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# A SURVEY OF A DECENNIUM OF EDUCATION IN COUNTRIES OTHER THAN THE UNITED STATES

BEING CHAPTER VII OF VOLUME I OF THE BIENNIAL SURVEY OF EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES : 1934–36

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# FOREWORD

The purpose of the Biennial Survey of Education in the United States is to present to the people of this Nation a picture, as complete and accurate as possible, of the many types of education they finance, administer, and maintain. But this isolated picture is not enough. The worth, activity, and progress of any system of schools are relative matters and must be shown along with like phases of other systems to provide sane conceptions and sound bases for judgments. To afford such bases for comparisons the Office of Education has throughout its existence published in its annual reports, biennial surveys, bulletins, and pamphlets, accounts of education in other countries. This chapter of the Biennial Survey for 1934-36 is in continuation of that policy. It attempts to point out the differing directions in which education in other countries has been going in the past decade in the hope that from them we in the United States may be better able to select the educational paths that will lead in this country to the strengthening and perpetuation of good ways of living.

BESS GOODYKOONTZ
*Assistant Commissioner of Education*

# CHAPTER VII

## A SURVEY OF A DECENNIUM OF EDUCATION IN COUNTRIES OTHER THAN THE UNITED STATES

A survey of the trends of education in other countries for the years 1924 to 1926, which included to some extent post-war happenings to those dates, was prepared and published by the Office of Education in 1928.[1] The intention then was to issue similar accounts regularly with each biennial survey of education in the United States. Many other duties and some difficulties intervened to prevent carrying out the plan and it was not until about 1936 that the way seemed clear to pick up the thread of the earlier account and again weave into the fabric of educational documentation in the United States a sketch of education movements abroad. This study is an attempt to do that. It is presented in the hope that at intervals corresponding to the larger swings of world affairs, the story may be continued in such a way as to provide a progressive historical summary of education trends and events.

The decade here dealt with was a stirring one. In its first 3 years human life seemed everywhere on the ascendant. Intercourse among nations, manufacturing, building, commerce, trade, exploration, research, and investigation were moving rapidly to levels not before known in human experience. Then came 3 years of decline so severe that by 1932 the only peoples not seriously affected were those few so far removed from participation in the general life of the world that they had felt nothing of the preceding upsurge. In the last 4 years the economic swing has again been upward.

Coincident with these economic changes were revolutions peaceful and otherwise but important in either case, many changes in forms of government, the application of different philosophies of life, and a general questioning of the worth of much that had been held to be fundamental in all human relations.

Organized education felt the impact of all these movements probably more than it ever has before because education in recent years has been more closely connected with life out of the schools than it has for some centuries and was consequently more susceptible of being influenced. To present a broad view of the larger effects of those impacts, or resistance to them as the case may have been, is the purpose of this bulletin. The immediate results of the depression are not here emphasized; they are the subject of an earlier publi-

[1] Abel, James F. Major trends of education in other countries. Washington. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin 1928, No. 13.

cation.[2] Curtailed budgets, reduced salaries and personnel, smaller capital outlays for schools, are all important of course, but they are not so significant as changes in the concept of history and how it is to be taught to young people, whether education is to be used as a means of making good human beings or a particular type of thinker which those in control of the State desire at the time, or whether the administration and direction of education is to be strongly centralized in a small group of people who can easily have a mistaken conception of what is best for the Nation. It is these vital questions which in one form or another have been connected with organized education since its beginning, that are mainly considered in the following pages.

[2] Abel, James F. The effects of the economic depression on education in other countries. Washington, U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin 1933, No. 14.

## Section I. Europe

### *MARKED CHANGES IN EDUCATION SYSTEMS*

Twenty-one European countries changed their education systems markedly during the decennium [1] under review. They were: Albania in 1933; Austria, 1934; Belgium, 1931–32; Bulgaria, 1934; Czechoslovakia, 1930; Denmark, 1932 and later; England, beginning with 1926; Estonia, 1934; France, 1930; Germany, 1933; Hungary, 1934; Italy, beginning in 1923; Latvia, 1934; Norway, 1935; Poland, 1932; Portugal, 1935-36; Rumania, 1934; Scotland, 1929; Soviet Union, 1928 and later; Spain, 1931–32; Sweden, 1927; and Yugoslavia, 1929.

*Education and revolution.*—In six of these countries the changes in education were coincident with general revolutionary movements that resulted in setting up new national governments which, shortly after coming into power, redirected education policies. The Austrian constitution which went into force on May 1, 1934, declares Austria to be a federal state corporatively ordered and education there took on some of the characteristics being given it by corporative states. The *coup d'etat* of May 1934 in Bulgaria and the attempt to establish a corporative state greatly affected education in that country. The National Socialist German Workers' Party which took control of Germany in 1933 is changing German education to suit its own purposes. An authoritarian government was established in Latvia in May of 1934 and by July of that year had passed a new law on public instruction. Its *Estado Novo* constitution of March 1933 made Portugal also a corporative state and the education reforms of 1935–36 are directly due to that. The second Spanish republic was proclaimed April 14, 1931; its government immediately entered upon an ambitious program of educational reform. The adoption of the first 5-year plan, a revolution in itself, by the Soviet Union in 1928 was the signal for greatly extended and intensive education activity mainly along the lines begun when the Union was formed. About the time the second 5-year plan was entered upon, 1932–33, it became evident that quality rather than quantity in education had to be emphasized and some drastic changes in policy were made.

*Carefully planned changes.*—In contrast with the pronounced, sudden swings in education activities were the long-planned, deliberately considered actions progressively made effective in other coun-

[1] Approximately 1926 to 1935, inclusive.

tries. The Consultative Committee of the Board of Education of England and Wales conducted inquiries for 2 years before it rendered its final report in 1926 on *The Education of the Adolescent*. Since 1926 education in England is being steadily reconstructed along the lines suggested in the report. The government of Czechoslovakia made changes in the schools only after careful study and considerable experimentation. Doing away with fees in the public secondary schools of France was carried out rather gradually. In Norway a commission appointed in 1922 presented a report in 1927. The plan it proposed was the subject of much discussion and not until March 1934 was the project of a law placed before the Storthing, and from that project a law was passed in 1935. The Polish education law of March 11, 1932, was the product of extensive study by a ministerial commission composed of specialists in the different fields of education. The Swedish law presented to the Riksdag in February 1927 and passed the following May was based on 8 years of study and public discussion. Plainly, the peoples of most of the European nations prefer to make their education adaptations slowly and after mature consideration.

### *LESSER CHANGES*

The seven other European countries, Finland, Greece, the Irish Free State, Lithuania, Luxembourg, The Netherlands, and Switzerland changed their school systems some, of course, but in comparatively minor respects.

### *NATIONALIZATION OF EDUCATION*

Overwhelmingly in the direction of nationalization of education were the education movements of the past decade. The spirit of intense nationalism that has been rampant throughout much of the world has naturally shown itself in cultural as well as political and economic movements. Superficially the trend in education is indicated by the fact that in Italy in September 1929 the ministry of public instruction became the ministry of national education; in France in June 1932 the ministry of public instruction and fine arts was changed to the ministry of national education; in Belgium in December of 1932 the ministry of sciences and of arts became the ministry of public instruction; in Portugal in 1935 the ministry of public instruction became the ministry of national education; and the Rumanian ministry of public instruction and cults was changed in November 1936 to a ministry of national education. A Federal ministry for science, education, and popular culture (Reichsministerium für Wissenschaft, Erziehung und Volksbildung) was created in Germany on May 1, 1934, and its fields of activity assigned by decree of the following May 11.

In a decennium that marks the centenaries of the founding of several important public-school systems, those people who believe that education is a public function and have earnestly and honestly striven to make it so, find their hopes being fulfilled and their efforts rewarded, for nations in general have been rapidly taking wider and closer control of their cultural institutions, but not always in the way that advocates of public education desire.

*Public and private education.*—Nationalization of education has many aspects and manifests itself in various forms. One of them is the swing from private to public education. The economic crisis forced some of this. Many private schools closed because they could not find the money to keep their doors open and the students went to swell the increasing numbers in public institutions. Others remained open only by accepting grants from public funds and the public regulation consequent to such grants. More of the change was due to drastic government action. To 1933 education in Albania was provided mainly by private organizations many of whose schools received subsidies from government funds. The Albanian authorities, feeling that this prevented the development of an Albanian national public-school system, changed certain articles of the constitution in April of 1933 and shortly afterward passed a law that had the effect of doing away with all private schools in Albania. The right of religious bodies in Spain to conduct schools was abrogated by the Cortes in 1932 and the government undertook to replace the private schools with public.

Private education continues and plays an important role in most European countries but it is being brought more and more under government regulation. Law of May 20, 1933, in Denmark provides, among other things, for national supervision of private primary schools under certain conditions. By law of July 12, 1934, private schools may carry on in Latvia but their purposes and activities must be in accord with the national principles expressed in public education. Private and religious schools came increasingly under direct national authority in Lithuania. The gradual suppression of private schools begun in Norway in 1920 is now virtually accomplished. Private schools in Yugoslavia must submit to national control. Throughout Europe public as opposed to private direction of education is being strengthened.

*National administration and support.*—Another phase of the nationalization of education is the placing of more of the support and administration of schools in the hands of national officials and leaving less of it with the local authorities. Much of this has been going on in Europe in the past decade. Some of it also was due to the depression. Localities found themselves unable to raise school moneys by taxation and turned to the national treasury for help. National

budgets for education were generally cut, in some countries heavily for 2 to 4 years in succession, and the national government in order to use the depleted funds to the best advantage had either to take entire control of the schools or strictly supervise the local officials.

By law of January 22, 1931, the national treasury of Belgium took over the salaries of all the secondary school personnel. In Bulgaria, decree law of July 13, 1934, took away from the communal school commissions the power to select teachers; made the commissions appointive instead of elective as they had been, and in other ways simplified and centralized the administration of primary schools. Danish moves in this direction include lessening the influence of the rector of the church in the local and provincial school commissions and bringing the urban schools directly under the ministry of education which approves their plans and names the teachers. In Estonia also, control of the selection of primary teachers was placed in the education ministry. Even in Switzerland where tradition and sentiment are against national control of education and there is no federal ministry of education, the central government increased its participation in and control of certain education matters.

Education administration in the Soviet Union, previously placed in each constituent republic of the Union, came more and more under Union control. A central commissariat of public instruction has not been established, but at Moscow the commissariat of the Russian Soviet Republic tends to assume federal functions. The government is taking the place of the communist party in unifying education and the Union treasury is bearing a greater share of education expenditures.

*Unifying control of different types of education.*—Still another move in the nationalization of education lies in placing schools of different types within the purview of one ministry. For a long time the practice has been to assign to the ministry of public instruction only schools of general education. Agricultural education was directed by the ministry of agriculture; technical by the ministry of labor; war and naval schools, by the ministry of national defense, etc. The tendency in this decade has been to unite as much as possible all types of education, except that for national defense, to correlate them more closely, and to place them under one central administration. Thus, in Belgium when the ministry of sciences and of arts changed its name in 1932 to the ministry of public instruction, an office of technical education was set up within it to handle technical and vocational, and agricultural and horticultural education. The ministries of labor and of agriculture now have a voice in these aspects of education only through the office of technical education. A similar attempt in Bulgaria failed but the controversy resulted

in the appointment of an interministerial commission to assure as far as possible unity of instruction.

The ministry of science, arts, and popular education of Prussia by the crisis ordinance of October 29, 1932, took over most of the duties of the ministry of social welfare which was disbanded; and further was given control of many schools of commerce, agriculture, veterinary studies, household economics, and similar subjects, that had formerly been under other ministries. Agricultural schools in Poland were transferred, beginning July 1, 1932, from the ministry of agriculture to the ministry of cults and public instruction. About the same time the ministries of commerce, agriculture, and public works in Portugal relinquished to the ministry of public instruction control of technical education.

The Soviet Union presents an exception to this trend particularly with respect to higher education. In July 1928, six technical institutes and five tecnica were transferred to the administration of the council of national economy, and two institutes to the commissariat of transport. In July 1930 a general law was passed which transfers from the commissariats of public instruction in the different republics the technical schools to the Union industrial commissariats, the agricultural schools to the Union and the republics' commissariats of agriculture, and the medical institutes to the commissariats of health. This move however resulted in greater central control of technical education for in October 1933, a federal committee of higher technical education was created to take general direction and control of technical education throughout the Union.

*The unity school or unified school system.*—The unity or unified school, differently understood and conceived in different countries, lends itself nicely to the nationalization of education. "Differently understood and conceived in different countries" expresses the situation because an action toward a better unified system considered as a very important movement in Norway or Sweden, for instance, where education has long been well organized, would be inconsequential or impossible in Rumania, for example, where in 1919 four widely varying types of education organization found themselves compelled to carry on under a common national government, or in Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Yugoslavia where similar situations existed.

A basic principle of the unity school is equal educational opportunity for equal intelligence without regard to the social, class, or economic status of the students. The nation undertakes to assure for the supernormal child from any condition of life a training suited to his natural capacities, and to any less gifted child education is to be meted out according to his abilities and needs. Such a concept led in France to making much easier the transfer of pupils from the

primary to the secondary school classes, and later the progressive abolition of fees in all public secondary schools. The implications of the principle are wide. They call for an intimate knowing of every child in the realm on the one hand, comprehensive knowledge in detail of the entire economic and social aspects of the country on the other, and an education scheme so complete and well-rounded that it can fit the individual advantageously into the nation's life.

Some Bulgarian authorities claim that their country has the only unified school system in Europe. The claim is based on the fact that all children, rich and poor alike, must attend the primary school and that secondary schools and universities are provided for all who are capable of going further. Norwegian authorities also claim for their country a unified school in the sense that admission to a secondary school is possible only after 7 years of primary instruction. The 1932 reform of education in Poland is hailed as bringing about a unified school system. The Czechoslovakian reforms of 1930 were considerably in the direction of providing closer connection between primary and secondary education.

Law No. XI of 1934 in Hungary did away with the three or four types of secondary schools then existing and substituted one type in which the four lower classes have a common program; in the four upper classes pupils have a choice according to their aptitudes. Unifying secondary schools in Yugoslavia was undertaken with considerable success in 1929. Many secondary schools in Belgium have recently been enlarged and new schools established for both boys and girls to the end that the imbalance between primary and secondary instruction in that country be overcome, and considerable effort toward democratizing education was made in the way of remitting secondary school fees and providing funds for the better endowed children of poor parents. The main steps toward a unity school system in Spain under the second republic were in the direction of providing public primary education for the masses of the people.

### *EXTREME NATIONALIZATION OF EDUCATION*

A usual concept of nationalization of education pictures the national government in power at the time as taking control of all education within the boundaries of its territory and using the schools of all types and levels to promote and perpetuate its political and economic theories and practices. Freedom of teaching ceases. The state, not the individual, is of paramount importance; making citizens of the kind desired by the government, not making good human beings, is the ultimate purpose. This concept arises from the strong impressions, both antagonistic and favorable, created by the Gentile reforms of 1923 in Italy and their progress in the subsequent years,

the adaptation of education to communism in the Soviet Union, and the more recent control taken of education by the National Socialist German Workers' Party.

*Italy.*—Good accounts[2] of the reform of education in Italy are available; the story need not be retold here. The administration, the organization of instruction, and the spirit and ideals of education were all changed. The last of these commands attention as the extreme of nationalization. They were expressed by the prime minister as follows:

> The Government demands that the school should be inspired by the ideals of Fascism; it demands that it should be not merely not hostile to Fascism but in no way out of sympathy with it or indifferent to it; and it demands that the whole school system in every grade and every phase of its teaching should educate Italian youth to understand Fascism, to renew themselves in Fascism and to live in the historic atmosphere created by the Fascist revolution.

*Soviet Union.*—The communist regime of education in the Soviet Union is also fairly well documented[3] in English. The administration, organization of instruction, and the spirit of the teaching were virtually reversed. The strong central control held by the ministry of public instruction during the czarist regime was presumably set aside and each republic was made responsible for education within its borders. Still, considerable central direction was maintained by the communist party. All the former types of schools were replaced by others offering a very different kind of instruction, organized differently and animated by a spirit opposed to that which prevailed in the imperialist institutions. Few nations have undertaken so original and comprehensive a program of training for children and adults alike or borne it along so far.

Though the efforts to make the schools a means of spreading and perpetuating communism were vigorous and continuous, eventually

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[2] Codignola, E. The philosophy underlying the National system of education in Italy. *In* Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1930.

Lazzari, Marino. Education in Italy. *In* The Year Book of Education 1932. London, Evans Brothers Limited, 1932.

Marraro, Howard R. New Education in Italy. New York, S. F. Vanni, Inc., 1936. 525 pp.

[3] Handbook of the Soviet Union. New York, American-Russian Chamber of Commerce, 1936. 562 pp.

Hans, N. Education in Soviet Russia. *In* The Year Book of Education 1933. London, Evans Brothers Limited, 1933.

——— Education in Soviet Russia 1931–34. *In* The Year Book of Education 1935. London, Evans Brothers Limited, 1935.

Lodge, Nucia P. Higher education in Soviet Russia and the new student. *In* Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1934.

Pinkevitch, Albert P. The new education in the Soviet Republic. New York, The John Day Company, 1929. 403 pp.

they had to give way to the claims of broader education. Trained leaders in industry and trade were sorely needed so the universities were gradually re-established as institutions of higher learning and their research and teaching work united. To obtain fit students competitive examinations had to take the place of class selection, and knowledge of political grammar became less important than knowledge of the sciences. The programs of 1927 did away with the complex teaching method based on labor, nature, and society and brought back the regular study subjects, literature, foreign languages, mathematics, science, etc. At the same time the primary schools turned again to reading, writing, and arithmetic taught in an organized way by a definite program.

The cultural 5-year plan taken up in 1928 to some extent stopped this return to standard forms of education. The economic 5-year plan called for thousands of skilled workers, foremen, engineers, technicians, agriculturalists, electricians, miners, etc., to carry it to completion. At the same time further liquidation of illiteracy and the general introduction of compulsory education were undertaken. Most of the higher grades of the general secondary schools were changed into technical and higher technical institutes; the accommodation in all kinds of schools had to be doubled and trebled, and thousands of new teachers had to be employed.

The drive for quantity production in education brought deterioration in quality and about 1932 the government deliberately slowed down the rate of growth, reestablished the complete secondary school of general education, and on May 16, 1934, published a new statute for primary and secondary schools that brings them well into line with practices in other countries. Later, directors and teachers in secondary schools were given full authority over the students, student uniforms were again required, student self-government is strictly limited to student activities, and communistic doctrine has a much less important place in the curriculum.

*Germany.*—"National-socialist education is based on the principle of political education. Political education is neither a new form of instruction nor even new subject matter to be taught; it should be envisaged as the expression of all the efforts tending to place education in the closest rapport with the State and the people. It is the State and the people which give to every cultural institution and to every pedagogical action its sense and its direction. * * * National-socialism, based exclusively on the political conception of the world, should necessarily exert itself in the first place to master men, the reform of institutions not presenting later any difficulty. It is not therefore surprising that the reorganization of education was begun with the teaching corps and the youth," is an expression of the

underlying spirit of and the first moves in the redirecting of education in Germany by the National Socialist Party.[1]

The types of schools, the programs of study in them, the internal organization of the institutions, and other formal aspects were not greatly changed in Germany. Such a radical upsetting of all institutions as occurred in the Soviet Union, or even the more deliberate changes that were made in Italy, were not undertaken. The Nazi leaders began with the teachers and brought them into a general National-sozialistischer Lehrerbund so that the entire body of German educators would be in line with the party's policies. Next, the children were organized in the Hitlerian youth. Then came the changes in the spirit of education. They were not a break with history, with all the past, as in the Soviet Union, but a return to the past, a revival of a historic concept, much as they were in Italy.

The ministry of the interior, then the leading education ministry in Germany, laid down the principle that—

> The supreme task of the school is the education of the youth for the service of the Nation and the State in a National-socialistic spirit. Anything that favors such education should be encouraged, anything that endangers it should be avoided and fought.

Briefly, that National-socialistic spirit means the return of Germany to the place in world affairs that it held previous to the world war and is to be accomplished by racial purity, the expulsion or subordination of all non-Aryan elements in the population, unification of the German people under one leader with absolute authority, strict discipline in all walks of life, careful physical training as a basis for military training, and reverence for the national heritage and the national heroes.

To attain these ends the director of the school is given full authority over his institution; he may control and discipline the pupils about as he sees fit; he alone is held responsible for the school's functioning. Heredity and race knowledge is a subject of instruction; history is taught with special emphasis on Nordic superiority; school journeys abroad are forbidden but journeys within Germany are encouraged; city children spend a year in the country; graduates of secondary schools who would enter universities must first give a year to labor service; the number of women university students is reduced; and a Federal Ministry of Science, Education, and

[1] Annuaire international de l'éducation et de l'enseignement 1934. Genève, Bureau International d'Éducation, 1934.

Other references are:

Kandel, I. L. The making of Nazis. *In* Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University 1934. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1934.

——— Education in Nazi Germany. *In* Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, November 1935.

Popular Culture established May 1, 1934, now has control of all aspects of education in the Reich.

### *LONGER TRAINING FOR MORE PEOPLE*

Throughout the decade the European countries progressively increased the number and percentage of people, young and old, receiving some kind of formal instruction. This was brought about by better enforcement of school attendance laws, increasing the term of compulsory education, the remaining in school of large numbers of young people who were unable to find employment, sustained efforts to reduce illiteracy in countries where the illiteracy rate was high, provision of better opportunities for technical and vocational education, training of the unemployed, attempts to create a better spirit of National unity, and the use of the cinema and radio both in schoolrooms and in popular instruction without the schools.

Obligatory instruction and the reduction or prevention of illiteracy are complementary activities. To be able to enforce its compulsory education laws, the government of Albania has yearly added to the number of primary schools, arranged *internats* (boarding schools) for poor children in the mountain districts, and made more provision for the education of girls. The Belgian authorities bettered the enforcement of compulsory schooling for children of parents without fixed residence, and for physically and mentally infirm children.

By decree of May 25, 1934, the final age for obligatory instruction in Esfonia was fixed at completion of the primary-school curriculum, normally 14 years of age. Children who reach 14 in the first semester of the school year may leave at the close of the previous year; those who attain it during the second semester must continue to the close of the year. Formerly all children who had not completed the primary school were compelled to attend to the age of 16. The change was made to avoid difficulties within the schools and because many parents needed the help of their children who were 14 or older. In Finland obligatory primary instruction of 6 years plus 2 years of post-primary for children not continuing their studies in any other way was in force in the cities by 1931. It is planned to be fully effective in rural districts by 1937.

School attendance in France was made compulsory for all children from 6 to 14 years of age by a law signed by the President August 9, 1936. The labor laws were also modified making it henceforth illegal for children under the age of 14 to be employed in commercial and industrial establishments even in the capacity of apprentices. In general this represents an addition of 1 year to compulsory education in France.

The school-leaving age in Scotland was raised from 14 to 15, effective September 1, 1939, by the Education (Scotland) Act, 1936, and the minimum age for exemption from school under employment certificates was lifted from 12 to 14. The new school-leaving age law in England is very similar to that in Scotland. On May 20, 1936, an enactment in Sweden changed the 6-year elementary school which had met the full-time requirement of compulsory education since 1842, to a 7-year school. A 12-year period is allowed to make the transition from the one type to the other.

Obligatory full-time attendance of 6 years in Hungary is being extended to 8 years as fast as schools can be provided. Progress in this direction was slowed by the depression. The Irish Free State school attendance act for children between 6 and 14 years of age became operative on January 1, 1927. The effects are showing in steadily increasing attendance in the upper grades of the elementary schools. An interdepartmental committee recently appointed to study the question of raising the school-leaving age reported that it is impracticable to compel children in rural areas of the Free State to attend whole-time schools to the age of 16.

One of the chief characteristics of the present educational regime in Italy is its constant insistence on obligatory education and the provision of enough schools for all the children. The 7 years of obligatory schooling that Polish authorities desire throughout the country have not yet been reached in some areas but good progress is being made especially since the reform of 1932.

Spain and the Union of Soviet Republics made remarkable attempts to extend primary education to all children of compulsory school age. The government of the Second Spanish Republic projected in 1931 a plan for creating 27,151 new schools in 5 years and providing teachers for them. The budget of the ministry of public instruction was increased for 1931 and the 3 succeeding years and, although the project was not carried to completion, many thousands of new teaching positions were created, new buildings were erected, and new schools opened.

Officials of the Union of Soviet Republics claim that by the close of 1932 preschool institutions embraced one-fourth of the children between 3 and 7 years of age; the 4-year elementary school course was attended by 98 percent of children of that school age; and the 7-year course, made obligatory in 1930 under the second 5-year plan, held more than two-thirds of the children of an age to attend it. Comparative data for the 2 years 1927–28 and 1934–35 are:[5]

[5] Handbook of the Soviet Union. New York, American-Russian Chamber of Commerce, 1936.

| Type of school | Number of students 1927–28 | 1934–35 |
|---|---|---|
| Preschool institutions | 308,000 | 6,506,000 |
| Elementary schools (total) | 11,356,000 | 24,036,000 |
| Primary (first to fourth year) | 9,947,000 | 18,538,000 |
| Intermediate and secondary (fifth to tenth year) | 1,409,000 | 5,498,000 |

### *REDUCTION OF ILLITERACY*

Campaigns to reduce illiteracy among adults and adolescent youth were not necessary and of course were not undertaken in Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Germany, Netherlands, Belgium, England and Scotland, France, Switzerland, Luxembourg, Austria, and Hungary. Illiteracy had long been of proportions small enough in those countries to require only that it be kept down and in some cases reduced by careful enforcement of the compulsory education laws.

The other European countries were not in that position. The illiteracy rate was high in Italy in 1923 when the Gentile reforms included a campaign to eradicate it. There has been no cessation in that drive and by 1935 the government felt that the "social malady" illiteracy was definitely overcome.

The first 5-year plan in the Soviet Union included a project for teaching 18,200,000 illiterates. Official reports placed literacy at 58.4 percent when the work began, and at 90 percent in 1932. The following is a recent statement of the situation:[6]

> Many of the smaller nationalities in the country in prewar times had no written languages. What few schools existed were conducted in the Russian language. The government has aided the minor nationalities to develop their national culture. Philologists have worked out alphabets for a number of those nationalities which previously had none. In the Russian Republic 40 new alphabets have been introduced. By the end of 1932 out of 182 nationalities 134 had their own national written language. Latinization of the national alphabets has also been widely introduced; by the end of 1932 over 70 nationalities had adopted the Latin alphabet.
>
> This has played a large role in eradicating illiteracy. For example, among the Turkomans in 1926, prior to Latinization, there were only 2 percent literates; in 1932 there were 61 percent. Corresponding figures for Uzbekistan and Tadzhikistan are: 2 and 72 percent and 1.5 and 52 percent. Similar progress has been made among the Cossacks, Tatars, Kalmyks, Buryats and other minor nationalities. The more cultured peoples have achieved close to 100 percent literacy and have not only elementary but secondary and higher educational institutions in their own languages. Elementary schools are conducted in 70 different languages in the Union of Soviet Republics.
>
> It is expected that adult illiteracy will be virtually eliminated within a short time. While the number of persons attending "anti-illiteracy" courses is scheduled to show a continual decline, the number attending courses for semi-literates is expected to increase from 6,471,000 in 1932 to 9,000,000 in 1937.

[6] Handbook of the Soviet Union. New York, American-Russian Chamber of Commerce, 1936.

*Growth of literacy*

| | 1928 | 1930 | 1932 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Literacy, population between 8 and 50 years (percent) | 58.4 | 67.3 | 90.0 |
| Urban | 78.5 | 83.9 | 97.0 |
| Rural | 48.3 | 62.1 | 88.0 |
| 2. Attendance at literacy courses (thousands): | | | |
| Courses for semiliterates | ------- | 6,970.2 | 6,471.0 |
| Courses for illiterates | 1,315.0 | 6,981.8 | 7,170.0 |

The Irish Free State, Albania, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Portugal, Rumania, and Spain made special efforts to reduce illiteracy among their peoples.

### *ADULT EDUCATION*

In the past 16 years probably no other phase of human training has been stimulated more, has spread more widely, and taken on more different aspects than adult education. The World War, while in progress, gave it a startling impetus by showing how rapidly adults can be trained to do things to which they are unaccustomed; at its close millions of men both sound and maimed were turned back to civilian life and large numbers of them had to be refitted for civilian pursuits. Psychology came forward to prove by experiment that adults can learn as easily and rapidly as young people. The intense trade and industrial activity from 1926 to 1930 required the employment of many who had to be trained while in service. The depression brought unemployment for millions and some provision had to be made to occupy their idle time; "Education for leisure" became a slogan. The radio and the cinema opened wonderful possibilities in the way of mass instruction and many attempts successful and unsuccessful were made to use them. The new central governments of the nations created or recreated after the World War felt that they had to weld together the diverse elements in their populations and used various forms of adult education to do it. Dictator governments had of necessity to reach their citizens in all walks of life and they too set up various programs for instructing adults in the aims and policies of the government and the schemes of living that would make them effective. Obligatory part-time schooling following the period of obligatory full-time instruction was adopted in several countries.

Libraries and museums extended their services and caught and held the interest of more people. Workers' organizations undertook to train their members. Associations such as the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations made stronger efforts to offer planned courses and instruction to adults. The extent to which adults were invited and encouraged to join in educational group undertakings was remarkable. The significant features of the movement were that it grew from and appealed to people of the lower

income brackets, and their main interest was and is in the cultural and social science studies.

Much of this adult education was initiated and carried on by private effort though public institutions aided and encouraged it. A large amount received grants from public funds. In three countries—the Soviet Union, Italy, and Germany—adult education was taken over by the national government and is directed by it.

The English system is typical of those in which it is recognized as an essential part of the education system, is aided from public funds, and is left free of partisan political influence.

*England.*—Adult education is an old, well-organized, and nationally aided activity in England. From the establishment of the first strictly adult school in 1798 through the later growth of mechanics' institutes and people's colleges, the formation in 1903 of the Workers' Educational Association, and the university extension and tutorial class movements, to the code for evening continuation schools in 1893 when assistance from public funds was first provided, it has been a serious business somewhat more closely connected with the regular school system than in many other countries.

The Board of Education issued a body of regulations for it in 1924, widened the scope of those rules in 1931, reduced the grant in 1932 to be in effect for the following 2 years, resumed expansion for the year 1934-35, and later removed all restrictions on the natural growth of courses and classes and completely restored the 10 percent reduction in teachers' salaries. The Board reports that on July 31, 1935, there were 783 tutorial classes (preparatory, 3-year, and advanced) with an attendance of 13,889; 1,359 1-year, terminal, and short terminal courses with 27,468 attending; 370 university extension and short extension courses with 7,857; 13 vacation courses, 1,453; and 5 residential colleges with 120 students. The government looks with favor on any institution that raises the standard of citizenship and of general culture and, while it supervises the activities of those organizations to which it gives grants for adult education, it does not interfere with their political or partisan points of view.

*Belgium.*—Schools for adults are optional in Belgium; the communes may or may not establish them as they see fit. If the local public authorities do set up adult schools, the central government grants a subsidy. Schools of general education for adults come within the ministry of public instruction; the ministries of agriculture and of labor also aid adult schools in their respective fields. Independent organizations may also provide schools and courses for adults, and in Belgium these organizations are usually either closely allied with or distinctly antagonistic to the church. In any case the schools, whether public or independent, are given funds from the

national treasury without regard to their religious connections or political affiliations.

A higher council of popular education (Conseil supérieur de l'education populaire) was created by law of April 30, 1929. It is a consultative body attached to the ministry of public instruction to suggest to the government any measures it may consider favorable to popular education and to assure a better use of leisure by workers. The spending of any national funds appropriated for popular education is largely determined on the advice of the council.

*Other countries.*—The governments of the Scandinavian countries, of Holland, Czechoslovakia, Poland, and Austria subsidize adult education but without attempting to give it a political bias, and during the decade made no special moves in that direction. Austria may be an exception due to the political events in February and July of 1934.

*Italy.*—The governments of Italy, the Union of Soviet Republics, and Germany took close control of the educational activities of adults, even closer probably than they did of other forms of education. By royal decrees of May 1, 1925, and November 11, 1926, Opera Nazionale Dopolavoro was organized in Italy "to promote the sane and profitable employment of the leisure hours of workers by means of institutions designed to further the development of their physical, intellectual, and moral capacities." Control of Dopolavoro is in an extraordinary commission under the supervision of the ministry of corporations. The organization extends throughout Italy and works in a wide range of fields. Sports and excursions are encouraged for their educational value and to train athletes, mountaineers, and skiers for use in future wars. Artistic education includes folklore, the theater and traveling theaters, the radio, bands and schools of music, and the cinema. Many courses in technical instruction and in agriculture are offered. Colonies and camps on the seashore and in the mountains are arranged. Savings books and facilities for purchasing food and goods at reduced prices are provided. Even schemes of insurance and house purchase are worked out for members.

From 1,064 locals with a membership of 280,584 in 1926, the organization grew to 17,809 clubs with 1,775,570 members in 1932. Dopolavoro is continuing to grow not only in membership but in the various forms of activities it undertakes.

*Union of Soviet Republics.*—Besides the movement to reduce illiteracy (see page 14), the Soviet Union continued and increased its efforts to develop literacy in the broader sense through more newspapers, libraries, clubs, reading rooms, motion pictures and theaters, the radio, museums, and wider publication of books. The political education branch of the education system, set up shortly after the

revolution to train party workers continued to function throughout the decade on the three levels of schools of political grammar for the rank and file, Soviet party schools for agitator-propagandists, and communist universities for party leaders. Attendance at them has been compulsory for members of the party since 1924.

*Germany.*—Adult education in Germany from 1926 to 1935 required no campaigns against illiteracy, no extensive founding of new schools, no special increase in the number of newspapers published, and no greater widening of cultural agencies. The Germans are and long have been a literate people with well-developed educational and cultural institutions. A survey of German adult education in 1929[1] showed that it was carried on by religious and political groups like the Catholics, Protestants, Socialists, and Nationalists; institutions, such as labor colleges, based on economic conditions; central institutions which included people's high schools somewhat similar to those in Denmark, people's high-school homes, and adult evening schools; and a large number of public libraries. All this work was generally favored by the national and state governments and was to some extent subsidized by them.

With the establishment of the Nazi regime, adult education in nearly every form was taken over by the national government and directed toward Nazi ideals and purposes. The Deutsche Arbeitsfront was created in 1933 to take care of the recreation of all workers. It is the German counterpart of the Italian Dopolavoro.

*Spain.*—An unusual form of adult education was begun in Spain by virtue of a decree of May 29, 1931. The Ministry of Public Instruction and Fine Arts undertook a threefold program of popular instruction especially for rural areas through traveling pedagogical missions made up of trained men and women who go from community to community trying to carry even to the most remote sections of Spain some of the advantages enjoyed in the urban centers. The general culture phase of the program consists of the establishment of libraries, organization of public lectures, conferences, motion pictures, musical performances, and displays of great works of art. On the pedagogical side are visits to rural and urban schools followed by weeks or fortnights of conferences and short courses for teachers in the neighborhood; practical lessons given in the schools; excursions with teachers and children; examination of the natural and social environment, and its possible application in educating the children. The third phase is citizenship instruction given through public meetings in which the principles of democracy are explained, the structure of the government is outlined, and the citizens' rights and duties are taught.

[1] International Handbook of Adult Education. London, World Association for Adult Education, 1929.

### *CARE OF PRESCHOOL CHILDREN*

If education extended upward and outward to include millions of adults, it likewise moved downward with respect to age groupings to care for larger numbers of children under the primary school admission time. A better realization of how important the first half dozen years are in the development of a human being made it clear that a nation's responsibility for its children cannot logically be postponed arbitrarily until the sixth or seventh year of their lives. Times of war and financial difficulty forced public authorities to undertake temporary schemes of providing for preschool children and that widening naturally led over into permanent undertakings. A review of progress in the nursery school and kindergarten fields is not necessary here. *The Report of the Consultative Committee on Infant and Nursery Schools*, published by His Majesty's Stationery Office, London, in 1933, contains the results of a study made under the direction of the Board of Education of England and Wales. The findings are typical of attitudes in most European countries. *Nursery School and Parent Education in Soviet Russia*, by Vera Fediaevsky and Patty Smith Hill, tells the story for the Soviet Union. *Young Children in European Countries*, by Mary Dabney Davis, is a survey of the situation in seven nations of Europe.

### *PHYSICAL EDUCATION*

Physical education also was changed and strengthened by the war and the economic depression. Usually wars are followed by keen interest in physical training in part because the test of military service shows a high percent of physical disability and to some extent because the loss of life impels a desire to maintain the human wealth remaining at a higher level of efficiency. The impetus given to physical education by the war carried on through the decade under consideration and interest in it seems still to be mounting. Leaders of nationalist movements understand well the value of mass athletics, games, and sports in holding large groups of people together and teaching them to work for a common aim.

After the establishment of a national school system in Albania, (see page 5) physical education was much stressed. Austria has a national system of physical education with physical training compulsory in elementary and secondary schools. There is also a national recreation program promoted by the Österreichische Sport- and Turn-front. Play fields, ski courses, sport days, vacation houses, courses in alpinism and swimming, and exchanges of groups of students with other countries are continually emphasized.

The Belgian authorities began enforcing physical training in the schools about 1921. The Swedish system is used. In 1934 a higher

council of physical education and sports was created to study the subject from its medical, pedagogical, and sport aspects, and to advise on programs of instruction, teacher training, and inspection and control of physical education.

A Bulgarian law of 1932 made physical education compulsory in primary and secondary schools and in 1935 the entire question of physical training was being studied. Bulgaria has no national scheme of recreation but the "Yunaks" (heroes), an old organization much like the sokols of Czechoslovakia, continues to function and will probably be extremely active in case of any serious threat to the country's independence.

Physical culture plays an important part in the lives of the Czechoslovakians both within and without the school system.[1] The ministries of education and national culture, public health, and physical culture, national defense, foreign affairs, commerce, and public works all give considerable attention and support to it. No official school program carries less than 2 hours a week of physical training and the bodily development of the child is watched over from the time he enters kindergarten. The sokol (falcon) movement founded by Miroslav Tyrš in 1862 is strong and sets the example for several similar organizations. In Yugoslavia also, Dr. Tyrš' system of physical training is used in the schools, and no fewer than 2,525 sokol units, apart from the schools, with 417,725 members were existing in 1934.

The establishment of the Royal Hungarian College of Physical Education at Budapest in 1925 to train men and women teachers of physical culture is but one event in the regular development of physical education in which the Hungarians as a people have long been interested. An efficient national system of physical training was set up by Law LIII of December 31, 1921, to be within the control of the ministry of cults and education and the ministry for home affairs, mainly the former, for in its budget a specific item "physical education" was then placed and has been continued. A national stadium was built, and a national board of physical education was created to advise the ministry on plans of studies and the kinds of grounds, equipment, and buildings necessary. All young men not otherwise participating in some form of systematic physical education must attend gymnastics classes until the end of December of the year in which they complete the twenty-first year of their age. Much of this sort of instruction is carried on by the "Levente" (junior men-at-arms) associations which in many respects resemble the yunaks and sokols.

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[1] Turosienski, Severin K. Education in Czechoslovakia. Washington, U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin 1935, No. 11.

*Germany.*—During the era of the republic sport and physical recreation of all kinds developed broadly and rapidly in Germany. One of the best known indications of this interest was the hiking or "Wandervogel-Bewegung" and many societies were formed to further it. It gained a considerable foothold in other countries. Also there was a large growth in the number of sport clubs and similar associations as well as an increase of enrollment in those already existing. The German governments, Federal, State, and local, did much to encourage the movement. Large amounts of money were raised to build stadiums, swimming pools, athletic fields, and schools for training physical instructors. An administrative system was set up not to direct and control athletic and recreational activities but to promote them and to provide facilities for them.

The National Socialist government emphasizes physical attainments because it believes that through a physically fit nation economic security will be maintained and the country will be strengthened as a political and military power. It is centralizing control of all physical education and recreation activities in the hands of the Reich authorities who are changing the nature of physical training and the idea motivating it. Physical culture is no longer a matter of fun and enjoyment; it is a patriotic duty to improve the individual and through him, the nation.

The creation of the Reichsministerium für Wissenschaft, Erziehung und Volksbildung (see page 4) gave the central government full authority over physical education in the elementary, secondary, and continuation schools just as it did over other school work. Formerly physical instruction in the elementary schools was a sort of side issue given by teachers of other subjects who had taken and passed a special examination in physical instruction. Courses in preparation for the examination were given at the German College for Physical Culture (Deutsche Hochschule für Leibesübungen) at Berlin-Charlottenburg and the Prussian College for Physical Culture (Preussische Hochschule für Leibesübungen) at Berlin-Spandau and other institutions. The two colleges named were closed and a decree was issued requiring teachers to attend the newly created colleges for teacher training (Hochschulen für Lehrerbildung) where courses in physical instruction are to be given all students as part of the regular curriculum.

Physical training in the secondary schools has been raised in importance. The Reichsminister für Wissenschaft stated in an executive order of March 1936 that a high record in physical education subjects may make good a deficiency in one of the other subjects. The tests of students' physical prowess given just before graduation are emphasized and a failure in them may prevent graduation.

The institutes of physical culture in the German universities were first started in 1925 to be responsible for the physical development of all the students. They are regular departments headed by a professor usually with the rank of dean. By a special order of December 5, 1934, their scope was widened and the requirements for work in them made more strict. Every university student unless proved to be physically disabled must attend prescribed courses in them for 3 semesters amounting to about 100 clock-hours and pass tests of his ability as an athletic performer in the things taught in the courses. Students who expect to teach in secondary schools and wish also to qualify as secondary school physical instructors must in addition attend in an institute of physical culture a special course so extensive that it will require an additional year at the university and, having attended it, they must go to a special camp (Prüfungslager) where they are put through rigorous tests in the athletic work in which they were trained. Two such camps, one for women at Marburg, the other for men at Neustrelitz in Mecklenburg, have been established.

In Germany there are about 40,000 sport clubs that before the National Socialist Party came into power were loosely organized in several associations all of which were connected with the Reich Council for Physical Culture (Reichsausschuss für Leibesübungen) though each conducted its affairs free of any outside direction. To organize these associations and incorporate them in the Nazi movement, the Government early in 1933 created the office of Reich Sport Commissioner (Reichssportführer). The semipolitical clubs in which doctrines opposed to those of the party were taught, were dissolved and in 1935 an order was issued which in effect did away with the most important Catholic sport association. A new central organization, the Reich League for Physical Culture (Reichsbund für Leibesübungen) was established, the leadership principle was applied, and the various organizations even down to the individual clubs became subject to the direction of the central office. The Reich Sport Commissioner can control the activities of all sport clubs.

*France.*—The deputy charged with presenting to the Chamber of Deputies in France the budget for physical education in 1937 outlines in his report[9] the history of physical training and expresses the reasons why the French people should support it liberally somewhat as follows:

> **Physical exercises tend to develop all the qualities of man. Here are the reasons why the entire nation is interested in their wide extension:**

[9] Barthélmy, M. Georges. Rapport fait au nom de la Commission des Finances chargée d'examiner le Project de Loi portant fixation du Budget Général de l'Exercise 1937. (Education physique—sports et Loisirs.) Paris, Imprimerie de la Chambre des Députés. 1936.

Strong individuals make up strong families.

Sport for all, by safeguarding the health of the young, makes for better economies in relief.

Whether rightly or wrongly, a nation's prestige lies to some extent in the successes of its champions.

Finally and especially, our military situation requires it. Our population is decreasing; that of Germany is increasing. At present—and what will it be in the future?—we are forty millions of French against sixty millions of Germans. That is something to think about. But one must take into account another factor. The German youth, better trained, is stronger than the French youth. It has been said, written, and repeated. We proclaim it again and utter a cry of alarm.

Previous to 1930 the central administration of physical education was in two branches of the Government: The Ministry of War which had its appropriation to care for the physical training of men before and after regimentation, and physical training in the army; and the Ministry of National Education which used its appropriation to look after physical education in the schools. These were united in 1930 in an Under-secretariat of Physical Education with a budget of its own. The Under-secretariat has two divisions: Military and civil. In 1931 a technical service (service technique) was added to study and report to the ministry on projects for creating stadiums, swimming pools, and fields for sports and gymnastics. Two advisory bodies function, the higher council of physical education (Conseil supérieur de l'Education physique) with 150 members and a higher committee of physical education (Comité supérieur de l'Education physique).

The central office of the Under-secretariat has a staff of 31; the regional and local offices are manned by a total of 841 military and civil employees, not including the Higher School of Physical Education at Joinville (Ecole supérieure d'Education physique de Joinville).

The school (meaning education in general) is not at all interested in physical education. That is a verity that it is banal to state, but it is a verity that should be proclaimed without ceasing.

In 1850 gymnastics was introduced as an elective in the programs. In 1854 it became obligatory in the lycées. Now, by arrêté of January 19, 1925, it is obligatory in all the schools and is given two hours a week to girls as well as to boys. Also some open-air games are provided for Thursday.

So comments M. Barthélemy,[10] and he points out that lack of appropriations, abuses in school sports, unsuitable and even harmful surroundings in which physical education classes are conducted, lack of well-trained teachers and of institutions in which to train them, all militate against good physical education in France. The Higher School at Joinville, founded in 1852, and for many years engaged

[10] See note on page 22.

in training military men, has gradually extended to include all physical education. Until 1933 it was in reality the only national French school of physical education, though at the universities there were 12 institutes and 3 centers which prepared candidates for the certificate to teach physical education in secondary schools. The Normal School of Physical Education (Ecole normale d'Éducation physique) was founded in October 1933 with a 2-year curriculum to train teachers for secondary schools and in part as an answer to foreign adverse criticism that physical education in France is only disguised military preparation. The Normal School takes over most of the work of the Institute of Physical Education of the University of Paris.

Sports and their relation to the proper use of leisure are also being given consideration in France, but with less emphasis than in many other countries. An under-secretariat of sports and leisure (Sous-Secretariat des Sports et Loisirs) was created on August 13, 1936. It has but a small staff and little money.

M. Barthélemy proposes to change the situation by achieving a better administrative organization, securing more national funds to aid physical education, and arousing the French people to an understanding of the important part physical training has in any education scheme.

### *TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION*

Technical education, as clearly noted (see pages 6 and 7), has been coming more and more within the control of the national ministries of education—except in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics—and is being more closely coordinated with general education. The increasing interest in vocational and technical training stimulated vocational guidance or "professional orientation" as it is more commonly termed in Europe. Both fall within the concepts of the unity school system. (See page 7). Technical training has been forced into the foreground and is being considered more in relation to its place in the entire education program because of the spirit of nationalism with its corollary of economic self-sufficiency. Acting in that spirit, governments had to survey the natural resources of their countries and determine as nearly as possible the quotas of persons to be trained for and used in the many different activities necessary to national welfare. In the years of the depression, a "plethora of intellectuals" was a common plaint in a number of countries. Economic forces and governmental action worked as correctives of that situation by limiting the number of those who could undertake training for the learned professions, and by providing better facilities and stronger programs for preparation for technical pursuits.

*France.*—The basis of technical education in France is vocational guidance (orientation professionnelle). Its purposes and organization are expressed officially as follows:[11]

> A child comes from the primary school at 12 or 13 years of age. It is indispensable then, if not earlier, to give him and to give his family some information as precise as possible on the different careers that are open to him, on the chances that he may have to succeed in one of them, and especially on the counter-indications that it may present by reason of his physical, intellectual, and moral aptitudes, and by reason of the condition of the labor market.
>
> The advice is given free by special organizations called offices of professional orientation, created in a certain number of cities by application of decree of September 26, 1922.
>
> The offices are organized with the collaboration of:
>
> 1. Primary teachers who furnish the data on the intellectual and moral aptitudes of the children.
>
> 2. Physicians who verify the physical aptitudes.
>
> 3. The placement office which furnishes data on the condition of the regional labor market in such a way as to avoid if possible popular, overcrowded crafts, and direct the adolescents toward vocational certainties of a permanent interest, and offering good chances for the future also.
>
> We add also that a special institute of study and research relative to professional orientation was created in Paris in 1928.

Eighty-nine such offices were reported as being in operation in 1934. They interviewed more than 38,460 primary school leavers and placed more than 13,230 in some form of employment.

The strong impetus to French technical education, as well as its organization, came from the Astier law of July 25, 1919. It is arranged on three levels or stages: First, to train qualified workers; second, for staffs of lower officials such as overseers of shops; and, third, for staffs of higher officials. Public technical education is administered mainly by the Under-Secretariat of Technical Education in the Ministry of National Education. Other ministries have charge of some of the very special types.

Some of the classes of schools and courses and their growth during the period under review are as follows:

TABLE 1.—TECHNICAL SCHOOLS AND COURSES IN FRANCE

| Kind of school or course | Number of schools or courses | | Enrollment |
|---|---|---|---|
| | 1924 | 1935 | 1935 |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| National schools of arts and crafts | 6 | 6 | 1,266 |
| National schools of clock-making | 2 | 2 | 382 |
| National schools of textile arts and industries | 1 | 1 | 427 |
| National school of ceramics | 1 | 1 | 29 |
| National professional schools | 6 | 20 | 7,997 |
| Practical schools | 117 | 202 | 80,857 |
| Subventioned technical courses | 250 | [1] 875 | [1] 162,286 |

[1] 1934.

[11] Atlas de l'Enseignement en France, 1933.

The subventioned technical courses are given at centers arranged in the different Departments of France and are mainly vocational courses to fit young people for work in the industries peculiar to the locality. Courses in applied arts, rural artisanry, and home economics are included.

Growth has been rapid. In 1925 the Parliament voted in the budget a quinquennial extension of funds for technical education and at the same time created a special tax, the apprenticeship tax, which would compel industrialists and merchants—the persons who would use the trainees of technical schools—to pay part of the costs of the training. From 50 million francs in 1924, the budget of the Under-Secretariat of Technical Education rose to 79 millions in 1925; 94 in 1926; and by subsequent increases to 215 in 1933. The enrollment of approximately 250,000 in the schools in 1934 was more than three times that of the number of young people taking technical training in France before the war.

Estimates are that in France 800,000 young men and women under 18 years of age should normally be taking technical education. The government cannot provide for so many in public schools, so it has worked out what seems to be unusually successful methods of cooperating with private initiative. The apprenticeship tax previously mentioned may be in part or in whole withdrawn for those industrialists and merchants who help to maintain private technical schools. The Under-Secretariat may enter into agreement with any association or chamber of commerce to help create and maintain a school. In such a case, the presidency of the advisory council of the school may be held only by a craftsman and the association or chamber has the right to name half the members of the council. Figures are not available for the amount of technical education offered thus by private effort, but it is very large.

*Belgium.*—Technical education in Belgium was changed and completely reorganized in 1933 into a coherent and homogeneous system. Thirty-three ministerial and royal arrêtés were issued regarding it. Schools were classified and the requirements they must meet in order to be accredited and aided from national funds were fixed. Regulations were arranged for their administration, inspection, and the appointment of personnel. An important royal arrêté created the degree and the diploma of engineer technician and fixed the conditions for obtaining them, as well as the status of the schools that could grant them.

*Estonia.*—A special section for vocational education was created in the Ministry of Public Instruction of Estonia on May 1, 1934.

Working through it, measures were taken to improve vocational instruction and to provide more opportunities for it. Six new commercial schools and four shops were opened and new subjects were offered in schools already established.

*Bulgaria.*—Bulgaria reported an overproduction of intellectuals and the new government of 1934 closed the 41 incomplete gymnasia and 28 gymnasia in small cities and replaced them with 54 secondary real schools which offer a 3-year curriculum to which graduates of the 7-year primary school are admitted. The programs in these schools will be varied according to the locality. They are intended to be more practical than the gymnasia and will give access to the higher vocational schools of Bulgaria.

*Irish Free State.*—The story of the development of technical education in the Irish Free State as given in the successive reports of the Department of Education for the years 1925–26 to 1934–35, inclusive, is of such interest and indicates such careful planning and sound progress that it will be reviewed here in some detail.

Technical education passed into the control of the Department of Education in June 1924. Previously it had functioned under the provisions of the Agriculture and Technical Instruction Act of 1899 and was without the administration of general education. On assuming charge of it, the department's first care was to make a survey of this branch of instruction. That preliminary investigation led to the appointment of a commission "to inquire into and advise upon the system of technical education in Saorstat Eireann in relation to the requirements of trade and industry." That commission, consisting of representatives of employers, workers, teachers, and of the Departments of Education, Industry and Commerce, Agriculture, and Finance, an expert in technical education from Switzerland and another from Sweden, began its work in October 1926. It presented to the Dail its finished report early in 1928. Recommendations were made on the kind of continued education to be given young people who had left the primary school and had not obtained employment, on the technical education required by apprentices, on higher technical training for those seeking the more important posts in trade and industry, and on the control and finance of schemes of technical instruction. The report also contained accounts of the education systems of Sweden and Switzerland and information about the South Africa Apprenticeship Act of 1922. From the report came the Vocational Education Act of 1930 to replace the old Act of 1899.

Prior to 1930, instruction was offered mainly in (*a*) technical schools and (*b*) county schemes of technical instruction. That the

demand for technical education was constantly growing is evidenced by the following tables:

TABLE 2.—ATTENDANCE AT TECHNICAL SCHOOLS FROM 1924–25 TO 1929–30

| Kind of course | 1924–25 | 1927–28 | 1928–29 | 1929–30 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Introductory | 1,757 | 1,623 | 2,497 | 2,088 |
| Commerce and languages | 8,811 | 9,468 | 11,007 | 11,[illegible] |
| Science (pure and applied) | 3,757 | 5,158 | 6,176 | 6,[illegible] |
| Handicraft | 1,009 | 1,661 | 1,747 | 2,[illegible] |
| Domestic science | 5,354 | 6,980 | 8,050 | 8,[illegible] |
| Art | 916 | 997 | 1,150 | 1,[illegible] |
| Other subjects | 204 | 129 | 153 | [illegible] |
| **Total** | **21,808** | **26,036** | **30,783** | **32,934** |

TABLE 3.—ATTENDANCE AT COUNTY SCHEMES OF TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION FROM 1924–25 TO 1929–30

| Kind of course | 1924–25 | 1927–28 | 1928–29 | 1929–30 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Manual instruction | 2,460 | 4,810 | 5,465 | 4,[illegible] |
| Home spinning, lace making, etc | 968 | 933 | 1,227 | [illegible] |
| Domestic economy | 4,631 | 7,171 | 8,076 | 46,[illegible] |
| Engineering | | | 858 | [illegible] |
| Commerce | 884 | 1,063 | 1,394 | [illegible] |
| Other subjects | 1,352 | 744 | 692 | 1,[illegible] |
| **Total** | **10,295** | **14,721** | **17,712** | **15,[illegible]** |

"The decrease in 1929–30," says the department, "is not to be taken as indicative of a lessening interest in the classes conducted in rural areas, for which the enrollment per center is as high as in the preceding session. The County Committees have in many cases been compelled to restrict the number of rural centers of instruction as a result of the rapid development of their permanent technical school centers and the consequent demands on the services of a limited teaching staff."

In 5 years the attendance at technical schools and county schemes had increased by 50 percent. 1930–31 was a year of transition. Under the Act of 1930, the former technical instruction committees gave way to the vocational education committees each with fewer members, but with greater powers and duties. The new committees were busy arranging procedures to fit the new law, exploring its possibilities, planning development especially of buildings, and arranging their budgets for submission to the Department by December instead of the following May or June as had been the practice. A complex system of grants from national funds had grown up in the 30 years in which the old law was effective. A simpler system of a single block grant for each committee was established, the amount of the

grant to depend on the total due under the old system plus a development grant that would be computed partly on the population of the area and partly on the amount it would contribute above a required minimum. Many of the committees started to provide better accommodation and laid their building plans before the Department.

The first full year under the Vocation Education Act was in 1931–32. The main change was in continuation education for children who had left the primary school and were seeking employment. Whole-time day courses were introduced by every committee and between 7,000 and 8,000 students attended. In rural areas the demand for courses of this type was so great that it was difficult to accommodate all who came. Part-time continuation schools did not prove popular. In 1932–33, the attendance at continuation schools was 11,536 of whom 9,173 were in whole-time courses.

Of the general situation of technical education in 1934–35, the Department reports:

> Continuation and technical education continued to develop steadily during the session 1934–35. In several centers new schools were opened and extensions to existing schools were completed. Teaching staffs were increased to meet the growing demand for instruction. Additional equipment was acquired. Despite the rapid erection of new schools, vocational education committees were confronted with requests for more schools in areas yet untouched. There has now developed a realization of the value which a sound system of technical and continuation education confers alike upon those seeking employment and those already in occupations. It is noted that the demand from rural areas is increasing.

The total attendance in 1934–35 at the different forms of vocational and technical education was 62,670.

## Section II. Asia

In the previous section dealing with education in Europe, certain of the larger trends and movements were selected and discussed, and education within a country was mentioned as it afforded an example of one or more of the phases under consideration. That manner of presentation is not easily applicable to Asia as a continent. The greater part of the population of Asia is in China and India, only two countries, and in many respects, as far as education is concerned, they seem to be going in opposite directions. It appears advisable in this and most of the subsequent sections to discuss countries as entities and point out what each has been doing in the past 10 years. The reader will note many changes analagous to those most prominent in Europe, and many others peculiar to a country because of its special physical or historical characteristics. China, India, Iran, and Turkey are selected as including most of the important education events in Asia.

### *CHINA*

The 18 provinces of China proper have an area of 1,532,815 square miles and a population estimated at 370.7 millions. The area is about three-fourths that of Europe, west of Russia, and the population is approximately equal to that of western Europe. Here, then, is a single education project which equals in magnitude the total of the 30 European systems.

The first marked change toward a modern school system in China came in 1902. The advent of the Republic in 1912 brought fundamental alterations in the system. It was again revised in 1922. The National People's Party (Kuomintang) took over the government in 1927 and in 1928 promulgated the "Law Governing the Organization of the National Government of the Republic of China." In 1927 the highest education authority of the national government was vested in the National University Council. A year later the name of the council was changed to Ministry of Education, and it became a part of the Executive Yuan, one of the five major divisions of the government.

*Administration.*—Concerning the changes in education policy that were brought about in 1929 and later by the national government, the minister of Education wrote in 1935:[1]

> The development of modern education in China since 1912 has been continuous but not even in all directions. . . . In fact, it was a period of intense activity but divergent development: the university, secondary school, and primary school each growing more or less in its own way.
>
> This period of continuous but divergent development could be appropriately characterized by what, for want of a better term, may be called spontaneous growth. The guiding spirit in education was *laissez-faire*, not only evident in education, but also in much that was happening in the social and intellectual life of the country. The spirit of *laissez-faire* was most obvious in the absence of a coordinated educational policy of the Government with respect to the relative development between the university, secondary school, and primary school.
>
> To all intents and purposes, the Government's educational policy since 1929 has been inspired by a different outlook and a different spirit, and many changes have been introduced in the education system of the country. These changes have one thing in common; they are guided by an attitude which refused to believe in the efficacy and sufficiency of the *laissez-faire* principle. If there is one crucial test to distinguish the two periods divided roughly around 1929, it is the renunciation of *laissez-faire* and the introduction of coordination as a policy in education. This coordination not only finds application in adjusting the component parts of the educational system for more harmonious development, but may also serve as a basis to judge the measures adopted in recent years to meet the problems of each of the parts.

This is the expression of a policy of centralizing the control of education in the national government. That policy does not include forcing the political beliefs of the party on the Chinese people. It is rather a plan for forming an adequate and well-balanced education system. The first steps were taken early in 1928 and were mainly in the direction of ridding the schools of communistic and political activities. The Fourth Plenary Conference of the Central Executive Committee of the Kuomintang held February 2 to 7, 1938, declared that:

> China's greatest cause for suffering is that immature students participate in affairs of political and social struggle. . . . How can these great national and social tasks be left to these immature people with freedom of action? This is not only a tremendous sacrifice of the precious future life of the nation, but is also making the life of the entire nation or society an article for child's play. . . .

[1] Shih-Cheh, Wang. Education in China. Shanghai, China United Press, 1935. 45 p.

The way of salvation is to safeguard educational independence, enrich educational contents, guard against the corruption and depravation of our young, universalize popular education, and enhance the people's knowledge.

*Higher education.*—Higher education is given in three classes of institutions: Universities, independent colleges, and technical schools. The two former are governed by the law on university organization of July 26, 1929; an amendment of 1934; and the regulations of university administration of August 14, 1929. The technical schools operate under law of July 26, 1929, and the revised regulations of March 26, 1931. These laws and regulations aim to insure in each university a balance of offerings so that both classical knowledge and science and its applications may be had; to afford sound financial bases by fixing definite legal minima for initial expenses when an institution is established, and for its current yearly expenses; to regulate the internal administration of the institution; and to provide common standards of matriculation and graduation. The curricula are mainly in the hands of the institutions, but they also may come under the purview of the Ministry of Education.

*Secondary education.*—Secondary education was brought under three separate laws passed in 1932 and three sets of regulations issued by the Ministry of Education in 1933. Secondary schools are of three classes: Middle, normal, and vocational. Formerly the three types could function in one school; now they must be kept separate. The middle school is to prepare students for universities. It is a 6-year institution divided into the junior middle school of 3 years and the senior of 3. In the period from 1922 to 1929, middle schools freely offered elective courses and there was no standard of reasonable distribution of the different subjects in the curriculum. The law of 1932 and the later regulations prescribed the subjects to be taught, fixed the number of hours a week for each, set a total of 34 to 35 week-hours, abolished electives, and discontinued the credit system. The standard for teaching each subject was issued by the Ministry of Education and completed in 1934. The regulations of the schools with respect to internal management, fees, admission, instruction, graduation, qualifications of teachers, and similar matters are comprehensive and precise.

The secondary normal schools admit graduates of junior middle schools and with a 3-year course train them to be teachers of primary schools. They also are strictly patterned by the law of 1932 and the regulations of the Ministry.

The vocational schools are either junior or senior and may be established separately or together. Both are 3-year institutions. They also are closely regulated and by late 1933 the Ministry had issued detailed curricula for the different trade groups of studies.

In the middle and normal schools the law provides that at least 20 percent of the annual budget shall be used for capital outlay purposes, not more than 70 percent for salaries, and not more than 10 percent for administration.

*Elementary education.*—Elementary education also came under the direction of the Ministry by a 1932 law on primary schools and for the junior schools and 2 for the senior. The schools are mainly the regulations of 1933. It is a 6-year process divided into 4 years supported by district, city, or village authorities. The curriculum is fixed by law and it is in the development of the curriculum that much progress has been made. The most important change was from the use of classical Chinese as the medium of instruction to the vernacular. The educational and social value of this move is so great that its implications cannot be grasped. Probably the Chinese could never have attained anything approaching elementary education for all their children without taking this step.

The law of July 1934 fixes the qualifications, the examinations, and the certificates for teachers of primary schools.

*Statistics.*—Statistics of education in China vary considerably. A summary of one apparently authentic report is as follows:[2]

TABLE 4.—EDUCATION IN CHINA

| Kind of school | Number of schools | Number of students | Teaching staff |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Public: | | | |
| Kindergartens | 769 | 32,888 | 1,468 |
| Primary | 212,728 | 9,892,310 | 437,101 |
| Higher primary | 821 | 200,978 | 13,762 |
| Secondary | 204 | 25,514 | 8,567 |
| Complementary | 40,364 | 1,284,776 | 72,910 |
| Vocational | 209 | 26,498 | 4,677 |
| Normal | 861 | 93,697 | 10,702 |
| Universities | 37 | 18,925 | 6,209 |
| Other higher institutions | 20 | 1,922 | 828 |
| Private: | | | |
| Kindergartens | 327 | 14,589 | 749 |
| Primary | 44,997 | 2,381,390 | 116,284 |
| Higher primary | 565 | 148,645 | 9,620 |
| Secondary | 330 | 40,811 | 11,547 |
| Complementary | 5,597 | 212,240 | 15,569 |
| Vocational | 103 | 16,034 | 2,080 |
| Normal | 32 | 7,143 | 693 |
| Universities | 42 | 20,441 | 3,905 |
| Other higher institutions | 9 | 1,648 | 372 |

Most of these schools are coeducational; a few are for girls only. Of the total number of students, at least 14 percent are girls and women.

[2] Bureau International d'Éducation. Annuaire international de l'éducation et de l'enseignement, 1936. Genève, Bureau International d'Éducation, 1936.

*Compulsory education.*—The primary school enrollment of around 12½ millions is small in a nation that must have at least 70 millions of children between the ages of 6 and 14. The Chinese Government early adopted the principle of universal compulsory education but the magnitude of the undertaking, the buildings and equipment to be provided, the books to be supplied, the army of teachers to be trained, and the funds to be raised, have prevented carrying out the principle in any short time. Various plans have been offered and undertaken to meet the situation. The scheme of 1920 provided that complete enforcement of compulsory education should be attained in 8 years by applying it in 1921 to provincial capitals and open ports; 1922, country seats and cities; 1923, towns with more than 500 families; 1924, towns with more than 300 families; 1925 and 1926, towns with more than 200 families; 1927, villages with more than 100 families; and 1928, villages with fewer than 100 families. Because of political troubles that program was never seriously put into effect.

The National Educational Conference in 1930 outlined a plan that would, it hoped, enforce compulsory education throughout China in 20 years. The Ministry of Education in 1932 formulated a scheme to increase the number of children in primary schools by 10 percent in the time from August 1932 to July 1935 and follow that by a similar drive. It tried to arrange also for 1 year of instruction for children between 10 and 16 who had missed the primary school.

The latest proposal made in 1935 is that the duration of obligatory instruction will be 1 year for the 5 years beginning 1935; 2 years beginning 1940; and 4 years from 1945. For 1935-36, the National Government offered aid to the amount of $2,400,000 to carry it out and the Boxer indemnity funds contributed $300,000.

*Reduction of illiteracy and adult education.*—The League of Nations' Mission of Educational Experts reported:[1]

> Adult education is one of the most satisfactory features of education in China. There are two special aspects of adult education in China which differentiate it at first sight from the work of corresponding organizations in Europe and America. In the first place, it bulks much larger in the educational system as a whole, and its budget is proportionally far bigger than in other countries. In the second place, it stands in China for something very different, both in its character and its essential aims, from adult education in Europe and America. . . . In a country where the percentage of illiterates is somewhere about eighty, the teaching of reading and writing is bound to be the main object of adult education, not merely in order to put an end to illiteracy, but also to induce adults to have their children better educated, and to win them over to the cause of the extension of education. Adult education is also here, as a rule, the

[1] The League of Nations' Mission of Educational Experts. The Reorganization of Education in China. Paris, Institute of Intellectual Cooperation, 1932. 200 pp.

principal form of social education. . . . Educational activities for adults fall under three main heads, viz:

1. The education of adults who have had no opportunity of acquiring the rudiments; this includes the campaign against illiteracy, popular schools, social centers for the education of the masses, etc.
2. Subsidiary organizations for adult education and advanced study (libraries, museums, etc.).
3. Social education in general, viz, æsthetic education, improvement of social manners and popular pastimes, popular physical education, general culture, etc.

All these activities are directed by a department of the Ministry of Education.

*The mass education movement.*—Most famous of all the adult education efforts in China and indeed among the most famous in any country, is the mass education movement launched in 1920 by Y. C. James Yen. In its earlier years it involved selecting about 1,000 of the most commonly used characters from the "pai hua," the language commonly spoken by the mass of the Chinese, preparing texts from them, and working out a system of teaching by which literacy in them could be attained by an average illiterate working only 1 hour a day for 4 months.

The plan has proved practical and workable. Good progress was made in the large cities and in 1929 the point of emphasis was shifted from extensive promotion of literacy to intensive study of rural life and needs, and the Ting Hsien experiment was established to work on three types of education—school, home, and social—and a fourfold plan of reconstruction in culture, economics, health, and sociopolitics. An account of the experiment is available in English.[8]

*Status of private education.*—Table 4 on page 33 shows that private education has a large part in the total of the education efforts in China. Moreover, much of the private education has been offered by foreigners, mainly missionary organizations from occidental countries. The Chinese people have by no means been unaffected by the spirit of nationalism manifest in the world in the past two decades, and several attempts have been made to work out a status for private institutions in China that would be satisfactory to both the Chinese government and the institutions. Regulations of November 1925, October 1926, August 1929, and October 1933, all look toward making foreign educational enterprises in China subject to the same requirements as Chinese schools proper. All private schools are required to register with the public authorities and their organization, curricula, and all other matters shall be carried out in accord with current education laws and orders. No foreigners may establish primary schools

[8] Chinese National Association of the Mass Education Movement. The Ting Hsien Experiment in 1934. Peiping, 1934. 46 pp.

for the education of Chinese children and no religious ceremonies may be held in primary schools. The head of an institution of middle school grade or higher must be a Chinese citizen and in such institutions not more than one-third of the members of the board of directors may be foreigners. Religious subjects may not be compulsory in secondary schools or universities, and religious propaganda as a part of the lessons is not permitted. In effect, the national government intends to have direct control of the private educational projects to the ends that they give good instruction and do not interfere with the development of Chinese national life.

## *INDIA*[4]

Education in India has been keenly responsive to political and economic conditions. A word picture of the years following the Government of India Act of 1919 is:[4]

> Indeed, in some respects, the years between 1922 and 1930 form a period which may well be regarded as perhaps the most inspiring in the annals of Indian education.
>
> A burst of enthusiasm swept children into school with unparalleled rapidity; an almost childlike faith in the value of education was implanted in the minds of the people; parents were prepared to make almost any sacrifice for the education of their children; the seed of tolerance towards the less fortunate in life was begotten; ambitious and comprehensive programmes of development were formulated, which were calculated to fulfill the dreams of a literate India; the Muslim community, long backward in education, pressed forward with eagerness to obliterate past deficiencies; enlightened women began to storm the citadel of old-time prejudice against the education of Indian girls; government, with the full concurrence of legislative councils, poured out large sums of money on education, which would have been regarded as beyond the realm of practical politics ten years previously.

In a broad way, the following table indicates the growth.

TABLE 5.—GROWTH OF EDUCATION IN INDIA IN NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS, AND PUPILS, AND AMOUNT OF EXPENDITURES, 1921–22 TO 1933–34

| Year | Institutions | Pupils | Expenditures (rupees) |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1921–22 | 208, 118 | 8, 381, 350 | 183, 752, 969 |
| 1926–27 | 246, 284 | 11, 157, 496 | 245, 847, 572 |
| 1927–28 | 251, 724 | 11, 775, 222 | 258, 278, 819 |
| 1928–29 | 258, 018 | 12, 166, 104 | 270, 732, 253 |
| 1929–30 | 260, 946 | 12, 415, 126 | 274, 282, 018 |
| 1930–31 | 262, 068 | 12, 689, 086 | 283, 161, 446 |
| 1931–32 | 257, 792 | 12, 766, 537 | 271, 856, 622 |
| 1932–33 | 255, 348 | 12, 853, 532 | 257, 875, 868 |
| 1933–34 | 256, 725 | 13, 172, 890 | 261, 765, 186 |

[4] Anderson, Sir George. Progress of Education in India 1927–32. Tenth Quinquennial Review. Two volumes. Delhi, Manager of Publications, 1934.

Translated into terms of annual increases and decreases, these data show:

TABLE 6.—ANNUAL INCREASES AND DECREASES IN INSTITUTIONS, PUPILS, AND EXPENDITURES IN INDIA, 1921–22 TO 1933–34

| Year | Institutions | Pupils | Expenditures (rupees) |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1921-22 to 1926-27 | 7,029 | 535,229 | [1] 12,418,930 |
| 1926-27 to 1927-28 | 8,490 | 617,526 | 12,431,247 |
| 1927-28 to 1928-29 | 3,294 | 393,882 | 12,455,484 |
| 1928-29 to 1929-30 | 2,928 | 344,022 | 3,549,705 |
| 1929-30 to 1930-31 | 1,122 | 173,960 | 8,879,428 |
| 1930-31 to 1931-32 | [2] 4,276 | 77,471 | [2] 11,304,823 |
| 1931-32 to 1932-33 | [2] 2,444 | [2] 86,995 | [2] 13,980,754 |
| 1932-33 to 1933-34 | 1,377 | 319,358 | 3,880,518 |

[1] Annual average for 5 years. [2] Decrease

In the first year of this decennium the gains in institutions, pupils, and expenditures were greater than the annual average for the preceding quinquennium. Gains then decreased until the crisis years of 1931–32 and 1932–33 when institutions and expenditures lost all that had been won in the previous 3 years. It is significant that the number of pupils continued to increase even though slightly. In the following year, which showed betterment in the economic situation, moderate increases in institutions and expenditures were resumed, and a large addition was made to the number of pupils.

*Decentralization of administration.*—Though the Government of India had little control of education prior to 1921 when the political reforms went into effect, those reforms included a process of transfer of responsibility to provincial government and later to local bodies to such an extent that few other countries have so completely decentralized the administration of education. Chapter II of the Quinquennial Review to which reference was made previously (see page 36) is a survey of the way that policy has worked out in India, a classic in the many discussions of the relative merits and defects in such a plan. Among the advantages cited are: Development of initiative and the desire to experiment; closer contact with public opinion; removal of delays caused by the necessity of referring all important questions to a distant authority; freedom of each province to develop an education policy suited to its needs; training people in the management of their own local affairs; and active and intelligent interest in education shown by the provincial legislatures.

Among the defects that have come to light in this Indian experience are: A natural tendency of the province to isolate itself from its neighbors, to pass from the provincial to the parochial and to respond too readily to local impulses; loss of the advantages derived

from submission of education plans to an authority commanding a wider outlook; loss of aid from central revenues to meet the cost of developing compulsory primary education; wastefulness in some provinces of the money spent on primary education; serious overlapping between the provinces especially in the region of higher education; weak provincial administration and inspection service; and too frequent changes in provincial education ministers so that continuity of policy has been made very difficult.

*Compulsory education.*—The 13,172,890 students in schools in India in 1934 amounted to 4.85 percent of the population, and literacy among persons 5 years of age and over in 1931 was 9.5 percent. In that situation, compulsory education has made some progress. By 1930 the compulsion principle for boys had been introduced in Madras, Bombay, Bengal, United Provinces, Punjab, Bihar and Orissa, Central Provinces, Assam and Delhi—these are most of India—but was and is not applied to the entire areas. In 1932 a total of 153 urban areas and 3,392 rural sections were under compulsion. It has made more progress in the Punjab than in any other area. For economic and other reasons, authorities in India feel that it is not advisable to enter upon a drastic program of enforcing compulsory education:[5]

> Spasmodic "drives" to bring in all and sundry of varying ages and competence cannot be productive of any lasting benefit and militate against orderly organization of good class teaching. The better plan would be to make a careful survey of the census statistics and to estimate for each area the number of pupils attaining the age of 6 years in each year who should be admitted to school by the agency of compulsion. By that means class organization would be simplified and, with regularity of attendance resulting from compulsion, pupils should complete the primary course in the normal period of time. "Straining after the last truant" is both vexatious and extravagant. It is far more important to exact penalties from parents of children who are irregular in attendance and who leave school before completing the course than in respect to boys who have no desire to attend school.
>
> * * * * * * *
>
> There is, therefore, no cause for undue pessimism, provided that earnest efforts are being made to prepare the way for compulsion. As efficiency of teaching is improved, so will the prospects of compulsion become brighter. The essential preliminary is the establishment of a series of five-class schools, staffed by well-trained products of vernacular middle schools. A well-devised distribution of schools is also essential; compulsion cannot be based on ephemeral schools without continuity or tradition. A village school under compulsion should become a village institution.

*Education of girls and women.*—Of the 12,766,537 students on the rolls in 1932 of all classes of institutions, 2,492,649 or 19½ percent

[5] Anderson, *Sir* George. Progress of Education in Indian 1927–32. Tenth Quinquennial Review. Two volumes. Delhi, Manager of Publications, 1934.

were women and girls. That ratio of one to four expresses broadly the attitude in India toward education of women. Moreover, an overwhelming part of this enrollment is in the first three classes of the primary schools, and the loss each year is startling. The number of girls by classes from 1927 to 1932 was:

| Class | Year | Enrollment | Remarks |
|---|---|---|---|
| I | 1927–28 | 1,215,822 | |
| II | 1928–29 | 311,281 | (nearly three-fourths had dropped out). |
| III | 1929–30 | 197,321 | (more than five-sixths had gone). |
| IV | 1930–31 | 120,464 | (about 1 in 10 remained). |
| V | 1931–32 | 69,945 | |

About 1 in 17 of those who entered class I had reached and were studying in class V. Of course, classes IV and V are necessary if there is to be any assurance that the girls will acquire a minor kind of literacy and retain it. Note the number of girls in classes IV and V by provinces in 1932, and the relationship of that number to the female population.

TABLE 7.—NUMBER OF GIRLS IN CLASSES IV AND V, AND FEMALE POPULATION

| Province | Female population (millions) | Girls in classes IV and V |
|---|---|---|
| Madras | 23.6 | 69,770 |
| Bombay | 10.3 | 44,782 |
| Bengal | 24.0 | 15,779 |
| United Provinces | 22.9 | 12,092 |
| Punjab | 10.7 | 20,840 |
| Burma | 7.1 | 14,605 |
| Bihar and Orissa | 18.8 | 4,175 |
| Central Provinces | 7.7 | 6,583 |
| Assam | 4.0 | 8,919 |
| Northwest Frontier | 1.1 | 1,564 |
| British India, including minor subdivisions | 131.7 | 203,728 |

This picture of fewer than 204 thousand girls in the third and fourth grades out of a total female population of more than 131 millions is far from being bright. Yet it represents a gain of nearly 50 percent in 5 years. Further increases of 20,097 were made in 1932–33, and 23,645 in 1933–34.

The underlying causes of the situation have been the social and religious attitudes toward the education of women. They expressed themselves in allowing comparatively scant appropriations for girls' schools, compelling girls to attend schools for boys and be taught by men teachers, making little provision for the training of women teachers, and opposition to that kind of coeducation in which both men and women are on the teaching staff.

The situation has improved much in the past decade. Many of the social and religious obstacles to women's education are crumbling; the percent of girl students who reach classes IV and V is increasing;

and the training schools for women teachers are constantly enrolling more students. High schools and middle schools for girls are growing in number and most of the Provincial authorities are optimistic over the development of collegiate education for women.

*Other phases of education.*—Adult education has for the most part failed in India, and vocational education has made relatively little progress.

## IRAN *

The founding of the Pahlivi dynasty, December 16, 1925, opened the way for the rapid advances in education. Since that date steps have been taken in quick succession to round out a complete effective school system for the 12 millions of people. For the most part educational movements in the past decade in Iran have followed the pattern of those connected with revolution in Europe. Iran has been passing through a revolution in the way of the adoption of many occidental ideals, customs, and modes of living and with that change has come the western concept of universal education. The Iranian situation is characterized by strong nationalization of education in the sense that the central government administers and mainly supports all public education, controls and aids private schools, has all types of education within its purview, and is building up a well-unified system of day schools.

Statistically the progress is indicated in the following table:

TABLE 8.—GROWTH OF EDUCATION IN IRAN, 1924–25 TO 1934–35

| Item | 1924–25 | 1934–35 |
|---|---|---|
| Schools of all kinds and levels | 3,285 | 5,339 |
| Number of students | 108,959 | 255,673 |
| Teaching staff | 6,086 | 11,901 |
| Pupils taking the examinations at primary schools | 1,876 | 8,874 |
| Pupils taking the examinations of the second cycle of secondary education | 77 | 748 |
| Students taking examinations on university levels | 61 | 183 |
| Education budget, in rials ($0.0824 at par) | 7,731,380 | 58,004,070 |

Multiplying the education budget by something more than seven and doubling the enrollment in the schools during years that were mainly within an economic crisis bespeaks an unusual earnestness and effort.

*Schools of different kinds and levels.*—Kindergartens numbered 22 in 1934–35. With the exception of one which is maintained by the Government to serve as a model, all are carried on by private organizations and kept open for the greater part of the day. Some continue their work during the summer vacation.

* The Persian Government requested that beginning with the Persian New Year, March 22, 1935, all other governments in addressing it use "Iran" and "Iranian" instead of "Persia" and "Persian." The Persians call their country "Iran" and refer to themselves as "Irani." Iran is derived from the ancient "Aryana" meaning the country of the Aryans.

Primary instruction has been made obligatory for both boys and girls from 7 to 13 years of age. In the cities the curriculum is 6 years; in the rural districts, 4. Eighteen primary agricultural schools in various parts of the county follow the 4 years of general education by 2 years that are purely agricultural. Not until 1935-36 was there coeducation on primary levels. In that year some mixed schools were established in Teheran and in the provinces. Public primary schools in 1934-35 were 915 with an enrollment of 108,643, of which 23,379 were girls. At the same time 3,726 private primary schools had 120,162 pupils, including 34,292 girls. Pupils who have finished the sixth year of primary schooling and earned the certificate of completion of primary studies may stop school, enter a secondary school of general training, or take up work in a vocational school.

Secondary instruction is 6 years for boys, 5 for girls, and is similar to secondary training in France. A baccalaureate is granted the successful students and with it comes admission to study on university levels. Public secondary schools numbered 104 in 1934-35 and enrolled 10,020 pupils, of which 747 were girls. There were 547 private secondary schools with 12,200 enrolled, including 2,478 girls.

In furtherance of its plan to have a complete National system of education, the Iranian Government set apart 2 million rials in the budget of 1933-34 to purchase a site and begin buildings for a public university. The law establishing the university (Daneshgah) was approved by Parliament (Majlis) on June 29, 1934. On February 4, 1935, the Shah laid the foundation stone of the new institution. Construction has been going on continuously since. This new Teheran University has faculties of medicine, law and political economy, theology, sciences, arts, and engineering. Not all of these are new faculties. That of medicine, for instance, dates to 1854 and is the oldest of the groups which are now brought into a single organization connected with the Ministry of Public Instruction. In 1934-35 with a staff of 109, the University registered 1,198 students and graduated 158.

Almost coincident with the law establishing Teheran University was an enactment providing that within 5 years after March 21, 1934, the Government should found 25 lower normal schools at the rate of 5 each year, a higher normal school for girls, and complete the previously founded higher normal school for boys. At the close of 1934–35 there were 7 of these lower normal schools for training primary school teachers and early in the following year new lower normals were opened at Teheran, Tabriz, Meched, Chiraz, and Recht.

Technical and vocational education are not being neglected, but the schools are mostly under ministries other than that of public instruction. Besides the faculty of engineering in the university,

are the higher schools of war, arts and crafts, agriculture, midwives, financial sciences, and veterinary science. On lower levels of instruction are schools of arts and crafts, commerce, dyeing, posts and telegraphs, agriculture, civil service, and financial sciences.

*Reduction of illiteracy.*—Early in 1936 an active campaign against illiteracy was launched by an order directing the Minister of Public Instruction to open in primary schools all over the country classes in reading, writing, and arithmetic for illiterate adults between 18 and 40 years of age. The instruction was made compulsory for illiterate policemen and subalterns in public offices. Later in the year reports showed that 752 night classes had been established.

*Sending students abroad.*—The idea of sending young Iranians abroad for training originated in 1911 when a law was passed providing that the Government would send 30 each year to Europe, half of them to take teacher-training courses and return to enter the teaching profession in Iran. Political disturbances in the World War broke up this scheme after the first group had been selected and sent. But the idea clung and was taken up again in 1928 when provision was made for 100 students to go abroad yearly to Europe and America, 35 of them to study education. In 6 years, 640 were granted these scholarships and 569 completed their studies. The number in education was 143. Thirty-one other vocations were represented in the group; medicine stood second highest with 96.

### *TURKEY*

The revolution that has been taking place in Turkey in the past 17 years has been thorough and drastic. From a despotism presided over by an absolute hereditary monarch, the government changed to a republic with a national assembly and an elected president. The seat of government was moved from Istanbul, which had been the capital of one or another empire for 16 centuries, to Ankhara, an inland town. The civil government was separated from the church. The franchise was opened to all Turkish men and women at the age of 23 and women were declared eligible for election to public offices. Even the alphabet was discarded and a more suitable one adopted.

Education kept pace with the revolution. The law of uniform education of March 3, 1924, closed the theological seminaries (Madraseh), numbering some 490 and attended by 12,000 pupils, and paved the way for secularization of education and a modern school system. Private schools are under careful public supervision and have a place much less important than formerly in Turkish education affairs. The abolition of the Arabic alphabet by law of November 1, 1928, and the substitution of the Latin alphabet greatly simplified the

teaching of reading and writing and made it more nearly possible to bring the 16 millions of Turkish people to a state of literacy in a reasonable time. Illiteracy was estimated at 85 percent in 1931–32. With the change in alphabet a commission was set up by the Ministry of Education to simplify and purify the language, compile a dictionary for it, and settle its scientific and technical phraseology. From January 1, 1929, all Government departments and business houses were compelled to use the new alphabet and no other could be employed in any book or newspaper. Western figures and the metric system of weights and measures were adopted from June 1, 1929.

*Obligatory instruction.*—The basic law of the new educational organization dates from March 22, 1926. Under its terms the control of education is strongly centralized in the national government acting mainly through the Ministry of Public Instruction. The Minister holds the right of inspection even over the colleges and departments of the University. By Article 87 of the constitution, primary education was made obligatory for all Turks and free of tuition charges in the public schools. The obligation begins when the child is 7 years of age and lasts for 5 years. It has not been enforced throughout all the republic because of a lack of school buildings, an urgent problem to which the authorities have given much attention. The cost of a village school building is a direct charge against the villagers. Some of the richer vilayets (provinces into which Turkey is divided for purposes of administration) have been able to erect a school in every village. In poorer and more sparsely settled areas joint schools are placed sometimes with boarding accommodations and in other cases with transportation to and from school. Acting on the advice of European specialists, the Ministry has a model building at Ankhara and distributes to the vilayets plans of buildings suited to each area, particular attention being paid to the type of building material available in the locality.

The 5-year primary school program adopted is essentially of the activity type based on centers of interest, and some difficulty is met in carrying it through because of the extreme change from previous programs and the lack of trained teachers to undertake the more difficult form of teaching.

*Teacher training.*—To provide accommodations for the normal schools that must be established to train elementary school teachers, the Government voted considerable sums of money and required each vilayet to set aside 10 percent of its local budget each year for 5 years. By that means some excellent modern structures with good equipment were provided. By 1933–34 there were 10 primary normal schools for men and 7 for women. The program of studies, based

on the 5-year primary school curriculum, was at first itself of 5 years' duration. Experience proved that to be unsatisfactory, and another year was added, making two cycles of studies of 3 years each. The first cycle is essentially the same as that of the higher primary schools; the second is strongly biased toward pedagogical training. To meet the demand for teachers in the very small villages with only 3-year primary schools, a type of normal training that closed with the first cycle was tried but was not found especially successful.

*Secondary education.*—Pupils who leave the primary schools may enter the schools of general secondary education, or the higher primary schools, or vocational schools of one or another type. The general secondary schools offer a 6-year program divided into two cycles. The last year of the second cycle may be devoted to either letters or sciences. The baccalaureate granted on graduation admits to the University and other higher institutions. The 3-year higher primary schools correspond in program closely to the first cycle of the general secondary schools.

*Technical education.*—The Government has been especially desirous of developing good schemes of technical and vocational education. To that end it invited specialists from other countries to investigate and report on the needs of Turkey in this respect. A general direction of technical education was set up in the Ministry in 1926, first as a part of the direction of higher education, and later as a separate organization. The vocational schools base most of their studies on completion of the 5-year primary schools, and offer 5-year courses. They include 5 commercial schools, 10 of arts and crafts, 5 vocational schools for girls, and 80 private schools of sewing for girls. Many of the graduates have been sent abroad to Belgium, France, and Germany to complete their training and return to Turkey as teachers in their special fields.

*University instruction.*—The University of Istanbul, first projected in 1846, refounded in 1900, and made an autonomous scientific body by Act of April 1, 1924, was subjected to a survey in 1932–33 and later reorganized to bring it in line with the needs of modern Turkey. It now has faculties of medicine, law, sciences, letters, a school of pharmacy, a dental school; and institutes of geography, Turcology, Islamic studies, archeology and evolution, electromechanics, chemistry, economy, and sociology. It is no longer autonomous and the Government has added to the university staff a large number of professors and instructors from other countries.

*Statistics.*—Statistical measures of the progress of education in Turkey are not available. Both earlier and later figures are in many items conflicting. The Turkish delegate at the Third International

Conference on Public Instruction held in Geneva, Switzerland, reported for the school year 1932-33 substantially as follows: [7]

TABLE 9.—EDUCATION IN TURKEY, 1932-33

| Kind of school | Number of schools | | Number of students | | Teaching staff | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Public | Private | Public | Private | Public | Private |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Kindergarten | 8 | 13 | 611 | | 12 | |
| Primary | 6,568 | 165 | 540,959 | 30,318 | 13,789 | |
| Higher primary | 86 | 23 | 30,856 | 4,802 | 1,009 | 1,295 |
| Secondary | 30 | 32 | 5,355 | 2,488 | 752 | 381 |
| Vocational | 36 | | 4,292 | | 504 | 1,075 |
| Normal | 18 | | 2,059 | | 319 | |
| University | 1 | | 3,589 | | 247 | |
| Other higher | 11 | | 1,899 | | 255 | |

The school system is in the main coeducational; a high percentage of the students are girls and women.

[7] Annuaire International de l'Éducation et de l'Enseignement, 1935. Genève, Bureau International d'Education, 1935.

## Section III. Africa

For this great continent, the Union of South Africa and Egypt present the national school systems taken into consideration as significant. The many different and much varying schemes of colonial education are sketched briefly.

### *Union of South Africa*

The total area of the four Provinces of the Union is 472,550 square miles; the estimated population is 1,944,000 of European descent, and 6,656,000 natives and Asiatics. As regards the Europeans, the country is bilingual. The official languages are English and Afrikaans. The language situation is further complicated by the considerable number of native and Asiatic tongues that are spoken.

*Administration.*—No other country has so curious a division of educational authority and administration as between the central and provincial governments. When the Union was formed in 1910, a Union Education Department was created to administer higher education and education "other than higher" was entrusted to the provincial authorities. Originally higher education was construed to mean only the activities of institutions of university rank. Gradually the Union Government has taken over various phases of education until its administration applies to certain kinds of instruction on all levels. The Union Education Department deals with child welfare, vocational education (including agricultural), technical colleges, university matriculation, and professional examinations. "Other than higher" education within its borders is controlled by each Province and includes the kindergarten, primary, and secondary schools of general education, as well as the teacher-training that is not carried on in the universities, and native education. In these lines the Union Government has little authority, though it subsidizes the Provinces to about 75 percent of their expenditure for education.

This division of responsibilities and duties as between the Union and Provincial governments has not been satisfactory. In effect there are five independent and coequal education departments, one each for the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, Transvaal, the Orange Free State, and the Union of South Africa. Coordination is lacking and various attempts have been made to provide it.

In 1929 a National Bureau of Education was instituted as a part of the Union Education Department. The Bureau's functions are to

collect and compile statistics on education throughout the Union; act as a liaison office between the five education departments; represent the Union in connection with the work of the Committee on Intellectual Cooperation of the League of Nations and the International Bureau of Education at Geneva; build up a library of documentation of education in all countries; and do research work in problems of an educational or social nature. By 1935 the Bureau had five divisions: Educational research, social research, psychological research and service, the National Library on Educational and Social Research, and the film division.

Teacher training while distinctly higher education in the sense that it is post-matriculation study, is mainly carried on in 18 provincial normal or training colleges. One of the first important pieces of work undertaken by the National Bureau of Education was a study of and a report on the training of teachers throughout the Union. Its findings that there was great diversity in the names and connotations of the teachers' certificates, training methods varied much, per capita costs for providing training ranged from £102 to £252, and that the Provinces were making a profit on the subsidy provided by the Union Government for teacher training, led the Secretary for Education to recommend in 1930 that the service be organized on a national basis and placed under Union control. The recommendation has not been carried out.

*Technical education.*—The Union Department of Education administers 8 technical colleges under Act No. 30 of 1923, 7 industrial schools by provisions of the Children's Protection Act No. 25 of 1913, and 29 State trade, commercial, agricultural, and house-craft schools under the Vocational Education and Special Schools Act No. 29 of 1928. It aids 7 other vocational schools. Special schools for the blind and deaf also handled by the Union Government under Act 29, are administered by the Department of the Interior. From its inception the Union Government had been gradually assuming control of technical instruction, and on April 1, 1925, as a result of an inter-Provincial conference held in 1924, it took over all the industrial and trades schools formerly administered by the Provinces.

In his report for 1928, the Secretary for Education reviewed the situation with respect to technical education. He noted that the technical colleges were constantly discovering new needs for which they should make provision, and recommend that urban hostels subsidized by the state be established for the many young people who wish technical training but are too poor to afford it. Other suggestions included a substantial increase in the £3,000 fund for bursaries; the future abolition of tuition fees for technical schools, instruction being made as freely nonfee paying as that in the general secondary schools; and a program of developing agriculture, house-

craft, and trades schools in rural and small town areas to be carried forward without interruption. He pointed out also that many of the vocational schools were in need of better buildings and equipment. Further, he indicated that the salary scales for teachers in technical instruction were much lower than those paid in the secondary schools of general education, a condition that made it difficult to attract the kind of men and women the service demanded.

A strong movement was in evidence in 1932 to transfer vocational education to the control of the Provinces. In opposition to it the Secretary for Education wrote:[1]

> Under the Provinces the vocational schools were regarded as poor schools and the instruction was often made subservient to the production of marketable goods. Many of them were in fact state factories, the underlying idea being that the pauper children should render service to the state for the money spent on them and if possible by production cover the costs involved. . . . The vocational instruction was not graded, and its necessary cultural background was neglected.
>
> Under Union control the instruction has been properly graded and production, though retained, has been reduced and is so regulated as not to have a detrimental, but on the contrary a very beneficial, effect on the work of the schools as educational institutions. General cultural subjects and the provision of libraries are receiving careful attention, and the schools are regularly inspected by expert general and vocational inspectors who see to it that the quality of the work and the methods of teaching are of a good standard . . . . They are no longer regarded as poor schools, or in any case, certainly not to the extent they were, and the policy of the department responsible for the removal of the stigma of pauperism which used to be attached to them.

By 1935 the movement seems to have lost its force and the department was again urging that, since the Union is importing large numbers of skilled workmen, technical education should be provided within the country for all who desire and can profit by it. To that end, it asked for more financial support for the technical colleges, hostels for country pupils who wish to attend the colleges, advanced technical courses in country districts, a widening of the choice of trades offered, and longer periods of training.

*The poor whites of South Africa.*—A study of the poor-white problem in the Union was made with the help of the Carnegie Corporation of New York in 1928 and 1929. Briefly, the poor whites were defined as "persons of European descent gaining their livelihood chiefly by farming and consisting principally of poor *bywoners*, hired men on farms, owners of dwarf holdings or of small, undivided shares of land, poor settlers, and the growing group of unskilled or poorly trained labourers and workers outside of farming." An

[1] Union of South Africa. Annual report of the Department of Education for the year ended December 1932. Pretoria, The Government Printer, 1934.

exact enumeration of them was not practicable but a conservative estimate is that 300,000, nearly one-sixth of the population of the Union, were very poor.

The report of the survey[1] is worthy of careful study by the authorities of any country having a similar problem. We are concerned mainly with the volume on "Education and the Poor White." The surveyors decided that a judicious application of improved methods of education would be very profitable because about one-third of the children had more than average intelligence and some were exceptionally gifted though the intelligence of the poor white group was lower on the average than that of the European population as a whole and the percent of subnormals was about twice as large as it is in the total European group. Sixty-six percent, and in poorer communities 90 percent, of the students did not proceed past standard VI (approximately the eighth grade in the United States) and more than 95 percent of the boys who left school to go on farms had no vocational training in agriculture.

Without further listing of the commission's findings, we shall turn to its chief recommendations:

1. It is very necessary that the education of the poor white should be brought into closer contact both in content and method with the requirements of practical life, especially in rural areas.

2. In order to make this new orientation in education possible, considerable changes will have to be made in the training of teachers.

3. The rural school should be so adapted that it will serve as a social center to satisfy the natural craving for recreation and social intercourse, and make the educative possibilities of broadcasting and similar means more accessible for both adults and children.

4. Local committees enjoying the support of the State should be formed to work in close cooperation with the public authorities in investigating social conditions, coordinating charity, giving advice regarding employment possibilities, and providing vocational guidance.

5. The agricultural extension service should be made more extensive and intensive and should be linked more closely to the ordinary urban and rural schools.

6. To counteract the evils of social isolation, the country schools and especially the farm schools, should be provided with far more reading matter of a suitable kind and a taste for reading should be fostered which would continue to form an educative influence in later life.

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[1] The Poor White Problem in South Africa. Report of the Carnegie Commission of Investigation on the Poor White Question in South Africa. Stellenbosch, Pro Ecclesia-Drukkery, 1932. 5 vols.

7. With the assistance of local and central authorities, nursing organizations should be created in rural areas to perform medical and educational services.

8. The girls who are grouped in various institutions and come from poor families should have special training in the duties and functions of motherhood and homemaking.

9. Education should be compulsory up to an age limit of at least 15 years and a greater variety of subjects should be offered after standard VI.

10. The school hostels for indigent children form part of a sound general policy of centralizing farm schools, but their supervision should be improved and provision should be made for training qualified matrons and paying them adequate salaries.

The commission felt that:

> The present system of divided control of education, by which the ordinary primary and secondary education is placed under the four Provincial Departments of Education, and the vocational and more practical forms under the Union Department of Education, has deleterious effects on education as a whole and especially on that of the poorer youth of the nation.

*Native education.*—For the fewer than 2 millions of Europeans in the Union, the matter of providing education for over 6½ millions of natives necessarily looms large. An interdepartmental committee was appointed in July 1935:

> 1. To examine and report upon the systems of native education of the Provinces
> 2. To consider and make recommendations concerning:
>
> (a) Whether, in view of the extent to which the Union Government has assumed financial responsibility for native education, it should take over the administration from the provinces, and, if so, in what way native education should be administered
>
> (b) What should be the relationship between the State and missionary bodies in the matter of native education
>
> 3. To consider and make recommendations on the following educational matters:
>
> (a) The aims of native education.
>
> (b) The aims having been defined, the methods and scope of native education.
>
> (c) The part to be played by the vernacular and by the two official languages in native education.[8]

The aims of native education! Not a few governments have worried over them in the past decade. The committee inquires,

> What are we really driving at in educating the South African native? Are we to Europeanize him as quickly as possible so that he can take his place in our pattern of Western civilization with as little trouble as possible?

[8] Union of South Africa. Report of the Interdepartmental Committee on Native Education 1935–36. Pretoria, the Government Printer, 1936. 157 pp.

> Or are we to prepare him for an isolated native civilization or, as some people put it, to "develop him along his own lines?"

Stating bluntly that the education of the white child prepares him for life in a dominant society and the education of the black child for a subordinate society, the committee declares that a full liberal philosophy is not at present applicable to native education and that, since the native is becoming Europeanized, the problem is to devise a type of education which will tide him over the period during which tribal sanctions are weakening, and before he feels the force of the sanctions of European civilizations. The definition of aim at which the committee finally arrived is:

> The effective organization of the native's experiences so that his tendencies and powers may develop in a manner satisfactory to himself and to the community in which he lives, by the growth of socially desirable knowledge, attitudes, and skills.

To attain this aim, the curriculum recommended includes in the order of importance: Religion, health and sanitation, the tool-subjects, music, interpretation of the environment, and skills such as manual work, industrial training, and agriculture.

*Languages.*—Seven Bantu languages (Zulu, Xhosa, Tsoana, Southern Sotho, Northern Sotho, Thonga, and Venda) are officially recognized in the Union of South Africa, and there are the two official languages, English and Afrikaans. What language or languages then shall be the medium of instruction in the native school, and what language or languages shall be subjects of study? Two broad principles are laid down: (1) A native language shall be a compulsory subject of study throughout primary and teacher-training courses; and (2) at least one official language shall be included in the courses. As far as possible the mother tongue is to be the medium of instruction during at least the first 4 years of the child's schooling. This is difficult to apply since most of the Bantu languages have little literature, textbooks written in them are practically nonexistent, terminologies in most of the subjects of primary instruction do not exist, and many areas are multivernacular. To overcome in a measure the first three of these, the committee recommends that prizes be awarded annually for the best works written, preferably by native authors, in a Bantu language; and committees be set up to formulate tentative terminologies as required in the subjects of instruction for the different Bantu languages. In multivernacular areas, schools are to be classified on a language basis or on a basis of allied language groups.

One or the other of the official languages is to be a subject of instruction throughout the primary course, and from the fifth year will be the principal medium of instruction.

*Administration.*—After weighing all the pros and cons submitted to it, the committee recommended firmly that native education be transferred from the control of the Provincial councils to that of the Union Government to be handled not by the Native Affairs Department, but by the Union Department of Education. The administrative machinery proposed need not here be reviewed.

*Statistics.*—The enrollments in institutions for Europeans in the three classes of schools, Provincial, Union, and private, in 1934 are given in the following table.

TABLE 10. ENROLLMENT IN ALL INSTITUTIONS FOR EUROPEANS IN 1934

| Kind of institution | Boys | Girls | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Provincial public schools | 188,769 | 172,347 | 361,116 |
| Private schools | 11,362 | 11,769 | 23,131 |
| Union public institutions: | | | |
| Vocational | | | 3,412 |
| Technical colleges | | | |
| Full-time students | | | 3,626 |
| Part-time students | | | 14,203 |
| Universities | | | 7,143 |
| **Total** | | | **412,951** |

These data do not include 622 men and 1,369 women in Provincial teachers colleges, and Union schools as follows: Continuation classes, 1,741 students; institutions under the Children Protection Act, 8,916; and other, 993. Enrollments in the Provincial schools in 1926 were 330,762, so that the gain in 8 years was 30,354. The European enrollment in private schools decreased from 21,589 in 1921 to the low point of 19,159 in 1928. Since then it has steadily increased. The average registration in the universities stood at 5,769 in 1926 and has moved up regularly since then.

The growth of native education is shown as follows:

TABLE 11.—STATISTICS OF NATIVE EDUCATION, 1926 TO 1935

| Year | Enrollment | Expenditure | Year | Enrollment | Expenditure |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1926 | 214,245 | £430,998 | 1932 | 291,296 | £590,569 |
| 1928 | 234,045 | 474,893 | 1934 | 320,301 | 567,286 |
| 1930 | 278,663 | 562,323 | 1935 | 315,440 | 578,566 |

All the expenditures here shown come from Union funds. In addition the Cape Province spends about £25,000 and the Transvaal £6,000 yearly.

*EGYPT*

While Egypt has a land area of 383,000 square miles, about as much as Texas and New Mexico combined, the population of 14 million is so concentrated in 13,600 square miles along the Nile River and delta that the population per square mile in the settled areas averages 1,044. In numbers of people to be trained and extent of territory to be covered, the education project is comparatively small. That up to 1917 it had done little for the bulk of the people is evidenced by the illiteracy data for that year—118 men and 18 women in each thousand were able to read and write in Arabic.

*Illiteracy and obligatory instruction.*—At that time a commission was appointed to frame a plan for making elementary instruction available to the masses of the Egyptian people. Basing its scheme on the purely indigenous schools, the *maktabs* concerned solely with teaching Arabic and the Mahometan culture, the commission arranged for a progressive development in these schools until they should be 5,000 in number, for children 7 to 12 years of age, and in the first 2 years offering instruction sufficient to allow the child admission to a primary school if he intended to continue into secondary and higher education. These elementary schools were to be open daily to two different groups of students, alternating one-half day each at classroom instruction and practical work, such as agriculture, industry, domestic science, etc. Provision was also made for courses for adults and by 1927 the percent of literacy had been raised from 8 to 13.

This work of developing elementary education is being continued much as planned but at a slower rate, and is carrying with it some advances in the kindergarten field. It is hoped to bring the program to completion by 1947. The Egyptian constitution of April 19, 1923, had declared that elementary instruction is obligatory for all Egyptians of both sexes and will be given gratuitously in public maktabs. On April 19, 1933, the Parliament voted an obligatory, free instruction law fixing the duration of studies as 5 years for children from 7 and 12, and the subject matter taught to be the Koran, religion, social education, Arabic language, mathematics, natural history, history, geography, physical culture, and (for girls) domestic science and hygiene.

Making the law effective is an obligation of the Ministry of Public Instruction which may establish as many maktabs as it judges necessary, determine the punishments to be imposed on parents for noncompliance, inspect private maktabs, and require provincial councils to create new maktabs within the areas under their jurisdiction.

The program of developing maktabs called, of course, for a con-

siderable recruitment of teachers. By 1933–34 the Ministry had established 29 normal schools for men and 18 for women. The students are selected by competitive examination from graduates of the 5-year elementary school course, are given 2 years of preparatory training, and then take the regular normal school curriculum of 3 or 4 years' duration.

*Primary schools.*—The Egyptian primary school, somewhat more advanced than the elementary, provides mainly for children who will continue their studies. It is 4 years in duration, does not ordinarily admit pupils under 7 years of age, and closes with the certificate of primary studies which is a prerequisite for entering a secondary school. Primary schools are provided by the Ministry of Public Instruction, the provincial councils, and private organizations. The Ministry finances and controls the first class, aids in financing and to some extent controls the second, and inspects many of the third.

The primary school program was modified in 1926 and after a trial period the new arrangement was made definite in 1930. In that year the Ministry set up a commission to study primary education in most of its aspects. The result is a series of proposals looking toward an activity primary school, the project method of teaching, classes based on the intelligence ratings of the pupils, fewer and less formal examinations, more teaching in the open air, and the use of the cinema in the schools. It is one of the many proposals made in the past 10 years to aid underprivileged peoples through a type of education in which the major stress is not on literary teaching.

*Secondary education.*—The secondary school is a 2-cycle institution of 3 years which leads to the first part of the certificate of secondary studies, followed by 2 years to attain the second part. Previous to Egypt's liberation from Turkey in 1914, French influence on Egyptian education was strong. With the establishment of a British protectorate in 1914, English influence came into the ascendancy and the English language began to have equal favor with the French among the ruling classes of the Egyptians. Since the termination of the protectorate in 1922, both languages have retained a hold, and western European rather than Oriental influences have shaped secondary and higher education in Egypt. Both these levels of instruction are primarily designed to fit the students for government positions.

By 1933–34 there were 27 national secondary schools for boys with an enrollment of 14,470, and 8 for girls with 1,455 students, a total of 15,925. In addition, 181 provincial and private secondary schools were caring for 16,787 boys and 3,376 girls. In May 1933, under the presidency of the Ministry, a commission was created to study and reorganize secondary education with the hope of giving the

students better training, especially in modern foreign languages. The commission was asked to consider: (1) Recasting the programs as to the distribution of class hours a week and the number of hours to be allotted to each subject; (2) reforming the programs in the sense of lightening them if the instruction seemed to be on too high a level; and (3) providing means for strengthening the pupils in their knowledge of foreign languages. The commission recommended an increase of time for the first foreign language, a decrease for science and history, and certain decreases in morals, civic instruction, and mathematics in the section of letters.

*Technical education.*—In its development of a modern school system, the Egyptian Government is not neglecting technical education. There have been established intermediate schools of agriculture (three in 1931–32 with 900 students), a school of applied arts, two schools of arts and crafts, five intermediate schools of commerce besides evening courses in commerce, and preparatory instruction in fine arts.

*Higher education.*—The University of Egypt at Cairo is modelled along European lines with faculties of letters, sciences, law, and medicine. It is independent of the Ministry of Public Instruction, though the Minister is ex-officio chancellor. Seven other institutions, Royal Polytechnic School, Higher School of Agriculture, Higher School of Commerce, Higher School of Fine Arts, Veterinary School, the School of Dar-El-Ouloum, and the Institute of Pedagogy, give instruction on higher levels. Most recent of these is the Institute of Pedagogy founded in 1929 to strengthen teacher training in Egypt. It accepts graduates in arts or science from the university and gives them 2 years of special pedagogical training to fit them for teaching in secondary schools. It admits also graduates of secondary schools who wish to be primary teachers and puts them through a 3-year curriculum, the last 2 years of which are largely pedagogics.

*Summary.*—In summary, education in Egypt in the past 10 years has continued its trend toward western European ideals. A Government policy of sending students there and to the United States for training has been consistently pursued. Secularization of instruction is increasing. The Ministry's control over all forms of private education has been strengthened, but no attempt has been made to close private schools. Indeed, the Government acknowledges the great debt of the Egyptian people to private enterprise in education and states that the public treasury could not finance a comprehensive and adequate educational system. Considerable nationalization of education in the way of creating among the people a pride in their government and country was in evidence but by no means so strongly as in many other countries. Definite progress was made in the introduction of the principle of compulsory education. The Islamic

tradition with regard to women is being rapidly laid aside and new schools for girls are being created together with new attitudes toward admitting women to higher institutions and the professions for which they train.

### *COLONIAL AFRICA*

Exclusive of Egypt, the Union of South Africa, and Liberia, some 10½ million square miles in Africa are inhabited by about 115 million people under governments directed by Belgium, the British Commonwealth of Nations, France, Italy, and Portugal. To describe the many education systems of these colonies, especially as they relate to training the native peoples, and tell of their progress in the past 10 years, is much too large an undertaking for this general survey. But no sketch of modern education would be complete without some account of what has been done in recent years in the education of the natives in colonial Africa.

The arrangement at the close of the World War for mandatories for backward peoples under the League of Nations brought out the importance of education, for if these peoples were ever to come out of the mandates in which they were placed, they must be trained to manage their own affairs in a world that was and is rapidly adopting occidental ways of living. The foreign mission societies of North America and Europe, realizing that their varied and mainly independent efforts needed to be more cooperative and to have a foundation of comprehensive facts about conditions in Africa as a basis for more effective educational work, asked the assistance of the Phelps-Stokes Fund and through its aid a survey of education in Africa was made in 1920 and 1921, and the findings were published in 1922.[1] This was followed by a second study made in 1923 and 1924 and reported not long thereafter.[2] In its introduction to this second report, the Phelps-Stokes Fund expressed a philosophy that had grown out of the experiences of the war, and since its expression has been strengthened by the world economic depression:

> The trustees of the Phelps-Stokes fund firmly believe that the peace and welfare of the world can never be assured until conditions in every country, no matter how small or how remote from the world centers of civilization, are reasonably satisfactory. In other words, just as a chain is as strong as its weakest link, so not even the dominant civilization in Europe and America can be counted upon to endure as long as people anywhere are weak as the result of ignorance or any other cause. Just as commerce knows no national boundaries, so epidemics, whether of disease or of Bolshevism, or of warfare between groups, quickly spread from country to country, and

[1] Jones, Thomas Jesse. Education in Africa. A study of West, South, and Equatorial Africa by the African Education Commission. New York, Phelps-Stokes Fund, 1922.

[2] Jones, Thomas Jesse. Education in East Africa. A study of East, Central, and South Africa by the Second African Education Commission. New York, Phelps-Stokes Fund, 1925.

> can only be controlled by modern science and an enlightened public opinion. . . . As long as any portion of (America), or of any other continent, suffers because of disease or superstition or prejudice or ignorance, the elements are at hand out of which a conflagration, which might later gain world proportions, may be fanned into a flame.

In laying down the objectives that the systems of native schools should be organized to attain, the Commission voiced a feeling that has made wide advances in nearly all countries, whether for indigenous or other schools. In the order of importance those objectives were stated as: (1) The development of character, with a recognition that religion is a necessary means to that end; (2) promotion of health; (3) development of agricultural and industrial skill; (4) improvement of family life through a knowledge of such home activities as the care of children, food, sleeping facilities, sanitation, and all that centers about the life of woman; and (5) creation of sound and healthful recreation.

The commission emphasized that reading, writing, and arithmetic must form the basis of the elementary school curriculum, but should be taught, not to the exclusion of other subjects, but as the means of imparting knowledge and of building up practice in health, agriculture, industry, home life, recreation, and character. Of language instruction it wrote:

> Languages of instruction rank with the ordinary school subjects. The appeal to the native mind cannot be effectively made without the adequate use of the native language, nor can the essentials of sound character be taught nor interest in agriculture or industry be developed without its use. It is equally important that advanced pupils shall have opportunity to learn some European language as they themselves demand. Africa requires increasingly whatever knowledge can be adapted from European civilization to meet its peculiar needs.

*The Intercolonial Congress.*—Colonial education was again brought strongly to public attention at the International Colonial Exposition held in Paris in 1931 in connection with which an Intercolonial Congress of Education in the Colonies and in Overseas Countries was convened. Representatives from Portugal, the Netherlands, the British Commonwealth of Nations, Belgium, Denmark, the United States, and France participated.

The Congress discussed such questions as:[6] In what language should instruction be given? How should the European and especially the indigenous teachers be trained? What programs of study should be followed? Should they have a strong practical bias? What

[6] Exposition Coloniale Internationale de 1931. L'Adaptation de l'Enseignement dans les Colonies. Rapports et Compte-Rendu du Congrès Intercolonial de l'Enseignement dans les Colonies et les pays d'outre-mer, September 25–27, 1931. Paris, Henri Didier, 1932. 312 pp.

methods of instruction should be used? What should be done in the way of arranging and supplying school manuals? How should education be expanded among the feminine element of the population?

The language of instruction was the most contentious issue. The French policy is generally to use French as the vehicular language but in Madagascar and French Indo-China remarkably good instruction through the native languages has been developed. The other colonial nations favor giving at least primary instruction through the native tongue.

The general view of the congress was that European teachers should have special training before entering on their duties in the area to which they were assigned, and that native teachers should receive sound pedagogical training with much practical knowledge of hygiene, agriculture, and kindred subjects. In the way of programs the majority of opinion favored practical knowledge in such matters as agriculture, but warned against overdeveloping vocational training lest the graduates would not be able to find positions and so form a body of discontented unemployed. The direct method of instruction was unanimously reported as being used to advantage.

Special manuals and texts for indigenous schools is an important question in all colonial areas. The cost of preparation, establishing a good terminology in scientific subjects, arranging an alphabet, grading the lessons, selecting appropriate subject matter, and like questions, enter into this difficult problem. The French in Madagascar and Indo-China and the Dutch in the Netherlands Indies, have made the most advances in this line.

Extending education to women is, in the view of the congress, extremely important, especially training in home management, but it is much complicated by the traditions and religions of indigenous peoples.

*The Advisory Committee.*—Early in its post-war activities (1923) the Colonial Office of the Government of the British Commonwealth of Nations established an Advisory Committee on matters of native education in tropical Africa. It was so useful that a decision was made to extend its service to all areas under the direct administration of the Colonial Office. Accordingly, the committee was dissolved and a new and larger committee was constituted, effective from January 1, 1929, to:

> **(*a*) Advise on any schemes for the improvement of education that may be specifically referred to them by the Secretary of State for the Colonies.**
>
> **(*b*) Submit recommendations to the Secretary of State on any subjects relating to colonial education that the chairman of the committee considers suitable for their discussion.**
>
> **(*c*) Keep themselves informed through materials supplied by their secretaries, discussion with expert representatives from the colonies, and other means, of the progress and needs of education in the colonies.**

Probably no other committee in any government has so large and varied a field of educational theory and practice from which to draw data and experience. It has two secretaries, one of whom deals particularly with African affairs. It meets ordinarily once a month and in its relatively short life has handled a large number of matters pertaining to education in the colonies. One of its particularly helpful activities is the preparation and publication of *Oversea Education*, a journal of educational experiment and research in tropical and subtropical areas, a quarterly now in its eighth volume.

Out of all these efforts to shape through education the future of the natives of that Africa which is developing and opening so rapidly, efforts that three decades hence will probably seem to have been only fumblings, have come in the last 10 years a keen realization that native life and customs must be better and more sympathetically understood, that the native mentality must be learned, and that any line of action ought to be taken only after close consultation with native opinion.

## Section IV. Australia

The publication in 1927 of a volume[1] describing adequately the six separate and independent school systems in Australia, gave to the public a better idea and an increased interest in the part that Australia is playing in the cultural affairs of the world. Here is a Caucasian people numbering about six and three-fourths million occupying a continent and adjoining islands with an area of 2,974,581 square miles, far separated from other Caucasian groups and working out its own adaptations.

*Administration.*—The Commonwealth Government has little voice in education. Each of the six States has its strongly centralized system of public schools which it maintains and directs in its own way. All of the systems are fairly complete in general and technical education, care of subnormals, training of adults, and those other aspects that go to make up well-rounded schemes of education. The Government has pursued a steadfast policy of careful selection of immigrants, and the indigenes are few in number, so linguistic and racial problems scarcely exist.

Progress in education in Australia in the past decade has been orderly and along orthodox lines. It has been subjected to no strongly nationalistic movement or drastic revolution. The economic depression was severe and education expenditures were heavily curtailed, but through careful management damage to the efficiency of the schools was comparatively light.

*Statistics.*—The changes in the State schools from 1925 to 1933, the latest year for which figures are available, are shown in the following table.

Table 12.—STATISTICS OF STATE SCHOOLS IN AUSTRALIA, 1925 TO 1933

| Year | Schools | Teachers | Enrollment | Average attendance | Average expenditure[1] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 1925 | 10,235 | 28,241 | 872,473 | 720,975 | £8,216,102 |
| 1926 | 10,203 | 29,633 | 883,925 | 730,571 | £8,751,552 |
| 1927 | 10,208 | 30,992 | 901,326 | 748,712 | £9,142,500 |
| 1928 | 10,169 | 31,838 | 920,060 | 764,496 | £9,614,951 |
| 1929 | 10,263 | 32,391 | 929,299 | 777,626 | £10,087,570 |
| 1930 | 10,257 | 33,533 | 914,043 | 801,729 | £9,673,713 |
| 1931 | 10,097 | 33,762 | 936,901 | 817,262 | £8,563,786 |
| 1932 | 10,246 | 32,725 | 934,075 | 818,566 | £8,317,528 |
| 1933 | 10,343 | 32,581 | 929,200 | 805,334 | £8,117,517 |

[1] Not including technical colleges, and exclusive of expenditure on buildings.

[1] Browne, G. S. Education in Australia. A comparative study of the educational systems of the six Australian States. London, The Macmillan Company, Limited, 1927. 461 pp.

During these years the percent of attendance rose from 82.6 in 1925 to 87.7 in 1930 and receded to 86.7 in 1933.

Similar statistics, expenditure not given, of private schools are as follows:

TABLE 13.—STATISTICS OF PRIVATE SCHOOLS IN AUSTRALIA IN 1925 TO 1933

| Year | Schools | Teachers | Enrollment | Average attendance |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1925 | 1,737 | 9,266 | 228,564 | 175,283 |
| 1926 | 1,761 | 9,512 | 233,566 | 178,985 |
| 1927 | 1,763 | 9,753 | 235,074 | 181,396 |
| 1928 | 1,779 | 9,792 | 237,713 | 184,464 |
| 1929 | 1,806 | 9,955 | 242,077 | 189,018 |
| 1930 | 1,803 | 10,090 | 242,024 | 193,691 |
| 1931 | 1,806 | 9,995 | 221,387 | 189,665 |
| 1932 | 1,820 | 9,940 | 220,723 | 188,912 |
| 1933 | 1,842 | 10,002 | 222,625 | 189,984 |

These are the data of stable school systems which have builded slowly, have no great arrears of provision for education to make up quickly, and are strong enough to maintain a fair level of instruction for all the population.

*Education by correspondence.*—A distinctive feature of Australian education is the care with which provision is made for children living in sparsely settled areas. The aim is to carry the benefits of education into the most remote districts. Half-time schools, itinerant teachers, traveling schools, and railway camp schools have all been provided. But apparently the most successful plan is correspondence instruction. Each State has an arrangement for giving public-school instruction, primary and secondary, to children not only in Australia, but also in the New Hebrides and in New Guinea. The number of children being taught in this way in 1927, 1930, and 1933, were distributed as follows:

TABLE 14.—NUMBER OF CHILDREN RECEIVING INSTRUCTION BY CORRESPONDENCE

| Area | 1927 | 1930 | 1933 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| New South Wales | 3,500 | 5,044 | 5,300 |
| Victoria | 501 | 938 | 1,000 |
| Queensland | 3,737 | 4,659 | 5,775 |
| South Australia | 596 | 1,275 | 1,681 |
| Western Australia | 1,450 | 1,903 | 2,135 |
| Tasmania | 270 | 297 | 259 |
| Northern Territory | | | 23 |
| Total | 10,054 | 14,116 | 16,173 |

With such a policy consistently and constantly carried forward, it seems probable that Australia will never have a "poor white" problem.

*School consolidation.*—Consolidation of schools with boarding allowances and free transportation of pupils was begun in New South Wales in 1904 and is now used to some extent in all of the States, except perhaps in Queensland which seems not to be applying it. The expenditure for boarding allowance and conveyance to central schools in 1930 reached £62,869 in New South Wales and £14,058 in Victoria. Those two States, especially New South Wales, have since made considerable reductions in that item. Expenditures for 3 different years are as follows:

TABLE 15.—EXPENDITURE FROM PUBLIC FUNDS ON BOARDING ALLOWANCE AND CONVEYANCE OF PUPILS TO CENTRAL SCHOOLS

| State | 1927 | 1930 | 1933 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| New South Wales | 49,843 | 62,869 | 18,481 |
| Victoria | 8,179 | 14,058 | 11,073 |
| South Australia | 4,631 | 12,740 | 14,805 |
| Western Australia | 11,221 | 12,566 | 14,162 |
| Tasmania | 3,600 | 5,420 | 4,844 |
| **Total** | **77,474** | **107,653** | **63,365** |

*Summary.*—A recent critical account of Australian education[2] summarizes the situation so well that it is here quoted. Commenting on a certain lack of objectives, the author says:

> The absence of any very precise objectives for the school is better than the deliberate use of the school by the State for the production of a particular brand of citizen. One feels that there should always be sufficient vagueness and sufficient toleration of the points of view of minorities to render spontaneous evolution possible.

He continues:

> A hurried reminder of Australia's achievements in education may also be attempted. Special mention must be made of her efforts to carry efficient elementary school instruction to all children in outlying areas. Her one-teacher rural schools and her correspondence schemes, especially for primary school pupils, are matters of legitimate pride.
>
> Having established a system of high schools during the first 20 years of the century, all States have paid some attention to the provision of post-primary schools of nonacademic type. Some of these schools have a rural bias, others, again, give instruction in household subjects. In the elementary school there is a definite movement towards a less academic type of curriculum and greater freedom for the teacher. This is associated with a marked increase in school clubs, particularly young farmers' clubs, and

[2] Cunningham, K. S. A critical account of Australian education. *In* The Year Book of Education 1936. London, Evans Brothers, Limited, 1936.

with increased encouragement of handicrafts and hobbies. The last few years have seen in all states the introduction of educational broadcasting and of vocational guidance schemes, although some areas have naturally proceeded much further than others in these matters. The spontaneous growth of parents' associations is a sign of increasing interest in the schools by the general public. Most States have provided at least a few special classes or schools for backward children, and two States, New South Wales and Tasmania, have recently set up experimental classes for gifted children. The two States just named have also taken a step which a few years ago was completely unthought of, that of setting aside special officers to conduct inquiries and researches. Special mention must be made of the steps taken in Victoria to substitute internal for external examinations. Finally, it is a healthy sign that some of the independent schools which experiment with such comparative ease are abandoning their customary adherence to traditional patterns, and, in several cases, are introducing extremely significant changes.

There is room for much satisfaction in connection with certain aspects of the teaching service. The stability of the service is much higher than in some other countries. Teachers have security of tenure, and teaching is rarely regarded as a stepping stone to some other occupation. An investigation carried out several years ago, showed that the average length of teaching service for fully trained permanent teachers is over 22 years for men, and almost 12 years for women. Men teachers are commonly found in elementary schools. The total proportion of men to women teachers is about 40 to 60.

## Section V. The Western Hemisphere

### *CANADA*

Here is another self-governing dominion of the British Commonwealth of Nations which in both area and population is larger than Australia. The 10½ million people in Canada are more than 50 percent of British origin and the remainder are Caucasian races. The indigenes number about 129,000; the percentage of orientals is small; and there are few Negroes. The total land area is 3,466,793 square miles, considerably larger than continental United States. Language problems are mainly confined to the use of French and English. Quebec is a French-speaking Province and French groups in some of the neighboring areas desire that their children be educated through the French medium.

*Administration.*—The Dominion Government has little voice in education except for that of the native Indians and Esquimaux and the schools in the Yukon and northwest Territories. Each of the nine Provinces has control of its own school system through a provincial ministry of education and each system is distinctive though, with the exception of the French schools in Quebec, there are many similarities among them. The Dominion Government provides less than 2 percent of the funds for education. The Provincial treasuries contribute about 21 percent, and the local school administrative units 64 percent. The remainder comes from fees, endowments, and miscellaneous sources.

During the past decade education in Canada also has undergone no extreme changes, has been subjected to no sharp revolutions. Progress has been careful. The depression was severe but Canadian education came through it without vital impairment. In 1921 the percentage of persons 10 years of age and over who could read and write was 94.26; in 1931 it was 95.74. No campaigns for the liquidation of illiteracy were necessary. The average number of years of schooling received by each person between 18 and 24 years of age in 1911 was 6.58; in 1921 it was 7.58; and in 1931, 8.55. Those figures alone are ample evidence that Canada has been making good provision for education for many years.

*Statistical summary.*—The following table summarizes two important indications of educational trends in the past 10 years.

TABLE 16.—ENROLLMENT AND EXPENDITURE IN CANADIAN SCHOOLS, 1926 TO 1935

| Year | Enrollment | Expenditure | Year | Enrollment | Expenditure |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1926 | 2,272,415 | $122,701,259 | 1931 | 2,542,747 | 178,701,507 |
| 1927 | 2,291,720 | 125,876,375 | 1932 | 2,593,116 | 163,944,758 |
| 1928 | 2,342,391 | 128,890,836 | 1933 | 2,530,056 | 146,921,861 |
| 1929 | 2,387,057 | 138,223,885 | 1934 | 2,527,558 | 138,833,825 |
| 1930 | 2,490,623 | 165,361,198 | 1935 | 2,484,877 | 136,040,659 |

*Enrollment.*—The first enrollment increase shown is relatively small, eight-tenths of 1 percent, lower than the rate of population increase, and considerably lower than the average percent of increase in enrollment between the years 1921 to 1927. The slowing down is attributed to a movement away from school of the older pupils due to better employment conditions. The increase of more than 50,000 in the following year was mainly in colleges, technical and night schools, short courses in universities and colleges, and regular courses in universities. In 1929 the tendency toward disproportionate increase in students in universities, colleges, and secondary schools continued; the ordinary schools maintained by public funds barely held their regular increase. Manual and vocational training had more than a normal increase.

Part of the large advance made in 1930 over the enrollment in 1929 was due to raising the school-leaving age and stricter enforcement of compulsory education laws, but much of it was in the upper grades and rose from the difficulty adolescents had in finding employment so they remained in school or even returned after having been out a year or more. The increases of some 50,000 each year in 1931 and 1932 showed continued rapid ascent in numbers in the secondary grades, while in 1932 elementary school enrollment actually declined in several provinces. The census of 1931 reported fewer children under 5 years of age than there were between 5 and 10, a portent that increased enrollments in Canadian schools would soon cease.

Decreases were considerable in 1933, 1934, and 1935. In those years the number of university students did not change much; the effect of the smaller child population was being made manifest in the lower grades and many secondary pupils were moving out to employment.

School expenditures reached the peak of $178,701,000 in 1931, then declined rapidly to 1934 and slightly in 1935. Capital outlays and teachers' salaries were cut more than other items.

*School finance.*—Naturally questions of school finance were emphasized. The Education Branch of the Dominion Bureau of Statistics in 1933 made three studies: Expenditures for schools as a factor in the cost of raising the Canadian child; expenditures for schools in

relation to national income and other items of national expenditure; and a comparison of several factors of school support in 1931 and 1913. In the first the conclusion was reached that in the cost of raising a Canadian child to the age of self-support about one-seventh was spent for education. In the second it was found that out of the total national expenditure of Canadian consumers about 3.5 percent went for education. By the third, the cost of a day's schooling in 1931 was relatively cheaper than in 1913 and certainly much improved in quality and the average school-leaver in 1931 had received 8 years of schooling as against 6 years in 1913. These data did much to offset the feeling that the schools were too expensive.

That school costs in Canada are borne mainly by local school administrative units has already been noted. (See page 64.) The very unequal reductions, during the depression, in school support led to consideration of better methods of financing. Of the 23,000 independent local administrative units in the Dominion, 21,000 have an average population of fewer than 250 persons. They account for some 5 million or about half the total population of Canada, and in them the divergence of ability and willingness to maintain good schools is very great. All the Provinces have had ways of giving more assistance to rural communities than would be granted on an ordinary per capita or per pupil basis, but equalization of costs has not become more general because local communities fear that a higher proportion of Provincial support would mean more Provincial control and Provincial authorities, faced with budget deficits, are unwilling to assume further obligations. Larger units, such as the township, the county, the rural municipality, have been tried to some extent and have helped the situation in a small degree only. School taxes are laid primarily on real property and a growing sentiment favors finding other bases of taxation.

The movement so common in Europe to provide help for mentally gifted children who are financially unable to continue their studies has made little headway in Canada. On the secondary level there is little or nothing of that nature. University admission scholarships to the number of 540 were available in 1934. These had an average value of $200 each, enough to provide for one in every hundred matriculation students. On the undergraduate level, some further awards may be had, and a few fellowships, scholarships, and bursaries are open for graduate study.

*Technical education.*—The Dominion Government in 1919 voted $10,000,000 to aid in the improvement of technical education provided that each Province should spend an additional amount equal to its share. By 1929, when the original grant was to expire, only the Province of Ontario had earned its full quota and 5 years more were allowed in which the other Provinces might qualify. Again in

1931 an annual sum of $750,000 for 15 years was voted. Beginning with 1920, Dominion aid rose from $136,500 to $1,152,165 in 1929, when all the Provinces were participating. There were then 121,252 pupils in schools receiving Dominion aid; 45,617 in day courses, 73,877 in evening classes, and 1,447 taking correspondence courses. As the Provinces exhausted their portion of the funds, the aid decreased until in 1935 three—Nova Scotia, Manitoba, and Saskatchewan—were still drawing grant and the total had declined to $90,720.

*Vocational guidance.*—The official report for 1935 [1] reviews the social position of the young people in relation to the world into which they pass after leaving school. Pointing out that the youth of today have probably less than half the economic independence in their teens that the pre-war generation had, that in 1931 there was an average difference of 1¾ years between the age of leaving school and the age of self-support, and that independence is not reached by young people until they are well in the nineteenth year with the probability that in a few years this will extend to the twenties, the report asks for a closer articulation of school and industry, and reviews the comparatively few attempts made in Canada in the realm of vocational guidance. No actual Provincial scheme had been developed by 1935. In Ontario a vocational guidance association had been formed and in Alberta the Teachers' Association and the School of Education in the University were making studies of vocational opportunities and methods of guidance.

*Departmental examinations.*—The growth of secondary education in Canada did not carry with it the practice of establishing accrediting agencies for secondary schools or the system of time measurement with a certain number of credits or units required for and permitting graduation as is the case in the United States. Admission to high school, promotion from year to year, and graduation were based on passing examinations set and marked by the Provincial departments of education. To some extent the Provincial certificates issued as results of these examinations were accepted by the universities for matriculation.

Up to 1927 or 1928, or even later, the departments generally conducted the examinations for admission to high school and for each subject each year throughout the subsequent 4 years. Since then the trend has been strongly toward fewer examinations. In the admission and lower high-school grades they are rapidly disappearing and departments are more and more accepting the findings of the individual schools as to the progress and capability of the students. Moreover, Provincial departments and university matriculation boards are cooperating better in the matter of accepting certificates, and it is

[1] Dominion Bureau of Statistics. Annual Survey of Education in Canada 1935. Ottawa, J. O. Patenaude, 1937.

becoming easier for students to move from Province to Province or university to university and carry their credits with them.

*Reorganization of instruction.*—The English report on the education of the adolescent in 1926 stressed the age of 11 plus as the natural time to change the character of the child's training. The junior high school movement which began about 1910 in the United States was in recognition of this principle. Both the junior high schools and the English report were well known in Canada and instruction there is being changed gradually from the 8–4 plan to something more in line with English thought. Manitoba, British Columbia, Ontario, and Nova Scotia have taken steps in that direction.

*University admission.*—Though the English-speaking school systems were generally 8 elementary grades plus 4 secondary, the last or grade XII of the secondary school was usually considered as being parallel and equal to the first year of the university arts curriculum. This was especially true in the collegiate institutes. Strong completion of grade XI admitted to a university. The trend is now toward requiring grade XII graduation for university matriculation.

### *LATIN AMERICA*

The 20 Latin American republics named in the order of population size are as indicated below.

TABLE 17.—POPULATION AND AREA OF THE LATIN AMERICAN REPUBLICS

| Country | Population | Area in square miles | Persons per square mile |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Brazil | 45,332,660 | 3,275,510 | 9.3 |
| Mexico | 16,552,722 | 763,944 | 21.6 |
| Argentina | 12,227,761 | 1,079,965 | 11.3 |
| Colombia | 8,368,540 | 447,536 | 18.7 |
| Peru | 6,147,000 | 482,133 | 12.7 |
| Chile | 4,287,445 | 285,133 | 15 |
| Cuba | 4,011,088 | 44,164 | 90.8 |
| Venezuela | 3,261,734 | 352,051 | 9.2 |
| Bolivia | 3,077,533 | 514,465 | 5.9 |
| Ecuador | 2,646,641 | 275,936 | 9.6 |
| Haiti | 2,550,000 | 10,204 | 250 |
| Guatemala | 2,215,593 | 45,452 | 47 |
| Uruguay | 2,020,040 | 72,153 | 27.9 |
| El Salvador | 1,522,186 | 13,176 | 115 |
| Dominican Republic | 1,478,121 | 19,332 | 76 |
| Honduras | 962,685 | 44,275 | 21.9 |
| Paraguay | 901,768 | 161,647 | 5.5 |
| Nicaragua | 750,000 | 51,660 | 14.6 |
| Costa Rica | 471,525 | 23,000 | 20 |
| Panama | 467,459 | 32,380 | 14.4 |
| Total | 119,282,501 | 7,994,116 | |

In total population and area, all of Latin America is considerably smaller than the Union of Soviet Republics which has more than 166 million people and nearly 8¼ million square miles. Excepting

Brazil, none of these countries has a really large education project but all of them have the responsibilities connected with the training of their citizenry, present and future, usually assumed by national entities.

From the many phases of the progress that has been made in Latin America in the past decade, five are selected for discussion. They are: Nationalization of education; reduction of illiteracy and the incorporation of indigenous peoples; the "activity school", and educational research; provision for technical and vocational education; and a more favorable attitude toward the education of women. Following these are brief accounts for Argentina, Brazil, and Mexico.

*Nationalization of education.*—Some inclination toward further nationalization of education has been shown but, except in Mexico, it has not been toward the extreme type of nationalization found in Italy, Germany, and the Soviet Union. The delegate from Colombia to the Fourth International Congress of Public Instruction, Geneva, 1935, in explanation of the purposes of the education program of his country, said,[2]

> To begin with—and this was some years ago—we changed the current terminology. We no longer speak of public instruction but of national education. This is not simply a change of words We wished to indicate that the state ought to educate, that is to say, form the will and heart of the youth rather than instruct by loading them down with knowledge more or less useful.

Beginning with January 1, 1928, the ministry of instruction and public health became the ministry of national education, and the Minister of National Education in his message to the Congress of 1934, wrote:[3]

> It is necessary to have from the Congress through a constitutional reform, or from the Executive by means of provisions that the President of the Republic may dictate for the regulation of instruction, a function the fundamental charter gives him, it is necessary, I say, to establish absolute nationalization of primary education. In the form in which it is established today, when this mission is performed separately by the Nation, the departments and the municipalities, it is impossible to devise a plan and a general course for solution of the problem because the disintegrated activities and efforts do not bring results equal to those of united action. We should adopt a division of the country into educational zones or territories with their respective inspectors, men of the highest capacity. The limits of these zones ought not to fall within the present territorial divisions, which necessarily have an administrative character and consequently political, things that weaken the work of education.

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[2] Bureau International d'Education. Annuaire international de l'education et de l'enseignement, 1936. Genève, Bureau International d'Education, 1936. P. 151.

[3] Republica de Colombia. Memoria del Ministerio de Educacion Nacional al Congreso de 1934. Tomo I. Bogota, Imprenta Nacional, 1934. P. XIX.

The Chilean Educational Mission that made a survey of the education system of Costa Rica in 1935 recommended further national direction and support of education, especially preschool, primary, and teacher-training, and advised the creation of a general direction of primary education within the Secretariat of Public Education. But it urged strongly against political influence in the schools and advised that the central office for education be largely autonomous. It wrote in part:[4]

> Excessive officialism in public education has been at times prejudicial to its development. Experience teaches us that it should have relative independence to the end that it may develop free from political and partisan pressure. "Without what we call 'knights-errant'," says Wells, "scientific progress would not have begun in Greece nor been renewed in Europe. The universities had some part but not the directive voice in the philosophic and scientific thinking of those times. Maintained public education is timid and conservative, lacking in initiative, and resistant to all innovation."
>
> While this seems an exaggeration, there is some reason in it. One need only note the new education movement to see that the primary schools of this type were private schools, and that the movement for educational renovation was sustained by the primary teaching staffs in many countries in an open struggle against imperious officialism.
>
> To assure the efficiency of the educational function of the State, it is necessary that the service of primary education be directed by a *central office* supplied with the necessary instruments for maintaining unity and stability and the indispensable technical knowledge, and having power to exclude from its work the influence of politics.
>
> Autonomy, decentralization, and technical knowledge we consider the basic principles for organization of the directive offices.

The movements toward greater National control of education in Brazil and Mexico are noted on pages 80–83, 85–87.

*Reduction of illiteracy.*—Bolivia, Ecuador, Guatemala, Mexico, El Salvador, and Peru have populations that are mainly indigenous and ancient native civilizations that seem to be coming into a renaissance. Most of the other countries have a fair percent of native peoples. For a long, long time not much was done to include these indigenous folk in the body politic of their respective countries.

The attitude in that respect has changed much in recent years. Special attention is being given to the education of indigenous groups, a process that involves making better provision for schools in rural areas. By a decree issued in 1927, the Indians in Peru were freed from a peonage system that had existed in some parts of the country. In 1930, the Government set aside June 24 of each year as a national holiday known as the "Day of the Indigene" to be celebrated appropriately. The authorities have for some years been making special efforts to provide the Indians with a satisfactory kind of education

[4] Misión Educacional Chilena en Costa Rica 1935. Informes y Trabajos. Vol. I. San José, Juan Arias, impresor. 1935. P. 96.

and enough of it, and to that end have established independent rural normal schools and rural normal sections in some of the public secondary schools with a view to training rural school teachers. Ambulant schools were tried but were not successful.

The provisional President of Ecuador on April 3, 1935, signed a decree creating a National Pedagogical Mission to consist of a technical director, school engineer, school physician, school agronomist, visitor, chief of personnel, secretary, and such other staff members as the President may deem necessary. Among other duties, this Mission was to organize an experimental school in each Province to serve as a model for other schools, and to set up one or more experimental schools specializing in indigenous culture. No reports are available as to the progress that has been made in carrying out this plan.

School gardens, somewhat similar to those in the United States prior to American entrance to the World War, have been developed in the Dominican Republic and have met with much success.

Chile reports that in 1933, 8 school farms and 186 new rural schools were created to give, along with general education, an instruction suited to the needs of the people in the different areas.

These are examples of the attempts that are being made generally throughout Latin America to do more for the rural areas, to narrow the wide chasm between the cultured ruling few and the groups that have been underprivileged for so many generations, to look less to Europe and North America and more to building their own distinctive cultures and incorporate in them the best of the remains of the ancient Indian cultures. Naturally such movements will bring a reduction in illiteracy, and more general literacy will in its turn further these movements.

The Chilean Government claims that between 1920 and 1933, the percent of illiteracy was reduced from 38.6 to 25.2. The National Conference on Illiteracy, held in Argentina, in 1934 is described later. (See page 76.) Many school buildings have been erected in the rural sections of the Dominican Republic in the hope that through better attendance of the children, and adult classes, illiteracy may be much reduced. The "cultural missions" of Mexico, one of the most original contributions made to education in the past quarter of a century have aided materially in the advances toward literacy in that country. In Brazil the burden of having a high percent of the population illiterate is being more and more appreciated and both public and private organizations are striving to lighten it.

*The "activity school."*—The "escuela activa," at least in principle, if one is to judge by the writings of the professional educators, has taken a strong hold in the South and Central American countries. All those movements connected with the somewhat vague term "progressive education" are much discussed. Dewey, Decroly, Claparede-

and others of the new education group are widely quoted. This seems natural. Literary education, education from books has made comparatively little progress in the many decades that it has been tried. The genius of the native peoples did not lie in that direction. Their modes of expression and manners of living had developed in them manual and practical skills of an extremely high order and it is to the training and use of these that Latin American educators in the past decade or more have turned. The principles of the escuela activa fitted in well with their plans and were adopted.

Along with that came the spirit of educational research, the desire to find by experiment and study the types of education best suited to the children and most apt to further the growth of these countries. In Chile a bureau of psycho-pedagogic research was set up in 1933. A year later the Peruvian Government created a bureau to make researches in the special aptitudes of Peruvian children in order to determine the kind of instruction most useful for them. A psychopedagogic laboratory was opened in Uruguay in 1933 and some experimental schools were arranged in which to try the Decroly methods.

The Institute of Psychotechnics and Vocational Guidance connected with the Ministry of Justice and Public Instruction in Argentina carried on important work around the years 1927 to 1930 but was closed during the depression for reasons of economy. A National Institute of Pedagogy was created in Brazil in January 1937 when the Ministry of Education and Public Health was reorganized. The Institute of Educational Research at Rio de Janeiro, a part of the Department of Education of the Federal District of Brazil, was recently reopened.

The National Institute of Psychopedagogy, set up as part of the Secretariat of Public Education of Mexico, will deal with—

> . . . exact knowledge of the characteristics of the Mexican child, his classification, the special education that the mentally defective require, the physical recuperation of undernourished pupils, education of physical defectives, vocational guidance, mental integrality of the pupils; and the organization, methods, programs, hours, etc., in the schools.[8]

The Institute will have seven services: Psychophysiology, child study, psychometrics, child study and organization, vocational guidance, special education, and a mental hygiene and conduct clinic.

*Technical and vocational education.*—The interest in rural education, the obviousness that the literary school was not in itself suited to many of the people, the necessity for raising the earning capacity of as many of the students as soon as possible, all stimulated the movement toward better provision for technical and vocational train-

[8] Secretaria de Educacion Publica. Instituto Nacional de Psicopedagogia. Mexico, D. F., Talleres Graficos de la Nacion, 1936. 92 pp.

ing. In 1925 the School of Arts and Crafts and College of Engineers, named for Jose Miguel Carrera (Escuela de Artes y Oficios y Colegio de Ingenieros "Jose Miguel Carrera") at Valparaiso, Chile, was founded by the Frederico Santa Maria Foundation. It is to consist of a school for apprentices and evening courses; a higher preparatory school, and preparatory and voluntary courses; an elementary and a higher technical school; a vocational school for overseers, and a higher college for engineers. These were to be devolped in the order named from 1932 to 1937, when the first year of the 3-year curriculum of the Higher College for Engineers will be completed. Years II and III will be added in 1938. This school has developed as planned and its example has had considerable effect on technical education not only in Chile but in neighboring countries.

The Salesian School of Arts and Crafts was created in the Dominican Republic in January of 1935 to supplement the vocational schools then existing. It gives instruction in carpentry, shoe making, and tailoring. The Government contributed the land and 30,000 pesos toward construction of the building, and allows a monthly subvention.

The National School of Arts and Crafts of Haiti was founded in October 1936. It offers courses in woodworking, cabinetmaking, and shoemaking.

The State of São Paulo, Brazil, is one of the better developed areas in Latin America with respect to vocational education. Its first two public schools of this kind were founded in 1911. Then followed 1 in 1913; 1 in 1919; 1 in 1924; 1 in 1925; 2 in 1927; 1 in 1929; 1 in 1931; 2 in 1933; 10 in 1934; and 3 in 1935. Note that of the 25 for which dates of founding are given, 19 began operations during and since 1927. On June 30, 1935, there were 28 such schools with a teaching staff of 674 and an enrollment of 9,045.

The State director general of instruction had charge of vocational education to 1925; then a special inspection of manual work was created. A technical assistance for vocational education was established in 1930; 3 years later because of the growth in interest in this type of training, a direction of the service of general and secondary education was created. Finally in 1934 a superintendence of vocational and domestic education was established by decree.

This very sketchy outline of progress made in one State, while not exactly typical, is still strongly indicative of the growth of vocational training and increasing interest in it throughout Latin America.

The Minister of National Education of Colombia writes:[6]

> In an agricultural country such as ours, the immense majority of the children go from the school to the fields, from the alphabet to the plough,

[6] Bulletin International de l'Enseignement Technique, Juillet 1937, p. 25.

from the slate to the pickaxe. He has succeeded after four years in reading large letters, in writing some phrases, in reciting in a nasal and hurried voice some history that he will never repeat, and in counting with the aid of his fingers some numbers not above three digits.

* * * * * * *

With such instruction, it is inhuman to send the child to the country, to his economic activity, to his solitary struggle with life.

It is indispensable to complete the rudiments of instruction by placing him in a school where he is taught practical things, where there are solved for him a short list of problems which present difficulties in the calm and productive exercise of his rural or artisan vocation. A school where he learns how to make a table, a tabouret and a bed, things that he has never seen in his cabin; where he is rendered capable of building the storage places needed for the products of his land, the shoes to protect his feet, the clothing to cover him and give him social dignity; where he is given ideas of the forge and ways of repairing his old or broken iron wares; where, finally, he is taught some principles, very general and very simple, of agrarian and industrial economy.

That word picture of what is necessary in large rural areas of Latin America is very expressive. Colombia is trying to meet the situation in part through what it calls complementary schools. It now has 242 of them.

*Education of women.*—"Certainly there were always, in the course of the centuries, some remarkable women who distinguished themselves by aspiring to an intellectual culture higher than that of their epoch but up to the second half of the nineteenth century public and systematic higher education for women was neglected by all the countries of Europe," writes Amelie Arato.[7] If that is true of Europe, it is equally true of Latin America, not only in university education but in secondary instruction as well, and perhaps even on primary levels. In the statistics of education for Argentina (see page 78) it is shown that in 1926 out of 15,111 students in national colegios, only 2,305, or 15.2 percent, were girls. And Argentina was probably more advanced than its neighbor countries in this respect. The situation improved considerably in the decade. In 1936, of 23,645 students, 4,865, or 20.5 percent, were girls. In the same period, the proportion of women in the student body of the universities rose from 8.4 to 10.6 percent. (See page 79.) Seemingly, the attitude toward increasing educational opportunities for women is becoming more favorable in Argentina.

But that coeducation and equal educational opportunities for women will come slowly in Central and South America is fairly well shown by the attitude in Mexico where in spite of the socialist regime, the head of the department of secondary education in the Secretariat of Public Education recommended in 1936 in his *Bases of the So-*

[7] Arató, Amélie. L'enseignement secondaire des jeunes filles en Europe. Bruxelles, Office de Publicité, 1934. 312 p.

*cialist Secondary School* that coeducation should not be abruptly introduced in the secondary schools, unless to students who have had some previous experience in it. Since the number of schools for girls is markedly less than that for boys, if coeducation advances slowly, education opportunities for girls will move tardily.

*Argentina.*—Argentina is second in area (1,079,965 square miles) and third in population (12,230,000) of the Latin American republics. The people are almost wholly of European descent; caring for indigenous groups plays a minor part in the education scheme.

Each of the 14 Provinces has, in accordance with the national constitution, built up its own system of primary schools, but since 1904 the Federal Government has aided the Provinces by establishing national primary schools in any Province whose government requested it. The National Council of Education (Consejo Nacional de Educación), a department of the National Ministry of Justice and Public Instruction, has strong control of the primary schools in the city of Buenos Aires, and in the 10 territories,[8] and of the national primary schools in the Provinces.

The Ministry of Justice and Education through its other departments controls virtually all secondary, normal, industrial, commercial, and fine arts training, and the primary schools which are attached to the normal schools. Private schools are allowed and are granted considerable freedom though they are subject to inspection and if the pupils wish to obtain the official diplomas, the instruction must necessarily conform rather closely to the official courses of study.

Progress in education during the decade was orthodox and orderly. The schools were influenced by no drastic political or social revolution. A representative of the National Government reported for the year 1933 [9] the following special activities: (1) A meeting of teachers of Spanish and of Argentine history and geography was held to study the programs and methods of teaching those subjects with a view to having them better correlated and to stress training the children in National pride and in appreciation of their country; (2) a commission appointed by the Inspector General gave much study to the character, extent, and aims of secondary education; (3) new normal schools of regional adaptation were created to prepare teachers to give a kind of instruction suited to the region in which they were located, and some of the higher primary schools were changed to schools of rural orientation; (4) to meet the demands of Argentine women that training for professions other than teaching be opened

[8] These territories that have not attained the status of Provinces are: La Pampa, Misiones, Chaco, Rio Negro, Chubut, Neuquén, Formosa, Santa Cruz, Los Andes, and Tierra del Fuego. They have a combined area of 466,885 square miles and a population of 640,400.

[9] Bureau International d'Éducation. Annuaire international de l'éducation et de l'enseignement 1935. Genève, Bureau International d'Éducation, 1935. 446 p.

to them, secondary schools for girls were created at Buenos Aires, Cordoba, and Rosario; (5) the Higher Normal School at Parana was reformed and on it as a basis a National Institute for Secondary Teachers was founded with the "José Maria Torres" Normal School annexed to it; and (6) special attempts were made to reduce illiteracy.

*Conference on illiteracy.*—In connection with this last item, a National Conference on Illiteracy composed of representatives from all the Provinces and Territories and the National Council of Education, was held at Buenos Aires, beginning October 29, 1934, to consider seven different aspects of illiteracy and means for its eradication:

1. Factors which determine the percent of illiteracy in Argentina; plan for combatting illiteracy; action by the State, and the stimulation of private action.
2. Obligatory schooling; methods for enforcing the laws, as well as school attendance, up to a minimum of instruction.
3. Uniformity in the obligatory school age and correlation of plans of study for primary instruction.
4. Desertion from school; its economic, regional, and pedagogical causes.
5. Illiteracy among adults; its economic, regional, and accidental causes; methods of combatting it.
6. Economic and financial questions related to illiteracy; coordination of the work of the Nation and of the Provinces.
7. Necessity of organizing a system of statistical data that will show periodically the amount of illiteracy.

Seven committees, one for each aspect, presented their respective recommendations to the conference. They were many and cannot be reproduced here. They may be found in the printed proceedings of the conference.[10] It is of special importance that the members planned a long-term program for the eradication of illiteracy, including national conferences to be held every 5 years and a permanent commission for the study of illiteracy. The commission was constituted in 1935.

*Survey of secondary education.*—The commission appointed to inquire into secondary education considered, at the request of the Ministry of Public Instruction: An increase in the number of years devoted to secondary studies; close cooperation between the different directions of secondary instruction, for the purpose of cultural unification; founding secondary studies on a general structure based on two cycles, the one to be lower, common and cultural, the other to be higher with cultural intensification for the baccalaureate, and with

[10] República Argentina Ministerio de Justicia e Instrucción Pública. Primera Conferencia Nacional sobre Analfabetismo reunida en Buenos Aires en octubre y noviembre de 1934—Antecedentes, actas, y conclusiones. Buenos Aires, Talleres Gráficos de la Penitenciaría Nacional, 1935. 436 p.

vocational-technical specialization in teacher-training, commerce, and industry; and the necessity for promoting studies relating to the Nation and of orienting the education of the youth who are trained in institutions of secondary instruction, toward an increased spirit of nationalism.

The report was published in 1934.[11] It is properly included among the important surveys of the decade. The commission submitted plans of study for the lower cycle, the National colegios, and the normal, commercial, and industrial schools. The different subjects and their place and value in the curriculum are discussed at some length. The program proposed for the lower, common, cultural cycle of 4 years (based on 7 years of primary schooling) is of special interest.

TABLE 18.—PROPOSED PLAN FOR THE LOWER CYCLE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

| Subjects of study | Number of hours a week by year | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | I | II | III | IV |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| A. Linguistic-literary culture: | | | | |
| Spanish (language, grammar, literature) | 5 | 5 | 4 | 3 |
| French or English | 4 | 4 | 3 | 3 |
| B. Historical-social sciences: | | | | |
| History: (1) Ancient; (2) medieval and modern with corresponding American; (3) contemporary and American; (4) Argentinian from 1810 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Civics and elements of law | ---- | ---- | ---- | 3 |
| Geography: (1) Elements of astronomical and physical geography, Asia with its islands, and Africa; (2) Europe and Oceania; (3) America, not including Argentina except for physical features; (4) Argentina, especially the human and economic aspects | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| C. Mathematical sciences: | | | | |
| Mathematics: (1) Arithmetic and plane geometry; (2) arithmetic and plane geometry; (3) arithmetic, algebra, and solid geometry; (4) arithmetic, algebra, and plane trigonometry | 6 | 6 | 3 | 4 |
| D. Physico-natural sciences: | | | | |
| Biological sciences: (2) Botany; (3) zoology, anatomy, and general physiology; (4) human anatomy, physiology, and hygiene | ---- | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Chemistry | ---- | ---- | 2 | 2 |
| Physics | ---- | ---- | 3 | 3 |
| E. Esthetic culture, expression, etc.: | | | | |
| Music | ---- | 2 | 2 | 1 |
| Drawing | ---- | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Penmanship | ---- | 2 | ---- | ---- |
| F. Practical training: | | | | |
| (Varied according to the region or the school) | 3 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| G. Physical culture. | | | | |
| Total | 24 | 32 | 31 | 33 |

How far the various recommendations made by the commission have been incorporated in the actual school system is not yet determined.

[11] Ministerio de Justicia e Instrucción Pública. Proyecto de reformas a los planes de estudio de la enseñanza media. Buenos Aires, Talleres Gráficos de la Penitenciaría Nacional, 1934. 349 pp.

*Statistics.*—For the International Exposition of Paris, the Ministry of Justice and Public Instruction prepared and published a statistical survey of education in Argentina [12] showing its progress in the decade from 1926 to 1936. The data are well organized and are graphically illustrated. The progress of education, both public and private, insofar as statistics can express it, is shown somewhat better than for most other countries. Four summaries excerpted from the survey are presented.

The first of these is given in the table following. That section of the table headed "Primary" relates to schools maintained and controlled by the Provincial education authorities or the National Council of Education at Buenos Aires. All the other institutions beginning with "Secondary" are controlled by the Ministry of Justice and Public Instruction.

TABLE 19.—STATISTICS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION IN ARGENTINA, 1926 AND 1936

| Kind of institution | Schools | | Teachers | | Students | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1926 | 1936 | 1926 | 1936 | 1926 | 1936 |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Primary: | | | | | | |
| Federal Capital | 875 | 897 | 11,156 | 14,017 | 287,556 | 341,104 |
| Provinces | 8,801 | 10,064 | 31,208 | 42,959 | 931,685 | 1,253,341 |
| Territories | 869 | 1,317 | 2,703 | 4,912 | 75,885 | 130,169 |
| Total | 10,545 | 12,278 | 45,067 | 61,888 | 1,295,126 | 1,724,614 |
| Secondary: | | | | | | |
| National colegios | 44 | 62 | 1,972 | 3,045 | 15,111 | 23,645 |
| Normal Schools | 84 | 89 | | | | |
| Normal course | | | 2,115 | 2,438 | 13,997 | 19,856 |
| Application course | | | 1,246 | 1,263 | 29,867 | 34,553 |
| Attached kindergartens | [1] 14 | [1] 16 | 52 | 59 | 1,362 | 1,282 |
| Special Institutes | 8 | 11 | 254 | 341 | 3,497 | 4,602 |
| Industrial and Arts and Crafts Schools | 44 | 56 | 472 | 799 | 3,553 | 7,058 |
| Commercial Schools | 12 | 19 | 403 | 1,043 | 3,151 | 6,874 |
| Vocational Schools for Girls | 20 | 21 | 315 | 446 | 5,336 | 7,480 |
| **Total** | **212** | **288** | **6,829** | **9,434** | [2] 75,874 | [3] 105,350 |

[1] These kindergartens are counted as part of, not separate from, the normal schools to which they are attached. For that reason they are not included in the totals of number of schools.
[2] Of which 42,776 are women.
[3] Of which 56,579 are women. The preponderance of women students is due to the fact that women students are overwhelmingly in the majority in the normal schools. The national colegios are attended mainly by men; the women numbered 2,305 or 15.2 percent in 1926 and 4,865 or 20.5 percent in 1936.

The amount that private effort, mainly sectarian, contributes toward training young people in Argentina, is indicated by the data in the next table.

[12] Ministerio de Justicia e Instruccion Publica de la Republica Argentina en la Exposicion Internacional de Paris del Ano 1937. Buenos Aires, Telleres Graficos de la Penitenciaria Nacional, 1937. 41 pp.

TABLE 20.—STATISTICS OF PRIVATE EDUCATION IN ARGENTINA, 1926 AND 1936

| Kind of instruction | Schools | | Teachers | | Students | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | 1926 | | 1936 | |
| | 1926 | 1936 | 1926 | 1936 | Men | Women | Men | Women |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| Secondary | 64 | 178 | 741 | 2,176 | 4,839 | 139 | 10,733 | 2,474 |
| Normal | 37 | 35 | 609 | 667 | 152 | 3,493 | 313 | 6,517 |
| Commercial | 5 | 74 | 68 | 616 | 266 | ..... | 1,032 | 1,312 |
| Vocational | 1 | 20 | 15 | 125 | ..... | 49 | ..... | 765 |
| Industrial | ..... | 8 | ..... | 102 | ..... | ..... | 889 | ..... |
| Fine Arts | 1 | 1 | 6 | 3 | 9 | 21 | 4 | 5 |
| **Total** | **108** | **316** | **1,439** | **3,689** | **5,266** | **3,702** | **12,971** | **11,073** |

There are 5 universities to which are annexed 21 institutions. These universities draw their support mainly from public funds and are in a considerable degree autonomous, with sentiment favoring even greater freedom in their action.

TABLE 21.—STATISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN ARGENTINA, 1926 AND 1936

| University | Professors | | Students | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Men | | Women | | Total | |
| | 1926 | 1936 | 1926 | 1936 | 1926 | 1936 | 1926 | 1936 |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| Buenos Aires | 552 | 790 | 8,629 | 9,781 | 597 | 1,283 | 9,226 | 11,064 |
| La Plata | 223 | 316 | 1,385 | 5,488 | 245 | 539 | 1,630 | 6,027 |
| Litoral | 262 | 143 | 2,148 | 4,598 | 340 | 491 | 2,488 | 5,089 |
| Cordoba | 159 | 216 | 2,290 | 2,801 | 138 | 379 | 2,428 | 3,180 |
| Tucuman | 17 | 25 | 51 | 331 | 20 | 52 | 71 | 383 |
| **Total** | **1,213** | **1,490** | **14,503** | **22,999** | **1,340** | **2,744** | **15,843** | **25,743** |

The University of Buenos Aires has 2 institutions annexed to it; La Plata has 7; Litoral, 5; Cordoba, 2; and Tucuman, 5. These are national *colegios*, secondary schools for girls, higher schools of commerce, schools of agriculture, and institutions of like nature. Not all of the instruction is on university levels. They enroll a considerable number of students as shown in table 22.

TABLE 22.—STATISTICS OF TEACHERS AND STUDENTS IN INSTITUTIONS ANNEXED TO THE UNIVERSITIES, 1926 AND 1936

| University | Teachers | | Students | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Men | | Women | | Total | |
| | 1926 | 1936 | 1926 | 1936 | 1926 | 1936 | 1926 | 1936 |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| Buenos Aires | 301 | 350 | 2,993 | 2,811 | ..... | ..... | 2,993 | 2,811 |
| La Plata | 151 | 228 | 1,097 | 1,850 | 354 | 568 | 1,451 | 2,418 |
| Litoral | 195 | 229 | 1,426 | 4,252 | 310 | 1,035 | 1,736 | 5,287 |
| Cordoba | 58 | 91 | 673 | 837 | ..... | ..... | 673 | 837 |
| Tucuman | 68 | 81 | 377 | 425 | 266 | 430 | 643 | 855 |
| **Total** | **773** | **979** | **6,566** | **10,175** | **930** | **2,033** | **7,496** | **12,208** |

*Summary.*—The total of students, 1,403,307, for 1926 was almost 14 (13.9) percent of the population, then estimated to be 10,030,000, The increase in 10 years of 478,652 students raised the percentage to 15.4 of the 12,230,000 inhabitants of Argentina in 1936. Either percentage is, in terms of provision for education throughout the world, rather high and compares favorably with the smaller, more self-contained and relatively homogeneous nations of western Europe. None of the elements of a complete system of education is lacking but some of them such as preparation for taking training in the professions, and training in the professions themselves seem to be developed to a greater extent and higher degree than others.

*Brazil.*—Brazil is largest in area and greatest in population of the Latin American nations. With 3,275,510 square miles of territory and about 45½ millions of people, it includes more than 40 percent of the area and nearly 40 percent of the population of Latin America. The Union is made up of 20 States, 1 Territory, and the Federal District at Rio de Janeiro. The largest States in point of population are: Minas Geraes, 5,888,000; São Paulo, 4,592,000; Bahia, 3,335,000; Rio Grande do Sul, 2,183,000; Pernambuco, 2,155,000; Rio de Janeiro, 1,559,000; Ceara, 1,319,000; the Federal District, 1,158,000. They lie along or near the east coast and account for about one-half the population.

The First Republic came to an end in October 1930 when a military uprising forced the resignation of the President. A provisional government functioned until July 16, 1934, when the Second Republic was inaugurated and a new constitution adopted. Among other clauses relating to education, the constitution provides that—

**ART. 149. It devolves upon the Union:**

**(a) To draft a comprehensive plan of national education including all degrees and branches of instruction, general and specialized, and to coordinate and supervise the execution of this plan in all parts of the country.**

(*b*) To look toward ultimate free tuition in secondary and preparatory schools and in institutions of higher learning, exercising over them the necessary supervision.

(*c*) To organize and maintain in all sections of the country systems of education adapted to the particular needs.

(*d*) To maintain in the Federal District secondary schools, institutions of higher learning, and universities.

(*e*) To supply or supplement educational activity, wherever necessary because of lack of initiative or funds and to stimulate educational work in the whole country by means of studies, investigations, demonstrations, and subsidies.

*Provided:* The national plan of education according to the Federal Law, in the terms of art. 5 in XIV, and 39 in 8, letters *a* and *e*, can only be reestablished for definite periods and will conform to the following norms:

(*a*) Free and compulsory primary instruction, including adults.

(*b*) Work toward free education above the primary level in order to make it more accessible.

(*c*) Freedom in teaching all branches and at all levels, according to prescribed legislation, both Federal and State.

(*d*) In private schools the teaching of all subjects, except foreign languages, in the language of the country.

(*e*) Admission limited to the teaching capacity of the school and selection by means of intelligence tests, or by objective processes suited to the purpose of the course.

(*f*) Recognition of private schools only when they assure their teachers of security and worthy remuneration during acceptable service.

Further, the Union and the municipalities are to apply to the maintenance and development of education never less than 10 percent of the income from taxes, and for rural education the Union will set aside at least 20 percent of the funds appropriated for education in the annual budgets.

The division of educational authority and responsibility between the States and the National Government from 1925 to 1930 was generally that the States provided elementary education and any other type that they might wish. The National Government through its National Department of Education—not a department in the meaning of the word in the United States but a branch or bureau of the Ministry of Justice and the Interior, established in 1925—was charged with administering secondary and higher education, and supervising the grant-in-aid that was made by the National Government to the States for the maintenance of rural schools provided certain conditions as to teacher qualifications, courses of study, and State support of education were met.

In November 1930, shortly after the success of the revolution, a National Ministry of Education and Public Health was established. This was not so much the beginning of new Federal activities as it was the centralization of efforts already existing. The education part of the Ministry includes the former Department of Education, the University of Rio de Janeiro, the superintendence of commercial edu-

cation, the inspectorate of technical vocational education, and a number of allied cultural institutions such as the two national museums, National observatory, and National library. A National Council of Education was set up by law to serve as an advisory body to national and State authorities, prepare a plan of education and in general encourage and stimulate efforts toward education and culture. Education in Brazil is to continue apparently to be decentralized with each State and the Federal district having its own school system, the Ministry dealing mainly with secondary and higher instruction, and certain special aspects, and acting as a central agency for gathering and supplying information.

To aid the National Council in its work, the Ministry prepared a questionary on a national plan of education,[13] and under date of January 16, 1936, sent it to teachers, students, journalists, writers, scientists, ministers of the gospel, military men, politicians, professional men—"all those convinced that education is a primary, essential, and basic problem of the Nation and because of that wish it oriented more firmly and given a better organization." This plan of seeking advice on education from the people throughout a large republic is so unusual that some indication of the nature of the questionary seems pertinent.

It consists of 213 paragraphs or articles, each of which is one or more questions arranged under 12 general headings or titles that are divided into chapters. Title I is the introduction, and under it chapter I deals with the definition, comprehensiveness, and duration of the national plan of education. The questions are:

1. How should the national plan of education be defined? What ought it to comprehend? Should it be limited solely to school activities or extend to all the extra-school activities of an educative influence?

2. What should be understood as education to be given by the family?

3. Within what limits ought education to be supplied by public authorities?

4. Understood as a code of directions for national education, what limit ought the national plan of education to have?

5. What periodic duration should the national plan of education have? Is it advisedly a duration of 10 years, time enough for its full application and verification of all its results?

A few other questions are:

29. What ought to be taught in the primary school?

35. What is secondary education? What limits should it have?

36. Should there be more than one type of secondary curriculum? If yes, what type? What the objective of each?

109. What should be included in the educational system of the Union? Should the Union maintain and direct only the services of education that

[13] Ministerio da Educação e Saude Publica. Plano Nacional de Educação. Questionario para um Inquerito. Rio de Janeiro, Imprensa Nacional, 1936. 42 pp.

are of special national significance? Or should it also maintain and direct educational services intended to satisfy local necessities?

123. In what conditions ought private education in any grades and branches be permitted in Brazil?

126. What special conditions should be established in order that private schools maintained or directed by foreigners may function? Where would they be?

177. What is religious instruction? What are its limits? How should the problem of religious instruction in Brazil be considered?

186. Who should maintain primary and preprimary instruction? Only the States? Should the Municipalities organize and direct primary and preprimary schools or merely collaborate with the States in their organization and direction? What resources should be set apart for the maintenance of various types of primary and preprimary schools?

187. Who should maintain secondary instruction? What resources should be set apart for its maintenance?

190. Who should maintain higher instruction? What resources should be set apart for it?

These are old questions, as old as education itself. How the people of Brazil answer them, not in the questionnaire, but in actual practice, will determine the course of human training in that country.

The Federal District and four or five of the more populous and wealthier States have made considerable progress and their example is being followed as well as may be by the other States.

In the Federal District, marked progress has been shown in the provision of 30 new school buildings for 30,000 pupils, the establishment in 1933 of an Institute of Educational Research, abolition of intermediate schools in 1931, creation in 1933 of a system of continuation and extension courses, the revision in 1931 of the curriculum for secondary schools, better arrangements for teacher training, and the founding of the University of the Federal District.

*The Brazilian attitude.*—Apparently the Brazilian authorities feel that their State and Federal systems of education are neither adequate nor well organized. The various steps that have been taken to bring about greater participation on the part of the Federal government are mainly motivated by a desire to have better unity in education in Brazil and more nearly equal educational opportunities in all areas of the country. No significant trend toward using the schools to further a special political belief has appeared. The approach toward a National educational system is being made slowly and for that very reason should eventually be successful.

*Mexico.*—A vast amount of arrears to make up, broadly describes the education situation in Mexico around 1927. After the revolution of 1917 the betterment of the Mexican people through education was earnestly undertaken. The situation at the close of the first decade under the new constitution is so well outlined by a former under-

secretary of public instruction [14] that pertinent excerpts from it are quoted.

> In a country laboring under the weight of a 65 percent illiteracy, heterogeneous from an ethnical as well as from a physical point of view, divided by a thousand spiritual barriers and by as many material obstacles, with valuable traditional cultures repressed and foreign conceptions imposed; in a country with these conditions everything is a problem, which might simply be stated thus: How to make a nation out of the ethnical and cultural conglomerate.
>
> * * * * * * *
>
> There are in 1927 only 13,117 public schools all told, and about half of the children without a school to go to. True, the governments of the revolution have hastily tried to correct this situation, but the 5,000 rural schools that the Federal Government will have established by the close of 1928 will have to be multiplied manifold before the minimum educational need of the country is met. The growth will have to be not only horizontal but vertical.
>
> * * * * * * *
>
> State governments are spending 34 percent of their budgets on education; the Federal Government devotes 7.37 per cent. . . . . and yet the national educational program for Mexico, even conceived in its smallest terms, demands amounts of money many times greater than what is being spent.
>
> * * * * * * *
>
> The movement designated by the name "school of action" is the most important in the country at the present time. . . . We are suffering from *normalism*.
>
> * * * * * * *
>
> We have to do in a generation what should have been done centuries ago, and we have to do it, thus, in the greatest hurry, because our nationality is in danger of being overcome from the outside. There exists in Mexico a traditional culture which educators should not and cannot ignore. In past times our country was the site of admirable and noble civilizations. They came to naught, but they have left perforce a sediment of culture. It would be folly to forget it and a greater folly not to take advantage of it. To preserve the valuable elements of the indigenous cultures and to amalgamate them with the new conceptions and new ways of modern civilizations according to norms acceptable to the Mexican tradition is a task that falls largely on the shoulders of the Mexican educator.
>
> The "Spanishizing" of the Indian, that is, the teaching of the Spanish language to that one-third of the Mexican people who do not understand nor speak our tongue, thus giving them the means of communication with the rest of us, is, along the same order, one of the most important problems we have to solve.
>
> To make the school keep its sympathy and acquire a clear vision of the great contemporary issues now troubling Mexico, those of the land, of the organization of the working class, and of self-government—and to act so that it will also abstain from partisanship and propagandism is another of the essential problems of Mexican education.

[14] Saenz, Moises. Mexico. *In* Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1928.

Again the school faces the great need of bringing about an economic betterment in the country and raising the standards of living of the people. Mexican education is now learning that it has to become eminently vocational. This obligation is imposed upon us for three different considerations: Because our education was before verbal and theoretical and it must now become real and practical; because our people have an evident genius for working with their hands; and, lastly, because they have gone hungry for centuries, and they must now be taught to produce enough to appease that hunger.

In brief, education in Mexico in 1927 faced the reduction of illiteracy through the provision of many times more schools than were then established; the expenditure of many times more money than was then being spent; using the native cultures as a foundation on which to build a new Mexican civilization; giving the indigenous peoples a common language; making education active and practical rather than literary and theoretical; and keeping it free from partisanship and propagandism.

Education in Mexico is and has been for some years following the European revolutionary pattern. It is being strongly nationalized in the sense that the Federal Secretariat of Education is taking more and more of the control away from the States; private schools are either forbidden or continue only under the closest supervision of the public authorities; schools of nearly all types are coming under the direction of the one secretariat; and education has become an instrument for teaching the political, social, and economic doctrines of the party in power.

The fundamental law as amended in 1934 on which education in Mexico now [September 1937] rests is:

ARTICLE 3. The education which the State imparts will be socialist and, in addition to excluding all religious doctrine, will combat fanaticism and prejudice, and for that purpose the school will organize its instruction and activities in such a way as to permit creating in youth a rational and exact concept of the Universe and of social life.

Only the State—Federation, States, municipalities—will impart primary, secondary, and normal education. It may grant authorizations to private persons and organizations that desire to impart education in any of the above levels, in accord in every case with the following norms:

1. The activities and the instruction in private schools shall be adjusted, without exception, to the precepts in the first paragraph of this article and will be in charge of persons who in the opinion of the State have sufficient professional preparation, suitable morals, and an ideology in accord with these precepts. By virtue of that, religious corporations, ministers of creeds, societies for actions that exclusively or preferentially carry on educational activities, and the associations or societies linked directly or indirectly with the propaganda of a religious creed may not intervene in any way in primary, secondary, or normal schools, nor aid them economically.

2. The forming of plans, programs, and methods of instruction belongs in every case to the State.

3. Private schools may not function without having previously obtained in each case the authorization of the public authority.

4. The State may revoke such authorization at any time. Against that revocation there is no process of recourse nor any judgment.

These same norms will regulate education of any type or grade that may be given to workers or rural dwellers.

Primary education is obligatory, and the State will furnish it free.

The State may withdraw at its discretion at any time recognition of official validity from studies taken in private schools.

The Congress of the Union, for the purpose of unifying and coordinating education throughout the Republic, will expedite the necessary laws intended to distribute the educative social function among the Federation, the States, and the municipalities, to fix the apportionments for this public service, and to determine the punishments applicable to those officials who do not enforce or have not enforced the relative provisions, as well as for all those who violate them.

To about 1932 the Federal Secretariat of Education published an annual *Memoria* and detailed statistics of education. In the past 4 or 5 years no such carefully presented information seems to be available. The *Folletin Estadistico de la Secretaria de Educacion*, Numero 1, 1932, dedicated to the XXI International Congress of Statistics, states that in 1932 there were in the entire country 20,299 schools of all categories taught by 46,841 teachers and enrolling 1,923,453 students of both sexes. Of these schools, 7,838 were maintained by the Federal Government, 8,749 by the States and municipalities, and 3,712 were private. These were distributed as shown in the following table.

TABLE 23.—STATISTICS OF EDUCATION IN MEXICO, 1932

| Kind of school | Schools | Teachers | Enrollment |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Kindergarten | 214 | 867 | 34,047 |
| Primary: | | | |
| Rural | 13,928 | 16,756 | 876,330 |
| Urban | 5,655 | 22,445 | 937,354 |
| Industrial, commercial, and arts and crafts | 235 | 1,996 | 32,765 |
| Secondary and preparatory | 108 | 1,887 | 18,003 |
| Normal | 69 | 1,319 | 8,575 |
| Vocational | 42 | 1,390 | 11,417 |
| Central agricultural and of agriculture | 10 | 100 | 928 |
| Fine arts | 37 | 81 | 4,034 |
| **Total** | **20,298** | **46,841** | **1,923,453** |

The present administration came into power in 1934 and shortly thereafter adopted a 6-year plan to be carried out during the President's 6-year term of office. In that plan, education becomes as indicated by law just quoted, the exclusive right of the State and is to reflect the socialistic doctrine to which the Mexican government adheres. In 1935 the courses of study were changed with that purpose in mind. In the first year of the plan 16 percent of the Federal

budget was appropriated for education, an increase of almost 50 percent over the average annual budget in the previous 5 years. The purpose is to increase the appropriations for education until in 1939 they amount to 20 percent of the total national expenditures.

Since the adoption of the plan, the number of rural schools has been increased by one-fifth; 12 boarding schools for Indians added to 15 previously existing; and 159 schools of the kind maintained by employers for the workers' children added to the 1,980 already in operation. A Revolution School Center was opened in Mexico City. It is to handle 5,000 children in the primary grades and is well equipped with workshops. Six regional peasant schools and two industrial schools for children of the army were established.

To bring greater unity in primary education, the Federal Secretariat of Education has been making agreements with local and state governments in order that the education systems may come under Federal control. A National Council of Higher Education and Scientific Research has been formed. A National Institute of Psychopedagogy has been created within the Secretariat of Public Education.

*The trend.*—Mexico is the first and to date the only Latin American country in which the National Government has deliberately undertaken to use the schools to further the social, economic, and political beliefs of the group now in power. Naturally, the question arises, "Will other Latin American countries in greater or to the same degree, do as Mexico is doing?" At present the indications are that they will not.

## Section VI. International Congresses and Conferences

Nine hundred sixteen international conferences, congresses, and meetings of various kinds were held in the 4 years 1926 to 1929, inclusive. A fair proportion of them dealt directly with education; many others were mainly cultural and educational in their aspects. The assumption is warranted that the number did not diminish greatly, if at all, in the years from 1930 to 1936. A rough survey of the situation makes it evident that a complete account of the international education meetings in the past decade would in itself be an ambitious work. The bases of selection for the gatherings included in this chapter were two. First, that they represent different phases of education: Preschool, public education; special types of training—in this case technical and commercial; teachers' associations; progressive education; and adult education. The second criterion related to the reasonable expectation that similar meetings would be held at stated intervals by an organization interested in that type of education. In other words, series, rather than isolated international meetings were chosen.

### *PRESCHOOL CARE OF THE CHILD*

An International Child Congress was held in Paris, July 27 to August 1, 1931, in connection with the fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the lay school system of France. It was organized by the Association of Teachers of Public Maternal Schools and Infant Classes in France and the French Colonies. Its purpose was to "bring together all those who are interested in questions concerning the child from 2 to 7 years old—during that period of his life, that is, when he ceases to be a baby and is in a certain way born to the collective life without yet being a school child." Thirty-four hundred people were in attendance from 25 countries. The Congress worked in five sections:

**I. General organization of scholastic institutions relating to the education of children from 2 to 7 years old. In what form can collaboration with the families be established?**

**II. The value of and the part played by plant and educational materials in the education of children from 2 to 7.**

**III. How can the process of "globalisation" be applied to the education of such children? What should be the general culture of their teachers?**

**IV. By what means can the child be given a sense of the beautiful? How can his artistic emotion be aroused, confining oneself to music and rhythmic exercises?**

**V. Hygiene and social activity.**

Connected with the Congress were many exhibits from France and other countries; a large number of practical demonstrations with classes; and visits to maternal and open-air schools, and other institutions not so closely related to the work in hand.

### *PUBLIC EDUCATION*

Six international conferences on public instruction were held at Geneva, Switzerland, in the years 1932 to 1937, inclusive, by the International Bureau of Education, with its headquarters in that city. The first two of these meetings were not strictly conferences. The International Bureau was founded in 1925 as a private corporate institution. On July 25, 1929, it was reorganized so that governments in addition to private institutions and international organizations might become members. In 1932 and 1933 the Bureau invited nonmember governments to take part as observers in the annual meetings of its Council held in July. The interest shown was strong enough to warrant calling for July 1934 the Third International Conference on Public Instruction. Thirty-six nations sent official delegates; Cuba, the League of Nations, and the International Labor Office sent observers. Each delegate presented a report on education in his country for the preceding year, and the conference as a whole discussed three topics: Compulsory schooling and the raising of the school leaving age; admission to secondary schools; and economies in the field of public education.

To the Fourth International Conference, 1935, came representatives from 41 nations, and observers from Afghanistan, the League of Nations, International Labor Office, and the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation. The Bureau regularly collects data from as many countries as possible on the questions to be considered at the conference and has it in published form when the meetings are held. The questions for this assemblage to handle were: Professional training of elementary school teachers; professional training of secondary school teachers; and councils of public instruction.

The organization of special schools, organization of rural education, and legislation regulating school buildings were brought before the fifth conference in 1936 and were considered by delegates from 37 nations. The sixth conference, 1937, took up instruction in psychology in the preparation of teachers, the teaching of modern languages, and the inspection of education.[1]

[1] Beginning with 1933, the International Bureau of Education has published yearly an *Annuaire international de l'éducation et de l'enseignement*. It consists mainly of the statements made at the conferences by the delegates, about education in their respective countries during the preceding year.

## TECHNICAL EDUCATION

An International Congress of Technical, Agricultural, and Home Economics Education was held at Charleroi, Belgium, May 16 to 18, 1925.[2] The Province of Hainaut, probably the most industrialized Province in Belgium, aided by the National Ministries of Industry, Economic Affairs, Agriculture, and Sciences and Arts of Belgium and with the cooperation of the Subsecretary of State for Technical Education in France, organized and managed the Congress. Charleroi is the seat of the rather unusual and in many respects famous Université du Travail (University of Labor) and in its buildings most of the sessions were held. The attendance was large. The League of Nations, France, England, Bulgaria, Spain, Luxembourg, Holland, Italy, the Saar, Switzerland, Poland, and Belgium were represented. The discussions were on the general organization of technical and vocational education, recruitment of students, moral aspects of technical education, the home and family of the industrial worker and provision for the educational use of leisure, apprenticeship, vocational guidance, vocational and industrial drawing, commercial education, and vocational agriculture. Speaking at the final plenary session, the general reporter said:

> The points of view that you have expressed are remarkable both for their number and quality, and, an extraordinary thing, no one is infected with either too much precision which would paralyze initiative or too much lack of precision which would provoke error. That is a vertible mission for our schools.
>
> The members of the Congress seem to have taken care to conserve to technical education that great elasticity of programs and of regulations which gives it force and which permits it to progress rapidly without having a confusion of laws, arrêtés, and decrees.

The International Congress of Vocational Technical Education organized by the Province of Liege, Belgium, and held at Liege, August 1 to 5, 1930, was more widely representative. Twenty-four countries had delegates in attendance. They included Bolivia, Brazil, and Uruguay of the Latin American countries; Egypt, Persia, China, Turkey, and the Union of South Africa; and several European countries that had not taken part in the previous Congress. The discussions were more restricted in scope. Vocational guidance and selection; the help of legislation, and of industrial groups and workers, in developing technical education; post-school studies; and the formation of teaching personnel were on the program.

Finally, each country reported on the status of technical education within its boundaries; and the congress considered the creation of an international office of technical education. With respect [illegible] this

[2] Five such congresses had previously been held: Roubaix, 1911; Lyon, 1921; Marseille, 1922; Ghent, 1923; Brussels, 1924.

last question the Congress resolved that it wished to see created in the League of Nations

> . . . a permanent International Office of Technical Education established preferably in the form of an autonomous section of the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation and having connection with the International Bureau of Labor.
>
> The permanent International Office of Technical Education would have for its mission to aid and coordinate the efforts of the Nations to perfect technical education, it would encourage them to expand its benefits by legislation, and would give them the means through the exchange of professors, a coordinated study of sciences applied to special technologies, and study of their instruction and means of instruction, and of vocational organization.
>
> It would aid in raising the general culture of the masses, a real way of bettering the condition of the workers.
>
> The Office would be charged with organizing an annual conference on technical education.

The French Association for the Development of Technical Education organized and held an International Congress of Technical Education in Paris, September 24 to 27, 1931. It was more widely representative than either of the two previously described. Delegates were in attendance from 38 countries, the League of Nations, and the International Bureau of Labor. Out of Latin America came representation from Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Haiti, Panama, Peru, Uruguay—evidence of the growing interest in vocational education in a section of the world where it had not been playing an important role. China, Egypt, Greece, Japan, and Turkey, as well as most of the European countries, participated. The Congress considered seven main questions: Vocational guidance; National collaboration with professional groups, patrons, and workers in the organization of technical education; recruitment and training of teaching personnel; recruitment and training of sales and publicity people; general culture in the technical training of the engineer; the cinema in vocational guidance; the technical press and its relation to technical education.

During the interval between the congress at Liege in 1930 and this one at Paris in 1931, a provisory International Bureau of Technical Education had been opened in Paris and had been operating for some 3 months when the Paris congress was held. The Paris congress took note of the work of this provisory Bureau and in order that its activities be not interrupted assigned the Bureau certain tasks, and in view of the aid offered by the public authorities of France and the Chamber of Commerce of Paris, decided to establish an international bureau in Paris and charge it with organizing the next International Congress of Technical Education at Brussels in 1932.

Accordingly the International Bureau of Technical Education with its headquarters at 2, Place de la Bourse, Paris, came into being in late 1931 or early 1932 and in the latter year organized and held the International Congress of Technical Education at Brussels, September 25 to 29. Twenty-nine nations, the League of Nations, the International Bureau of Labor, and the Institute of Intellectual Cooperation were represented by 1,164 members and 360 reports were presented. This meeting had six sections dealing with: Terminology; vocational guidance; vocational courses for apprentices and nonapprentices and their general culture content; methods for aiding technicians to perfect their general and technical training while working at their callings; the industrial stages in the training of the engineer and his social role; and divers questions such as apprenticeship contracts, courses for the unemployed, etc.

In 1933, the International Bureau began publishing its official organ, *Les Informations du B. I. E. T.*, now the *Bulletin International de l'Enseignement Technique.*

The Bureau called and held the next International Congress of Technical Education at Barcelona, Spain, May 17 to 19, 1934. This Congress also had six questions for consideration: The role of technical education, from an economic point of view, and from a social point of view; vocational guidance; apprenticeship; apprenticeship and unemployment; higher grades of workmen; and various items including the technical press and technical education. As to the first of these questions, the role of technical education, the congress adopted the following resolution:

> Considering the economic and social importance of technical and vocational education, as shown by the facts, it cannot be contested:
>
> That such instruction has nowadays the form of a complete education at once vocational, civic, and humane;
>
> That by the flexibility of its methods, by the extent of its information, by the character both economic and ethical of its purposes, it fits perfectly the necessities of modern life;
>
> That it should thus enter into the plan of development of every civilized nation;
>
> Resolves:
>
> That technical and vocational education should have in the National education of every country, the place that its uncontested importance merits.

The Sixth International Congress of Technical Education called to meet at Rome May 28 to 30, 1936, was postponed until December 28 to 30 of that year. Its sessions were devoted to discussing technical education and economic life; vocational guidance and its continuance; training of workshop personnel; training of women for their special role in economic life; and various topics such as the

technical cinema. The proceedings of the various congresses have been published.[8]

### *COMMERCIAL EDUCATION*

Congresses of commercial education were held at Bordeaux in 1886; Paris, 1889; Bordeaux, 1895; London, 1896; Antwerp, 1898; Venice, 1899; Paris, 1900; Milan, 1906; Vienna, 1910; and Budapest, 1913; but most of the early meetings, excepting that at Antwerp, were quite as much concerned with technical as with commercial education. Not until the meeting at Milan in 1906 did the congress and subsequent congresses devote their attention wholly to commercial education. An International Society for Commercial Education was formed at Zurich, Switzerland, in 1901. It continued to function until 1913, then practically went out of existence, and congresses were no longer held. On September 25, 1926, a meeting was held, again at Zurich, to reconstitute the International Society for Commercial Education. The attempt was successful.

Under the direction of the Society an International Congress of Commercial Education was held at Amsterdam, Holland, September 1 to 6, 1929. The following year, September 8 to 11, 1930, an International Congress of Higher Commercial Education was held at Liege, Belgium. Two hundred members representing 29 nations were present. This congress recommended that (1) all interested countries improve the higher studies in commerce in order to place them on a level with other university studies, notably by extension of the general culture courses and courses of a scientific and juridical tendency, and by a more rigorous selection in the admissions to these schools; (2) aid the movement toward legal recognition of degrees in higher commercial education; (3) set a minimum of study in higher commercial education in the different countries so that the diploma may rank with the academic degrees; and (4) maintain and develop in higher commercial education the study of modern languages oriented in the sense of economic relations among the nations.

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[8] Province de Hainaut. Congrès international de l'enseignement technique, agricole et ménager. Charleroi, 16, 17 et 18 Mai 1925. Two volumes. Charleroi, Imprimerie Provinciale, 1926.

Congrès international de l'enseignement technique professionnel organisé par la Province de Liége sous de Haut Patronage du Gouvernement. Rapports, discussion des rapports, voeux émis. Liége, Imp. A. Larock, 1931.

Congrès international de l'enseignement technique, Paris, 24–27 Septembre 1931. Compte rendu des travaux. Two volumes. Paris, Secretariat, Grand Palais, Avenue Alexandre, III. 1932.

Bureau international de l'enseignement technique. Congrès international de l'enseignement technique, Bruxelles, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29 Septembre 1932. Compte rendu des travaux. Two volumes, Paris, B. I. E. T., 1933.

Bureau international de l'enseignement technique. Congrès international de l'enseignement technique, Barcelone, 17, 18, 19 Mai 1934. Two volumes. Paris, B. I. E. T., 1934.

Congrès International de l'enseignement technique, Rome, 28-29-30 Decembre 1936. Two volumes. Rouen, Imprimerie Wolf. 1936.

The next International Congress, announced as the Fifth Triennial Congress of the International Society for Commercial Education, was held in London July 25 to 29, 1932. That was the nadir of the economic cycle, and the resolutions of the Congress asked that young people after the completion of their theoretical training be enabled to move freely from one country to another for a stay in practical business; pointed out that national well-being depends upon the well-being of the world, and all must take a view in international affairs which sees national interests as reciprocal; and asked that the quality and standard in commercial education be not reduced because of economic difficulties.

The Sixth International Congress was held at Prague, Czechoslovakia, September 1 to 6, 1935. More than 600 members came from 26 different countries. Among the more important of its resolutions were:

> The teacher (of commercial subjects) should be scientifically trained alike from the point of view of economics and of pedagogy and practical work. As regards scientific pedagogical instruction, it is essential to reserve an important place for philosophy (ethics, logic, and psychology).
>
> The teaching at commercial universities should be particularly of a highly scientific character; the professors should, however, remain in continual close contact with the practical side of business. This also applies to teachers in schools of commerce.

### *TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS*

A World Conference on Education was held at San Francisco, Calif., in 1923. It set up a program to be followed that it hoped would secure international cooperation in educational enterprises; foster the spread of information about education in all forms and among all peoples; and cultivate international good will and promote the interests of peace throughout the world. Toward those ends it made 20 recommendations. Among the more important of these were that a World Federation of Education Associations be established; May 18 be designated as "Good Will Day" to be observed in the schools of the world; an international commission on illiteracy be appointed; and international school correspondence be fostered.

Accordingly a World Federation of Education Associations was founded. It has held conferences as follows:

First Biennial Conference, July 20 to 27, 1925, Edinburgh, Scotland.

Second Biennial Conference, August 7 to 13, 1927, Toronto, Canada.

Third Biennial Conference, July 25 to August 4, 1929, Geneva, Switzerland.

Fourth Biennial Conference, July 27 to August 1, 1931, Denver, Colo.

Pacific Regional Conference, July 25 to 30, 1932, Honolulu, Hawaii.

Fifth Biennial Conference, July 29 to August 4, 1933, Dublin, Ireland.

Synchronized conferences of the World Federation of Education Associations, International Federation of Associations of Secondary Teachers, and International Federation of Teachers' Associations, August 10 to 17, 1935, Oxford, England.

Seventh World Conference, August 2 to 7, 1937, Tokyo, Japan.

Because of the breadth of its interest and its strong slant toward education for world peace and better international understanding, the biennial conferences of the World Federation are more comprehensive than those of most other international education organizations. The Oxford meeting is typical. It had sections on adult education, broadcasting, colleges and universities, commercial education, educational crafts, elementary education, geography, health, the Hermann-Jordan peace plan, preparation of teachers, preschool and kindergarten, rural life and rural education, secondary education, social adjustment, teachers' organizations, and visual education. Attendance generally ranges from 1,500 to 2,000 and from 50 to 60 countries are represented. The proceedings of all the conferences except the Seventh have been published. Those of the Seventh should be available soon.

### *THE NEW EDUCATION*

"All manner of men speaking all manner of tongues poured into Elsinore those first Conference days. Finns, Norwegians, and Swedes from the north jostled with Italians, Spaniards, and French from the south; there were Americans, Germans, English, Indians, Chinese, Latvians, Poles, and British from all corners of the Empire. Men and women from forty-three different countries came together to pay homage to the cause of childhood and to pledge themselves anew to carry on the search for truth."

This was written of the Fifth International Conference of the New Education Fellowship held at Elsinore, Denmark, August 8 to 21, 1929. The Fellowship, founded in 1915 to promote progressive education, had held four previous conferences and is continuing to hold them at regular intervals. The topic of the Fifth Conference was the new psychology and the curriculum.

"Education for a Changing Society" was the theme of the sixth conference held at Nice, France, July 29 to August 12, 1932. Over 1,800 members attended from 52 countries.

The conference called at Cape Town and Johannesburg, Union of South Africa, in July of 1934, was regional in designation but international in scope. The general subject was the adaptation of education to meet the rapidly changing needs of society, with special application to South Africa. Over 6,000 persons were in attendance and 3,000 of them were full delegates. It came at a peculiarly suitable time for South Africa. The findings of the Poor Whites Commission had shown the special and difficult situations that education in the Union was facing and the free discussion of a large group of people from many countries could not but be helpful.

The twenty-first annual anniversary of the Fellowship was celebrated by the Seventh World Conference at Cheltenham, England, July 31 to August 14, 1936, and was devoted to the discussion of education and a free society. Most of the talks hinged on two points; how to achieve the free personality, and the relation between the individual and the community. On the first of these, *The New Era*, the English official publication of the Fellowship, commented at the time:

> In planning the sort of education which we hope will ensure the evolution of a free society, we cannot give the children freedom, we can only set up the environment in which they can develop freely. We can but try to remove all those obstacles which obstruct the development of free personality, and plan the school so that it shall give opportunities for practising the type of conduct in which we believe. But having removed as many obstacles as we can and having provided the material for growth, we must leave our children to find their own social philosophy.
>
> They can only build a philosophy of life if we enable them to get the facts.

### *ADULT EDUCATION*

A world Conference on Adult Education was held at Cambridge, England, August 22 to 29, 1929. It was planned and carried out by the World Association for Adult Education, an organization then in its tenth year of life, and was attended by over 400 adult educationists from 46 countries. The general sessions considered the principles and problems of adult education; extensive and intensive adult education; adult education and the industrial worker; the relation of humanistic to technical instruction; and the problems of world cooperation—the function of the World Association.

In the closing address of this Conference, the speaker commented on the World War as follows:

> For 4 years the world stopped thinking, except about war, and the children who were in the world at that time were instantaneously converted into old men.

and went on to say

> The presence in any generation of a third or a half of the whole body of that generation at an age and in a condition when they can be described as having the generosity and the aspiration of youth, is a redemption of any civilization. That we have had to live, in this period of philosophically and intellectually increasing lack of certainty, in a world full of old men and old women, wanting youth, has made the last ten years a very puzzling if not a very menacing thing to the human race.

* * * * * * *

> A great philosopher and friend of mine once defined education as being the prolongation and cultivation of the curiosity of childhood. That seems to me to be a very profound definition, and it suggests that this Adult Education Association seems to be not only the herald of a cultural renaissance, but to be taking this somewhat tired world of ours by the hand and leading it back into the more hopeful attitude of being children once again.

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