

I-0060

0009

三都
太田

教育

亞細亞局

第一課甲

在漢口日本總領事館

昭和五年五月五日

B11

公信第ハ七號

昭和五年一月十八日

在漢口

總領事 桑島 主計

外務大臣男爵 幣原 喜重郎 殿



湖北省教育概況報告ノ件

辛亥革命後漸ク國民教育ノ緊要ナルヲ痛感シ政府當局ハ種々計劃スル所アリタリト雖モ連年續發スル封建軍閥ノ爭鬪ハ軍費ノ急ニ應スルカ爲メ教育費ヲ流用シ教育事業ノ發達ハ遲々トシテ進歩セス事實湖北省

612.4.21

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ニ付テ見ルモ學齡兒童總數二百六十余人中二百五十余人ハ今尙不就學ノ狀態ニアリ然ルニ民國十七年南京政府成立以來國民教育ハ勿論一般民衆教育ノ必要ヲ宣傳スルト共ニ中央及地方當該官憲ヲ督勵シテ教育ノ發達普及ヲ計レリ今後中央政府ノ基礎愈々強固トナリ各地政情安定スルニ於テハ各級教育ハ其ノ面目ヲ一新スヘシ既ニ昨民國十八年七月湖北省カ武漢派ヨリ南京政府ノ權力下ニ移リテヨリ僅々六ヶ月然カモ其間馮軍ノ背反、張發奎軍ノ獨立更ニ唐生智ノ反蔣等大小内亂相踵キテ起レルニ拘ラス湖北省内ノ教育狀況ハ相當發達ヲ示シタリ就テハ何等御參考迄ニ民國十八年十二月末現在ノ省、市、縣經營ノ教育概況別紙ノ通り查報ス

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湖北省教育概況（民國十八年十二月末現在）

甲、省教育

(一) 省立及私立中等學校

(二) 省立小學校

(イ) 省立完全小學校

(ロ) 省立初級小學校

乙、漢口市教育

(一) 市立小學校

(イ) 完全小學校

(ロ) 初級小學校

(ハ) 職業學校

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(二) 私立小學校

(イ) 普通私立小學校

(ロ) 教會立小學校

(ハ) 私塾

附、

民國十七年度湖北教育統計

漢口市立小學校教職員俸給表

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甲、省教育

民國十八年湖北省立中等學校八十五校、完全小學（本邦ノ尋常高等小學校ニ相當ス）九校又初級小學校（本邦ノ尋常小學校ニ相當ス）三十九校ニ過キサリシカ同年七月現教育廳長黃昌毅ノ就任以來銳意教育機關ノ擴張ト内容ノ充實ニ努メタル結果六ヶ月後ノ同年末ニハ初級小學百六十校トナリ完全小學十五校ニ増加シ中等學校ハ十九校ニ増加セリ

(一) 省立及私立中等學校ノ教職員生徒數並ニ經費表

校名	教職員	生徒	每月經費
省立第一中學	六二	四八九	七、二六八
省立第二中學	七〇	四七八	七、五三八

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省立第三中學	五二	二一一	六、一九〇
省立第四中學	四五	三二一	五、七三四
省立第五中學	三五	二三八	五、九八六
省立第六中學	三六	二九八	四、六六三
省立第七中學	二六	二三六	一、八〇〇
省立第八中學	四五	二七九	五、二八六
省立第九中學	三二	四〇〇	一、八〇〇
省立第十中學	二四	一九八	一、二〇〇
同第十一中學	一二	一二〇	九〇〇
同第十二中學	二三	一六一	一、五〇〇
同第一女子中學	五一	五三七	六、八九二

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同第二女子中學	四二	二七〇	四、六六八
同師範	二六	二〇四	四、〇九四
同女子師範	二〇	一九〇	四、一三二
同鄉村師範	二八	一四〇	六、〇一八
省立職業	三〇	一〇七	四、六一六
同女子職業	三二	三二七	四、二二四
計	一九	六九一	八四、五〇九
私立文學中學	二五	一八三	二、〇〇〇
群化中學	二六	二一〇	二、八〇〇
文華中學	三四	三四五	四、〇〇〇
荆南中學	二七	二二七	三、五五七

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江漢中學	二〇	一五二	五、〇〇〇
楚材中學	三〇	三二〇	四、二〇〇
博文中學	二〇	二〇〇	二、〇〇〇
聖希利達女子中學	二二	二二〇	三、八〇〇
美術專門	五四	四五六	九、九八五
中華大學	九〇	一、六〇〇	二六、〇〇〇
少計	三四八	三、九一三	六三、三四二
總計	一、〇二八	九、一六六	一四七、八五一

右ノ外宜昌ニ私立女子中學一校アリ
 上表ニ依レハ湖北省ノ省私立中等學校ハ總計三拾校ニシテ内省立
 學校ハ十九校ニシテ教職員總數六百九十一名生徒總數五二〇三名内

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男生三千八百七十九名女生千三百二十四名ニシテ男生ハ全數ノ七割四分女生ハ二割六分ニシテ各教員ノ受持生徒平均數ハ七人トナル省政府ノ教育費總額ハ八万四千五百九元ニシテ各校平均四千四百四十七元各生徒一名平均ハ十六弗余トナル

(二) 省立小學校

(1) 省立完全小學校

校名	教職員數	生徒數	每月經費
實驗小學	四八	六五三	五二九三
第一小學	四一	六一九	三八〇六
第二小學	二八	四四三	二四四七
第三小學	三九	七三二	三八五二

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第四小學	四一	七三〇	四〇四九
第五小學	四九	七一二	四四八三
第六小學	四五	五三四	三九七七
第七小學	四九	七三八	四四五二
第八小學	四二	四〇六	二六三二
第九小學	四二	四二八	三八八八
第十小學	四一	四四九	三八八八
第十一小學	二八	三六五	二七八六
第十二小學	二六	二九三	二七八六
第十三小學	二八	三八二	二七八六
計 一四	五四七	七四八四	五、一一二七

右表ニ依レハ完全小學經費ハ年額六十一万三千五百二十四元ニシテ各校平均四万七千九百九十四元ニシテ又生徒一名當リ約八十二元トナル又每校平均生徒五百三十四名又教師ハ每校約三十九名平均トナリ教師ノ受持生徒數ハ平均十九名トナル、

(回) 初級小學

省立幼級小學ハ總數百六十校ニシテ内六十校ハ武昌ニアリ 余ノ百校ハ省内各ニ散在ス每校生徒平均五十名教師ハ二名乃至三名ニシテ總經費全額二百四十七万元ナリ、

民國十七、十八兩年度湖北省教育狀況比較

學 校	學 生		小 學 生 教 育 費
	省私立 中等學校 全小學	省立初 級小學 上ノ學生	
十七年度	二六	九	三九 六四三一 六、五四五、九〇〇、〇〇〇 元
十八年度	三〇	一五	一六〇 八一〇一 一五、八八四、二七〇、〇〇〇
增 減	四	六	一二一 一六七〇 九、三三九 八〇〇、〇〇〇

漢口市教育、

民國十八年七月漢口特別市教育局成立以來局長王大ハ銳意小學教育ノ普及發達ニ努メ同年十二月ニ到ル六ヶ月間ニ職業學校一、完全小學校三校、初級小學七校ヲ増設シタル外從來ノ小學校ヲ擴張シ大

ニ其面目内容ヲ改メタリ

市立小學校

(一)完全小學

	教員	級數	月額
市立第一小學	二四	一〇	二六三〇
〃第二小學	三一	一三	三三五〇
〃第三小學	二三	一〇	二七七三
〃第四小學	二四	八	二二四〇
△〃第五小學	二九	十一	二九二〇
〃第六小學	二三	九	二四八八
〃第七小學	二〇	八	二二三五

△〃第八小學

二六五〇

△〃第九小學

二六六〇

△ハ何レモ民國十八年九月ノ新設ナリ

(二)初級小學

第一初級小學	一	四一	一	一二九
第二〃	一	五〇	一	〃
第三〃	一	七四	一	〃
第四〃	一	五四	一	〃
第五〃	一	四八	一	〃
第六〃	一	四二	一	〃
第七〃	一	六一	一	〃

第十九	第二十	第二十一	第二十二	第二十三	第二十四	第二十五	第二十六	第二十七	第二十八	第二十九
一	一	一	一	一	一	一	一二	一	一	一
四九	四二	三九	五四	六〇	四八	三八	一四	四七	四六	四五
一	一	一	一	一	一	一	四	一	一	一
〃	〃	〃	〃	〃	〃	〃	五五六	一二九	〃	〃

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第十八	第十七	第十六	第十五	第十四	第十三	第十二	第十一	第十	第九	第八
一	一	一	一	一	一	二一	一	一	一	一
四一	五〇	四〇	五〇	四二	八二	一九八	五〇	五二	五〇	四二五〇
一	一	一	一	一	一	四	一	一	一	一
〃	〃	〃	〃	〃	一二九	五五六	〃	〃	〃	一二九

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第三十	一	五〇	一	一二九
第卅一	一	一	四	民國十八年 九月新設 五五六
第卅二	一	一	一	一二九
第卅三	一	一	五	六八六
第卅四	一	一	四	五五六
第卅五	一	一	一	一二九
第卅六	一	七〇	一	〃
第卅七	一	一	一	〃

小學教育ノ外漢口教育局ハ本市カ國內商工ノ中心ナルニ鑑ミ昨年十月漢陽ニ市立職業學校ヲ設ケタリ同校ハ商科、染織科、及應用化學科ノ三科ニ分シ現在教師十九名生徒八十七名ニシテ毎月ノ經費ハ三

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千五百元ナリ、
私立小學校
(イ)私塾、
漢口市内ニハ九十餘ノ私塾アリ何レモ我國維新當時迄ノ寺小屋式ノモノニシテ單ニ讀書習字ヲ教授スルニ過キス塾生モ極メテ少數ナリ
今後市立小學ノ増設擴張ニ伴ヒ漸次衰退スヘシ
(ロ)私立小學校
民國十六年以後支那人設立ニ係ル私立小學校（完全及初級）ハ十五校アリ又外國教會設立ノ小學校三十八校アリ全部英米基督教會ノ設立スル所ナリ

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漢口小學校教育機關（民國十八年十二月末現在）

	完全小學	初級小學
市立小學校	九	三七
私立小學校	一一	四
教會立小學校	九	二九
計	二九	七〇
外ニ個人經營ノ私塾九十七箇アリ		九九

湖北省内六十九縣ニハ縣立完全小學校二百六十四校アリ男生徒二万八百八十六名女生徒四千三百十人計二万五千九十六名ニシテ每校平均生徒約九十五名トナル又縣立初級小學ハ總數三千五百十四校ニ

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シテ男生十一万五千五十三名女生徒一万五千二百八十九名計十二万六千三百四十二名ニシテ每校平均約三十六名ニシテ多數ハ單級制ナリ尙右ノ外縣教育施設トシテ初級中學四校職業學校六校幼稚園五所アリ各縣立教育機關總數三千八百余ニ達シ毎年教育經費百四十余万元ニ上ル

（民國十七年湖北省教育統計、

	男	女	計
學校數	三、七五一	一一〇	三、八六一
學生數	一五、九〇〇	九五五六	一七一、四五六
教員數	六、四五七	五〇四	六、九六一
事務員數	九八二	五一	一、〇三三

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經費年額 三、二三〇、〇三七 元 三〇一、五八五 元 三、五三一、六二二 元

(乙) 省立中等學校學生教育費割

省立第一中學	一七八元	省立第九中學	五一元
" 第二中學	一八九元	" 第十中學	七十二元
" 第三中學	三五二元	" 第十一中學	九〇元
" 第三中學	二一四元	" 第十二中學	一一二元
" 第四中學	三〇二元	" 第一女子中學	一五四元
" 第五中學	一八七元	" 第二女子中學	二〇七元
" 第六中學	一九一元	省立師範	二四〇元
" 第七中學	九一元	" 女師	二八二元
" 第八中學	二二七元	" 鄉村師範	五一六元

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省立男子職業 五二二元

" 女子職業 一五五元

第七、第九、第十、第十一、第十二中學ハ本來縣立ニシテ省教育廳ヨリ毎月三百元宛補助シ居レリ

(丙) 完全小學生教育費年額

省立完小	九七元	省立六小	八九元
省立一小	七三元	" 七小	七二元
" 二小	六六元	" 八小	七七元
" 三小	六三元	" 九小	一〇九元
" 四小	六六元	" 十小	一〇四元
" 五小	七五元	" 十一小	九一元

幼 級 小 學 校			
職 別	級 別	正 校 長 及 教 員	專 科 教 員
1		185	180
2		180	125
3		125	120
4		120	115
5		115	110
6		110	105
7		105	100
8		100	95
9		95	90
10		90	85
11		85	80
12		80	75
13		75	70
14		70	65
15		65	60
16		60	55
17		55	50
18		50	45

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完 全 小 學 校			
職 別	級 別	校 長	教 員
1		180	140
2		170	130
3		160	120
4		150	110
5		140	100
6		130	90
7		120	80
8		110	70

漢口市立小學校長及教職員俸給月額表
 即平均每學生教育費八〇元三角
 十三小 二四元
 省立十二小 七二元

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(分類 11.4.0.2-2)

蒙古學生に 學費を補助

張作相氏感謝さる

張作相氏は南北統一、嘗て、自國の下に滿洲の遺物たる十旗の旗隊が存在する事は不合理であるとして、昨秋之を撤廃すると同時に十旗官兵の俸給を取消し、此の年額吉林大洋十二萬三千元を、學生學費の補助に充當した爲め、一般旗族から大に稱讃さるゝに至つた。今、省方面の旗學生に對する補助分額を擧ぐれば次の如くである。

- ▲大連滿鐵各道教習所二十四名、一名年額金二百四十圓、總額五千七百六十圓
- ▲ハルビン工業大學百二十七名、本科年額大洋八百元、雜費年額大洋六百五十元
- ▲國內北平、天津、上海、漢口、奉天等各地大學本科生九十名、一名年額現大洋二百元、雜費九十名、年額現大洋百五十元
- ▲吉林大學本科五十名、一名年額吉林大洋百六十元、雜費七十名、八十元
- ▲省内高級中學及後期師範百六十名、一名年額吉林大洋四十元、初級中學四百五十名、一名年額大洋二十元(吉林特種)
- ▲米國留學三名、一名年額六百圓、總額千八百圓
- ▲日本留學十五名、一名年額金七百二十圓、總額一萬〇八百圓

新聞 昭和八年二月二十日

張作相氏は國に於て教育を興へしを以て

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歐米局

第一課

各省...

昭和五年二月四日

接受

秘

案祥字收第百六十八號三

昭和五年二月二十六日

東支鐵道事務局長心得

振務次官殿
 外務次官殿
 内務省警保局長殿
 在奉天、天津、上海、吉林、
 各總領事官殿
 世平、上海各事務官殿

東支鐵道「ソ」ソ縣邦僑學校開設状況
 案祥字

分類 I 1.4.0.2-2
 8.612.47 Tach.
 612.42

本月八日以來東支鐵道「ソ」ソ縣邦僑幹部等係
 リテ東鉄「ソ」ソ縣邦僑學校、其作爲學方針考完
 中、此今四急々決定夫々東鉄沿線之内布アリ在
 趣十方之係「ソ」ソ縣邦僑、子弟ヲ教育スルニ學校
 之必要然支那小籍及無志籍諸人、子弟ヲ入學セシメ
 「ソ」ソ縣邦政府、過去十数年、作験ニ依リ、其教育主義
 實爲「ソ」ソ青年、階級ヲ登效、其既ニ二十歳ヲ越スルモノ
 「ソ」ソ、效果落シト謂フ統計、其地ヲ出テ見モノ
 之今、故青年、對シ積極的意義ヲ爲スモノト觀察
 サレウ、其東鉄南邦線實據子及密門、状況ヲ見
 此等之記、通、有之、右以参考及通邦也
 記

一、東段後宮宮門小中學校、昭和七年七月、時局
紛糾當時校長「ニコライヤコヴイツキ」外二名、辞
職ヲ見タルニ校長欠負ノ債務師十四名ツ以テ校
業ヲ繼續シ来リタカ過般東段各中學校職員ノ
更迭問題傳ハラル、ヤ宮門中學校職員一月、極力當
任運動ヲ行ヒ先様ナリト云フ、今西段各師十四
名事務負小使各一名罷免シ新ノ芳述「ヤコヴ
イツキ」校長以下二名修節シテ、二月十六日迄再賞
ヲ却任シ他ノ補欠職員近ク任命着任先狀況ナリ
而シテ「ヤコヴイツキ」校長着任後、小中學校現
在生徒ニ對シ、本月二十日迄、各自ノ自分以テ、届ケ校
長宛ニ提出スルハ、通知シ、其ヤ各名ノ身分詳細、備書
ニ依リ「ソ」聯邦公署ノ有無ヲ審査シ、前示内節、

源ル支那の籍及無名籍ノ人ノ子弟ヲ退學セシ
ムトト見前提ト見ラレ辰シリ（二月九日迄、此身分詳細
書提出者約百二十名アリタリト）
二、南部線寬博子、於去去年二月十日「ソ」聯邦借小卷
校「ソ」シ「モ」フ「校」長以下二名着任ス、翌十三日
「井」校



6129.48

6129.48 I.Y.O. 2-2

吉林省政府教育廳ハ首題ノ件ニ謝シ東北政務委員會ヨリ訓令ニ接シ管下

抗俄戦死將士ノ子女入學費免除辦法

滿	關	關	奉	內	外	內	拓
鐵	東	東	天	務	務	務	務
情	州	東	省	務	務	務	務
報	駐	軍	哈	香	香	記	次
課	在	憲	爾	賓	賓	官	官
	海	兵	參	各	各	官	官
	軍	隊	謀	領	領	官	官
	武	謀	領	領	領	官	官
	課	武	領	領	領	官	官
	長	官	長	長	長	官	官
	長	官	長	長	長	官	官
	長	官	長	長	長	官	官
	長	官	長	長	長	官	官

亞細亞局
謝儀高收第六八一三號ノ二
昭和五年三月十八日
關 東 廳 警 務 局 長 心 得

第一課甲

昭和五年三月廿七日接受

中五分三ノ下
滿洲教育

五十名ト各級（二、三、四年生）十名ノ募集ニ對シ應募者其半数ニ充テ
ザル狀況ナレハ森田同公學堂長ハ之カ善後策ニ付考究中ナルカ兒童ノ敬
誠充レザル復強テリ 尙文郡側方面ニ於ケル同公學堂生徒募集廣音ノ如
キハ破棄剝奪セラルル等勸告ヲ綴リ從來同地方ニ見サル排他的恩潮ノ勃
興シツツアルヲ認メラル

「以上」

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0026

各縣教育局ニ移牒シタルカ其ノ譯文左記ノ如シ

記

抗俄戰死將士子女入學費免除辦法

第一條 抗俄戰死將士子女ノ系統本籍氏名年齢ハ軍事機關ニ於テ詳細之ヲ調査スヘシ

第二條 確實ナル調査ヲ爲シタル後之ヲ總括シ當該省又ハ東省特別區教育廳ニ報告スヘシ

各省及東省特別區ニ在リテハ之ヲ登録シタル後入學費免除證書ヲ該戰死將士遺族ニ交付スヘシ

第三條 東北各省區所屬ノ公立學校ハ若シ該證書ヲ所持スル學生アリタ

ル場合ハ須ク學費ヲ免除スヘシ

第四條 戰死將士ノ子女ニシテ既ニ入學年齢ニ達シタル者及戰死者ノ子孫ハ孰モ此ノ權利ヲ享有ス

第五條 學費免除證書ハ其ノ本人ニ限り有效ニシテ若シ讓與貸與等ノ事實アリタル場合ハ該證書ヲ取消スノミナラス其ノ學費ヲ追徴ス

第六條 戰死將士ノ遺族ハ入學時ニ際シ學費ヲ免除スル外其他在學中ノ待遇ハ孰モ普通學生ト同一ナルヘシ

第七條 學校ハ該學生ヲ收容シタル場合ハ之ヲ本省或ハ特別區教育廳ニ報告スヘシ

尚該廳ハ毎年之ヲ總括ノ上軍事機關ニ通報シ該廳ニ便ナラシムヘシ
第八條 本辦法中不備ノ點アル場合ハ隨時稟請ノ上之ヲ修正ス 以上

通

a

612.65

第一課

昭和五年五月壹日

昭和五年五月壹日

紙添付

教

普通往信第一五三號

昭和五年四月七日

在九江

領事代理

河野

清



外務大臣 男爵幣原喜重郎 殿

縣民平習藝設計畫大綱送附ノ件

本年二月十九日附普通第八二號掛信所報事項ノ各地方縣下ニ對スル
擴張計畫トシテ今般本件ニ關シ別紙ノ通計畫大綱議定セラレタルニ
付右調査資料トシテ報告ス。

本信寫送附先

在支臨時代理公使（上海、北平） 上海、漢口各總領事
南京領事

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縣平民習藝設計書大綱

一、組織

所長一人、會計庶務一人、材料出納員一人、營業員一人（或ハ商店ニ依托シ販賣ス）、教師五人、殘役二人、藝徒五十人

二、科目

織布「ハンカチ」、藤竹、漆木、刺繡、裁縫、

設置科目ハ各地共必スシモ一律ナルヲ要セス當該地方ニ於ケル
出産原料及需要狀況ニ依ルヲ準拠トス

三、經常費

所長月給四十元、會計兼庶務月給二十元、材料出納員月給十六元

營業員月給十元、教師一人ニ付月十五元、繻雜役一人ニ付六元、
藝徒食料一人ニ付月三元、雜費四十元
合計月三百七十九元 年五千〇四十八元

四、事業費

毎年四百五十二元

設立後四、五年ヲ經營業狀態好調ヲ呈シ來ルニ從ヒ漸次本項經費ヲ削減シ以テ次イテ撤裁ス

五、開辦費

イ、機具設備一五百元、ロ、材料一二十元

各縣設立ノ科目ハ前項記載ノ通一律ナラサルヲ以テ所要機具亦之レヲ豫定スル能ハサルカ差當リ本計畫大綱列記ノ織布「ハン

カチ「藤竹、漆木、裁縫、及刺繡等項ニ依リ之レヲ見積リ織布
機五座、約百二十五元、附屬品約二十五元、「ハンカチ」機五
座約三十五元、附屬品約十五元、藤竹工具約三十元、漆木工
具約四十元、各項用具（職工、藝徒ノ寢臺及椅子等）約百五十
元、裁縫機六十元（中古機購入）、附屬品五元、刺繡工具十五
元、合計五百元

六、經費捻出方法

イ、各縣原有慈善費及建設費項下ヨリ若干割ヲ抽出スル事
ロ、廢祠、淫廟ノ競賣及其他縣政府ニ於テ適宜措置スル事

七、進行順序

舊制府屬或ハ現在ノ市ヨリ着手シ漸次僻處地方都市ニ及ハシム。
（以上）

京都府

第一課

京都府知事

昭和五年五月廿六日接受

BII

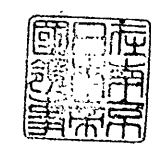
口虎(氏)印

普通送第三二八號

昭和五年五月七日

在南京

領事 上村 伸一



外務大臣男爵 幣原 喜重郎 殿

京市婦女協會接收ニ關スル件

南京特別市黨部ハ京市婦女協會ニ對シ四月末日ヲ限り閉鎖スヘキ旨命
シ陶寄天呂英兩名ヲシテ同會並城内外兩所婦女補習學校接收ニ當ラシ
ムルコト、シタルカ五月六日附ヲ以テ右協會所有文書、印信、器具及
現金等全部ノ接收ヲ了シタル趣ナリ

附録 J. P. O. 2-2

右報告ス

本信寫送付先 公使 北平 上海

[Faint, mostly illegible text, likely a copy of the report mentioned in the header.]

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郵政印局

公第三七二號

昭和五年五月九日

在廣東

總領事代領事須磨彌吉郎

外務大臣野村吉三郎 敬

文化事業司

不保乙

附報

T.P.O. 2-2

廣州市教育狀況查報函三件
本件廣州市地特別市政府於調查處此
南一御參考並進報告人詳細別添統計表
御參照相成後

記

在廣東日本總領事館

一、學校數		二、學生數	
大學	7	大學	280
專門學校	14	專門學校	205
中等學校	54	中等學校	280
小學校	147	小學校	205
合計	222	合計	280
大學	男女	專門學校	男女
2	18	2	18
14	10	14	10
54	20	54	20
147	26	147	26
合計	222	合計	280
小學校	男女	小學校	男女
147	26	147	26
合計	222	合計	280
總計	222	總計	280

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統計



週刊

(一)

廣州特別市政府統計股編

第一卷 第四期

民國十九年四月十二日

廣州市教育狀況

本府調查本市教育，始自十八年四月間。當時調查分兩部：一為市立學校，一為不屬市轄之學校。前者交由教育局負責調查；後者由本府直接向各校調查。

調查事項，計有三種：一，關於學校方面包括學生畢業生教職員及每年經費。二，關於學生方面，包括學生年齡及其家中之職業。三，關於教職員方面，調查其生活狀況。惟後者僅限於市小學教職員。關於畢業生之狀況，及學生成績，以及其他事項，調查殊非易易，故均暫時從畧。

所收回之調查表，缺憾甚多。內中填註各項，有前後矛盾者，有問非所答者；而尤以教職員生活狀況調查表為最。故現在祇就各調查表能用之材料，作簡單之分析。缺漏之處，自所不免。

本市學校教育在十七學年，大中小學校計共280間。（參攷廣州市教育狀況表(A)）學生57,492人，全年經費八百餘萬。就中大學7所，專科14所，中學54所，小學205所。至補充學校共有457所。（參攷廣州市教育狀況表(B)）

以近三學年之學校狀況比較，（參看近三學年各種學校狀況比較表）小學之增減較中上學校為多。

關於學生年齡（參看學生年齡統計表）大學生多在20歲至26歲，專科在18歲至23歲，中學生在15歲至19歲，小學生在9歲至13歲。其中各表所載人數，與學校狀況表人數不同。因各校所填學生總數，與學生年齡表多有出入也。

教職員生活狀況調查表，收回719份。惟內中所填多不合用。故僅選出130份分析之（參看教職員生活狀況表）依收入與支出之比較，大抵衣食住三項，即須占收入百分之70以上。然如依各人家中人數與支出之比較，租金一項，在家庭支出中所占百分數與人數成一反比；食用一項，則正比。其理因甚明也。雜費占百分之15，數似稍大。但可惜無法再細分析。依收入狀況比較，薪金收入，占百分之80。其他各項所占百分數固甚微也。

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(二)

民國十七學年
廣州市教育狀況
(A) 正式學校

Table with columns for school types (University, Special, Middle, Primary) and metrics (Number of schools, Students, Graduates, Teachers, Expenses).

* 私立學校之已在教育局立案者
○ 非市轄包括省立公立私立各種學校而不受市教育局管轄者
◎ 專科學校包括各種專門及專一科目之學校
* 包括中大預科生560人南大預科生11人

(B) 補充學校

Table detailing supplementary schools including Private, Farmer, and Kindergarten schools, with columns for school type and metrics.

◎ 補習學校之已在教育局立案者

(18)

(三)

廣州市近三學年各種學校狀況比較

(A) 大學及專科學校

Table comparing university and specialized schools across three years (15th, 16th, 17th) with columns for school type, year, and metrics.

(B) 市立中小學校

Table comparing city-run middle and primary schools across three years with columns for school type, year, and metrics.

(C) 非市轄中小學校

Table comparing non-city-run middle and primary schools across three years with columns for school type, year, and metrics.

市立學校根據教育局報告編列其他各校根據本府收回調查表編列

(19)

(四)

民國十七學年 學生年齡統計

(A) 大學及專科學校

年 齡	大 學				專 科			
	男	女	合 計	百分比	男	女	合 計	百分比
15	4	4	.15
16	3	3	.25	15	15	.57
17	15	1	16	1.33	43	7	50	1.91
18	61	4	65	5.41	244	144	388	14.82
19	125	4	129	10.74	290	128	418	15.97
20	139	8	147	12.24	313	139	452	17.31
21	127	4	131	10.91	205	125	330	12.60
22	127	8	135	11.24	162	112	274	10.47
23	138	2	140	11.66	101	121	222	8.48
24	113	13	126	10.49	56	77	133	5.08
25	126	2	128	10.66	57	63	120	4.58
26以上	175	6	181	15.07	114	97	211	8.06
合 計	1,149	52	1,201	100.00	1,604	1,013	2,617	100.00

(B) 中學及小學校

年 齡	中 學				小 學			
	男	女	合 計	百分比	男	女	合 計	百分比
5	168	112	280	.81
6	529	413	942	2.72
7	1,294	983	2,277	6.56
8	1,932	1,271	3,203	9.23
9	2,147	1,386	3,533	10.18
10	2,350	1,601	3,951	11.39
11	151	61	212	1.52	2,328	1,623	3,951	11.39
12	303	83	386	2.77	2,601	1,654	4,255	12.27
13	489	111	600	4.30	2,378	1,591	3,969	11.44
14	781	167	948	6.79	1,923	1,165	3,088	8.90
15	1,229	455	1,684	12.06	1,484	952	2,436	7.02
16	1,534	589	2,123	15.21	792	656	1,448	4.17
17	1,631	658	2,289	16.40	388	302	690	1.99
18	1,623	627	2,250	16.11	152	162	314	.91
19	1,134	429	1,563	11.20	99	84	183	.53
20	659	265	924	6.62	31	37	68	.20
21	316	123	439	3.14	21	29	50	.14
22	155	73	228	1.64	10	8	18	.05
23	64	41	105	.75	4	6	10	.03
24	32	23	55	.39	3	4	7	.02
25	26	27	53	.38	3	3	6	.02
26以上	59	42	101	.72	10	10	20	.06
合 計	10,187	3,774	13,961	100.00	20,647	14,042	34,689	100.00

查本府收回之學校調查表關於各校學生人數與學生年齡分配人數多有出入故本表數目與近三學年學校狀況表人數不同

(20)

(五)

市立小學教職員教育程度

市立小學教職員年齡分配

性別	教育程度		
	男	女	合 計
大 學	29	4	33
高等專門	76	11	87
師 範	166	141	307
中 學	148	87	235
其 他	18	16	34
不 詳	13	10	23
合 計	450	269	719

年 齡	性別		
	男	女	合 計
15-20	10	8	18
21-25	103	102	205
26-30	147	102	249
31-35	59	22	81
36-40	59	16	75
41-45	33	4	37
45-50	24	1	25
51以上	10	1	11
不 詳	5	13	18
合 計	460	269	719

以上兩表根據本府收回之教職員生活狀況調查表編列

市立小學教職員生活狀況

(A) 收入與家中支出比較

每年收入 (元)	人 數	每人家中每年平均支出 (單位=元)								
		租金	食用	衣着費	書籍費	交際費	娛樂費	兒 女 教育費	雜 費	合 計
460-559	13	119.60	205.38	71.15	25.00	25.31	8.61	83.23	538.28
560-659	19	115.00	291.47	96.57	32.89	22.89	9.15	15.26	82.05	665.28
660-759	33	130.51	332.30	90.33	25.00	27.66	12.82	13.33	83.82	715.77
760-859	13	141.47	374.60	84.15	24.08	21.31	11.54	25.38	115.61	798.30
860-959	13	167.23	384.92	84.46	54.60	39.53	24.61	46.92	113.23	915.50
960-1,059	7	150.28	448.71	141.71	41.00	55.71	46.28	21.57	133.00	1,038.26
1,060-1,159	5	177.00	429.20	148.00	45.60	40.00	38.40	18.00	217.20	1,113.40
1,160-1,259	5	182.40	502.00	118.00	32.20	68.00	46.00	70.54	206.20	1,225.34
1,260-1,359	7	198.28	506.00	150.71	43.57	45.71	25.71	90.00	180.00	1,239.98
1,360-1,459	5	192.40	554.40	140.00	46.00	104.00	30.00	37.20	237.40	1,341.40
1,460-1,559	3	213.33	510.00	266.66	166.66	70.00	30.00	133.33	161.66	1,581.64
1,560-2,009	7	237.77	764.86	193.14	60.00	104.57	34.00	74.28	270.71	1,739.33
平 均	130	148.96	444.75	129.57	37.22	52.06	26.43	45.48	157.01	1,041.48
百 分 比										
460-559	10.0	22.22	38.16	13.22	4.64	4.70	1.60	15.46	100
560-659	14.5	17.28	43.52	14.52	4.96	3.44	1.37	2.29	12.33	100
660-759	25.3	18.23	46.42	12.62	3.49	3.87	1.79	1.86	11.72	100
760-859	10.0	17.72	46.94	10.54	3.02	2.67	1.45	3.18	14.48	100
860-959	10.0	18.27	42.04	9.23	5.96	4.32	2.69	5.12	12.37	100
960-1,059	5.4	14.47	43.22	13.65	3.95	5.36	4.46	2.08	12.81	100
1,060-1,159	3.9	15.90	38.55	13.29	4.09	3.59	3.45	1.62	19.51	100
1,160-1,259	3.9	14.89	40.97	9.63	2.63	5.54	3.75	5.76	16.83	100
1,260-1,359	5.4	15.99	40.81	12.15	3.15	3.69	2.07	7.26	14.52	100
1,360-1,459	3.9	14.34	41.33	10.44	3.43	7.75	2.24	2.77	17.70	100
1,460-1,559	2.3	13.49	34.14	16.86	10.54	4.42	1.90	8.43	10.32	100
1,560-2,009	5.4	13.67	43.97	11.11	3.45	6.01	1.96	4.27	15.56	100
平 均	10.0	14.30	42.70	12.44	3.58	5.00	2.54	4.37	15.07	100

根據本府收回教職員生活狀況表中選出一百三十張分析

(21)

I-0060



(六)

(B) 供養人數與支出比較

供養人數	家數	每家每年平均支出									
		租金	食用	衣著費	書籍費	交際費	娛樂費	兒女教育費	雜費	合計	
1	12	126.17	208.00	81.67	32.91	30.42	23.50	5.17	88.67	596.53	
2	20	136.50	281.60	94.15	33.50	29.10	14.20	3.70	106.20	698.95	
3	17	131.18	315.39	94.12	43.82	48.23	23.29	10.23	121.94	788.20	
4	24	163.87	413.41	115.00	36.82	43.87	37.12	23.62	157.08	980.79	
5	23	161.35	409.48	86.35	33.26	41.74	19.61	26.82	133.26	941.87	
6	19	156.50	491.00	103.84	35.00	49.26	18.89	32.00	153.00	1,039.49	
7	6	185.00	554.66	119.50	25.80	29.16	14.00	29.16	98.16	1,055.47	
8	6	197.43	478.14	120.57	53.00	30.57	27.00	20.80	149.42	1,066.93	
9	3	194.80	802.46	276.00	55.20	126.40	70.80	60.20	259.00	1,844.80	
平均	130	155.32	397.32	106.19	37.71	43.14	21.71	33.23	129.28	923.90	

百分數										
1	9.3	21.15	34.87	13.70	5.52	5.10	3.94	.86	14.86	100
2	15.4	19.53	40.29	13.46	4.79	4.17	2.03	.53	15.20	100
3	13.1	16.64	40.01	11.94	5.56	6.12	2.96	1.30	15.47	100
4	18.5	16.71	42.15	11.73	3.75	4.47	2.77	2.41	16.01	100
5	17.7	17.13	43.47	9.17	3.54	4.43	2.08	6.03	14.15	100
6	14.5	15.06	47.23	9.99	3.37	4.74	1.82	3.08	14.71	100
7	4.6	17.53	52.55	11.32	2.45	2.76	1.33	2.76	9.30	100
8	4.6	18.33	44.40	11.20	4.92	2.84	2.51	1.93	13.87	100
9	2.3	10.56	43.50	14.96	2.99	6.85	3.84	3.26	14.04	100
平均	100.0	16.82	43.00	11.49	4.08	4.67	2.35	3.60	13.99	100

(C) 收入狀況比較

每年收入	人數	每人平均各種收入				
		薪金	個人他項收入	家人收入	借款	合計
460-559	13	496.00元	4.23	500.23
560-659	19	562.05	5.22	1.68	17.05	597.04
660-759	33	672.27	19.94	10.33	702.54
760-859	13	703.00	9.23	84.70	796.93
860-959	13	619.54	198.46	5.55	83.77	917.32
960-1059	7	808.28	22.86	162.86	994.00
1,060-1159	5	1,112.00	1,112.00
1,160-1259	5	1,076.40	116.00	1,192.40
1,260-1359	7	1,105.71	191.43	1,297.14
1,360-1459	5	1,176.00	20.11	141.00	59.30	1,399.30
1,460-1559	3	956.66	315.66	242.33	1,514.65
1,560-2009	7	904.28	432.86	400.00	111.86	1,849.00
平均	130	734.51	73.50	27.87	42.28	878.16

(22)

廣州市零售物價指數表

(七)

民國十八年下半年=100

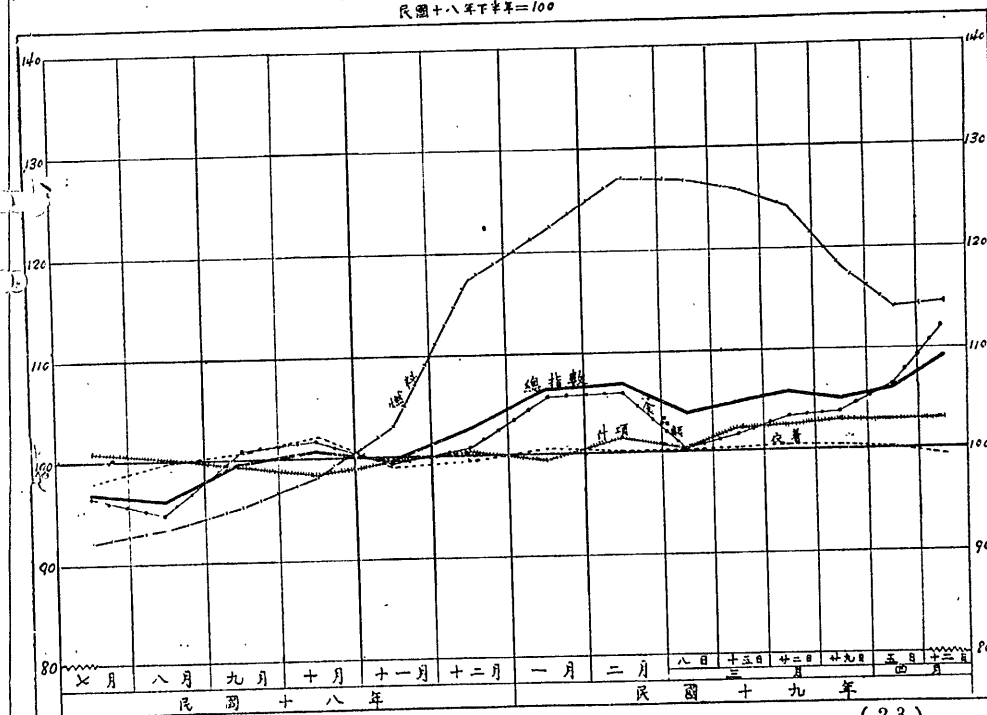
類別 時期	食品					衣著類	燃料類	雜項類	總指數	銀元購買力
	米類	肉類	蔬菜類	其他食品類	平均					
	6	8	18	16	48					
十八年下半年	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
七月	93.1	108.0	89.2	96.3	96.4	97.9	92.0	101.0	96.6	103.5
八月	94.0	103.8	84.7	98.0	94.9	99.9	93.2	100.2	96.1	104.1
九月	99.1	102.0	102.8	99.2	101.0	100.9	95.2	99.5	99.8	100.2
十月	103.4	99.2	103.7	101.3	101.9	102.2	98.0	98.1	100.8	99.2
十一月	104.8	93.9	98.7	99.7	99.2	99.1	102.9	99.6	99.8	100.2
十二月	105.5	91.9	103.8	102.9	100.9	99.5	117.3	100.7	102.8	97.3
十九年一月	110.6	97.1	114.6	102.6	106.0	100.6	122.0	99.3	106.4	94.0
二月	113.5	103.7	108.0	99.8	106.1	100.1	127.2	101.7	107.0	93.5
三月	104.8	107.5	101.7	96.8	102.6	100.6	124.0	102.1	105.1	95.2
*四月										
五日	103.9	105.1	121.2	97.1	106.5	100.0	114.5	103.0	106.1	94.3
十二日	109.3	104.3	140.3	98.9	112.1	99.4	114.6	103.0	109.2	91.6

*各週計算終止日

(13)

廣州市零售物價指數比較圖

民國十八年下半年=100



(23)

(八)

廣州市零售物價表

本週計至四月十二日止

物 品	單 位	價 格 (元計)	物 品	單 位	價 格 (元計)	物 品	單 位	價 格 (元計)			
米類	安南白碾	斤	.101	菜類	黃芽白	斤	.122	衣類	貳號砂糖	斤	.148
	安南白碎	斤	.091		蘿蔔	斤	.054		大號鷹奶	罐	.607
	暹羅粘	斤	.128		菜心	斤	.091	着類	廣棉花	斤	.950
	金風雪	斤	.118		冬瓜	斤	.136		興隆大成藍	匹	2.800
	新興白粘	斤	.115		豆角	斤		赴英白竹紗	尺	.220
類上油	斤	.122	矮瓜	斤	京灰斜布	尺	.140			
肉類	牛	斤	.600	絲瓜	斤	絲紗柳條土布	尺	.097		
	瘦豬	斤	.933	菜	斤	.078	文華綢	尺	.850		
	五花豬	斤	.550	雞	斤	.347	石榴嘔線衫	件	1.800		
	本地雞	斤	.933	鴨	斤	.031	正禮服	對	2.433		
	嫩鴨	斤	.850	中	斤	.036	燃料類	大松柴	担	1.721	
大鯪魚	斤	.317	排	斤	1.467	青膠雜柴		担	1.932		
大鯪魚	斤	.367	兵船	斤	.867	星嘔火水		斤	.153		
類大肉鹹魚	斤	.493	白	斤	.143	白禮氏洋燭	包	.265			
蔬類	蓮藕	斤	.109	紅豆	斤	.123	雜項類	雲夢生切烟	兩	.080	
	大豆芽菜	斤	.051	花生	斤	.153		雙蒸酒	斤	.207	
	細豆芽菜	斤	.044	信竹	斤	.179		清遠茶葉	斤	.500	
	檳榔芋仔	斤	.069	生油	斤	2.500	紹昌仔視	斤	.147		
	惠州甜菜	斤	.098	抽油	斤	.245	新開紙紙	十張	.157		
	芥蘭菜	斤	.058	本地生油	斤	.078	一寸長鐵釘	斤	.157		
	生菜	斤	.041	熟鹽	斤	.300	棋字邊	張	.750		
	鹹菜	斤	.055	翻煮片糖	斤	.092	潮州中等冬青碗	筒	.567		
	波菜	斤	.068			.147					

廣東貨幣在港價值比較表

每元值港毫

時 期	中 央 紙			雙 毫		
	最高價	最低價	平均價	最高價	最低價	平均價
十八年 全年	.785	.405	.677	.781	.741	.758
十九年 一月	.738	.670	.711	.792	.776	.782
二 月	.697	.550	.613	.778	.750	.763
三 月	.625	.595	.612	.769	.764	.767
四 月	.598	.566	.583	.775	.762	.768
五 日	.583	.574	.579	.767	.762	.751
十二日						

港紙價格

每元值廣毫

時 期	最高價	最低價	平均價
十八年 全年	1.330	1.303	1.317
十九年 一月	1.290	1.234	1.273
二 月	1.316	1.301	1.309
三 月	1.305	1.298	1.301
四 月	1.309	1.306	1.307
五 日	1.309	1.306	1.307
十二日	1.315	1.310	1.313

(24)

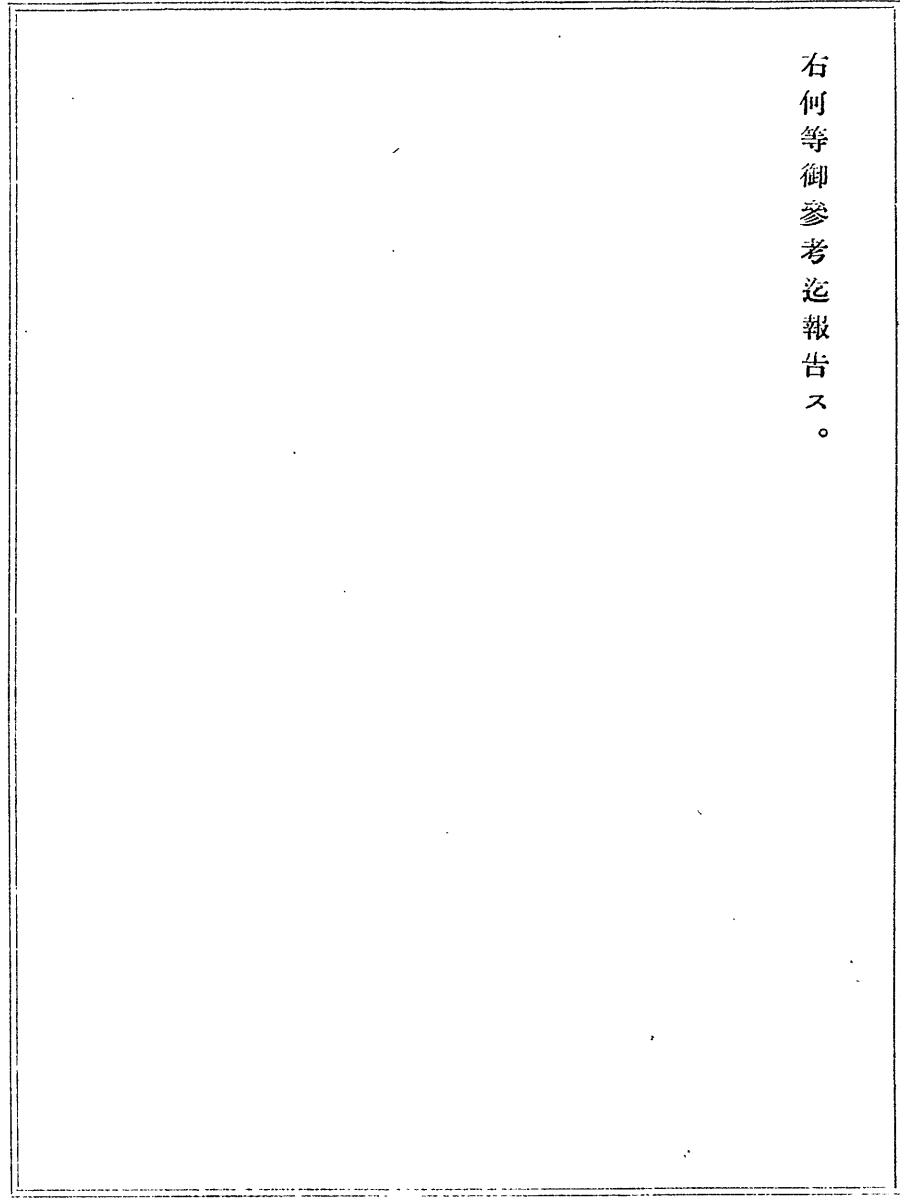
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右何等御参考迄報告ス。



I-0060

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文化年表

亞細亞局

公第二八八號

昭和五年七月二十二日

在汕頭

領事 別 府 熊



外務大臣男爵幣原喜重郎殿

貧民工藝院々務報告ノ件

當地貧民工藝院ノ狀況ニ付テハ從來時折具報ニ及ヘル次第有之處今般
同院ノ發表セル同院最近三年間ノ院務成績御參考迄別紙ノ通り報告申
進ス

第一課

昭和五年八月八日 接製

I 1.4.0. 2-2

貧民工藝院々務成績

課 目	民國十五年	同十六年	同十七年
收容人數	九三六人	九七二人	一、二七六人
院在留教養人數	三五六人	三八七人	五三二人
財政收入	廿三、七、七九三元	四一、八、三五元	四八、二、三三元
月捐及特別捐			
△財政支出			
食 費	一五、八、六四元	一八、三、一八元	二一、四、六七元
雜 費	二二、〇、六八元	二四、九、九三元	二五、八、〇五元
△教育概況			
收容孤兒	八二人	九〇人	九六人
既教育者			
收容貧民	二三〇人	二五二人	三四二人
既教育者			
△各種工藝			

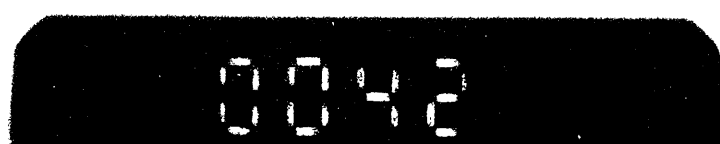
B11

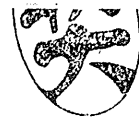
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工藝練習男女	一二七人	一五二人	一〇八人
出品價格	三、三七八元	四、一八二元	六、一七二元
△救濟病人(收容中ノ者)			
神經病	五二人	七〇人	八九人
疾病	五七人	六〇人	七二人
老衰	一九人	一二一人	一四二人
所得利益(工藝品利益)	九五八元〇五	一〇七七元八七四	一八〇八元
			以上

B11

I-0060





(分類 I 1.4.0.2-3)

監細亞局

機密第一二七號

第一課

昭和五年八月二十七日

在新民府

分館主任 福井保光



外務大臣男爵幣原喜重郎 殿

新民縣國民常識促進會設立関係件

今般当地教育界有志發起、下、新民縣國民常識促進會ヲ設立シ八月二十四日師範中學校講堂ニ於テ發會式ヲ舉ケタル趣ナル處市内目録、場所ニ貼

記録件名
新民縣國民常識促進會設立関係件
昭和五年九月廿日
別紙添付

昭和五年九月廿日
別紙添付

付セル同會ノ事業並設立要旨ヲ記載シタル別紙傳單文寫御參考迄茲ニ送付セルニ付御査閲相成度

寫送付先 在支公使 奉天總領事

CI

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I-0060

新民縣國民常識促進會

(事業)

展覽國貨樣品

展覽拒毒照片

展覽常識圖表

特請名人講演勸導民眾參觀

(設主要旨)

切記二十一條。提倡社會教育增長民眾知識。

好機會到了國民常識促進會開辦了。

強迫教育是強國之本。有知識的人便是上等無知識的人便

是庸夫。沒有常識就要吃虧。常識是民眾的知識。

教育是促進民眾真正知識。提倡人民的自由平等。

促進一般民眾常識。民眾常識不可缺少。

同胞呵快來聽講吧。要求常識必受教育。

希望民眾有常識的精神。平時常識喚起民眾愛國。

在新民府奉天日本總領事館分館

促進民眾常識當先。提倡民眾教育。

知識階級務求平等。增長國民的常識。

希望民眾快來到會求常識的知識。

地址南地 師中學校大礼堂

亞細亞局

第一課

昭和五年七月六日 接

口教

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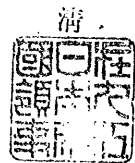
普通往信第四一四號

昭和五年十月廿五日

在九江

領事代理

河野



文化事業部

外務大臣 男爵 幣原 喜重郎 殿

省立各學校再開ニ關シ報告ノ件

省財政ノ窮乏ニ伴フ教育經費ノ不渡ニ依リ省立各學校ハ已報ノ通九月新學期以來閉校シツ、アルトコロ今般將筈教育廳長ノ奔走ニ依リ漸ク財政廳ヨリ二萬元交付セラレタルヲ以テ差當リ留日學生費ニ參千元、南昌市小學校補助費ニ貳千貳百〇六元、殘餘ハ中等學校及關

係機關費ニ填充スル事トナレリ、

各校教職員ノ不渡俸給ハ五月以來已ニ六ヶ月分ニ達セル趣ニテ之カ爲之等教職員ハ八月中旬臨時聯合會ヲ組織シ教育廳並ニ財政廳ニ對シ頻リニ學校ノ再開及經費ノ捻出方請願中ナルカ黃新財政廳長ハ其就任ト共ニ鹽稅ヲ擔保トセル八萬元ノ新規借款ニ依リ差當リ之ヲ糊塗セントシ目下教育廳側ト協議中ナレハ本件ニシテ成立セハ當初教育廳聲明ノ通或ハ十一月一日ヨリ一部省立學校ノ再開ヲ見ルニ至ルヘシ、
右爲念報告ス。

I-0060

0049

亞細亞局

第一課

外親第一九四〇八號

昭和五年十一月五日

長崎縣知事

水 下 信

文化
事務大臣 安達謙藏殿
大隈
事務大臣 幣原喜重郎殿

指 定廳府縣長官殿

支那新聞記事ニ關スル件

客月ニト八日付北平ニ於テ發行ノ支那新聞「益

世報」ニ「教育局中小學校ニ對シ日本故事ソ採用ス

分 11.4.21 2-2

可ク通告ス」ト題シ日本ノ情勢ヲ徹底洞察セシム可
キ通告ヲ發シタル記事ヲ掲載シ居レリ御參考迄
右及リ(通)報候也

記

教育局中小學校ニ對シ「日本故事」ヲ採用ス可ク通告ス
北平市教育局ニ於テ「最近 陳彬餘」ノ呈請シタルニ
依リ各所屬中小學校ニ對シ「日本故事」ヲ採用シ
青年學生ニシテ日本ノ情勢ヲ徹底洞察セシム可ク通
令ヲ發シタル由ナルカ其ノ原文ハ次ノ如クテアル
正上海日本研究月刊社々長陳彬餘ノ呈請スル所

記録
支那新聞記事ニ關スル件
和昭五年十一月五日 拾日 換

記 用

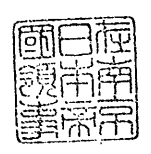
ニ依ルハ歴年未日本政府ハ一面各學校ニ命令シ吾國ノ地
圖ノ揚ケ支那讀本 洒蒙讀本 吾國ノ歴史地理ヲ教
授シ我國ノ研究ニ致々息マサル 傍ラ他面人ノ我國ニ派シ
調査ニ後事セシノ智識卓高ナル者ハ更ニ陰ソ冒シテ
支那輿地ニ入ラシメテ居ルノテアルカ共志ノ深遠ナルハ
實ニ吾人ノ恐ル可キテアリ又感服ス可キテアル 之ニ及
シ我國人ハ日本ニ對シ彼知ル所スラ我知ラス 我既ニ之ヲ
知ルモ日本人ノ後ニ遂ニ遠ワルカ如キ状況ニ有ルノテアルカ
ヲ我國人ノ敢テ日本ノ研究セントセサルカ為ニ外ナラナ
イッテアル 是ニ於ケカ我社ハ己ニ月刊ヲ編輯シ貴局
ニ對シ各學校宛紹介ノ務ヲ採ラレシ事ヲ呈請シタル
次第テアルカ該月刊ハ内容余リニ專問的ニシテ他日
國家中堅タル可キ中小學生ノ理解シ難キ所ノモノ
テアル 是ニ於ケカ日本問題ヲ研究シ將來雪恥富強
ヲ計ル準備ヲナス為 日本ノ長所表揚日本帝國
主義前途ノ危険 日本帝國主義ノ我國ニ與ヘタル軍
創シ内容トスル 日本故事ニ編輯 日本研究青
年學生ノ用ニ供スルモノテアル 故ニ教育局ハ他日雪恥
富強 東亞和平促進 為各學校ニ對シ課外必讀
書トシテ採用ス可ク該ニ通令スル次第テアル

昭和五年十二月十日
並日通運第八八九號

昭和五年十二月十日

在南京

領事 上村 仲一



文化事業部

外務大臣

外務大臣西澤廣重郎 殿

全國專門學校以上ノ諸學校ニ於ケル

孫文紀念週舉行方ニ関スル件

教育部ハ九日附部令ヲ以テ國立各大學子、專門學校
及各省教育廳ニ對シ全國專門學校以上ノ諸學校ハ
一律總理紀念週ヲ舉行スヘキ處未タ之ヲ行ハサルモノ

アルニ付テハ爾後必ス漏ナク舉行スルコト、致度ヒヨ
通令シタル趣ナリ

何等尙参考迄報告ス
本信官送付先

公使 上海、北平、奉天、天津、青島
濟南、漢口、福州、廣東

I-0060



亞細亞局

公第一二一號

昭和六年四月一日

在滿洲里

領事館事務代理

豐

原

幸

外務大臣男爵 幣原喜重郎 殿

海拉爾ニ於ケル蒙古人教育機關ニ關スル件

首題ノ件何等御參考迄左記ノ通り報告ス

夫

昭和六年四月八日 接受所

71.9.0, 2-2

大正十一年
五月
七日

記

一 學校名稱 呼倫貝爾蒙旗學校

所在地 呼倫貝爾副都統公署西隣

經營者 呼倫貝爾副都統公署長

二 校長名 中國人賀毅（字子仁）北平人

三 職員數 六人中蒙古人二、ニシテ何レモ男職員

生徒兒童數 六〇人内男五二、女八、ニシテ何レモ蒙古人

四 學級數 高級初級各一班ニシテ高級ハ五年卒業初級ハ三年卒業

トス

而シテ高級ト稱スルハ中學程度ト稱スルモ中學校ヨリ
ハ其程度遙カニ低ク卒業後就學スルモノハ齊々哈爾中

BII

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學校一年ニ入學スルヲ常トス
其 他 参 考 ト ナ ル ヘ キ 事 項

1 民國九年創立以來今日ニ至ルモノニテ民國九年ヨリ同十一年迄ノ校長ハ郭道甫（呼倫貝爾事件ノ首領）同十二年選イヨリ現校長賀毅引續キ校長タリ

2 維持方法

副都統公署ニ於テ一ケ年約七千元ノ經費ヲ負擔シ職員ノ俸給並兒童ノ學費其他一切ノ學校維持費用ニ供スルモノナルカ内職員ノ俸給約四千元ハ呼倫八蒙旗（八數）ヨリ徵收ス

3 職員俸給額

校長白元、他ハ五十元乃至七十元

4 教育方法

支那式教育方法ヲ採用シ居リ漢文ヲ元トシ滿洲蒙古文ヲ副トス

5 學科目

中國語 蒙滿文 算術 地理 歷史 音樂 体操

以上

BII

BII

I-0060

0050

文部省

公信第二二六號

昭和六年五月十四日

課長

在 鐘 嶺

領事代理 石 塚 邦 器



外務大臣男爵 幣原喜重郎 殿

中國側師範學校ニ日本語課新設ノ件

開原縣中學校教員ノ語ル所ニ依レハ開原縣教育局ハ數日前遼寧教育廳ヨリ今後各縣ノ師範學校ニハ日本語課ヲ新設シ日文日語ヲ教授シ將來中等學校ニ於ケル日本語教授ノ準備ヲ爲スヘシトノ通達ニ接以テ同局長及開原縣師範學校長ハ近ク教育廳ニ出頭シ教授ノ

本信照合票挿入先

I 門類 頁目 號
1/30//

物色及實施ニ就テノ指示ヲ受クル筈ナリトノ趣ナリ
右報告ス

BII

各口於此教育 勸告及狀況ヲ依此

五月拾八日

522

天田

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詳細要目

公第一、一一〇號

昭和六年八月五日

在 廣 東

總領事代理 須 磨 彌 吉 郎

外務大臣男爵幣 原 喜 重 郎 殿

廣州市教育情況ニ關スル程市長ノ談話報告ノ件

廣州市ノ教育行政ニ關シ最近市長程天固ノ新聞記者ニ對スル談話トシ

テ當地漢字紙ニ報道セラレ居ル處大要左ノ通り報告申進ス

一 市教育發展方針

(イ) 市立學校ノ擴充及班數ノ增加

(ロ) 勞工職業學校ノ設置

在廣東日本總領事館

I.4.0.2-2

一 學校數 (市立ノ分)

(イ) 中等學校九校

計八十一班

講習所二所

計十一校

生徒數計三千餘名

(ロ) 小學校 八十五校 計六百五十三班

生徒數合計三萬六千四百六十餘名

以上中、小學生徒數約四萬名

但シ失學兒童數尙三萬以上アリ

一 豫定増設學校並ニ班數

(イ) 中學校、初等中學三班

生徒數

百餘名

在廣東日本總領事館

昭和六年八月廿貳日接受



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(四) 小學、三校六十班 生徒數 三千餘名

一 勞工職業學校ノ創設

目下石牌ニ建築中ナルカ六ヶ月以内ニ竣工ノ筈

一 教育經費

(イ) 昨年度 百三十餘萬元

本年度 百七十餘萬元

(ロ) 本年度臨時費 四十二萬元

内譯

小學三校増設費 五萬元

第二中學三班増設費 一萬二千餘元

模範小學二校建設費 廿一萬元

在廣東日本總領事館

勞工職業學校建設費 十五萬元

一 今後執ルヘキ教育方針

強制的教育(義務教育)制ノ採用

以上

本信寫送附先

代理公使、上海、南京、汕頭

在廣東日本總領事館

I-0060

0054

亞細亞局
郵便高第一〇八五一號ノ二

昭和六年十一月九日

秘

關東廳 郵務局長

外務 次官
内務 次官
拓務 次官
陸軍 次官
海軍 次官
農林 次官
商工 次官
文部 次官
司法 次官
逓傳 次官
郵政 次官

滿鐵中國人教育機關ノ聯合會開催

滿鐵支那人教育學校長聯合會ハ三十日午前九時ヨリ南滿中學堂ニ於テ開催セラレタルカ参加校吉林同文商業、長春公學校成ニ公主嶺、
昌圖、四平街、開原、奉天、撫順、鞍山、蓋平、撫岳城、松樹、瓦
房店各公學堂及鐵嶺日語學校、奉天同文商業、遼陽日語學校、營口

商業、奉天南滿中學堂ノ十九校ニシテ協議事項ハ

- 一、時局ニ際シ吾人教育者トシテ孰ル可キ態度如何
- 二、時局ニ關シ兒童教育上弊ニ留意スヘキ點如何
- 三、中國教育ノ實情ヲ調査シ今後ニ對スル方針ヲ立ツル件
- 四、滿鐵中國人教育ニ對シテ今後改善ヲ加フル必要ナキカ、アラハ
ソノ方如何

以上ニ關シ各意見ヲ交シ教育者トシテノ意志ヲ決定セルカ時局以來
支那側教育機關ノ今尙復活ヲ見サルヲ遺憾トシ教育者ノ立場ヨリ一
日モ早ク之ヲ復活方ヲ軍司令部ニ別紙請願書ニ依リ請願スルコト及
目下支那人教育ニ吾人代表トシテ系列ノ芳澤代表ニ左記請願ヲ發ス
ルコトヲ決議午後二時半終了ソレヨリ軍司令部日田少佐ノ講演アリ

2

午後五時三十分散會セリ

貴下ノ御奮勵ニヨリ滿洲事變ノ原因タル支那ノ昔日海外教育カ撤廢
セラレ國際協同ノ教育カ實現セラルルヲ確信シ茲ニ滿洲ノ教育ヲ表
ス

滿鐵支那人教育小學校長岡田

芳澤代奏 宛

請 願 書

中國側教育機請ヲ一日モ早ク復活セラレルヤウ御配慮アラシコトヲ
希望ス

理 由

今回ノ滿洲事變ハ我カ自衛權ノ發動ニ外ナラスト雖モ正義人道ヲ取
シスル皇軍カ併セテ在滿三千萬ノ中國民衆ヲシテ苛斂^殊求^殊極マリナキ
軍閥ノ毒手ヨリ免レテ太平ノ幸福ニ均沾スヘキ曙光ヲ謀メシムルニ
至レルハ彼等民衆ノ深ク感謝スル所ナリ遼寧省城ニ於テハ糖^糖ニ銀行
ヲ開キ近クハ財政實業兩廳ノ開辦ヲ見各地ニ於テハ自治會ノ組織漸
次成立スルニ至リ人心モ漸ク其ノ緒ニ安ンシ業ニ穩シマントスル傾
向ヲ示スニ至レリ、只獨リ教育ニ至リテハ之ヲ復活スルニ幾多ノ障
碍存スヘシト雖モ教育事業ハ民心ノ不安ヲ去リ生活ノ安定ヲ計ルニ

極メテ重要ナ施設ヲ有スルモノト信ス

然ルニ省城内及其他各地ニ於ケル十萬ノ中初兒童學生ハ今尙修學ノ途ナク毎日何等爲スコトモナク徒ニ流言蜚語ノ標ニ戰慄セリ之レ洵ニ人道上看過スヘカラサルコトニ屬ス茲ニ至ラシムルハ無責任ナル中國政府及教育當局ノ排日排外教育ノ罪ニシテ無辜ノ父兄及兒童學生ノ苦境同情ニ堪ヘサルモノアリ我等ハコノ際滿鐵教育者一同ノ名ヲ以テ國際協調ニ基ツク中國側教育機關ヲ一日モ早ク復活セラシムル様ニ醜慮アラシム事ヲ請願ス

昭和六年十月三十日

滿鐵中國人教育者一同

關東軍司令官宛

以上

I-0060

0050

亞細亞局
普通第九二號

昭和七年五月三十一日

第一課

昭和七年六月拾四日
別紙添附

在長沙
領事 精谷廉二



文化事業部
第一課
田中

外務大臣子爵 齋藤 實 殿

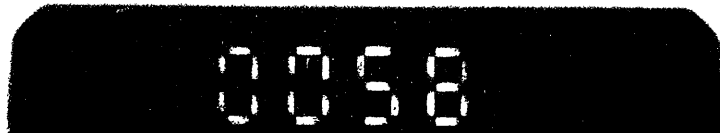
最近湖南ニ於ケル教育概況ニ關スル件

湖南省財政ノ窮乏極ハ最近益々甚シク此ノ難關ヲ切抜クル爲當局ニ於テ種々苦慮シ居ルモ單ニ消極的ナル軍費ノ節約ヲ以テシテハ到底彌縫ノ途ナク其ノ余波ハ今ヤ諸般ノ行政事務遂行上ニ迄支障ヲ來シ各機關トモ沈滞ノ極ニ達セル處只々教育費ノ不渡ニ對スルハ多數學生ヲ背負

31.4.0.2-2

トスルコトトテ俄然學校方面ヨリ激烈ナル反對運動起リ重大ナル社會問題ヲ醸成スルニ至レリ即チ本年二月以降省立諸學校經費及之等教職員ノ俸給支出ヲ停止セララルヤ關係學校側ニ於テハ一齋ニワメキ立チ適々學年末休暇ニ入ルヲ利用シテ結束ヲ固メ教育長曹典球ヲ「リーダー」トシテ財政當局ニ對シ百方請願ヲ試ミ或ハ新聞社方面ノ應援ヲ得テ示威的宣傳ヲ行フ等猛烈ナル反對運動ノ烽火ヲ舉ケタリ然ルニ省庫ノ缺乏ハ早急ニ學校側ノ要求ヲ容ルルニ由ナク容易ニ解決ノ見込立タサリシヲ以テ學校側ハ業ヲ煮シ遂ニ「ストライキ」ノ舉ニ要シ學年末休暇明クルモ學業ヲ開始セヌ學界ニ大波瀾ヲ生ヌルニ至レリ之カ爲省政府當局ノ狼狽一方ナラズ極力經費ノ捻出ニ奔走シタル結果漸ク省庫ヨ無理算段シテ若干

I-0060



經費ヲ支給シ一時ヲ糊塗シタルヲ以テ學校側モ納得シ四月十一日ヨリ開校ノ運ニ至リ辛ウシテ常態ニ復セリ去リ乍ラ省財政ノ困難ハ依然改善ノ根本策立タズ結局ハ中央ヨリ補助金ノ増額ヲ受クル外他ニ方法ナキヲ以テ省政府主席何健ハ四月初旬代表ヲ南京ニ派シ省内諸般ノ行政狀況ヲ詳細報告セシメ補助金ノ増額方ヲ懇請スルト共ニ別ニ何自ラ中央政府ニ公文ヲ致シ湖南ニ於ケル行政施設ノ概略ヲ呈報セリ別添ハ其ノ教育行政ニ關スルモノニシテ些カモ考ニ資スルニ足ルモノト存セラルルニ付茲ニ譯報申進ス

本信寫送附先

在華公使

北平

上海

南京 漢口

最近湖南ニ於ケル教育狀況

（湖南省政府ヨリ中央政府ニ提出セル報告）

湖南省ニ於ケル教育事業ハ省民ノ努力ニヨリ頗ル名譽ヲ博シ居ルハ一般周知ノ處何分ニモ經費ニ限リアル爲未タ十分ノ發達ヲ遂クルコト能ハサルハ遺憾ナリ試ニ現在ニ於ケル教育施設ヲ説明スレハ左ノ如シ

一、初等教育

イ、省立小學校七校 生徒數三二一〇名

（内譯第一師範學校附屬小學校、第一、第二、第三、

第四、第五、第六、各中學校附屬小學校）

ロ、同幼稚三校 生徒數二四〇名

（内譯第二、第四、第六、各中學校附屬幼稚園）

ハ、市縣區及私立小學校二〇二一七校 生徒數六〇六八八五
名

ニ、同幼稚園一一校 生徒數三八五名

二、中等教育

イ、中學校七二校 女學校一三校 生徒數一三九〇〇名

(内譯省立七、數縣共立七、縣立三二、私立三九校)

ロ、師範學校三四校 女子師範學校六校 生徒數三〇〇〇名

(内譯省立一、縣立三九)

ハ、職業學校三〇校 女子職業學校八校 生徒數八〇〇〇名

(内譯省立初級職業學校六、同女子職業學校一、同高級農

工職業學校二、縣立及私立職業學校二二、同女子職業學

校七)

三、高等教育

イ、省立湖南大學一校 文理工ノ三科ニ分タル學生數八〇〇名

ロ、私立湘雅學院一校 (醫學專門學校)

ハ、私立群治法政專門學校一校 (法律專門學校)

ニ、留學經理處

海外留學生ニ學費ヲ支給スル爲設置セラレタルモノニシテ目

下ノ處留學生派遣國ハ日本ノミナルカ將來ハ歐米各國ヘモ留

學セシムル計劃アリ

四、社會教育

省立ニ係ルモノニ省立圖書館省立中山圖書館及省立博物館アリ元

中山圖書館及博物館アリタルモ昭和五年七月共產軍ノ入寇ニ遭ヒ破壊セラレタルニ付目下着着再興ニ努力中ナリ各縣市ノ設立ニ保ルモノハ各縣市ニ夫夫民衆教育委員會アリテ社會教育ノ施設ヲ考究シ又各行政機關各種團體及學校等ニハ總テ民衆學校及新聞閱覽所ヲ設置シテ民衆ノ智能啓發ニ努ムル外各學區ニ於テモ略之ト同様ノ施設ヲ試ムルニ努メ居レリ

尙全省七十六縣ニ亘リ民衆圖書館ノ設立殆ト完成シ省費ヲ以テ購入シタル萬有文庫及船山遺書等ノ一部ヲ配布シ基本圖書トシ居レリ其ノ他公共體育場ノ設立演劇及活動寫眞ノ檢閱黨義教育及軍事教育等ニ對シテモ亦教育部ノ指令ニ則リ銳意實現ニ努力中ナリ

教育行政方面ニ就テ略述センニ教育行政系統ノ整備ハ其ノ改革ノ著

シキモノニテ教育廳ヲ最高機關トシテ全省ノ教育行政ヲ統へ省督廳ヲシテ絶エス各學區ニ於ケル教育狀況ヲ觀察指導セシム各縣ニ在リテハ縣政府及縣教育局カ其ノ縣内ノ教育行政ヲ掌リ同様縣督學及教育委員會ヲシテ觀察及指導ノ任ニ當ラシム更ニ各區及鄉ニ在リテモ夫々教育委員一名ヲ置キ區内ノ教育行政ヲ處理スルコトトセリ又豫算ノ編成及討議並決算ノ檢査ヲ勵行スルニ至レルコトモ重要ナル改革ト言フヘク即チ諸般ノ教育行政ハ總テ區内ノ各公共團體及有力者ヲ召集シテ協議シ其ノ議決ヲ經ルニ非サレハ實行シ得ラレサルコトトセリ各教育機關及學校ハ悉ク會計ヲ獨立セシメ各一名ノ會計主任ヲシテ專ラ經費ノ收支ニ當ラシムル外教育廳ニ於テモ教育經費保管委員會ナルモノヲ設置シ以テ教育費ノ獨立ヲ保障スルト共ニ之ヲ一

般ニ公開スルノ方針ニ出テタリ

教育經費ニ關シ説明スルニ省庫ノ支出ニ係ルモノハ民國十八年度ニ於テ二六三萬元ナリシヲ其ノ後漸増シテ民國二十年豫算ハ三三〇萬元ヲ計上スルニ至リタルカ之カ財源ハ僅ニ一ヶ年鹽稅附加稅一一〇萬元（稅率ハ一俵ニ付八角）ノミニシテ十八年度以降ノ不足額ハ大部分省庫ヨリ補填シ來リタルモ厘金稅撤廢ニヨル省稅收入激減ニ遭ヒ逐ニ補填ノ途ナキニ至レリ即チ教育費ノ唯一ノ財源ト特ム鹽稅附加稅ハ之ヲ月額ニスレハ約九萬三千元ニシテ全額ヲ省教育經費保管委員會ニ交付セルモ尙毎月約五萬元ノ不足ヲ^感アル狀況ニシテ省政府ニ於テハ教育事業ノ重要性ニ鑑ミ特ニ窮乏セル省庫ヨリ不足額ヲ捻出シテ之カ支持ニ當リ來リタルモノニシテ右ノ事情ノ爲從來教育

費ノ不渡額ハ比較的僅少ニ止マリ居ル次第ナルカ將來財源ヲ確實ナラシムル爲目下折角努力中ナリ縣及區ノ教育費ハ民國十七年度ノ總計ニ於テ五、四四五〇元ヲ示シ大部分田賦附加稅（地租附加稅）田賦月息（地租預入利子）契稅附加稅（不動産轉讓契約稅附加稅）煙酒附加稅^賦（地租前額田賦ト併セテ徵收ス）段實捐（資產家ヲ兩級ニ分子其ノ上級ノモノヨリ徵收スル資本稅）中捐（前記段實捐ノ下級ニ屬スルモノ）學租（學區内ノ各戸ヨリ徵收スル學校維持費）屬卒稅（家畜屠殺業稅）寺廟祠所有財產及竹木出產稅（竹材及材木移出ノ際徵收スル稅）等ニ據レル現^處ニ煙酒稅ノ國稅移^管等ニ伴ヒ附加稅ハ廢止セラレ又厘金稅ノ撤廢ニヨリ竹木產出稅モ同様之ヲ徵收セラレサルコトトナリ地方教育費ノ財源著シク枯渴スルニ至レル處未

タ之カ補填ノ途ヲ講セラレ居ラヌ爲テ加ヘテ昨夏ノ水災ニヨリ各
種税捐共多大ノ減收ヲ來シ地方教育費ハ愈々財源難ニ惱ムコトトナ
レリハ蓄々

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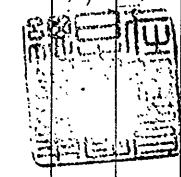
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普通第三八號

昭和八年一月二十四日

在紐育

總領事堀内謙八



亞細亞局 外務大臣伯耆 以用 廣哉 殿

花事業

聯盟支那教育制度改造報告書ニ対スル

「ダツガン」博士批評冊子報告ノ件
一九二一年支那政府ハ聯盟理事會ニ対シ支那
改革案準備並ニ実行ニ関シ其援助ヲ要請
セルニ対シ聯盟ヨリ其教育制度改革ノ為派
遣セラレタル英佛獨波四國ノ專門委員會力

在紐育日本總領事館

第一課長

中内 昭利 年貳月廿七日 撥

別紙添付



過般其地調查ヲ終ヘ支那ニハ米國式ヨリモ
歐洲式ノ教育制度ヲ適当トスル旨ヲ含メル報告
書ヲ提出シタルコトハ既ニ御 義知ノ通ナル處ニ
對シ当地國際教育學會 (Institute of International
Education) 會長ニレテ教育問題ノ權威タル「ステイ
ブン・ピー・ダツガン」博士ハ一月九日之ヲ批判セル冊子
ヲ公ニシ大體ニ於テ右報告書ノ結論及勸告ニ
同意ヲ表シタルモ先ツ其卷頭ニ於テ米國ノ極東
ニ於ケル教育的活動及經驗ニ鑑ミ同委員會
ニ同國ヲ参加セシタルコトハ極メテ有効且ツ適切ナ
ルニ不拘之ニ招請セラレサリシヲ遺憾トスルト共ニ
右報告書力永キ歴史ト地方的傳説ヲ有スル
歐洲ノ教育乃至文化的制度ヲ以テ米國ノ其ヨリモ

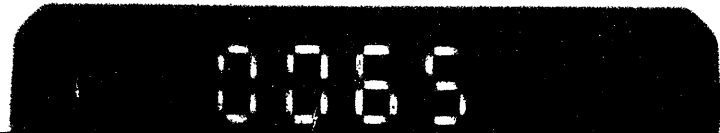
在紐育日本總領事館

ヨリ良久支那ノ國情ニ適合セルモノナリトシテ之カ
 採擇ヲ勸告スル莫ニ對シテハ特ニ之ヲ批難シ同會
 員會ハ米國文化ニ對スル認識ヲ欠如セルヲ以テ
 右ノ如キ論ヲナスモノニシテ支那ハ地理氣候及
 富源等ノ事情ニ於テ米國ニ酷似シ交通及通
 信ノ發達ト共ニ米國ノ如ク地方的特色ヲ保存
 セル統一的教育制度ノ發達ヲ見ルニ至ルヘク又
 支那ハ米國ノ制度ヲ模倣シタルハ英國ノ印度
 ニ對スル教育組織ノ押賣ト異リ全ク其自由
 意思ニ基キタルモノニシテ真理探求並ニ之カ批判
 ハ全然支那ノ欲スル所ニ委セサルヘカラスト應
 酬シ尚同報告書中ニ支那ニ對スル日本ノ教育
 制度ノ影響ヲ研究シ居ラサルハ缺莫ナリトナレタリ

在紐育日本總領事館

尚右ニ関シ一月九日「ヘラルド・トリビューン」ハ China's Psychc
 Indigestion ト題スル論説ヲ掲ケ右報告書ヲ考察
 スルニ當リ予ハ支那ニ於テハ西洋式教育ハ何レモ
 従来單ニ表面的附焼及ニ過キス徒ラニ支那
 古來ノ學徳・謙抑ノ精神ヲ没却セシメ最近ハ
 又極メテ國家主義的トナリ國民ニ其國際關係
 ヲ誤リ傳ヘ或ハ排外主義ノ鼓吹等種々ノ弊
 害ヲ生シタル事實ヲ念頭ニ置カサルヘカラス而シテ
 又支那カ米國文化ヲ消化ノ結果面白カラサル革
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 スルモ之カ解決困難ナルヘク歐米何レノ文化カ

在紐育日本總領事館



支那ニ適合スルカハ時日ノ経過ニ待ツヨリ外ナカレ
ヘント論シ居レリ
右何等御参考迄在「カツガン」博士冊子添付ノ
上報告申進ス

本信寫送付先 在米大使

在壽府國際聯盟帝國事務局長

在紐育日本總領事館

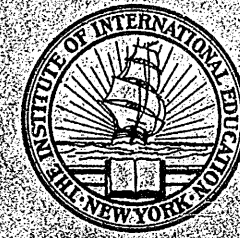
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Fourteenth Series

Bulletin No. 1

INSTITUTE OF
INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION



A CRITIQUE OF THE REPORT
OF
THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS' MISSION OF
EDUCATIONAL EXPERTS TO CHINA

By
Stephen Duggan, Ph.D., LL.D., Litt.D.

New York

January 9, 1933

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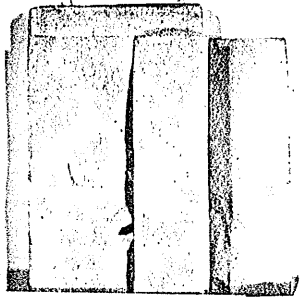


A CRITIQUE OF THE REPORT
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FOREWORD

The critique which follows does not pretend to be an exhaustive analysis of the report of the League of Nations Educational Mission to China. It is directed primarily at a few positions taken by the Mission which seem to the writer untenable and secondarily to a brief discussion from an American educator's standpoint of some of the Mission's conclusions and suggestions concerning the system of education in China. Some points of emphasis may appear unnecessary to an American educator. It is possible, however, that the critique may be read by foreigners not so familiar with our system.

The author of this critique is a member of the American National Committee on International Intellectual Cooperation and a Director of the League of Nations Association. This is mentioned merely to emphasize that his criticism of the Mission's report is naturally made in the friendliest spirit.

The critique has been submitted for comment to a few educators particularly qualified to pass judgment upon its contents: Professor I. L. Kandel of Teachers College, Columbia University, our most eminent authority on Comparative Education; Professor Charles H. Judd, Dean of the School of Education of the University of Chicago; Professor Henry W. Holmes, Dean of the School of Education of Harvard University; and Professor Philip R. V. Curoe, Professor of Education at Hunter College, New York. It was read by Dr. A. L. Warnshuis, the Secretary of the International Missionary Council from the standpoint of an expert in the field of missionary education, and by Dr. Chih Meng, the Associate Director of the China Institute in America, who was educated partly in China and partly in the United States. These gentlemen made very helpful suggestions, but any defects in the critique are to be ascribed only to the author, who is alone responsible for the ideas and for the way in which they are presented.

S. D.

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A CRITIQUE OF THE REPORT
OF
THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS' MISSION OF
EDUCATIONAL EXPERTS TO CHINA

By STEPHEN DUGGAN, Ph.D., LL.D., Litt.D.
Director of the Institute of International Education

The League of Nations Mission of Educational Experts* to China has recently issued its report entitled "The Reorganisation of Education in China." It is a fine document whose contents will be of value not only to China but to all other countries attempting to reorganize their political, social and economic life primarily through the instrumentality of education. The great majority of its recommendations can receive the hearty approval of educators throughout the world. In fact, though directed to a country in the throes of a transformation of its national life, many of the recommendations can be applied to all other countries, even to those with the most advanced and progressive systems of education. The writer wishes to emphasize his admiration for the work of the Mission and his hearty acceptance of the majority of its conclusions and suggestions. But he wishes also to express his dissent from some of the arguments used in support of the conclusions and to give the reasons why in his belief a still stronger document might have been forthcoming.

I.

Regret must be expressed that no representative of the United States was included in the membership of the Mis-

* The Mission was composed of Professor Carl H. Becker of the University of Berlin, formerly Prussian Minister of Public Education; Professor M. Falski, Director of Primary Education at the Polish Ministry of Public Education; Professor P. Langevin of the Collège de France; Professor R. H. Tawney of the London School of Economics and Political Science; assisted by Mr. Frank P. Walters, Head of the Secretary General's Office, League of Nations. This Mission was later joined in China by Baron A. Sardi, representing the International Institute of Educational Cinematography, and by M. Henri Bonnet, Director of the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation.

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sion. Not because of any right. In 1920 the United States refused to accept the duties and responsibilities which accompany membership in the League and Americans cannot, therefore, complain of such omission. That the United States is not a member, however, has not prevented the League from inviting the United States to be represented on its most important commissions such as the Disarmament Commission and the Economic Commission. The United States, because of its wealth, power and influence, occupies so important a place in the fields of human activity with which those commissions deal that of necessity it must be consulted on such aspects of world affairs. The writer believes that to an equal extent was it important to have American opinion expressed in any recommendations concerning the reorganization of education in China. The Mission was undertaken under the auspices of the International Committee on Intellectual Cooperation which includes a distinguished American scholar in its membership. Though that Committee has had a decade of existence, the Educational Mission to China is its first major undertaking. It seems to the writer that the failure to appoint an American on the Mission was a mistake. There are several reasons for this opinion.

Throughout the report attention is drawn to the predominant part played by American influence on education in China. This is correct, but the report gives no evidence that the Mission was aware of the great influence of Japanese education in China. After the defeat of China by Japan in the war of 1895, Chinese students in considerable numbers studied in Japanese universities. This movement became a veritable flood after 1905, when the prestige of Japan was so enhanced by her defeat of Russia, and it lasted down to the outbreak of the World War. In 1908 there were as many as 10,000 Chinese students on government scholarships in Japanese universities and, it is estimated, as many private students. Many of these students became teachers upon returning to their own country and influenced education in many respects, especially elementary education. Many Chinese students have studied also

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in France and Germany but they have not exerted a very great influence in bringing French or German educational ideas to Chinese education.

The American schools, originally of a missionary character, though many of the most influential have since become independent, were the first in the field, the earliest of them having been founded almost a century ago (1835). They introduced the American conception of educational organization and administration and grew so rapidly in number and strength as to overshadow in influence the schools of any other foreign country. It is hard to over-emphasize the importance of the American schools before the Revolution of 1911 in preparing young men for leadership in the newly established Republic. Certainly the old system of Chinese education, as the Mission's report rightly says,* did not give any such preparation. Moreover, thousands of Chinese students had studied in the institutions of higher education in the United States. Especially after 1908, when the American government returned the Boxer Indemnity to China, which was devoted to educational purposes, was this American influence upon Chinese life and education greatly strengthened. It is enough perhaps to mention that six of the ten members of the Nanking cabinet today are graduates of American universities and that hundreds of American college alumni occupy important positions in official and business life. This long and intimate experience of Americans with education in China has naturally resulted in much imitation by the Chinese of various aspects of the American system of education.

The part played by Americans in educational activities in China has been duplicated by a similar experience in the Near East. The widely scattered institutions that Americans have founded in that region have been of the greatest influence in spreading a knowledge of western civilization and of progressive ideas. Robert College and the Constantinople College for Women, now united in the University of Istanbul, did much to supply the Balkan countries

* Page 24.

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with leadership in the fifty years preceding the World War. Until after that conflict Moslem students did not attend those institutions because of their distinctively Christian character. Now, due to the willingness of the colleges to conform to the Turkish Government's regulations prohibiting prescribed religious teaching, a majority of the students are Moslems. The colleges are now making as great efforts to serve the Turkish Republic in its endeavor to make a western orientation as they did in the past to assist the Balkan countries. Because of their freedom from all political entanglements, unlike in that respect most of the schools of other foreign countries, they are highly regarded by the Turkish people and government. China can learn much from Turkey's experience in transforming itself from a medieval feudalism to a modern state. In doing so the Chinese will discover that the important part played by American institutions of education in their own country has been duplicated in Turkey. An American member of the League's Mission could have facilitated this discovery.

The writer was a member of the Philippine Educational Commission which, in 1925, made a survey of the educational system introduced by Americans into the Islands after they became American territory in 1899. Upon the completion of his work, he returned to the United States via China, and the Trans-Siberian railroad. His stay in China was all too short, but it was long enough to enable him to appreciate the possibilities of accomplishment in China if more of the educational ideas and methods that Americans had introduced into the Philippines were adopted by the Chinese. Allowing for the difference in size and age, the resemblance between the Philippines and China in regard to educational advancement was very evident. For three centuries the Islands had been under the control of Spain and the Spaniards had introduced their system of education. But they had left the mass of the people practically untouched and the education provided for the upper classes was in 1899 rigid, scholastic and devitalized. In that year the Philippines were no further advanced than China

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in educational affairs and the achievement in the Islands since that time, while leaving much to be desired, has been truly remarkable. The most gratifying feature of this achievement is that it has been made chiefly by the Filipinos themselves, for after the initial stimulus by Americans in the first decade, the Filipinos, to a great extent, took over the administration of their own schools. In all probability the League of Nations Educational Mission would have found the report of the Philippine Educational Commission an illuminating document. At any rate, an American member would have apprised his colleagues of its findings.

The fact that no reference is made in the report of the Mission to Professor Paul Monroe's "Report on Education in China" leads to the belief that the Mission had not seen it. Professor Monroe is the recognized authority in the United States on Chinese education. He is a member of the board of trustees of several colleges in China and is one of but four Americans invited to serve as a trustee of the China Foundation established by the Chinese government when the United States returned in 1924 the remainder of the Indemnity Fund that had been retained by it in 1908. Professor Monroe visits China almost every year and confers with its governmental and educational leaders upon the social and educational problems that confront them. Professor John Dewey and Professor Monroe are the only foreigners who are honorary trustees of the Chinese "National Association for the Promotion of Education", the most influential educational organization in China. In 1922 Professor Monroe was invited by representatives of most of the government institutions of higher education and by the most important educational associations to deliver a course of lectures on education in the chief centres of learning in China. Upon his return to the United States his report upon educational conditions was deemed so valuable that the Institute of International Education published it under the title "A Report on Education in China". The breadth of Professor Monroe's analysis of the complicated

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educational problem facing China is illustrated by the following quotation taken from the beginning of his report:

"Among the great questions which the nation is facing are:

How much of the ancient culture should be preserved?

How much of the Western culture should be added to it?

Subordinate to these are the related problems:

Can these two elements be given through the native language?

Can they be united into a homogeneous structure?

Can the ancient language be simplified so as to make a general education of the masses of the people possible?"

Due to the fact that Professor Monroe did not undertake the detailed analysis made by the League of Nations Educational Mission, his report is but a fifth of the size of the Mission's. But the astonishing feature of the two reports is the great similarity of their findings. The emphasis placed by the Mission upon the same needs stressed in the Monroe Report is an indication of the persistent nature of the difficulties facing Chinese educational leaders.

Stimulated by Professor Monroe's report, the Director of the Institute of International Education in 1924 invited a group of eminent educators to a conference in New York to consider the problem of the returned Chinese student. The group included Professor Monroe, President Frank Goodnow of Johns Hopkins University, President E. D. Burton of the University of Chicago, President Ellen Pendleton of Wellesley College, President Mary Woolley of Mount Holyoke College, President Ada Comstock of Radcliffe College, Professor William F. Russell, now Dean, and Professor I. L. Kandel of Teachers College; Professor Adam Leroy Jones, Director of Admissions of Columbia University, and Professor Lucius Porter, now Professor of Philosophy at Yenching University in Peiping. President

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Charles K. Edmunds of Canton Christian College and President Leighton Stuart of Peking Christian University, represented the missionary institutions. Three visiting Chinese scholars gave their aid in the discussion. Practically all these educators had been in China, some had occupied important posts in that country and some had been engaged in educational surveys there. While the conference considered many aspects of the Chinese educational problem, it devoted its attention primarily to the denationalization which frequently resulted from too prolonged a stay in the United States by undergraduate Chinese students. The conclusion arrived at, which is confirmed in the report of the League of Nations Educational Mission,* urged the Chinese students to secure their general education in their own country and to come to the United States only for post-graduate work of a specialized kind. China was by no means so unified in 1924 as it is in 1933 and the conference could not transmit its conclusion to a central government such as now exists at Nanking. It had to content itself with addressing individual institutions. It may, therefore, have had but little influence. But it is true that in 1929 the Boxer Indemnity students sent to the United States were for the first time composed exclusively of graduate students. It may be mentioned in passing that practically all the members of that conference are still active in educational work in the United States. Any one of them would have been a most valuable addition to the League of Nations Educational Mission.

The League of Nations Educational Mission to China was preceded by only a few months by the Laymen's Foreign Missions Inquiry sponsored by the seven most important Protestant denominations in the United States. This body of eminent scholars, of which Dr. Ernest Hocking, the distinguished professor of philosophy at Harvard University, was chairman, and which included in its membership such well-known educators as Dr. Clarence A. Barbour, President of Brown University and Dr. Frederic C. Wood-

* Pages 173-174.

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ward, Vice-President of the University of Chicago, has made a report on conditions in India, China and Japan. While the report devotes much space to an analysis of the social, religious and political conditions in each of those countries, a large part of it is taken up with an appraisal of education not only in the missionary institutions but in the national institutions as well. The report is as remarkable and important a document as is the report of the League of Nations Mission and it confirms many of the most important findings of the latter. It is to be hoped that it may receive careful consideration from Chinese educators who are contemplating reforms in their educational system.

In sum, because of the long record of American educational work in China, because of the suggestive value of American experience in the Near East, in the Philippines and elsewhere, and because of the pertinence for China of several American inquiries and reports, it can hardly be doubted that an American member of the League's Mission would have been an asset to its labors and to the validity of its recommendations.

II.

Chapter II of the report is largely devoted to a consideration of American influence upon Chinese education. As it is the part to which the writer wishes to direct his chief criticism, it will be necessary to quote somewhat liberally:

"The old Chinese traditions are rightly considered out of date. Most of the springs of China's high civilisation have run dry. . . . It is true that China cannot be modernised without the exploitation of foreign civilisations, but the danger of merely mechanical imitation cannot be overstressed. And with the tendency to copy from one model, and one model only, the risk of imitation pure and simple is increased."*

"In order to develop these theses, it is necessary to lay particular stress on the remarkable, not to say alarming

* Page 24.

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consequences of the excessive influence of the American model on Chinese education."†

"At bottom, we always find the American conception of education, a conception differing from that found in the countries of Europe. . . . There are extremists who would like to see China Americanised. In view of this, we consider it indispensable to thrash the question out more thoroughly."‡

"The fundamental problem which arises in regard to education in China is not a question of imitation but of creation and adaptation."‡

"The four members of the Mission, representing four different springs of European culture, came to the conclusion that the cultural conditions of Europe are more suitable than American conditions for adaptation to Chinese requirements because, precisely, American civilisation has developed *in spite of* a total absence of local traditions, whereas, European, like Chinese civilisation, must always take account of local traditions dating back thousands of years. There should be no misunderstanding here; we do not wish to see European educational methods substituted for those imported from America."*

The writer has tried to give the essence of the Mission's thesis and he hopes he has done so fairly and objectively.

Too much emphasis can hardly be placed upon the high character and scholarship of the members of the Mission. Nevertheless, without an American member with whom they could constantly consult, it is doubtful whether the Mission was qualified properly to evaluate American civilization. Dr. Becker, the distinguished former Minister of Education of Prussia, visited the United States in 1930 and the writer had the pleasure and honor of arranging for his lectures at American universities. He came well qualified by preparation and experience to study American education. But he was with us, unfortunately, but two months

† Page 25.
‡ Page 28.
* Page 28.

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and had no time to make careful observations of various aspects of American education, especially of elementary and secondary education. This is equally true of the distinguished English economist, Professor Tawney, who was invited by Amherst College to be its visiting professor in the scholastic year 1919-1920. The eminent physicist, Professor Langevin of Paris, visited the United States in 1904, but only to attend an international conference. Professor Falski of Warsaw, the Polish educational administrator, made an equally short visit to the United States in 1930.

A great deal can be learned of a foreign civilization by means of the written word and it can be assumed that the members of the Mission would not have ventured to advise the Chinese "that the cultural conditions of Europe are more suitable than American conditions for adaption to Chinese requirements" without as careful a study of American civilization as can be made from written sources. But the immense size of the United States must never be forgotten. Any one of the native countries of the members of the Mission, Germany, Poland, France and Great Britain, can easily fit inside the state of Texas alone. Moreover, unlike those countries, this great area is divided into regions differing widely in climate, resources and occupations, such as farming on large and small scale, ordinary and dry farming, manufacturing, mining, grazing and commerce. Fortunately, our constitution places education in the control of the states, not the federal government. We have, therefore, a decentralized system which despite a general uniformity in educational organization permits different areas engaging in experiment to fit the educational system to the needs of the particular region. This has been done. America is the land of educational experiment. The point to be emphasized is that China resembles the United States in being also a country of great extent, with areas differing in topography, climate and resources. It is to be hoped that when the means of transportation and communication are more fully developed in China, it also may organize a system of education which will be characterized by general uniformity tempered by conformity to local needs.

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The writer has dwelt upon this aspect of the problem because he is convinced that very few foreigners are aware of the many difficulties in attempting to evaluate American civilization. It is possible that, generally speaking, "American civilization has developed *in spite of* a total absence of local traditions". Yet some parts of the United States which were first settled, viz., some parts of New England and the South, have maintained local traditions for three centuries and have expanded their influence to a great extent to the newer regions of the United States. If it is recalled that the most valuable analysis of American civilization made up to the present is that of Lord Bryce, formerly British Ambassador to the United States, it must also be recalled that *The American Commonwealth*, to the writing of which he devoted five years, was written after several quite prolonged visits to the United States which covered all parts of the country and after careful research as to its traditions and institutions.

III.

However, the writer has no desire to dwell upon the capacity of the members of the Mission fairly to evaluate American civilization. The important question is to what extent they are right in stating that "the cultural conditions of Europe are more suitable than American conditions for adaptation to Chinese requirements because, precisely, American civilization has developed *in spite of* a total absence of local traditions, whereas, European, like Chinese civilization, must always take account of local traditions dating back thousands of years". But if "the old Chinese traditions are rightly considered out of date", and if "most of the springs of China's high civilization have run dry", it is a question whether the analogy of Chinese to European traditional civilization is of much value to the Chinese in enabling them to determine national objectives. Not only are the remnants of feudalistic institutions found everywhere in Europe forming obstacles to reform and progress, but many European traditions are impregnated with a

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feudalistic spirit sadly at variance with the spirit needed in the twentieth century. The writer is one with the Mission when it asserts "China is a country of long established traditions, and no country has ever sacrificed the whole of its historical culture without suffering the most baneful consequences".* To recommend such an attitude would be to confer no boon upon China. But if China is to survive in the twentieth century she must of necessity modify her institutions and her traditions in such manner as will enable her to meet the demands which a fluid and dynamic civilization founded upon scientific concepts and technical equipment places upon all nations today. The famines, floods, droughts, and plagues which afflict China, the control of which is of primary significance if she is to enhance the material and spiritual welfare of her people, demand improvements in transportation, communication, sanitation and industry. Such improvements are the achievements of the nineteenth century. A knowledge of them cannot be obtained by a study either of Chinese traditionalism or of European feudalism of previous centuries. It is primarily because American civilization is founded upon these achievements to a greater extent than any other that the writer believes that the cultural conditions of the United States are quite as suitable as European conditions for adaptation to Chinese requirements. This belief is strengthened by the following impressive statement of the Mission found near the close of its report:

"But in view of the imperative and urgent necessity of modernising social and economic conditions in China, the main object of the education of the masses should be to point out the road leading to modernisation. It would not, therefore, be advisable, as is at present the practice, to explain everything in terms of the past, but rather to give prominence, as the Russians do when giving object lessons, to the needs of the future. In China the future is too often neglected, both in the education of the young and in adult education. This is perhaps due to the highly developed historical sense of the Chinese; but if China is to be rapidly modernized, men must look forward rather than back."†

* Page 26.
† Page 192.

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IV.

The burden of the Mission's report is that China must develop a system of education appropriate to Chinese needs and culture and that a serious mistake has been made in borrowing and building on the American pattern. The report concludes with a recommendation that the Chinese undertake a study of European school systems, text-books, curricula, etc. It may at least be said that the Chinese voluntarily adopted the aspects of the American system of education to which the report objects. It would be interesting to learn from Professor Tawney, an Englishman, whether his concern at the "alarming consequences" to China of such imitation was prompted by the knowledge of what many Indian educators maintain are the "alarming consequences" of British education in India which, they assert, was not voluntarily adopted but was imposed upon them a century ago as the result of the recommendations of Lord Macaulay. It would also be interesting to learn from Professor Langevin, a Frenchman, whether his concern was prompted similarly by a knowledge of the fact that the highly centralized and rigidly administered system of education in Japan, borrowed almost *in toto* from France, has called forth repeated demands by progressive Japanese educators for reform in the direction of a general loosening up.

The fact is that the idea of adaptation as an educational principle is new. Before the World War practically no one emphasized the principle that a national system of education is meaningless unless it grows out of the cultural traditions and is adapted to the environment and present needs of the country concerned, and that it is ineffective if borrowed by, transported to, or imposed upon an alien culture and civilization. The Educational Year Book of Teachers College, unquestionably the best annual in the field of international education, devoted the 1931 issue to the study of Education in Colonial Dependencies of France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, and pre-war Germany. One fact that emerges conclusively is that the principle upon

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which all those nations built in establishing educational systems in their dependencies has been assimilation and that the idea of adaptation to local environment scarcely appears. Since the World War American educators who have been familiar with the problems of China have urged the Chinese to modify their system in conformity with the latter principle. They have encouraged Chinese graduate students studying education in American universities to return to China by way of Europe in order to compare the American system with those of European countries. To criticize either Chinese or American educators for not building upon the principle of adaptation is to joust at a straw man.

V.

In addition to its generalization that cultural conditions in Europe are more suitable than American for adaptation to Chinese requirements, the Mission's report condemns specific American educational methods introduced into Chinese education which together have resulted in the "alarming consequences" emphasized by the report. Attention can be given in this brief critique only to those considered by the Mission the most glaring.

The head and front of American offense is the "credit" system.* In the secondary schools and colleges of the United States a "credit" is attached to each hour of class work per week, the hour of class work presupposing previous study or laboratory work usually of two hours. In order to graduate from the secondary school and later from the college, a student must accumulate a certain number of credits, usually thirty per year or a total of one hundred and twenty for the four years duration of the course in either institution. The Mission's criticism that an arithmetical accumulation of credits attached to unrelated subjects will never give an education complete in itself is wholly justified and it is valid for most secondary institutions in the United States. But the Mission is apparently unaware of the revolt against the credit system which has

* Page 104 et seq.

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characterized American education during the past decade. In all good colleges the "group" system of studies has been introduced, i.e. a student must select as his major interest a group of related studies such as natural sciences or social sciences or languages and from among a small number of minors to prevent too intensive specialization. Moreover, some of these institutions have also adopted "honors courses", i.e., when a student has shown sufficient ability and interest to follow a line of study without the prescribed supervision ordinarily demanded, he is encouraged to do so and the credit system is disregarded. To these departures from the credit system must be added the general examination at the close of the college course which is in process of adoption by the best colleges. If space permitted it would be interesting to describe all the changes introduced into college education in this matter by progressive institutions. The reform in the credit system has been most pronounced in the colleges and as yet has made little headway in the secondary schools. It has recently affected them, however, and under the stimulus of progressive educators may be expected to make increasing headway.

But because progressive educators in the United States are discarding the credit system *per se*, it must not be concluded that they believe that that system has not in its time served a good purpose. The writer remembers that a generation ago when public secondary education was in its infancy in the United States there had been established in his native state of New York, high schools of various kinds, good, mediocre and poor: some with a two, some with a three, some with a four years' course. There was no uniformity in organization nor standard of excellence. The credit system was introduced to do away with that condition of things and it has been successful. But it takes a long time for such a reform to be adopted in a country of such wide area and diverse conditions as the United States. Uniformity of standards now exists in the secondary schools and colleges throughout the country. The credit system has done its work and should be supplanted by a better system. As has already been indicated progressive Amer-

ican educators, while retaining all the advantages of that system, have supplemented it by a number of other devices which eliminate most of its disadvantages. The pressure of intelligent opinion in educational circles will unquestionably result in the gradual assimilation of the reformed system by all our institutions.

Without an American member to inform it, the League of Nations Educational Mission was in all probability unaware of the history of the credit system and the valuable work it performed in the past. Otherwise it might have been less emphatic in its condemnation. For the Mission's report repeatedly bewails the lack of uniformity in the organization of China's schools and universities and the resulting low standards of scholarship found in considerable numbers of them. The Mission suggests a substitute for the credit system: "The arrangement under which students graduate by accumulating 'credits' throughout their university course is open to serious criticism on educational grounds. The Ministry should aim at substituting for it, as soon as is practicable, a system under which graduation takes place as the result of a final examination".*

It is entirely possible that the credit system should be supplanted by some other in China's educational institutions, but it would be very doubtful wisdom to accept the Mission's suggestion as the sole substitute. The writer in his position as Director of the Institute of International Education has some two hundred fellowships generously placed at his disposal by the colleges and universities of the United States for the benefit of foreign students. In exchange, universities in the continental European countries have granted an equal number of fellowships for American students. Every fellowship holder is requested to make two frank reports to the Institute of his experiences and observations in the university in which he studied, one at the end of the first semester, the other at the end of his year of study. The American students, all of whom are graduates of colleges, very frequently criticise the American

* Page 185.

credit system in their first report because it requires careful supervision of the student's work which sometimes becomes excessive. They just as frequently criticise in their second report the European system of graduating students solely as the result of a final examination. The latter criticism is due to the fact that they observe considerable numbers of students who neither attend lectures nor engage in steady study throughout the year but rely upon a period of intensive cramming just before the final examination in order to succeed in passing. It is questionable whether the final examination system any more than the credit system results in the unified knowledge that the Mission properly insists upon. Young Chinese human nature is probably about the same as young European. As the Mission insists that Chinese students already devote too much time and effort to cramming, it would seem advisable for Chinese educators carefully to study the problem before discarding the credit system for that of final examinations. In all probability the best system will result from a union of elements taken from both.

The second aspect of American education which the Mission's report condemns is the excessive amount of attention given to the science of education in the preparation of teachers. The Mission approves of pedagogy having an important place in the training of teachers but considers that to make it so detailed as to demand a study of psychology, methodology, school management, hygiene and other branches of the science of education, is to require too much. With this position many American educators agree and the great importance attached to the science of education in the preparation of our teachers is today a matter of controversy. Unfortunately the Mission's report places the over-emphasis in a field where it is practically non-existent. It says, "An ever increasing number of educators are constantly being released by the universities, that is to say secondary school teachers familiar with all the subjects covered by the science of education and who have not specialized in

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one or other of the subjects comprised in the programme of studies. Without exaggeration it has been said that many of these men 'know how to teach what they do not know themselves'. This is not said jokingly; it constitutes the entire problem of teacher training".*

Alas! the reverse is true. One of the chief faults found with university influence upon our colleges and secondary schools is that the universities are sending into those institutions men and women holding advanced degrees as the result of detailed specialization in some one branch of learning but almost wholly ignorant of any pedagogic training. It is only in a few of the larger cities that both specialized knowledge of some one subject and a knowledge of pedagogy are required as qualifications to teach in the secondary schools. As to the colleges, practically all would disdain to have anything to do with a knowledge of the science of education as a qualification for a teaching position. The study of the subjects listed in the previous paragraph as prerequisites to a teacher's license is required chiefly of teachers in the elementary schools. The detailed knowledge of these and other branches of the science of education is demanded of principals of schools, supervisors of studies, directors of departments, superintendents of city school systems and holders of important administrative positions generally. Hence the following statements will meet with general dissent in the United States: "The result, in spite of all efforts to perfect pedagogical technique, has been a general lowering of the scientific standard of secondary-school pupils, and such a state of affairs is most regrettable. . . . China has adopted American educational science with as much enthusiasm as that shown in welcoming anything new and anything American, and in the system of public education in China, which led to such serious consequences for American culture itself".† American education has indeed adopted educational devices which unfor-

* Page 119.

† Page 120. The second sentence seems confused. However, it is quoted verbatim from the report.

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tunately have "led to such serious consequences for American culture itself" and possibly even to "a general lowering of the scientific standard of secondary school pupils", but a demand for a detailed knowledge of the science of education by secondary school teachers is not one of them.

The lack of understanding by foreigners generally of American civilization and education to which reference has already been made is shown in the Mission's discussion of this question of the science of education. Because there existed no strong central official control, whether federal or state, leadership in the development and guidance of education was assumed by a number of nationally recognized centres for the study of education. From this situation there developed the progressive expansion of the science of education adapted not merely to the preparation of teachers but to all aspects of educational organization. In continental Europe on the other hand, relatively little experimentation was possible under the rigid official system. The science of education is, therefore, essentially an American creation much in advance of anything in its field that has obtained currency in Europe. Of course there have been mistakes and excessive enthusiasms in the development of the scientific study of education in America and there is now a tendency to protest against some of the external requirements for the taking of courses in education which have been imposed on teachers by state authorities. There is, nevertheless, a widespread recognition that the progress of education can best be promoted by applying scientific methods to its problems, and a great deal has been accomplished already in the United States in this direction.

A confused understanding of the situation is also shown in the comparison made in the Mission's report of Teachers College, Columbia University, with the *Ecole normale supérieure* of France and the seminars for the training of secondary school teachers in Germany. These institutions exist for the sole purpose of training teachers for the secondary schools of France and Germany, respectively. This

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is only a small part of the aim of Teachers College which is directed to the advanced study of all phases of education. There is no institution just like it anywhere outside the United States though the Institute of Education of the University of London, which was inaugurated last September, is planned on similar lines.

VI.

It is important now, to examine the recommendations of the report to which general assent can be given and to consider to what sources Chinese educators might turn for assistance in realizing them.

The report states "The first question that arose when we were invited to submit our proposals for administrative reforms was as follows: Should administration be centralized or decentralized? This problem . . . raises also the question of cultural self-government or autonomy".* The Mission wisely states "The problem is really a political one, and can only be settled by the Chinese people themselves".* The Mission gives excellent reasons, however, for leaning towards increased centralization, whereas the writer would prefer a system by no means identical with but more nearly akin to that of the United States where the Office of Education of the central government has only advisory functions. But he is wholly at one with the Mission in its advocacy of stimulating the founding of auxiliary organizations composed of interested persons which might arouse increased attention to education among the masses of the people and possibly lead to suggestions for valuable reform in its administration.

In this matter Chinese civilization is far more like American than European. In the countries of continental Europe all eyes are turned to the state for help. The church was everywhere and is still in some countries state supported. The university is a state institution. Reforms in social and political conditions are expected to come from the state. In the United States, largely because of its heritage from a

* Page 43.

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pioneer period in which people had to look out for themselves, reforms of all kinds, political, social, educational, are undertaken by spontaneously organized groups of people without any official sanction or even cognizance. If the reform is proved to be necessary and practicable it is often taken over by the government and incorporated into the official agency. The number of such voluntary organizations of all kinds in the United States is always a matter of astonishment to the foreigner. They explain to a great extent the dynamic character of American civilization. Unquestionably, some of the finest reforms in education have resulted from the experiments undertaken by voluntary organizations and the Chinese may receive many suggestions from a study of their history. The Chinese will appreciate their importance all the more because they themselves are much given to organizing for self-help. That is a characteristic of their civilization which, like the American, is fundamentally democratic in its organization.

China resembles America and also Great Britain, but differs from Continental Europe in not having one dominating state system of education which leaves little room for any competing system. In the United States, in addition to the public schools, there exist parochial school systems under church control such as that of the Roman Catholics or Lutherans, and a multiplicity of private schools. All these are permitted freely to carry on their programs of education with the sole qualification that they measure up to the minimum standard demanded by the state department of education. To the resulting competition and as mentioned above to experiments undertaken particularly by the private schools, American education owes a tremendous debt. Likewise in China, in addition to the government schools, there are mission schools and private schools which are permitted to carry on their activities so long as they conform to government regulations. They, too, have made contributions to the improvement of education in China and it is to be hoped that their existence may

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not be endangered in any general reform that may be introduced.

The report rightly maintains that "The speedy increase of the extension of primary-school education has, in these circumstances, become one of the foremost problems in the educational policy of the latter country [China]".* Throughout the report, condemnation is rightly passed on the excessive attention given to secondary education as not conforming to the essential and practical needs of the Chinese people. Moreover, the chief evil of elementary education in China is accurately set forth in the report, viz.: the fact that practically every village, no matter how small, has its own school and that in the more conservative villages there are found two, one for boys and the other for girls. In these one-teacher schools are found pupils of all ages and grades, though in many the number of pupils is lamentably small. In this matter China is passing through a transition very similar to that through which the United States passed. The "little red schoolhouse" maintained by every village in the United States was throughout the nineteenth century regarded by most Americans with great pride as the chief source of their national strength. A greater knowledge of child psychology and school administration taught the wisdom of sending a bus around to gather the children of several villages into one central school in which each grade would be in charge of a trained teacher. This is the practice in all the progressive states of the Union and is in process of adoption by the others whenever funds permit.

A similar observation may be made regarding the rational utilization of schools, a matter which gave the Mission great concern. The report states "Considering the great lack of schools in China and the large number of children that from year to year cannot obtain access to those there are, it is astonishing what little advantage is on the whole taken of the schools and means of education actually at the country's

* Page 78.

disposal".* This was once also true of the United States. The elementary schools were open five hours a day for five days a week, except in the summer, when they were closed altogether. In the large cities, where population was unevenly distributed, the demands of the compulsory education system caused changes in administration to be adopted such as exemplified in the "Platoon Plan", whereby the school could be used throughout the day by different groups of children so that none would go without training even in the most congested districts. Similarly, the desire to Americanize the immigrant population resulted at an early date in keeping the schools open at night for purposes of adult education. Again, during the summer vacation, city schools were opened for voluntary attendance by children upon courses of a much less technical nature than those pursued during the regular school term. Throughout the country, moreover, the schools are becoming more and more regarded as community centres for the social and recreational use of the local population. In all these respects American experience has lessons for Chinese consideration.

Every educator can rejoice at the condemnation made by the Mission of the excessive use of the lecture as the chief method of instruction in Chinese schools: "The assumption that the only, or best, way to teach is to lecture, which we have noticed already in connection with primary education, attains in secondary schools portentous proportions".† This is emphatically not an American importation. The lecture system exists in the United States, but nowhere else in the world has it such a minor place. In American secondary schools, the recitation, the quizz, and the discussion are the chief methods of teaching. Moreover, in no other country does the library play so large a part in education. It is regarded as the laboratory of the humanistic subjects to which the students are constantly referred to look up ma-

* Page 62.
† Page 111.

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terial for their studies. In no other country also is science taught in the secondary school to such an extent by laboratory methods, i.e., by the student discovering the principle involved as the result of his own experiment instead of hearing it given in a lecture by a teacher or seeing it drawn from an experiment performed by a teacher. This is a costly method of teaching and because of lack of funds the average Chinese middle school and university lack the necessary equipment. It is largely because of that fact that the China Foundation, organized by means of the remainder of the Boxer Indemnity returned to China by the United States government in 1924 has devoted a large part of its funds to making grants to scientific institutions.

The American student studying in continental European universities is always struck by the preponderant place assumed by the lecture method in which the student plays no part save that of a listener and is expected neither to ask questions nor enter into discussion. The "case" method of teaching law is an instance in point. It is an entirely American institution in which the professor instead of delivering a lecture on the principle of law involved and illustrating from cases, gives all the facts concerning a number of cases and then as the result of quizzing the students draws from them the principle involved. It is a cooperative instead of an authoritarian method of teaching.

One of the most interesting discussions in the Mission's report refers to the relations existing between students and teachers and to the students' attitude towards discipline and the administration of the university.* "Chinese educationalists of wide experience have repeatedly spoken to us of what they variously describe as the lack of discipline, contempt for authority or anti-social spirit prevalent in certain universities. . . . What is serious is not the occurrence of occasional outbursts in response to abnormal provocation, but the permanent conditions of which they are

* Pages 167-171.

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merely one, and not the most important symptom".† "What is distressing is that a good deal of the academic disorder which gives rise to criticism appears to be the result, less of high spirits, than of disillusionment among students, neglect of duty by teachers and weakness on the part of administrators".‡ "Further trial should be given to the policy already adopted, we understand, by certain universities, of giving representatives of the students a recognised place in the academic constitution, and of consulting them on the organisation of studies; questions of discipline; and other matters of common interest."||

The relation existing between professors and students in American colleges and universities is a source of pride to American educators. It is also a source of constant and admiring comment upon the part of foreign students in the United States. The relation is in most cases one of friendly and helpful cooperation. The reports of foreign students almost invariably mention that the American professor is far more approachable than is his European colleague and more interested in aspects of the student's life other than the merely scholastic. This is due to a fundamental difference between the ideals of American and continental European educators. The latter look upon the education of the lycée or gymnasium as solely a matter of intellectual discipline. The American ideal of college education is far more akin to that of the ancient Greek, viz.: a rounded education in which the physical as well as the mental, the emotional, moral and social aspects of education as well as the intellectual have their place. An American educator will freely admit that the intellectual discipline of the lycée or gymnasium is far more severe than that of the American college. In neither do extra-curricular activities play an important part in the life of the student body such as they do in the American college where, indeed, they are often carried to excess. But these activities have a vitalizing influence upon the life of the students and are a partial

† Page 168.
‡ Page 169.
|| Page 170.

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explanation of the spirit of cooperation that is a characteristic of American life. They also explain in large part the American graduate's loyalty and devotion to his *alma mater*. The great majority of Chinese students who have studied in American colleges and universities are a unit with their American colleagues in regarding the time spent at college as one of the great experiences in their lives.

Moreover, in no other country have the recommendations of the Mission quoted above been fulfilled to the extent that they have in the United States. Every progressive American college has a Student Council which considers all aspects of student problems and the relations of the students to the college administration. In some colleges the whole question of discipline is turned over to the Student Council. In some cases committees of the Student Council sit with committees of the Faculty in deciding upon changes in the curriculum and administration. Tradition is the most important element in the American student's attitude towards his college, but his feeling that he has in reality a voice in its administration is at least part of the explanation of the absence of student strikes and riots that prevail in so many other countries. It is part of his training for participation in the democratic life of his country. In all probability a graduate of a European lycée or gymnasium is more mature and has a more realistic attitude towards life than an American student of the same age. He probably knows more and knows it more thoroughly, but it is a question whether he has developed as great a degree of self-reliance, of initiative, and of adaptability as the American in the ordinary affairs of life. And this is certainly in part the result of the American's education. It is for Chinese educators to say whether these qualities are much needed in the China of today.

Another recommendation of the report which will meet with general approval follows upon its criticism of educational standards and methods in Chinese universities. "The

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first educational difficulty encountered by Chinese universities is simple. It is the inadequate preparation of many of those entering them.* "It is essential, we think, not only that the quality of secondary education should be improved, but that university entrance examinations should be made more exacting, and that measures should be adopted to establish, as far as possible, a common standard."† The experience of American education in this respect must be illuminating to Chinese educators. Our situation was once as theirs now is. Secondary schools were of various grades of quality and if a graduate of one of them failed to pass the entrance examination for one university he tried to enter another with less exacting terms of admission. After much experiment American educators in 1901 adopted the very device now suggested by the report for China, viz.: a common university entrance examination. The College Entrance Examination Board was established, which has in course of time developed a system of examinations in all the secondary subjects of a nature to demand a general knowledge of the field and to make success by mere cramming much more difficult. The Board and other agencies are now making very valuable experiments in the use of objective examinations for which mere cramming would be quite useless, and in this field the thought and experience of American educators already goes far beyond anything that has been done in Europe. Moreover, the Board's examinations have had a definite influence in causing the cultural standard of the secondary schools whose students take the examinations to approximate uniformity. The value of such a standardizing device is shown by the fact that because of the method of articulation between the public secondary schools and the state universities, it is not necessary to take the examinations of the College Entrance Examination Board to pass from the former to the latter. It is probably true, however, that the entering class of the average state university has a much larger, more

* Page 158.
† Page 159.

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heterogenous and less uniformly qualified body of students than is true of the private university whose students ordinarily enter by way of the College Entrance Examination Board.

But, as the report maintains, it is undesirable that the secondary schools should be organized exclusively to meet university requirements. "It is also necessary that this education [secondary education] should be differentiated according to the varied requirements of practical life and, while remaining constantly in close contact with realities, bring its mission to a successful issue."*

Again an American may be pardoned for believing that this desideratum has been realized to a greater extent in the United States than in European countries. In the large cities of the United States the system of secondary education provides academic high schools to prepare for college and the professions, commercial high schools to prepare for business life and technical high schools to prepare for industrial vocations. Sometimes the differentiation is made through different courses in these subjects in the same school. In many of the smaller cities and towns which can support only one high school, the system of electives prevails which, for example, enables a girl to elect courses in domestic science or industrial arts instead of purely academic subjects if her objective is something other than going to college. Differentiation in secondary schools to provide preparation for different vocations existed in Germany before the war, but the elective system within the secondary school played a very minor part. A boy made his selection of school at the age of nine and if at the end of a year or two his parents or teachers discovered that a mistake had been made, there was nothing for him to do but to continue in his course. The organization of studies in the different secondary schools absolutely prevented transferring from one to another. The Weimar Constitu-

* Page 102.

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tion provided for the establishment of the *Grundschule* throughout Germany, whereby all children received the same education until the tenth year. This is a great improvement, and even beyond the tenth year there has been some differentiation of the curriculum in the various secondary schools; it is, however, still a curriculum that is far more rigid than the curriculum of the American secondary school. Moreover, the attitude of the average secondary teacher in Germany is opposed to the reforms introduced after the war. In fact, in some places even in Prussia, the evasions regarding the provision of the *Grundschule* have destroyed its efficacy. The rigidity of curriculum which exists in the German secondary school is also a characteristic of the French lycée. As Latin Europe has borrowed its secondary school system from France and Teutonic and Slavic Europe from Germany, it is one of the few characteristics common to European education generally. In fact, rigidity is by nature a characteristic of a highly centralized system such as the French or Prussian. The chief evil of the American system is that it permits of too great diffusion of studies. The chief evil of the European is that it may weaken individuality. Whether in this matter the European is a better system than the American for Chinese requirements is, of course, for Chinese educators to determine.

VII.

The final page of the Mission's report* is entitled Urgent Preparatory Measures. The first two recommendations under that heading read as follows:

1. "As soon as possible a special commission should be sent to Europe to study the organisation of school administration in the different European countries. Those sent should be men of experience who are expected to be afterwards the leaders of the reorganisation."

* Page 200.

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2. "We recommend, further, that Chinese specialists be sent to Europe to study text-books, curricula, etc."

It is probably fair to assume that the reason the United States is not included in the proposed Odyssey of the Chinese educators is that the members of the Mission believe that the Chinese are already entirely familiar with American methods, text-books, curricula, etc., so that the future "leaders of the reorganization" have no need to include the United States in their itinerary. If this is true, the Mission has made a mistake. American education is more stabilized than most others at the present time. Nevertheless, valuable experiments are taking place in one part of the country with which educators in even other parts of the country are only partially familiar. The Mission nowhere indicates just what is to be expected to emerge from a study of the educational systems of the European countries. Certainly it cannot imply that they are so similar that a uniform solution on any question can be drawn from them. Actually all have been unsettled since the war and, owing largely to the economic situation, none has reached a definitive form. Everything is in a state of unrest. Nowhere has a decision been reached upon such problems as centralization or decentralization, the movement for the common school, the nature of adolescent education, the character of secondary education, methods of selection, examinations, etc. The Chinese students of European school systems would be confronted with a whole series of problems, as yet unsolved, under conditions as unlike those at home as they will find in the United States. This ought not to deter them from making the study. They should seek the truth wherever they may find it—but judge for themselves.

There is a more fundamental reason why a mission of Chinese educators might profit by a visit in the United States on its way from China to Europe or on its return home from Europe. The report of the League of Nations Educational Mission repeatedly emphasizes the fact that

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China is in the process of transforming its national life and developing new ideals and objectives which will facilitate her orientation in the life of the twentieth century. Even more wisely does the report urge that it is justifiable for China to select elements from foreign civilizations for adaptation to her own but not for imitation. An American may perhaps be pardoned in closing this critique for laying stress upon the ideals upon which his country's civilization is founded and which has not been without influence up to the present in the life of the Chinese people.

The philosophy of life, which, generally speaking, the American people hold maintains that the only ethical basis for social organization is that every individual should obtain the place in society which his native capacities justify him in having regardless of birth, wealth, or social position. It maintains also that the educational system should be so organized as to enable the individual at once to serve society and find his own best mode of life in accordance with his own abilities and interests. Americans are fully aware that they are far from having realized it. But they hold it and strive towards it and they frankly believe that they are on the road to its attainment. They have given earnest of their belief in the organization of an educational ladder which reaches from the kindergarten to the university up which each individual may climb and reach the rung upon which his ability justifies him in standing. The economic constitution of society prevents many from succeeding, but America has at least organized its school system to accomplish the aim. No other great nation has. In practically all of them until very recently, not only have fees been charged for admission to the secondary school, but the system was organized to prevent articulation between the elementary and secondary school. As admission to the controlling positions in society, i.e., to the professions and higher civil service required at least a secondary education, the control of society tended to perpetuate itself in the hands of the privileged classes. It is arguable that such a system is better than the American. It is a justi-

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fiable belief, however, that Chinese patriots in remolding their system of education in order to attain objectives deliberately selected for their national orientation would be wise in investigating all foreign systems.

This critique opened with an expression of admiration for the report of the League of Nations Educational Mission. It closes with a similar expression. The fundamental postulate of the report that China must extract the materials for a new civilization primarily from all that is indigenous will have the hearty endorsement of every thoughtful person. It would be no success were China to secure a knowledge and control of the material equipment of western civilization and in the process of acquisition lose its own soul.

ON REORGANIZATION OF EDUCATION IN CHINA

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

Following is a complete list of those published. Those marked with an asterisk (*) are out of print.

1919

*Announcement of Founding of Institute.

1920

- Bulletin No. 1. First Annual Report of the Director. 10 cents.
*Bulletin No. 2. For Administrative Authorities of Universities and Colleges.
*Bulletin No. 3. Observations on Higher Education in Europe.
*Opportunities for Higher Education in France.
*Opportunities for Graduate Study in the British Isles.

1921

- *Bulletin No. 1. Second Annual Report of the Director.
Bulletin No. 2. Opportunities for Higher Education in Italy. 10 cents.
*Bulletin No. 3. Serials of an International Character. (Tentative List for Libraries.)
*Bulletin No. 4. Educational Facilities in the United States for South African Students.
*Bulletin No. 5. Guide Book for Foreign Students in the United States.

1922

- *Bulletin No. 1. Third Annual Report of the Director.
*Bulletin No. 2. Notes and News on International Educational Affairs.
Bulletin No. 3. A bibliography on the United States for Foreign Students. 10 cents.
Bulletin No. 4. A Report on Education in China. 10 cents.

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1923

- *Bulletin No. 1. Fourth Annual Report of the Director.
- Bulletin No. 2. Guide Book for American Students in the British Isles. 25 cents.
- *Bulletin No. 3. Notes and News on International Educational Affairs.
- *Bulletin No. 4. Fellowships and Scholarships offered to American Students for Study in Foreign Countries and to Foreign Students for Study in the United States.
- Bulletin No. 5. Guide Book for Russian Students in the United States (in Russian). 10 cents.
- *Bulletin No. 6. Guide Book for Foreign Students in the United States (Second edition).

1924

- *Bulletin No. 1. Fifth Annual Report of the Director (The Problem of Fellowships for Foreign Students in American Universities and Fellowships for American Students in Foreign Universities).
- *Bulletin No. 2. Hints to American Students Going to France for Study or Research.

1925

- *Bulletin No. 1. Fellowships and Scholarships Open to American Students for Study in Foreign Countries.
- *Bulletin No. 2. Fellowships and Scholarships Open to Foreign Students for Study in the United States.
- *Bulletin No. 3. Sixth Annual Report of the Director (Observations Concerning Foreign Centres of International Education).

1926

- Bulletin No. 1. Handbook for American Students in France. 25 cents.
- Bulletin No. 2. Seventh Annual Report of the Director (The Junior Year Abroad, Student Third Class, Summer Schools Abroad, Institute Activities). 10 cents.

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1927

- Bulletin No. 1. Guide Book for Foreign Students in the United States (in Spanish). 10 cents.
- *Bulletin No. 2. Guide Book for Foreign Students in the United States (Second Edition, Revised).
- Bulletin No. 3. The American University Union in Europe. (British Academic Degrees, France and Modern Science). 10 cents.
- *Bulletin No. 4. Eighth Annual Report of the Director (American Education in "Backward" Countries, The Expatriated Russian Professor, Unification of Activities in International Education, Institute Activities).

1928

- *Bulletin No. 1. The Institute of International Education—Its Origin, Organization and Activities.
- Bulletin No. 2. Not published.
- Bulletin No. 3. Ninth Annual Report of the Director (American Influence on European Education, Institute Activities). 10 cents.

1929

- Bulletin No. 1. Fellowships and Scholarships Open to American Students for Study in Foreign Countries. 25 cents.
- *Bulletin No. 2. Fellowships and Scholarships Open to Foreign Students for Study in the United States.
- Bulletin No. 3. Tenth Annual Report of the Director (The Work Student Movement, Latin-American Cultural Relations, Institute Activities). 10 cents.

1930

- Bulletin No. 1. Foreign Students and the Immigration Laws of the United States. 25 cents.
- Bulletin No. 2. A Decade of International Fellowships—A Survey of the Impressions of American and Foreign Ex-fellows. 25 cents.

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- Bulletin No. 3. Fellowships and Scholarships Open to Latin-American Students for Study in the United States (in Spanish). 25 cents.
Bulletin No. 4. Eleventh Annual Report of the Director (Some Reflections on American Educational Institutions Abroad, Institute Activities). 10 cents.

1931

- Bulletin No. 1. Guide Book for Foreign Students in the United States (Third Edition). 25 cents.
Bulletin No. 2. Fellowships and Scholarships Open to Foreign Students for Study in the United States. 25 cents.
Bulletin No. 3. Twelfth Annual Report of the Director (Cultural Co-operation with South America, Institute Activities). 10 cents.

1932

- Bulletin No. 1. The Foreign Teacher: His Legal Status as Shown in Treaties and Legislation—With special reference to the United States. 25 cents.
Bulletin No. 2. Thirteenth Annual Report of the Director (Overproduction of Intellectuals, Cultural Barriers, Institute Activities). 10 cents.
Bulletin No. 3. Fellowships and Scholarships Open to American Students for Study in Foreign Countries (Fourth Edition). 25 cents.

1933

- Bulletin No. 1. A Critique of the Report of The League of Nations' Mission of Educational Experts to China. 25 cents.

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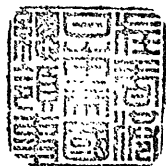
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戰時ニ於ケル支那ノ教育實施狀況ニ關スル件

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在香港日本總領事館



名件
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中村 豊一



昭和十三年七月拾九日發

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右何等御參考迄譯報ス

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在香港日本總領事館

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總領事 日 高 信 六



外務大臣 宇 垣 一 成 殿

上海教育界ニ對スル漢口側ノ工作ニ關スル件

AL情報ニ依レハ漢口政府教育部ニ於テハ蔣建白ヲ駐滬專員ニ蔣建策、彭振球、聶建南、錢弗公及聶海凡ヲ其ノ職員ニ任命シ各學校ノ指導監督竝維新政府側教育事業ノ調査ヲ行ハシメ居リ目下舊市立學

在上海日本總領事館

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