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I. INTRODUCTION

China has been in the process of modernizing her education during the last two decades, but no greater progress has ever been made in any time of the period than in the last five or six years. Prior to 1919, roughly speaking, education in China was on a crossroad of foreign examples. At one time, she had to model after the Japanese system; at another, the German system; and at still another, the American system. The imported systems of education from foreign countries, fruitful however they might be on their own soil, could not blossom well when thus transplanted. It was not until very recently that an awakened realization began to set in in the mind of educators and people in general that they must thoroughly study and examine their own needs and problems before they can adequately work out a system of education which will be truly Chinese and of real service to China. But in order to understand fully the effects of this realization and of its subsequent deliberations and solutions as set down in the following pages, it will be well here to indicate the forces that have brought about this great change.

Perhaps the most profound influence is undoubtedly the so-called Chinese Renaissance. The Renaissance began in 1917 as a "Literary Revolution" when Dr. Hu Shih and his followers declared that the old classical language had outlived its usefulness and that *Pai-hua*, or the spoken language, should be its legitimate heir. The Literary Revolution met with astonishing success. In spite of strong opposition on the part of the conservative scholars, the younger generation received it with overwhelming enthusiasm. This rediscovery of a living language for the Chinese has enabled China to produce new literature

fitted for the new age, has revolutionalized elementary school reading materials as well as methods of teaching them, and has made it possible for the mass education movement to go on with its program of eliminating illiteracy in the country.

But the influence of the Renaissance is more than this. It is a movement through which all the traditional values, including the educational, are judged from a new standpoint and with a new standard. Tradition is often thrown overboard, authority is cast aside, old beliefs are being undermined. In the words of Dr. Hu, this "systematization of the national heritage is a revival or rebirth of that spirit of criticism and research which animated the works of the Han Hsueh scholars of the last three centuries." As has been said before, China in the former years followed her neighbors rather blindly. At first, she sacrificed everything old for the new. But now and only gradually, she has begun to realize that the old is not necessarily bad and the new is not necessarily good. Her reaction toward new theories and practices is no longer imitative adoption, but question, examination, experimentation, and selection. This undoubtedly is a wholesome attitude, and the logical outcome of this attitude in the field of education is the creation of a new system which is best fitted for the need of New China by assimilating what is best in the old as well as in the new, in itself and from outside.

II. ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION

1. Administrative Units

a. Central Administration

The administration of education in China is highly centralized in theory but decentralized in practice. At the head of the educational system, there is the Ministry of Education which legally is the final authority over all the educational matters of the country. It has three bureaus: namely, (1) the Bureau of General Education, (2) the Bureau of Higher

Education, and (3) the Bureau of Social Education. The more important officers of the Ministry are the minister, the vice minister, three councilors, three directors of the Bureaus, four secretaries, and sixteen national inspectors of education. Important actions of the Ministry are generally brought to the consideration of the Ministry conferences, which are attended by the councilors, directors, secretaries, and others who may be requested by the Ministry to be present from time to time. Such conferences are presided over by the minister. He is a member of the Cabinet and he chooses his subordinates subject to the approval of the Cabinet. Owing to the political instability of the country in recent years, the position of the Ministership changes hands frequently, sometimes as many as five times in a year. But the vice minister usually holds a longer time and the councilors, directors, and the secretariate remain in office for a still longer term. It is to them that the continual functioning of the Ministry is largely due.

However, in spite of the fact that the activities of the Ministry have often been restricted and held back by the frequent changes of its head, it still enjoys much of its old prestige. With the coming of a united country and the appointment of a right person at its head, the Ministry may still become a driving force in the advancement of education in the years to come, although it is likely that local initiative will be more encouraged and its former bureaucratic influence will be curtailed.

b. Provincial Administration

In the provinces, there are now three existing forms of educational administration, namely: the bureau form, the department form, and the commission form. The province of Kwangtung has tried a fourth plan under the name of the Committee of Education, but it is now abandoned. In those provinces in the southwest, the bureau of education has generally been adopted. Thus in Yünnan, Kweichow, and

Hunan, the bureau form of education exists. The director of the bureau is appointed by the governor of Yünnan and Kweichow, but is elected in Hunan by the Provincial Assembly. The department of education is found in the provinces of Kwangsi and Szechwan and is legally vested with less power than the bureau of education. The rest of the provinces all have the commission form of administration, at the head of which is the commissioner of education. He is appointed by the president of the Republic upon the recommendation of the minister of education, and is under the direct control of the Ministry. But in directing the educational affairs of the province and in supervising his subordinates in the management of local education, the commissioner of education is required to work under the governor of the province, being thus doubly responsible both to the minister and to the governor. As a consequence, the power of the commissioner varies with the different provinces, depending upon the will of the provincial governor. As he is farther away from the Ministry and nearer to the governor, there is every temptation for him to follow the dictates of the governor rather than his superior at Peking.

The Commission of Education has two or three departments for carrying out the main groups of educational affairs. Besides, there are generally from four to six inspectors of education for each province.

c. Local Administration

The local administration is divided into two units, the county unit and the school district. Below the province, there is the county. There are two systems of county school administration. First, we have the Bureau for the Promotion of Education, whose function it is to assist the magistrate in the educational administration and in supervising the school work of the self-governing district. The bureau has a superintendent and a few assistants. But besides the superintendent, there is under the magistrate an educational secretary and also a county

inspector who is independent of the superintendent. These three men hardly agree with one another. This triangular administration of county education has proved very troublesome. It is now being gradually replaced by the new creation of the County Board of Education.

The County Board of Education was inaugurated in 1922. It attempts to unify the county school administration. Under this system, the inspectors are brought under the direction of the superintendent, who is appointed by the provincial commissioner of education upon the recommendation of the magistrate of the county. There is another attempt in this new scheme, that is, the granting of more powers to special cities for the independent management of their schools and making the county government take charge of the village education only. This principle, however, has not been vigorously applied, although the seed has been widely sown.

The lowest unit of local administration is the school district. The county is divided into several school districts, each of which has a delegate of school affairs, sometimes with an assistant. The school districts in China are not vested with sufficient power to cope with their responsibility. It is most loosely and inefficiently organized. The province of Shansi alone has the best organization of the local unit. Every village in the county and every street in the city has responsible persons to take charge of the educational welfare and they are given much power to perform their duties. Reorganization of the lowest unit, therefore, is one of the most urgent problems to-day.

2. Inspection and Supervision

In China, there are three grades of inspection; namely, the national, the provincial, and the county inspection.

According to the regulations of 1913, the whole country is to be divided into eight inspectional districts. Each district has two national inspectors. The regular school inspection

generally begins in the latter part of August and ends in the first part of June. The inspection covers all phases of general and social education. Special inspection may be made by the special order of the minister. When the inspectors are not on their inspection tours, they are required to be present in the Ministry to attend to other duties that may be assigned to them. During the last few years, all these regulations appear in letters only, the national inspection of education being almost entirely absent.

The provincial inspectors of education are appointed by the commissioner of education. There are four inspectors for the smaller provinces and five or six for the larger ones. Below the province, there are county school inspectors. Under the old system, they act as agents for the county magistrates for the school affairs. But with the adoption of the system of the Board of Education, the county inspectors are put under the direction of the county superintendent of education. The county inspectors visit the schools under their charge from once to three times a year.

The functions of the inspectors of education are enumerated in the educational code. There are seven duties for the national and provincial inspectors, and thirteen duties for the county inspectors. But in actual practice, the inspectors are simply visitors, reporters, and, worst of all, faultfinders. Most of them do not realize that their mission is to give inspiration, encouragement, and a helping hand to the principals and teachers in service. In recent years, there has been a tendency to protest against this negative inspection and to advocate in its place a system of constructive supervision. The province of Kiangsu has set up a noble example in this respect. Beginning with last year, the commissioner of education has invited experts from the National Southeastern University and other institutions to serve as supervisors of special subjects. Thus the supervision of vocational education, science teaching, physical training, and normal education were all instituted,

This year, the supervision of social sciences and national language are introduced. It has thus opened in China a new era in school supervision and inspection.

3. Educational Finance

Roughly speaking, there are three grades of schools supported by three respective sources of funds. The higher education is mainly supported by the national fund, the secondary education by the provincial fund, and the elementary education by the county or local funds. There are exceptions, but in general, this statement holds true.

As the national revenue comes from the customs duties, such as salt tax, stamp tax, tobacco and liquor licenses, profit from telegraphs, railways, and postal service, land tax and likin, etc., the national fund for national education is drawn from the complex of these sources. With the exception of a few institutions such as Tsing Hua College, the University of Communication, the Wuchang Normal University, which draw their respective support from special sources, others get their shares from the general appropriation. The national institutions located outside of Peking secure their appropriations from the national fund put under the custody of the provincial treasury. According to the budget of 1919, the only one accurately constructed, the appropriation for the national education of \$5,028,836 was really less than one per cent of the total government appropriation for the year.

Although there are professional schools and colleges conducted by the provincial governments, the province is still mainly concerned with secondary education. There is a tendency for each province to maintain a full college, but so far very few provinces have succeeded in their realization. The main sources from which we draw funds for provincial schools are the surtaxes, especially the surtax on land. Kiangsu and

specified use of provincial education. Two years ago, the Chekiang are now levying special taxes on tobacco for the province of Szechwan tried to devote its almost two million dollars of pork tax to education but without much result. The tax on transfer of deeds and ownership adopted in Honan yields an annual income of \$1,000,000 to its provincial support. In the face of financial distress, a number of new solutions have been proposed. They are still at the stage of trial and error. In order to give some idea of the extent of provincial support of education, we may mention as representatives of the extremes that Kiangsu is spending \$2,800,000, Chekiang, \$1,500,000, and Kiangsi, only \$600,000 annually.

As a general rule, the county supports the elementary education by surtaxes on land, miscellaneous assessments, rent, and interests from the academic properties handed down from the old dynasties. The Shansi system of supporting schools is, so far, the best that has been evolved in this country. In the cities, stores and houses are graded and assessed according to their standing for the support of the city elementary schools. In the villages, a land tax is levied according to its quality for the support of the village education.

On account of the political unrest and irregular expenses for military purposes, the schoolmen are confronted with the uncertainty of educational funds. The provinces that have been seriously short of funds are Kwangtung, Fukien, Kiangsi, Szechwan, Anhwei and Hunan. The provinces that are better off are Fengtien, Yunnan, Shansi, Shensi, Shantung, and Honan. But, in general, the teachers in China are serving the country at the greatest personal sacrifice.

The problems with which we are now chiefly concerned are: (1) How to insure regularity of payment of the educational fund by legal protection and economic devices, so that those who are in educational service can be free from financial anxieties and give their whole-hearted devotion to the

educational cause; (2) how to reorganize the tax system so that the burden as well as opportunity for education can be equalized; (3) how to stimulate educational activities through a proper system of distribution and subsidies without curtailing local initiative; and (4) how to economize the use of the present fund so that the maximum of educational results can be achieved at the minimum cost.

III. THE NEW SYSTEM OF SCHOOLS

1. The System

"China has had at least four systems of schools within the last twenty years." The newest one was adopted in 1922, as a result of three years' deliberation initiated by the Seventh Conference of the National Federation of Provincial Education Associations in 1919. There is no space for us to discuss the historical development of the system. The issues that have been evolved in its make-up will be touched upon in connection with the discussions of the grades and types of schools which follow. Since 1922, committees have been organized and kept busy drawing up new courses of study in order to cover this skeleton with flesh. This year has witnessed the completion of all the new courses of study except a small part in vocational education. They were voted upon and approved by the Tenth Conference of the National Federation of Provincial Education Associations and were submitted to the Ministry of Education for promulgation.

On page 10 is a diagrammatical representation of the new system of schools adopted by the Twenty-Third Ordinance of the Ministry of Education. It will be noted that the left column in the diagram represents the standard ages at which a student should enter the different grades. In practice, however, these are to be determined according to intelligence, record, and other considerations.

2. The Divisions of Schools

a. Pre-School and Kindergarten Education

Kindergarten education has been given a place in the new system and admits children under six years of age. The practice schools of the normal schools, especially the normal schools for women, usually have kindergartens attached to them. There are also kindergartens conducted by private persons and by the missions. But the total number of kindergartens is yet very small. As kindergarten training gives the children an opportunity for active self-expression and also for interaction between the child and the teacher, it is very necessary to have first the adequate institutions for the training of kindergarten teachers. The resolution for more trained kindergarten teachers passed in January, 1924, by the Kiangsu Conference

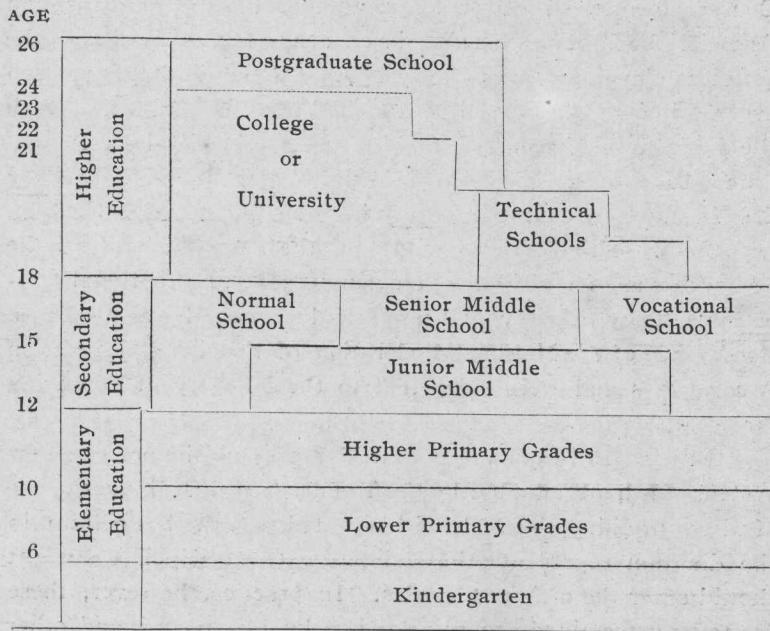


Diagram Showing the Chinese School System

of Educational Administrators is an indication of the need felt. The Hunan Education Association has also this year advocated the establishment of more kindergartens in cities and towns. The Kiangsu Compulsory Education Association has even recommended the adoption of kindergarten methods in the lowest grade in the elementary schools. Another very encouraging and more significant fact is the experiment on kindergarten education conducted by Professor H. C. Chen, of the National Southeastern University. Impressed by the fact that the subject matter and methods used in the kindergarten are borrowed from foreign countries and some of them may not be suitable for the Chinese children, he and his staff began in the fall of 1923 to experiment on the self-made toys, Chinese mother-goose stories, and other materials. He is also trying to make the kindergarten a training center for mothers as well as a center for the education of young children. — The Chinese National Association for the Advancement of Education and Professor Chen have agreed to coöperate in including in his plan an experiment on the least possible cost of conducting the kindergarten education so that it could be duplicated in the largest number of communities.

b. Elementary Education

According to the new system, attendance at the elementary school is limited to six years, but it may be extended to another year in order to suit local needs. The elementary school is to be divided into the lower primary and higher primary grades. The former consists of four years and may be established separately.

The courses of study drawn up by the Committee of Eighteen for elementary schools are as follows:

SUBJECTS		PERCENTAGE OF TIME DEVOTED TO EACH SUBJECT	
		In lower primary grades	In higher primary grades
National Language	Conversation	30%	6%
	Reading		12%
	Composition		8%
	Penmanship		4%
Arithmetic		10%	
Social Science	Hygiene	20%	4%
	Citizenship		4%
	History		6%
	Geography		6%
Nature Study		12%	8%
Gardening			4%
Industrial Arts			7%
Imagery Arts			5%
Music			6%
Physical Education			10%

It is further recommended that there should be at least 1,080 minutes per week for the first two years, 1,260 minutes per week for the third and fourth years and 1,440 minutes for the two higher primary grades. The number of minutes are to be distributed into suitable periods for the six days' work. In village schools, the subjects may be combined and simplified, but the time allotted to national language and arithmetic should by no means be reduced.

According to the new system, compulsory education is temporarily limited to four years. If local circumstances are favorable, the period may be extended. The school age for compulsory education is left to the determination of different provinces and special districts in accordance with their local situations.

Compulsory education has been contemplated by the central authority ever since the Tsing dynasty. It was not until 1920 that the Ministry of Education mapped out the definite steps for the enforcement of the same in different communities at specific times. The specifications are as follows:

- 1921, provincial capitals and open ports
- 1922, county seats and cities
- 1923, towns above five hundred families
- 1924, towns containing above three hundred families
- 1925, and 1926, towns containing above two hundred families
- 1927, villages containing above one hundred families
- 1928, villages containing below one hundred families

On account of the political disturbances in recent years, the above program has rarely been vigorously enforced. The province of Shansi alone, however, stands out most prominently in its achievements. The Shansi program has seven steps to be completed in seven half-years, from 1918 to 1921. Although complete success has yet to be achieved, the latest return of statistics shows that more than seventy-two per cent of the children at school age are now in schools. Illiterate adults below twenty-five years of age are also required to attend continuation schools to study common Chinese, arithmetic, and things which a citizen ought to know.

Another phase in connection with elementary education which may be mentioned here is the village school movement. As more than eighty per cent of the total population live in villages, it is of the greatest importance that village education should receive our closest attention. Recently, the Back-to-the-Country Movement has gathered much strength. The Chinese National Association for the Advancement of Education has created a special committee on rural education. The Tenth Conference of the National Federation of the

Provincial Education Associations, which met in Kaifeng last October, has also devoted much deliberation to this important matter. The Kiangsu Compulsory Education Association, which met in Wusih in August, spent three days in drawing up seven practical suggestions for the development of the village schools. Beginnings of special investigations of typical village schools in typical communities have been conducted by the Kiangsu Compulsory Education Association and the Chinese National Association for the Advancement of Education. The reports, fragmentary as they are, have already stirred up great interest in and enthusiasm for the village education. As the average village generally cannot support an expensive education, the Chinese National Association for the Advancement of Education has selected a few village schools where the principals have shown ability in new village leadership to conduct experiments on the best possible village education with the lowest possible cost. It is hoped that in the course of a few years, standards for village education can be developed for a nation-wide adoption.

The language problem has practically been settled, after China has struggled through centuries against the diversity of dialects throughout the country. Dr. Hu Suh's Literary Revolution has exerted the most profound influence on the elementary schools. The vernacular language, or the "living language," is now welcomed by most of the elementary schools. The Fengtien authorities, however, have shown some reaction against the use of the vernacular language. Kwangtung is still hesitating to adopt this change. But in the long run, the living vernacular language is destined to prevail in all the elementary schools.

c. *Secondary Education*

In regard to secondary education, the new system has the following to say: "Attendance at the middle school is limited to six years, which are to be divided into two periods of

SUBJECTS		CREDITS
Social Sciences	Citizenship	6
	History	8
	Geography	8
Language and Literature	National Language	32
	Foreign Language	36
Mathematics		30
Nature Study		16
Arts	Drawing	12
	Manual Arts	
	Music	
Physical Education	Physiology and Hygiene	4
	Physical Exercises	12
TOTAL		164

three years each, the junior middle school and the senior middle school. . . . The junior middle school offers general education, but it may give various vocational subjects according to local needs. The senior middle school is divided into the general, the agricultural, the technical, the commercial, and the normal course. These courses may be given independently or severally in one school at a time."

In the secondary schools, the credit system is adopted. A credit is defined as one hour of class work plus preparation. Subjects with no preparation will have a proportionate reduction in credits. The junior middle school requires the satisfactory completion of 180 credits for graduation, of which 164 credits are for required work. The required courses of study for the junior middle as drawn up by the Committee of Twelve are as follows:

The courses of study drawn up for the senior middle school by the Committee of Nine are composed of three years of study, namely: (1) General study required of all students should occupy about forty-three per cent of the credits; (2) studies