have learned this is to have learned to be straight in all the affairs of life, so that crooked ways will always in after life strike them as not quite "playing the game."

Another essential in organized games is team play. A selfish player who tries to monopolize the play, soon has it made clear to him that he is not wanted in the school XI. He has to learn that his sphere is a particular part of the field, and if he encroaches on other people's he is worse than useless. It is as a team that they win or lose, not as individuals.

So in life generally, to attain the knack of working loyally with other people, to have realized the importance of this spirit of cooperation, is to have learned something worth while.

A third essential in true education is courtesy, particularly to opponents. To the school girl and school boy mind, there is nothing like a school match for teaching the elements of courtesy. On such a great occasion, the rules for the behavior of the team are just as definite as the actual rules of the game. There is a mass of small but invariable conventions, unwritten but definite; and to break any one of them is termed "bad form," and to be guilty of "bad form" is to the British schoolboy almost the severest censure that can be passed upon him. There must be no criticism of the umpire's decision, no purposely rough play, for the sake of winning at all costs, no adverse criticism of opponents' play, no excuses offered for defeat, no bragging about victory,—in schoolboy language: "My dear fellow, it's simply *not done*."

These conventions are simply the foundations of good manners; they turn out after all to be "good form" in life generally. To be able sincerely to congratulate your opponent on being better than you are, and to admire him for it, to take defeat good-humoredly and success without conceit, —is to have learned something really important in life and character.

If games, then, are organized in the right way, they may be a most important factor in school life, in teaching the elements of good manners. The method of solving quadratic equations may pass from our minds, so too may the political situation in Europe in any given period; but to have learned to be straight, to be loyal, to be courteous even to opponents, to play the game,—these are lessons which will always hold us in good stead.

The place of *gymnastics* in education is based on two things: their value as a physical tonic and their value as a mental tonic. The sine qua non of successful gymnastics is that they should be in the hands of a properly qualified and fully trained gymnast. Any scheme of exercise without regard to any proper gymnastics table may do untold harm. The aim of every gymnastics table followed in every lesson

given by a qualified gymnast is, to develop harmoniously every part of the body. Any reasonable complaints against the results of gymnastic lessons are explained by the lessons not having been given by a fully qualified teacher.

I should like to say something of the value of physical training as a mental and moral tonic. This apart from anything else entitles gymnastics to a very important place in education. In English girls' schools we begin the proper gymnastics table at about the age of 8 or 9, and with children of that age to learn control over their limbs is often the first regular training they get in self-control. With children from 8 to 12, if their bodies are not in good form, their brains will not be either; and to attempt to train their brains without their bodies is a misguided and useless effort, and is simply asking for trouble. If such children are fidgety and inattentive, the reason almost always is that they have not had enough physical exercise that day. Gymnastics, then, among the Juniors of the school, if organized on right lines, is a physical tonic and an important factor in teaching self-control.

As to its value among the Seniors, some argue that pupils of 14, 15 or 16 ought to drop gymnastics as useless for examination purposes, and give their attention to study or writing an essay or a test paper or something of practical use towards an examination. Such people do not consider the value of gymnastics as a mental tonic. Girls of that age have a tendency to develop a certain flabbiness of mental fibre, showing itself in exaggerated emotions, sentimental friendships, exaggerated likes and dislikes. Anyone who has had much to do with girls of these ages knows that this tendency is an important element in their development of character, to be recognized and dealt with. This psychology of adolescence should and must be dealt with in the school curriculum. The key to the difficulty is physical training if organized in the right way. A sturdy condition of the mind is difficult to attain unless the body is kept in good trim. Gymnastics demand precision of movement, quick response, alertness, promoting good muscular tone, which reacts upon the nervous system, maintaining a healthy mental condition.

So far we have spoken of the inhibitive value of physical training, in teaching control, in discipline of character. *Dancing*, being the reverse of inhibitive, completes the training by teaching graceful and rhythmic control, by giving scope for play of imagination, and the cult of imagination is a responsible factor in mental equipment.

Physical culture, then, deserves a very important place in education for two reasons: if organized on the right lines it goes a long way toward a fit condition of both mind and body; and secondly it may be a very responsible factor in the building of character. To teach all we mean by "playing the game" is certainly worth while.

I should like to end by reading the well-known verses of Henry Newbolt, which have some bearing on the British ideal of sportsmanship:—

There's a breathless hush in the close tonight—
Ten to make and the match to win—
A bumping pitch and a blinding light,
An hour to play and the last man in.
And it's not for the sake of a ribboned coat,
Or the selfish hope of a season's fame,
But his Captain's hand on his shoulder smote,—
"Play up! Play up! and play the game!"

The sand of the desert is sodden red,—
Red with the wreck of a square that broke;
The gatling's jammed and the Colonel dead,
And the regiment blind with dust and smoke.
The river of death has brimmed his banks,
And England's far, and Honour a name,
But the voice of a schoolboy rallies the ranks:
"Play up! Play up! and play the game!"

This is the word that year by year,
While in her place the school is set,
Every one of her sons must hear,
And none that hears it dare forget.
This they all with a joyful mind,
Bear through life like a torch in flame,
And falling fling to the host behind—
"Play up! Play up! and play the game!"

Selim Sirri Bey, Director of the Dar-ül-Mouallimin (Normal College for men), Stamboul, said:—

Physical Culture contributes the fundamental basis of education, since it contributes greatly to the development of intellectual, physical and moral qualities. And educative gymnastics is the basis of physical culture. It develops health, endurance, agility, and muscular control, and at the same time a sense of discipline. Children too often suffer the evil effects of deforming postures and lack of muscular activity. They breathe incorrectly and insufficiently; but healthy brain activity depends upon healthy respiration. Hence educative gymnastics seeks to restore the development of the whole organism by developing those parts which are left undeveloped and thus it combats the injurious effects of modern life. By means of selected exercises it seeks to bring the muscles under the control of the will; at the same time it corrects atrophy of muscles, enlarges the chest, intensifies heart action, angments muscular contractibility, strengthens the abdomen, increases the circulation, and trains the nerve-centres governing the co-ordination of muscles.

It is particularly in the development of the lower nerve centres and the brain, resulting in improved co ordination of voluntary movements, that methodical and rational gymnastics plays a most important part. Proper physical education results in regulated movements and therefore in economy of energy, so that we can accomplish more and better work with less fatigue. It is not, however, amount of work so much as perfection of movement which is sought after, not quantity but quality. But in precision and agility of movement it is the nerve centres which play the preponderating rôle; while the muscles, which are merely the "slaves of the will," obey the orders which emanate from the nerve centres. Movements are at first disjointed through lack of muscular co-ordination. But the will can overcome this disarray

by learning to direct the nervous energy into the proper channels and to suppress useless movements. To achieve this end of co-ordination, precision and agility of movement is the purpose of educative gymnastics.

Games supplement but in no way replace gymnastics. The latter develops method, system of movement. But physical education also requires exercises which develop initiative, and games serve this purpose. Games are the sole form of natural exercise, calling neither for extreme nor for purely localised muscular effort. They arouse, train and quicken thought; they develop the faculty of taking in the situation at a glance; breed tenacity, perseverance and quickness of decision. They also offer a maximum of moral profit. Children, organized for games, govern themselves, select their own leader, make their own rules, thus preparing themselves for social independence; and they are not only devoted to but often sacrifice their personal inclinations for the good of their organization.

Eurhythmic gymnastics associates music and such gymnastic exercises as marching, dancing, drill, etc. Repeated movements cease to be wearisome when performed to music, and are more graceful. Dancing develops suppleness and grace of leg-movements; arm-movements in the dance serving a decorative rather than a gymnastic rôle.

Interpretative dancing (orchestrique) seeks to interpret poetry and music in the form of gesture and movement. But this is no longer gymnastics, and there would be no great benefit in introducing it into the general educational system.

There are two tendencies in modern physical culture: the classic or Greek, which is emotional, sportive, combative, seeking to achieve health through strength; and the Swedish, which is rational, physiological and constitutive, seeking to achieve strength through health. Not one-sided athleticism, but well-rounded health is however, the proper aim of gymnastics; not mere strength, but health.

Dr. Helen Scalleri, Director of the Clinique de Constantinople, and medical inspector of the Greek Central School for Girls, Galata, said:–

Physical culture has as its ideal the development not only of a beautiful but also of a healthy body, according to the Greek motto: kalos k'agathos. Gymnastic exercises are not to be performed at hazard, but should be arranged by some one possessing a thorough physiological knowledge of the muscles, nerves and organs of the body, each set of exercises being arranged to develop a definite part of the body. This development, however, is not only muscular, but serves also to develop the organic functions. Thus, chest exercises develop the breathing capacity, and in this way they strengthen the lungs against tuberculosis and also help to purify the blood and increase circulation. Exercises for other parts of the body in like manner develop the organs and therefore the organic functions of those parts.

A most important function of gymnastic exercise is the increase of the circulation of blood, for it is the blood which has to carry nourishment to the different parts of the body. Especially important is this for brain workers. Abundance of pure blood means an unclogged brain. But too often does it happen that men of great mental capacity are unable to do their best because they are physically run down. In schools it is very necessary to note the physical condition of the students. Often a seemingly dull or restless student is found to be not mentally or morally defective, but simply in need of exercise. Regular gymnastic drill and plenty of open air exercise is essential to good mental work.

Another essential of health is the daily "douche" in cold or tepid water. This serves to keep open the pores of the skin and is very important, for when the pores are clogged the skin cannot function properly in casting off impurities.

But physical culture and the daily bath are not sufficient. Those who are interested in education should seek to secure a hygienic environment for the students. Among other essentials in school hygiene the following should be emphasized: (1) Securing proper ventilation of class rooms, i.e free circulation of pure air; (2) Preventing the overcrowding of class-rooms; (3) Giving students sufficient time for meals, for hurried eating of meals upsets the digestion and reacts unfavorably not only upon the physical health but also upon the mental capacity of the student; (4) Providing medical inspection for all schools, the inspector to be consulted not only on questions of the students' health but also to meet with the teachers and advise in the drawing up of the school curriculum; for it often happens that ambitious but unwise teachers, overcrowd their students with lessons and injure their health.

COEDUCATION AND SELF-GOVERNMENT AS MEANS OF DEVELOPING CHARACTER

By Dr. ELEANOR I. BURNS, Registrar, Constantinople College

There seems to be no reason why these two topics should be linked together unless it is that they are both comparatively recent developments in education, or that the problems of self-government might be complicated by co-education. I shall deal with the two subjects separately.

I. Co-Education.–In the United States there is a considerable difference between the east and the west in their attitude towards co-education. In the east the older colleges are almost always colleges for men. The women of the eastern states had to win recognition of their claim to an education equal to that of men. Women's colleges were established and later co-educational colleges were also opened. In the western states, on the other hand, the co-educational system is general.

The principle having become established that women have an equal capacity for and right to higher education with men, it does not necessarily follow that co-education is the best system for all ages. From experience in America and observation here my opinion would be that co-education gives best results with children under 14 or 15, and with university students. Above all, I believe that many educators today advocate the view that the best development of character during the period of adolescence, from 15 to 20 or 25,

is secured by dealing separately with boys and girls.

Does this system already exist in Constantinople? If so in schools of what nationality and among students of what age? From casual observation I would think that it exists for the most part in elementary community schools, though it has also been introduced to some extent into the Imperial Ottoman University.

Is coeducation likely to be more successful in national than in international schools? I believe it succeeds better in national schools, with their uniformity of ideals and customs than in those where many nationalities with different social customs come together.

II. Self-Government.—This system is often known as student-government, i.e., government of students by students. But the term "self-government" is preferable as suggesting the ideal of self-control, where not simply older and more responsible students preserve order but each student learns to govern himself.

To the question of the advisability of self-government I can find only one side, believing it to be one of the greatest forces in character building. And even with children the seeds of self-government can be planted. For if the order is less perfect under students than under teachers, the gain to the student more than balances this disadvantage; since the purpose of "self-government" in schools is not primarily to keep order, but to train the students in self-control, in the sharing of responsibility, in living and working together with others, in learning that increase of power and of privilege brings with it an increase of responsibility.

Can self-government be complete with students of all ages? No, I would answer; but the beginnings can be made even with young children, and with College, professional and University students, self-government should be unlimited.

Is it more satisfactory in national or international schools? My answer would be "Easier in national schools, but a greater force in character building in international, where the students learn not only team work with those of their own race but justice in dealing with those of other races."

In summary I would advocate: 1. Coeducation for elementary schools and Universities and professional schools, but separate schools during adolescence.

2. Some form of self-government, passing from limited in elementary schools to full self-government in Universities and professional schools, believing that through all movements, school discipline, sports, and societies, that develop self-government and individual responsibility, much can be contributed to the formation of a character that fits one for loyal, progressive citizenship.

Professor Giovanni Bianco, of the R. R. Istituti Medi Italiani, of Constantinople, led the discussion on this paper, saying in part:—

Co-education is the system followed in Italian schools of all grades, and I am a strong advocate of this system because I have taught and am still teaching in mixed schools and have found that the system works well. We have women teachers as well as men in all grades of schools, and there is no reason why the students as well as the teachers should not be of both sexes not only in primary and in university education, but also in the secondary schools.

Practically the only disadvantage in mixed schools is what one might call graphomania, a tendency to write verses and letters. But this inconvenience is slight and the advantages of co-education are great. There is in the first place emulation, a stimulus to better work. I have myself tried the following test in an eastern educational center. I carefully examined the class results in a class of boys, in a class of girls, and in a mixed class. In the last there was a much better grade of work. I do not know whether it was due to the influence of the girls on the boys or of the boys on the girls; so I will assume that the influence is mutual. The fact is that there is greatest emulation in mixed classes.

A second advantage of co-education is that it teaches boys and girls to have due regard for each other. The mixing of nationalities presents no difficulty. In the Royal Italian School at Pera we have mixed classes of all nationalities and have not noticed the slightest inconvenience. On the contrary, the presence of girls in the school brings about a higher standard of politeness. I heartily approve all that Miss Burns has said in favour of co-education, and would advocate the system for all grades of schools.

As for self-government, it is not applicable in Constantinople. The students of this city have not yet learned that sense of duty which this system calls for; and there are too many nationalities among the students, who therefore need guidance and control.

Mr. Levon Tashjian, Director of the Dayan Armenian School for Girls in Scutari, said:—

This is for me a most interesting topic, for I was one of a number of young teachers who some time ago sought to introduce co-education for the first time into some of the Armenian higher schools. The greatest difficulty we had to encounter on the part of the students was their shyness, the unwillingness of girls to recite in the presence of boys, and vice versa. So we began by calling boys and girls together for consultation in regard to their work and for explanation and discussion of lessons. Gradually they became accustomed to each other's presence and learned to recite freely in mixed classes.

The system of mixed classes met with violent opposition from parents, school-boards, and educational authorities. But the budgetary saving became a most important argument in favour of the system. And the success of co-education wherever tried is overcoming the prejudice against it.

In addition to the saving in expense for equipment and teaching staff, the strongest argument in favour of coeducation is that it teaches boys and girls how to conduct themselves towards each other. If the system is perfectly natural for young children and desirable in university and professional education, why should it not work equally well in secondary schools? The school is the place where boys and girls are to fit themselves for their life in society. They must learn, in

(Continued on page 166)

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EDITORIAL SECTION

Ideal conditions prevailed for the Educational Conference at Constantinople College on Wednesday last, and about one hundred and fifty persons availed themselves of the chance to attend, besides the faculty and the two upper classes of the College. The capacity of the dining hall limited the number of those invited to take lunch as the guests of the College; but the rest enjoyed picnic lunches under the trees of the spacious grounds. In the absence of Dr. Patrick, who returned from the International Women's Congress in Athens too late to be present, Dr. Lawson Chambers presided at the sessions. For the benefit of those who did not understand both languages, the substance of each address was given in both English and French, though this consumed extra time. We hope this kind of University Extension course may again be given, and that a larger number of the educators of the city may take advantage of it another time. Even the presentation of such live topics is of value; and if there were also time arranged for discussion, it might be still more helpful.

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The addresses as here given are some what abridged, but with four exceptions are based on the manuscripts supplied by the speakers. The reports of the addresses of Dr. Scalleri, Prof. Bianco, Mr. Tashjian and Mr. Berberian are based on notes taken during the conference or supplied by the speaker; but while they may fail to do justice to the addresses, they probably represent the views of the speakers.

It is very regrettable that no French name appeared on the list of speakers. M. Thomas, who had been asked to speak, was unfortunately unable to be present. But besides the seven nationalities represented on the program, there were in the audience representatives of the Bulgarian, French and Russian schools.

Several practical suggestions were made at the Conference regarding what the American colleges might do for the school teachers of the city, all of which are worth considering. The first step in the introduction of such features is their full and free discussion, for what appear like obstacles often disappear under the light of an exchange of views. One was the introduction of courses in pedagogy, or the beginning of a Teachers' College. Normal training in this city is provided only in the Government Normal schools; and it was urged that American methods and a really American normal course would greatly improve the quality of work done in all the schools. There have been normal courses in American girls' schools in several parts of this country for some time; and in Sivas the Boys' Normal had developed before this disastrous war into a College, but unfortunately it is not now functioning. There is a chance for serious and much appreciated normal training in the Capital as well.

A second suggestion was the establishing of an international association of the teachers of the city,—something permanent as the outcome of these helpful gatherings of the year. Such an association takes time and thought in the details of organization; and it is well to let the idea simmer in the minds of the teachers for a time, till a practical program may be evolved and elaborated for presentation. But the real and beneficial results of such an association will readily suggest themselves, and the matter should not be allowed to drop.

The third suggestion was that of a summer school for teachers to be held at one or other of the American Colleges, probably in English with some courses in French. If the hours could be arranged so that all the instruction could be before noon, or before one o'clock, the problem of a noonday meal would be eliminated. If the course were limited to six weeks, it would not impose too great a burden on the management; and if the individual courses were some of them of only two weeks each, some who plan for a summer of change could perhaps be induced to sacrifice that much of their vacation for one summer. But these are details; the idea in itself is attractive and may prove practicable.

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NOTES

Mr. Luther R. Fowle left last Wednesday for Salonica, to attend the Annual Meeting of the Balkan Mission. He will be gone for about ten days.

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A party of about twenty American tourists under the guidance of Dr. H. H. Powers, President of the Bureau of University Travel, and Mrs. Powers, came to Constantinople ten days ago and have gone on to Athens. Another party under the same Bureau is due to arrive here in the summer.

—

Mr. Lewis Heck, of the General Motors Company, has gone to the Balkan States on a business trip.

school, how to conduct themselves when they become men and women. By a system of self-government, gradually applied, they are to learn self-control, discipline, and responsibility. And the education of boys and girls together is an important factor in their training as citizens. But in running a co-educational institution two essentials are firmness and idealism. The students must be drilled with a firm hand in self-control and propriety of conduct; but the inspiration to propriety of conduct must come from the ideals of manhood and womanhood which are held up to them in school.

THE ELECTIVE SYSTEM

As a means of Attaining a High Standard of Scholarship.

By President MARY MILLS PATRICK, LL.D.,
Constantinople College

(Read by Miss MARY A. HALL)

The problem of education is identical with the problem of life. To solve this problem well, to unfold the latent powers of the human spirit, is a most important function of education. Education "draws out" but it does not put in. It does not transform, but it may and should perfect. "The function of education is the development of inherent powers toward the exaltation of character."

During the last half century, while the ideals of education have not changed, great changes have come over our colleges. The greatest change is the general introduction, in larger or smaller measure, of the elective system.

There are two principal causes for the development of the elective system: – First: Modern standards demand that education fit the student for practical activities. Second: A greater degree of specialization is demanded in all subjects. And this does not apply alone to so called practical subjects but also to theoretical studies. It is not only true that a student must have specialized several years in order to study engineering or aviation, but it is also true that an equal amount of specialization is necessary for one who wishes to teach any subject.

We wish to speak briefly of the nature, objects and results of this elective system, especially as bearing upon the development of a higher grade of scholarship.

In the first place, the elective system is a system – a carefully arranged scheme of numerous courses of instruction, not a wide open miscellaneous bazar at which a bewildering variety of goods is offered to the purchaser, who chooses without guidance and without any sensible motive. An elective system pre-supposes a well-ordered series of consecutive courses in each large subject, which courses must be taken in sequence; no advanced course to be chosen unless the necessary foundation is laid.

And in a well managed institution a student cannot take an advanced course without consultation with, and the consent of, the instructor, who must be satisfied that the student is well prepared to do the work, which the instructor habitually demands.

The elective system then is orderly, though it may be as extensive and complex as the college wishes.

The primary object of the elective system is to enable the serious student to select his studies in accordance with his tastes and capacities. He is able to select those studies which interest him, with the result that he works much harder than he would on subjects which do not interest him, makes more rapid progress, and arrives sooner at the satisfactory stage of real intellectual achievement. Any human being, whether child or adult, whether hand-worker or brain-worker, will always work harder and accomplish more in a task which interests him.

But how is it with the college student who is not serious? What use will he make of the broad range of optional subjects? He would most likely wish to avoid advanced study and make his selections from the more elementary courses. But should he be an attendant in a college where the group system in connection with a minimum of required work is the college policy, he can scarcely avoid serious work.

There is, moreover, a great advantage in the elective system for the student who enters academic work disposed to follow the path of least resistance and to hunt out soft courses. It gives him a chance to get waked up from his childish state of mind and will, and to develop some power of application, and some desire for intellectual achievement. With this also comes the added sense of responsibility which this freedom gives.

The elective system does not mean liberty to do nothing, for while it allows every student to choose his subjects of study; the amount of his work remains prescribed, and its quality is tested by means of periodical examinations, essays and laboratory work, and frequent conferences between teacher and student. There are numerous competitive inducements to strenuous study. As a method in education it has emphatically a moral as well as an intellectual end.

Some critics will say – "Granted that the elective system is a good system, why should it be allowed in a college, why not keep it in the graduate or professional school to which it belongs, or in the University?"

There are two reasons why this is impossible: – First: All men and women are not able to attend universities, but many must consider their education finished after attaining a Bachelor's degree in College. Second: The University course is not of sufficient length to meet the demands for specialization, which must be begun in previous training.

That there may be no loss of general culture, this must be gained if possible in the preparatory work and in the first two years of a college course. The better preparation now given in many schools has enabled the college to ask for higher entrance requirements and – what is more important – exact these with greater firmness, so that what was first feared when the elective system was advocated – the loss of general culture and of a mental training sufficient to give a student judgment for using the elective system – has been reduced to a minimum.

The most important effect of the elective system is that it encourages and makes scholarship more possible among undergraduates, graduate students and college teachers. Quality not quantity—is the aim of the educator.

In the prescribed college curriculum, which dealt almost entirely with the elements of subjects taught, because it tried to include a little of everything, there was little in the work of the college teacher which stimulated him to deeper intellectual research. Seldom did he become an advanced student or investigator. There are cases of course when he did become a real scholar, but this was accomplished under most unfavorable conditions of pursuing advanced work. This aspect of the profession of teaching in higher institutions of learning has greatly changed in American colleges since the elective system has been introduced. A professor has time to become not only an inspiring teacher, but also an enthusiastic student as well as an indefatigable investigator.

The results, then, of the elective system may be stated as follows:—

First. It permits a student to concentrate his work upon subjects in which his capacity is greatest and so to make rewarding progress in his chosen lines of study. This freedom for the student has the incidental advantage of developing advanced instruction in the college, where such a development has not been obtained so promptly and completely under any other system.

Second. The students who, while in college, discover what their future profession is to be, have the chance of choosing courses which aid in that profession. Let us illustrate this. A student who intends to study medicine elects from the groups of science and mathematics, and thus arranges to do all the required pre-medical science work in the Junior and Senior years of his college course, but he is also able and required to elect a few courses in other subjects, such as philosophy, history, literature, etc.

Third. The standard of what is reckoned decent scholarship is steadily rising.

Fourth: The elective system leads to a greater increase of intercourse between teachers and students for intellectual objects and also of associations for the same objects among the students. The pleasure and profit derived from these societies are increased by the variety of studies and intellectual interests found among the members of each society, along side of the common study. A small elective course is the occasion of profitable personal relations between teachers and students.

"The education accomplished this way, although broad in certain lines, above all furnishes the depth of knowledge in a special subject that practical life demands."

Prof. Arnold J. Toynbee, of Oxford, gave a sketch of the educational system in England. He said:

Education in England has been standardized far less than in other countries. And until recently it has been more conservative than either American or Continental education in departing from the system of studies founded by the great European humanists four centuries ago.

The typical education "ladder" in England has three rungs: the Preparatory school, 8th to 14th years; the Public school (a misleading name, as these are really private lycées, not governed by the State), 15th to 19th years; and the University, 20th to 23rd years. The scope for specialization differs also according to the tradition of the institution. The preparatory schools, being a recent growth, are comparatively modern and adaptible in their methods. The studies of the University have been directly affected by the development of new branches of knowledge. The Public School has remained the most conservative of the three.

Formerly, English higher education was almost entirely confined to classics and mathematics. There was no room for election. Latterly two tendencies have gained ground rapidly: to put other subjects on an equal footing with the classics, and to allow specialization in some subject or group of subjects according to the student's degree of advancement. As a practical illustration I will describe the specialization in my own education.

(1) At my preparatory school, classics were still the staple, but every day we had also some French, mathematics and manual work (carpentering, drawing, painting, etc.) During my last two years I prepared to compete for a classical scholarship at a Public School, and specialized on additional classics; dropping all the manual work except carpentering.

(2) At my Public School, there was no election in my time, except for boys preparing for the army. For all others classics remained the staple subject from bottom to top, and other subjects were cramped. Only during the last two years boys with a mathematical or scientific bent might drop some (but only the smaller part) of their classics, while boys with a classical bent might drop mathematics altogether. I myself gave up mathematics, and spent the extra time in a wider reading of classics with a view to a classical scholarship at Oxford. Other schools had already started "modern sides," in which boys could elect mathematics, science and modern languages, dropping Greek (but not Latin) except as it was required for entrance into the University.

(3) At the University, I specialized completely in the Classical Honours course, while others specialized in the other Honours courses. But two points deserve attention:—

(a) This specialized classical course has recently been broadened by internal development. The study of the Greek and Latin historians has developed into a general study of Ancient History; and the study of the Greek philosophers has been expanded to include the study of the moderns.

(b) The ordinary or pass degree course, which the majority of students take, is arranged on the group system: i. e., the student may qualify by passing in any one of half-a-dozen alternative groups of subjects. The subjects in each group are fixed and cannot be modified at the student's choice. But by choosing one of the fixed groups rather than another the student can concentrate on several related subjects in which he or she is specially interested, and avoid a subject for which he has a special distaste or disability.

I may say in conclusion that the abolition of compulsory Greek for the entrance examination at Oxford removes a formidable barrier to the development of the elective system lower down the ladder.

Dr. Patrick's paper was discussed by Prof. S. S. Emmanuel, Ph. D., of Robert College, who said:—

I cannot disagree with Dr. Patrick in fundamentals, but I merely wish to define some questions and make some additional remarks.

There are two causes for the necessity of the elective, or selective, system: (1) Education has to consider the practical aims of students in after life, for they are being educated not for school, but for life; (2) The public demands more specialization than before, both in teaching and in life. This demand for specialization seems to be justified, for three reasons: (a) There has been such a great increase of knowledge, especially in the fact that in addition to the old standard subjects of the classics and mathematics, we now have modern languages and their literatures, modern science in its many departments, and the higher mathematics which is the foundation of many of these sciences; (b) The strength and the time of the student is limited; he cannot take all these subjects, but must select certain ones; (c) There has been a change in the ideas of educators as to the aim of education, the old idea was that it consisted in the transmission of knowledge, while the modern idea is that it consists of dicipline which will enable one to use his own talents. And this method requires more time than the old system.

In the multiplicity of subjects offered under the elective system, it might seem difficult to decide how to select. Here nature comes to our relief, for all men are not equally qualified to study all things. Some will succeed in one subject where others fail; some will prefer one line, others another.

On the other hand, the idea that each one should study what is according to his ability might have its difficulties, for we might have to have a special school for each; but here again there are certain types of mind under which all can be classified into categories, and these types have determined certain groups of studies.

As to the nature of these groups, the American system is that of a major subject and certain minor subjects; but one doubts the wisdom of students in selecting their own subjects so freely. The advice of teachers is often a corrective; and there are tests which are used to determine fitness, the practical results of which are not all good. The European system seems to me preferable, in this there are certain well-determined groups in which pretty nearly everything is fixed for the student. The school thus makes sure that each student takes certain humanistic studies, such as history, philosophy, religion, literature, in addition to biology, or mathematics, or classics.

Another important topic, as yet unsolved, is as to the age when such specialization should begin,—whether in the College years, or afterwards, during the professional course only.

Mr. I Asseo, of the Lycée Juif, Pera, also spoke, as follows:—

I see no serious objection to the elective system in principle, but find dangers in its application. This eminently supple system is well calculated to meet the demands made today upon secondary education. A man, in order to live, has to make himself useful to society; and he can be useful only as he specializes in some definite branch of human activity. Specialization is the condition of victory in the struggle for existence and it is the "promised fruit" in colleges which have adopted the elective system. I fear, however, lest the desired specialization be prematurely begun, before the student has achieved intellectual maturity. It frequently happens that that students of the second year at college have not yet found their true vocation; and that in full adolescence, i.e. at about 16 or 17 years of age, tastes and vocations hitherto unsuspected make their appearance.

While everybody agrees on the necessity of furnishing the student with a fund of general knowledge, the advocates of the elective system would be satisfied with what the student learns in the primary schools and in the first two years of college, whereas the adversaries of this system would consecrate the whole of the secondary school course to the study of general subjects, postponing specialization till later. The former seek to turn out as soon as possible individuals capable of productive activity and therefore ceasing at an early age to be parasites on society. The latter would feed this "useless mouth" longer, hoping for more fruitful results, desirous of producing men who can employ all their faculties sanely and nobly.

The former attach great importance to the time factor, for they are dealing with individuals whose life is short, and seek to furnish each one with that which he needs in order to be useful to himself and to society. The latter attach less importance to time for they envisage the progress of society, which has before it at least long centuries, if not all eternity. What matters it, say they, that we keep the student one or two years longer, if by that we not only prepare engineers and doctors who are not simple machines for building bridges and curing the sick, but also raise the intellectual level of humanity?

Stating the case in this way, one finds it difficult to pronounce in favor of this elective system which not only savors of utilitarianism, but is detrimental to the all round development of the individual. Is not the task of educational institutions just this, to check this tendency towards one-sided development, this idealization of the practical for which the educator, like the prophets of old, is to substitute the cult of the just, the true, and the beautiful?

Doubtless certain specialized studies lend themselves to high purpose, but only if they are studied much longer than is possible in a college course. And even then there will likely be lacking that broad vision which can embrace and harmonize diverse domains of thought.

And if most students are unable to go to a university, what good is it for them to commence a specialized course of study which they cannot carry to its completion? Would it

not be better in the case of such students to develop all their tastes and faculties equally and harmoniously?

As Kant has said, "The young should be educated not with a view to the present state of humankind, but with a view to a better state, possible in the future, the ideal of Humanity and of its complete destiny."

WHAT THE AMERICAN COLLEGES CAN DO FOR THE PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS OF THE CITY

(By Prof. FLOYD H. BLACK, Robert College)

The conferences on education which have been held at Constantinople College during the past winter have constituted a decided step in the direction of closer understanding and cooperation between our American schools and the schools of the city. Nothing enlists sympathy more quickly than such an attempt to bring about a better understanding of each other's work among those who teach the youth of any community. Good schools and able teachers are fundamental to the welfare of society, and the improvement of both is a task worthy of the best efforts of us all. In all our efforts toward the improvement of schools we must remember that the prime consideration in every school is the teacher. The standing and worth of the school begins and ends with its teachers. Hence in seeking opportunities to help the schools of the community in which we live we should lay the greatest stress on securing for teachers better moral, intellectual, and economic advantages. With these considerations in mind it seems to me that the most important topic suggested for our discussion today is that of finding ways to help the teachers of Constantinople. This brings me to the subject proposed: What can the American Colleges do for the Primary and Secondary School Teachers of the City.

The American colleges enjoy a unique advantage in two respects. First, they have stood so long and so openly in the communities in which they are found that they have won the respect and confidence of all elements in those communities. Their aims and methods are well understood. Second, they have always stood quite apart from all local divisive interests and rivalries. Their doors have been open for fifty years to all the communities that make up this cosmopolitan city. And all have come to them. They recognize a duty and a debt to all. They are parties to no propaganda except the propaganda of culture, of education. Furthermore, they seek no advantage for themselves that they are not desirous of sharing with others, in so far as such can be shared. Hence their efforts toward cooperation are met with general confidence. Those of us who have the privilege of teaching in these colleges regard ourselves as co-workers with all who sincerely and disinterestedly work for the building up of education in Constantinople. Hence we feel that we have a right to suggest to the teachers of the city such things as we think will be of use to them, at the same time recognizing our indebtedness to them for instruction they can impart to us. It is an exchange, not a free gift, on the part of each.

The first is by the development of a school of education at each of the colleges, the one for men and the other for women. This suggestion brings up two practical difficulties, that of curriculum and that of expense. In regard to the first, the chief difficulty is that of language. At present few of the students would come to us with a knowledge of English. In the course of time this obstacle will be partly overcome through the courses in English that have been established in a large number of the schools of the city, even in some of the elementary schools. This will eventually assure a good reading knowledge of English, if nothing more. For the present courses might be arranged for those who know English and for those who do not. Lack of time prevents any discussion of the first of these, but I will try to develops briefly the second, i.e. courses for those who have completed the training courses in the local schools but who do not have a sufficient command of English to enable them to take regular work in education with us. They would want to specialize. They would be well trained in their vernaculars and in French and could be given the opportunity to specialize in one or both of these. For example, a Greek student could be given the opportunity to specialize for one or two years in Greek studies to prepare himself to teach in the secondary schools of his nationality. The Greek department could handle this. These are suggestions only, as the time at my disposal does not allow further discussion.

Now as to the expense of such courses, we should have to face the fact that the students would pay at most only a small part of the cost of their education. But this need not startle us too much, since none of the students in the higher courses pay more than a fraction of the expense to which the colleges are put on account of them. As a matter of fact students for the teaching profession would cost the colleges less than students in any other special field except commerce. It may be objected that most of those who plan to become teachers are too poor to pay even the tuition fees. That is true, and hence it would be necessary for the colleges to charge only a nominal fee instead of the regular tuition. Probably few could be received as boarders. I shall not develope this further since all I wish to show by these suggestions is that such courses for teachers are practicable. The details would have to be worked out in conference. I regard this as the first and most valuable way in which the colleges could help the teachers of the city.

The second of these ways would be to assist in organizing in the city, where they would be accessible to all, a series of educational conferences similar to those that have been held at Constantinople College this year, but on a more extensive scale. Such an enterprise could be successful only on the condition that it have the active interest and support of the leaders in educational work in the city, i.e., directors of secondary and primary schools, members of school committees, professors at the university, and others whose interest in the subject might be sufficient to make them willing to devote both time and thought to its success. It seems to me that the colleges might be able to take the first steps

to toward forming such an organization. It would not need be large or complex. A committee representing the different elements in the city would be sufficient. All should be represented. It should be a cooperative movement. Lectures should be given in French, if possible, or should be interpreted in French if given in any other language.

If such an undertaking should prove successful, there are at least three definite lines along which it might develope in the future. First, it might become possible to inaugurate a regular series of weekly lectures on Educational topics, as the history of education, the principles of pedagogy, and related subjects. The courses could be so arranged that by following them for two or three years a young teacher could gain a thorough introduction to the science of education. Second, steps could be taken toward the formation of a circulating library for teachers. This would involve some expense both for its acquisition and for care, since it would be necessary to have some one paid for part time to look after the books. At present there is no public library in Constantinople that in any adequate way supplies even a part of the population of the city. Aside from the university and the two American colleges there are no school libraries of any consequence. Hence there is great need of such a library for teachers. Third, steps might be taken toward the publication of a teachers' journal devoted to the interests and needs of teachers in Constantinople. In such a project the colleges could lend valuable assistance.

In the third place the colleges might seek to come into a relationship to the schools of the city. This would be, I am persuaded, of much benefit to both the colleges and the local schools. In the planning of courses and in the development of their work the colleges are often hampered by the fact of their isolation from the local schools. Bu it is not the institutions themselves that I am thinking of so much as it is the teachers. I feel that our work might be made much more valuable to the colleges if we were thoroughly conversant with the courses of study, the methods of instruction, and the teachers in the local schools. I confess that the gain from this would be principally on the side of the Americans; and yet there are ways in which this would be of service to the local schools. Let me point out one advantage, in particular, which would come to them. A large part of the schools have begun the teaching of English as a regular part of their curricula. Indeed in many schools English is given the same time as French. In giving courses in English two difficulties arise, that of finding well prepared teachers, and that of securing proper text-books. Conferences on the teaching of English might be organized by the English departments. This would doubtless be of much benefit to teachers of English in the city. The problem of securing proper text-books for classes in English is also a serious one. The teachers are not familiar with English text-books or with publishing houses in England or America from which they can be secured. Valuable assistance might well be rendered in this matter by the English departments in the colleges.

In these three ways, then, I feel that the American colleges might be of direct and immediate aid to the teachers of the city. First, by the organization of courses in education, or normal courses, at the colleges so arranged as to make it possible for teachers of the city to attend them. Second, by assisting in the organization of teachers' conferences in the city of such a kind as would be helpful to the local teachers. Third, by the cultivation of a closer acquaintance between the teachers in the colleges and the teachers in the city schools. In undertaking any or all of these the colleges would profit fully as much as the teachers in the local schools.

In discussing this topic, Esma Hanum, of the Bezmi Alem Lycée, Stamboul, said:—

Education, being the knowledge of principles for the best conduct of life, is an absolutely practical thing, since it aims at a purpose which is immediately in connection with life.

The generally chaotic and heterogeneous state of our country is reflected in our principal ideas and manifested in our methods. In this country people never agree on anything, not even on the question of education. The colleges can do much for leading in the best practical path the teachers of the primary schools, by showing them the soundest and most useful methods for creating men and women able to find sufficient resources in themselves in life.

As far as teaching in Constantinople is concerned, we have not a rational nor practical method admitted as best or at least considered as good. We are in this respect in a state both sceptical and chaotic. Nevertheless the primary school teachers must come to an agreement on the education of young people, considering that the colleges receive their pupils from the primary schools. Very often pupils on leaving primary school are obliged to adapt themselves to quite a different method. Much trouble could be spared both to teachers and to pupils if there were an understanding both as to method, and as to practice according to circumtances. For instance, the teaching of languages and religious instruction ought to be according to different nationalities. I should say the same thing of moral teaching for it is especially in this sphere that one comes across the confusion of systems. However there should be an accord on the essential principles and on the best method for obtaining practical results. As to the execution of this plan, I think there should be regular meetings four or five times a year at some school in Constantinople, for the discussion of these important questions, where we could not only outline, as we are doing to day, the best methods followed in civilized countries for the improvement of teaching and for laying sound moral foundations, but also present the records of the results obtained from the use of this or that method. This close contact of the teaching staff of the colleges and the primary and secondary school teachers would certainly be of very great use for harmonizing the ideas on the methods for realizing the greatest benefit possible in teaching.

We must come to a harmonious understanding as to ideas and system which does not exist yet among those responsible for the education of the young of this country. We know by our own experiences with young pupils what a

misfortune this diversity and divergence of views on education is for the country and its people.

Constantinople College has proved the great usefulness of an institution which is conscious of its mission and has a well defined method. I am quite certain that very satisfactory results can be obtained if the College continues to take the initiative every time it is called upon to render a service for the education of society.

Mr. Shahan Berberian, Director of the Berberian College at Scutari, said: –

Prof. Black has limited himself to the question what the American Colleges can do for the teachers of the city. I would like to consider the more general question: What service can colleges as such render to teachers? The crying need of the teachers of Constantinople today is training in pedagogy. I thing it is correct to say that of all the different nationalities which have schools in Constantinople, the Turks alone have normal schools, established by the government. The large majority of our teachers, of Armenian nationality at least, have had no normal training. The colleges of the city could therefore render no greater service to teachers than by establishing pedagogical courses, the classes to be given at hours when teachers actually engaged in teaching in the schools of the city may be free to attend.

I would advocate the introduction of pedagogical courses into the colleges rather than the establishment of separate normal schools, for the following reasons.

(1) The influence on the college students in general. Some of these courses in pedagogy would be taken not only by students who intend to be teachers, but by others as well. This is the case in the Collège Berberian where it has been found that students who have studied such subjects as educational methods, educational psychology, etc., become interested not only in the pedagogical subject they are studying but also in their other classes. They get a theory of education and of life. They understand the principles on which the curriculum of the institution is based. In this way they become more conscious and therefore more conscientious students; they study knowingly and with a purpose, and become a strong element of support to the teachers and of controlling and guiding influence on their fellow students.

(2) The influence on the prospective teachers. Normal schools – and especially primary normal schools – draw their students from a limited circle, those, viz, who have chosen teaching as their career, and give a limited, purely pedagogical education. Their clientèle is therefore apt to be narrow and professionalized; and their graduates lack that broad educational basis which a college circle affords. In the college the prospective teacher meets people preparing for different professions than his own; he is thus kept in touch with interests beyond those of his own profession. Also the mental atmosphere of a college is rich and high; the prospective teacher is in daily contact with people who are doing advanced work in the humanities and the sciences, and he has the opportunity of taking some of those courses himself. Thus the introduction of pedagogical courses into colleges would not only be more economical than the institution of separate normal schools, but it would also be of advantage to the normal students themselves.

(3) The influence on the teaching profession. Colleges where courses in pedagogy are being offered would become centers for teachers. This would not only bind the colleges and the schools together by the contact of school teachers with the college life; but it would make the colleges the centres of pedagogical study and research, and a source of of guidance and inspiration to the teachers of the city.

SUNDAY SERVICES May 1, 1921

DUTCH CHAPEL,	11 a.m. and 6:30 p.m. Rev. Robert Frew, D.D.
ROBERT COLLEGE,	11 a.m. President Gates 5 p.m. Communion Service
CONS/PLE COLLEGE	(Vacation)
MEMORIAL CHURCH	10.15 a.m. Rev. R. F. Borough

FOREIGN EXCHANGE, April 26th

(Values in paper liras)

Dollar	1.40	20 leva	0.34¾
Pound sterling	5.50	20 marks	0.43½
20 francs	2.11	20 kronen	0.04½
20 lire	1.39	Gold lira	5.62
20 drachmas	1.72		

LATEST NEWS

To meet the demand which our customers have placed on our *Tailoring Department* we have had to move the same to the 4th floor.

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