

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN, 1919, No. 29

SCHOOLS OF SCANDINAVIA, FINLAND
AND HOLLAND

By

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DIVISION OF FOREIGN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

[Advance Sheets from the Biennial Survey of Education, 1916-1918]



WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1919

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SCHOOLS OF SCANDINAVIA, FINLAND, AND HOLLAND.

By PETER H. PEARSON,

Division of Foreign Educational Systems, Bureau of Education.

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THE WAR IN ITS EFFECTS ON THE SCHOOLS OF SCANDINAVIA.

Though the Scandinavian countries have been spared the ravages of war, there has not been a day during the struggle when the danger of being drawn into it was not imminent. Similarity of geographical location with their full independence similarly endangered has brought about a degree of unity among these countries which would not have been effected readily under other circumstances. Scandinavian working men, leaders of industry, exhibitors, and educators have come together. To them the new outlook created by the events of the autumn of 1918 will bring enlarged opportunities. The accumulated energy of these peoples will be set free to issue in achievements in undisturbed accord with their racial characteristics. The sense of union and enlargement, as one of the results, is particularly significant for the schools. As the world events are reaching a summation in a just and, it is to be hoped, enduring peace, the educators and other leaders of the North are anticipating the part their own countries will be called upon to take both in respect to their individual growth and in rising to a new plane of international ideals.

Their close proximity to the belligerent countries and their active trade relations with these brought on events that upset the economic conditions in Scandinavia, with consequent hardships to the people. Although traffic to foreign ports was made precarious, the tempting prices offered by foreign buyers caused an export of commodities on an unprecedented scale. Before restrictive commercial regulations could be put into effect there was an alarming depletion of food resources. The inevitable result was the immediate rise in the prices of foodstuffs and household necessities.

To help ward off the threatened hardships, teachers and pupils at once offered their personal labor in various productive capacities. Though the measures taken in different countries were generally similar, they assumed in Norway an organized and practical directness worthy of note. In many cities of this country the pupils were organized into classified working groups. Under the leadership of their teachers they held themselves in readiness to respond to calls

for help on the farms. Again, the school gardens and every other available plat of ground were handed over to their management and tilled under the direction of experts, who applied the most efficient methods of intensive farming.

Careful accounts were kept of the expense for seed, the labor, and the yield. Usually each pupil's share of the proceeds was the crop his labor had produced. In order to help in this way, some redistribution of the vacation period was found necessary, which seems to have been made without serious encroachment on the time for the school work.

In a similar way the system of school kitchens was fully utilized for the productive labor of the girl pupils, who were directed in the most efficient management of household economics.

Besides specific lines of work in the immediate charge of the teachers, the pupils' labor was made generally available to employers in the cities. In former years child labor was permitted to an extent that to us would seem to endanger the welfare of the pupils. But it now appears that the authorities are permitting it only under strict registration of the pupils' age, hours, health, and conditions of the work. In Gothenborg, Sweden, there is an effort made to have the teachers of the city cooperate with the employment bureau in placing the labor of pupils. One man teacher and one woman teacher, selected for their interest in the pupils, assist the regular city officials.

Again, with the present needs before them, it was observed that some of the subjects of the curricula were more helpful in the present crisis than others. One effect of the distinctions thus noted was the effort to find more room for the practical kinds of subjects; another was to try to lay greater emphasis on the utilitarian character of others. Teach hygiene, it was urged, not as an academic subject, but as one that promotes health and sanitary living. If the text-book in use does not lead to these ends, choose a book that does.

In connection with these departures from educational traditions a valuable pedagogical principle has been emphasized. Educators are seeking instruction material outside of books and classrooms to an extent that was not practiced before; and they find more of it in direct life and living than was ever before considered in connection with school purposes. In Sweden and Denmark emphasis is laid on making, handling, observing, and producing things; school-trips preceded by mapping the route and followed by putting the notes of the trip into organized form; researches and studies in the home locality and its resources and industrial possibilities.

Measures are taken to make permanent use of the experiences that have come with the new departures. New activities found to have value will be adjusted to the school régime where possible—new in-

struction material, new uses of the old, direct efforts of pupils in industrial and productive lines. The school men see also a coming industrial competition for which it is their duty to prepare the future business man, scientist, and technical worker. The Polytechnic Institute of Copenhagen is increasing its already excellent facilities and adding to its large number of practical courses in order the more successfully to prepare for the competition.

There is a new conception of the teacher's usefulness, which is not likely to be lost sight of after the present economic stringency. The teacher's duty no longer ends when he has taught his pupils something. It rests with him in a large measure to see to it that the teaching results in a sound and hearty form of living, the fundamental prerequisite of which is a strong and robust physique. In order to be of the greatest use here he must enlist the cooperation of the parents. This conception has been embodied in the regulations of December 31, 1917, applying to the secondary schools of Denmark.

These regulations provide that parents' meetings are to be held once a year. Those eligible to participate in the proceedings and to vote on matters that come up for adoption are all who have children at the schools or who are the guardians of children attending. The teachers of the schools have the privilege of attending and taking part in the discussion. To prepare topics for discussion a committee is appointed consisting of the superintendent as chairman, two teachers selected by the school board and four members from among the parents and guardians. The topics are to consist of the health-promoting conditions of the school (buildings, scheduled hours, study periods, home work, etc.) and other matters such as delinquency of pupils, conduct, promotions, appointment of teachers. A report is to be submitted to the Minister of Education covering the meetings in the district during the year.

A strong democratic feeling has long existed in the hearts of the Scandinavian people, a feeling now struggling to express itself in intellectual forms and institutions. Under the pressure of local political, economic, and geographic conditions it emerges in visible forms with marked differences in each country.

In Denmark this feeling has resulted in the creation of a type of schools that appeals for patronage to the farmers and middle classes, with the purpose of educating and returning them to their own class with such efficiency and prestige as education alone can confer.

Certain changes in the school statutes of Sweden, made in accordance with educational movements in that country, point to a trend toward greater local control of the schools. In 1913 measures were taken for the creation of a People's School Council, to be an advisory body, to criticize the general work of the schools, and to take the initiative toward improvements. In this capacity it will assume

some of the most important duties formerly exercised by the State Supervisory Board. In other respects, too, a degree of school control formerly vested in boards and committees of the clergy has been handed over to similar bodies of laymen. In a number of leading cities, details of the local educational institutions, formerly managed by the parish vestry meetings, have been put into the hands of the city councils. In the Report on the Schools of Sweden, issued by the Ecclesiastical Department for 1914-15,¹ is given a series of propositions which, according to the suggestions of the board, should be dealt with by subordinate authorities and acted upon without the formality of Royal approval.

As the character of the public elementary schools is the most direct expression of the people's views and wishes, it has been long regarded as desirable that the work of the secondary schools should be a direct continuation of these. When the real-skola (modern school) in Sweden, therefore, attracts pupils at the end of the third year, it causes them to make a departure from the original trend. To obviate this the communal middle schools grew up to fit the people's own children for government positions without necessitating a change in their modes of life. These schools are, moreover, community institutions with schedules and working conditions less rigid than those of the State schools.

The people's voice, too, is strongly heard in its insistence on alteration in the form and method of the religious instruction in the elementary schools. Religious instruction should be brought before the children, not in confessional formulas, nor in maxims of conduct, but in life pictures taken from the Bible and from the history of the church. The earnest consideration given these demands by churchmen and educators will eventually lead to changes in the method of instruction in Christianity.

That the Government of Norway has responded to the desires of Norway's people is in part evidenced by the liberal appropriations made to the farmers and farming. A special session of the Storting was called to encourage a greater agricultural output for 1919. An allowance of 3,000,000 crowns was made for general agricultural purposes and 5,000,000 crowns for the cultivation of new land. The Association of Norway's Young Men and Women has urged the erection of gymnasia for the country youth. Arrangements are also under way to establish an advanced secondary school without the middle school, evidently to effect as close a relation as possible between the preparatory work of the folk school and the secondary institutions.

Closely associated with the trend toward democracy is that toward internationalism, which in recent years has brought teachers and others of these countries together for cooperation. At its meeting in Stock-

¹ The latest at hand.

holm in 1910, the Teachers' Association of the North, an all-Scandinavian organization, celebrated its thirtieth anniversary. The work of this body, though not primarily directed towards international ends, has really moved in this direction in dealing with the problems which the members as teachers have in common. The annual meetings at one or other of three capitals brought teachers together as guests and hosts, creating opportunities for an understanding of each other's views. The questions that came up for consideration at the regular sessions gave rise to a number of school activities in which all were called upon to participate. It paved the way for an interchange of pupils' visits among these countries, leading to a better acquaintance among the pupils, and, as a consequence, among their parents. From 1907 on, such school visits have frequently been exchanged between Danish and Swedish pupils. In 1908¹ about 75 pupils at one time visited Denmark, being entertained by Danish families and in return entertaining their hosts by music and songs from their own country. By contribution the members of the Teachers' Association raised money for the erection of a statue of a prominent educator, unveiled during the session of 1916 in connection with a special program. The girl pupils are publishing a Scandinavian students' magazine, "Bog og Naal," (Book and Needle), edited by a staff on which the three nations are represented.

These occasions of mutuality have deepened the sense of regard that the schools of one country have for the work and ideals of the other. Quite spontaneously the work has been so ordered in the respective schools as to minimize any feeling of antagonism that might exist in the pupils on account of the wars which their ancestors fought with each other. While the schools of the three countries were the first to get together, there have always been other similar movements such as the Workingmen's Association, which in the same way have conferred on their common interests. Although a distinct form of pressure was the moving cause in the recent meeting of the three governments in the persons of their kings, the preceding sessions of the people made this meeting more easily possible. At any rate this group of limited monarchies, essentially democratic, has discovered the road to the larger internationalism to which the world events of November, 1918, invite. A signal instance of their preparedness for these ideals was recently afforded in Norway, when the Peace Association of the country, in 1918, petitioned the Storting to establish at the University of Christiania a professorship in the science of international peace.

¹The only detailed account at hand of those visits, which since that date have become more general.

NORWAY.

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM.

Obligatory attendance is formally fixed at 7 to 14 years of age, but the enforcement is such that the period of attendance depends upon the pupil's actual advancement rather than upon his age. The work of both teacher and school management is guided by an official handbook, which specifies the subjects, courses, hours, entrance conditions, holidays, vacations, and the weeks of the school year, which may be as high as 40, depending on local requirements.

The schools are maintained by taxes levied on the State, county, and municipality. Each county receives State aid in paying the rural teachers; to the amount of forty-four one-hundredths of the salary. In a county where it is found difficult to meet the expenses falling to its share, 15 per cent in addition to the above amount may be paid to it from the State funds. The expense of heating, lighting, and keeping the school property in order falls on the municipality. In the cities the State pays one-third of the teachers' salaries and two-thirds of certain service increments, all State contributions being limited by a fixed maximum.

The elementary schools.—Though the elementary school comprises seven years, pupils who expect to pursue studies beyond this course may enter the middle school from the fifth class. An effort was made some years ago to require the entire seven years as preparation for the middle school; it was hoped thereby to give education a more democratic character and to eliminate the feeling of social divergence and rank in the schools. Apart from these aspects of the proposed plan, educators did not find it practicable, for it would push the elementary school beyond its legitimate scope and endanger its work. Again it would postpone by two years the time when the pupil would naturally pass over to a continuation school.

The appended table based upon the official plan shows what subjects are studied in the seven years of the elementary schools and the time apportioned to each:

Subjects.	Years.							Total.
	I.	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	
Religion.....	7	7	5	6	6	6	6	43
Norwegian.....	10	8	8	8	8	6	6	54
Mathematics.....	6	5	4	6	4	6	6	37
Geography.....			2	2	3	3	3	13
History.....			2	2	2	3	3	13
Nature study.....	2	3	1	2	2	2	2	14
Writing.....	5	5	4	4	2	2	2	24
Drawing.....			1	2	2	2	2	11
Vocal music.....			2	2	2	2	2	10
Manual training.....			2	2	4	6	6	20
Gymnastics.....				2	2	2	2	8
Total.....	20	20	30	38	38	40	40	243

The middle schools.—The course of the middle school covers the next four years. Pupils are admitted upon examination. Here more time is given to Norwegian, including special study of the vernacular prevailing in the province in which the school is located. The instruction in religion includes reading of the Bible and study of the main events in church history.

Two foreign languages are taken up, English and German, three hours per week in the former and four in the latter. According to the present trend of opinion more time is to be given to English, which will receive five hours from the second class on. The aim of the foreign-language study is to be able to make extempore translations of easy foreign texts; but the pupils are also expected to be able to use the language in the course of ordinary easy conversation.

In nature study the aims are to attain knowledge of those animals and plants that are most closely connected with later practical callings. Hygiene and the principles of sanitation are here brought before the pupils, the study of the human body and the functioning of its organs, the effects of strong drink, and, in general, the laws seen in such natural phenomena as may readily be brought to the child's attention.

In mathematics practical considerations take precedence over theoretical ones. The child is led to deal with problems that enter into the every-day transactions in business, simple bookkeeping, and applied geometry. Courses in history lay special stress on modern times and events, and, in particular, on the history of Norway and its civil organization.

Geography takes up the natural features, topography, soil, climate, and industries of Norway. The work in writing now shows great improvement in class-room methods. The teacher leads the pupil to see and to know, then to arrange the material, and finally to put it in his own individual literary form.

Drawing takes an altogether practical direction, and aims to prepare the pupil not only for the later trade schools but for the advanced technical schools in which Norway occupies a foremost place. In sloyd and manual training the number of hours per week has recently been considerably increased.

The gymnasium.—The gymnasium follows with a three-year course. It divides into three branches: (1) The modern branch; (2) the history and language branch; and (3) the history-language branch with Latin. Accordingly, the pupil, when this stage is reached, has before him electives by groups. As the pupils who elect the Latin branch become acquainted with this subject rather late, the aim of instruction is acquaintance with about 150 pages of Caesar, Cicero, and Livy, and the ability to read an easy text extempore. The requirements in the mother tongue are familiarity

with a comprehensive selection from Norway's authors, a survey of the language in its origin and historical relations. In translations, Greek and Roman authors, Homer and Plato, Shakespeare, Milton, and Goethe are taken up. The further studies in German, English, and French are calculated to impart a knowledge of the development of these peoples respectively. In history and geography the aims are identical in kind but naturally higher than at the earlier stages; physics, physiology, and sanitation are dealt with more comprehensively than in earlier nature studies; mathematics admits of the theoretical phases; drawing takes up advanced problems in technique.

Other institutions.—Norway's school system is, in its articulation of courses and schools, admirably adapted to give consistency and completeness to each pupil's education, no matter at what stage choice or necessity compels him to discontinue. Ample provision is made for advanced study. Public and private schools for girls are found in many towns and cities, and these aim to impart an education, different in some particulars from that of boys, but equivalent in advancement. There are 22 schools for navigation, 19 for agriculture, 16 for gardening, 6 for dairy farming, 1 agricultural high school, and 6 schools for engineering. In 1917, 45 schools gave instruction in metal and textile work and in the common trades of the country. The report for the same year lists 11 schools in domestic science. The Institute of Technology at Trondhjem takes rank among the foremost of its kind in any country; so also the Royal Art Institute at Christiania and the School of Mechanic Art at Bergen. Ten normal training schools prepare teachers for the work in the elementary classes. The Department of Education at the university trains teachers for positions in the secondary schools. The Royal Frederick University at Christiania makes constant research in the sciences, enriching these by contributions from its specialists.

Affiliated with the university are clinical facilities, collections of great value, and a library of 350,000 volumes. There is a botanical garden, an astronomical observatory, and a meteorological institute. Learned societies, long established and with historic prestige, are connected with the university as a central headquarters.

In Norway the continuation schools' stand on the border line between class room and shop. Recitations are held during hours in which the pupils are free from their daily duties, usually 6 to 8 or 7 to 9 in the evening. On account of the full measure of work the pupils have in their employment, it is necessary to limit, so far as possible, the school tasks to the recitation hours. Most pupils are employed in trade, office, shop, factory, or household. At present

As these schools continue the subjects with a view of practical application in courses given mainly of evenings, some other term than "continuation" would probably be better.

they are receiving higher wages than formerly with constant inducements to do extra work in the evening—conditions that make the school work very difficult. The report from the continuation schools at Christiania shows a large attendance in the commercial courses, and a fair attendance in the courses instructing in the trades. Courses especially for girls impart instruction in dress-making, housekeeping, the care of children, and hygiene. On account of the large number of applicants it has been found necessary to divide the district into three divisions with one school in each.¹

At Stavanger the same kind of institution gives commercial courses during the winter where those who have left the elementary school can get special training. English is taught here, as it is elsewhere, in the commercial cities of Norway; Norwegian is a chief subject; bookkeeping is accorded a prominent place. At Stavanger another evening school, partially supported by private means, gives free instruction to boys in shoemaking, blacksmith work, and carpentry. Other courses give girls instruction in sewing and cooking. A special technical school supported by the State and city together, gives day and night courses in drafting and mechanics, which teach young men how to handle electrical apparatus and do engineering work necessary in ships and factories.²

SCHOOL GARDENS.

When gardens for productive purposes first came to exist in connection with schools they were left to be cultivated by children whose parents were poor. Since the outbreak of the war they have attained a much greater significance. Experts are instructing the teachers, who in turn direct the pupils how to make the most of the ground allotted to them. Among the children's gardens is the teacher's own, supposed to be a model for the others, and expected to show how much a little plat of ground can produce.

The people of Norway have a procedure called "inter-cultivation" by means of which several crops are raised simultaneously on the same lot. Between the potato rows they plant a species of beans which thrives without interfering with the potatoes. Among the strawberries they plant certain kinds of kale. Under the fruit trees and in other shaded places certain other kinds of the cabbage variety will grow. To get an early crop of potatoes they are told to start them in boxes where they may form long shoots by the time the season permits of planting them in the open ground. Seeds and plants are furnished the children free of charge; for their labor and care they get the crops they raise. It has been found that the interest displayed by the children reacts upon the parents so that these come to see the significance of the school gardens.

¹ Based on Christiania's Fortsaetelsesskole.
² From material submitted by Consul Dunlap.

Norway's School Garden Association issued the following appeal in the interest of the work to begin in the spring of 1918:¹

No hands that can do anything must be idle during the coming spring and summer. We have in mind many who for the approaching vacation have not as yet found opportunities for service in the direct production of foodstuffs. For that reason we are now appealing to teachers everywhere in country and city, to teachers of athletic clubs, to young peoples' associations, temperance organizations, welfare associations, and all kinds and groups of persons with or without political connections. Place yourselves at the head, each in his own circle, and try to effect a cooperation of willing and active forces, of both men and women, to the end that we may all get started to work for an increase of the foodstuffs our people shall need to maintain themselves the coming winter. Obviously it is of particular importance to use the spring months in the best way, but it is of no less importance to use the winter months to organize the work. We urge teachers to secure the support of the school authority and the agricultural committee with the view of starting at once to prepare the classes to take hold of the work of planting potatoes, cabbage, kale, beets, carrots, and other kinds of vegetables to be used in the kitchen. The chairman or leader of a society should organize the members into suitable work groups, say of 6 to 12 in each, and secure the ground, the seeds, and the necessary tools, so that everything is ready when spring comes. It should be possible to procure the money from patrons in the villages, from the banks, and from rich people who may be interested. A part may be raised through extra school exhibitions and entertainments during the course of the winter.

SCHOOL WELFARE ACTIVITIES.

The system of appointments and eventual pensions provides inducements for teachers to become permanent members of the community, thereby making it possible for their advice and help to extend outside the school and beyond the courses. Large and carefully selected libraries for children have been organized mainly by the teachers. Despite their limitations remote rural districts have accomplished much in this line. Within their resources they are following the example set by the cities. Every school attempts to have at least the beginning of a library. In Christiania at the Central Library are attractive reading rooms for children, and over 340,000 volumes selected to serve their needs. For the year 1915-16, 37,974 volumes were loaned.

To teach the children thoughtful and purposeful thrift almost all the schools of Christiania have conducted banking activities to take care of the pupils' deposits. During 1915-16 there was a falling off in the number of depositors as well as in the sum total of deposits, but the following year showed a recovery in the totals, so that the year's accounts amounted to 144,000 crowns. Much of this is drawn when the pupils finish their courses or leave the city. It is often used for clothes to wear at commencement and graduation exercises. In these connections the teachers never fail earnestly to impress their pupils with the importance of continuing to save. The work is supported and handled by the Savings Bank of Christiania.

¹ Skolebladet, Mar. 9, 1918.

The health supervision has been hampered by the limited number of physicians who could be assigned to the work, and also by insufficient means to provide an adequate number of nurses and caretakers to follow up and apply the physicians' directions. Though the report indicates that the work has been slow, it points to exceptional thoroughness. It is the aim of the authorities cooperating with the medical inspectors that no child in Norway shall suffer in health or development on account of defects or diseases than can be remedied. There appears to be gratifying promptness in the application of the remedial measures prescribed in each case—whether for eyes, teeth, nose, adenoids, or tonsils. School physicians are directed to proceed at once to treat curvature of the spine, usually by massage when appropriate, and anemic conditions by ordering better nourishment, fresh air, and rest. Where the parents are unable to provide the means, the municipality takes care of the case. A record is kept of each child's physical condition, with a fullness that to a layman would seem unnecessary.

In the schools of Christiania are ample facilities for pupils' baths, and each child is instructed to take at suitable intervals a shower or plunge bath of a temperature carefully regulated. The school records show to what extent each pupil has availed himself of these facilities. Instruction in swimming is a regular part of the school work, and the reports for 1915-16 showed that 636 boys and 480 girls learned to swim during the year. Formal athletic exercises with the use of simple apparatus are encouraged and regularly conducted. The pupils of this country need no special inducements to take part in whatever develops bodily strength and prowess, and, as would be expected, they are especially enthusiastic in their national sports of skating and skiing.

Lunch rooms have long been connected with the schools in some form or other. Formerly the janitor had a supply of buns, rolls, coffee, milk, etc., which were furnished the children at a small cost. Now many cities supply the primary children with one meal a day during the winter months. To poorer children this is free; to others it is sold at small cost. A central cooking department in Christiania supplies the elementary school children with daily portions of the best food served hot under the direction of a matron. A committee of teachers decides what children shall be served, upon application by the parents.

In the city of Stavanger municipal welfare measures for school children have assumed still more comprehensive scope. The district comprises about 150,000 people, of whom about one-third live in the city. The children are supplied not only with free books and writing material, free medical and dental care, medicine, and, when needed, free shoes and stockings, but also free midday meals. Three times a

week a regular dinner is served. The meals are served in three different localities, a steam bakery supplying the food. It is hoped that the food may eventually be prepared in a community kitchen, as in Copenhagen. Many mothers with young children work in the factories. These women often do not have sufficient time to see that their children are properly fed, and a diet of bread, butter, and coffee is likely to be the rule; hence the importance of the wholesome and nutritious meal the school furnishes. A committee decides each case before the children are admitted to the school tables.

SPEECH FORMS IN THE SCHOOLS.

The necessity of sanctioning the use of two language forms—the book language and the vernacular—has handicapped and often embarrassed the teachers of Norway. One of these speech forms is always tending to supplant the other, with the consequent danger of provoking controversy, as teachers and school boards take sides in behalf of one or the other. At school meetings and in the educational journals they have become perplexing problems.

In recent years the vernacular has made headway and gained adherents to such an extent that in the west, according to a member of the Storting, Mr. Fretheim, two-thirds of the districts have elected it as the preferred speech form; in the south about one-third, and in the north about one-tenth. As schoolbooks are printed in both forms, and as pupils sometimes show greater readiness in the one and sometimes in the other, and, again, as the vernacular has not yet attained complete fixedness in orthography and grammar, the teachers and boards are constantly confronted with the necessity of making difficult selections and adjustments. In order to avoid clashes Government regulations were adopted with the view of permitting teachers and pupils to make the adjustment on an elective basis with a minimum requirement.

In their final examinations pupils, according to the law of 1907, were required to write one essay in the vernacular, and explain a selection from Old Norse literature from the vernacular and also from the book language. Two compositions are required to be written in either the book language or the provincial tongue. Candidates who present both of these in the same language are required to write an additional easy theme in the other language.

These regulations were amended by a law passed during the year 1918, and now read:

1. In the oral instruction the pupils are to use their own speech form and the teacher will, so far as possible, adapt his own natural speech form in accordance therewith.

2. The school board will decide for each district, class, or division (a) whether the written work of the pupils is to be done in the vernacular or in the book language; and (b) what kind of primer is to be used.

In regard to textbooks the pupils may use either those printed in the vernacular or those in the book language in accordance with the choice of parents or guardians.

In a district where parallel classes have been organized, parents who wish their children taught in the speech form which is not the predominant one at the school, may make a demand to this effect provided there are enough children to constitute an entire class, and, provided further, that it can be done without materially increasing the expenses of the school. Children for whom a speech form has thus been chosen may not without the consent of the board pass over into classes with a different speech form.

TEACHERS' PENSIONS IN NORWAY.

The pension enactment of the Storting of 1918 places the teachers on a par with government officials. It is provided that the retirement of a teacher may be requested by the school board by the time he is within 3 years of the pension age; if not, he may retain his position 5 years beyond this limit. When he comes within 10 years of the teaching limit of 70, he has the privilege of applying for retirement and pension provided the sum of his years of service and of his age is as much as 80 years. At the age of 60 with 30 years of service to his credit he receives full pension. At 60 with 20 years of service he may be permitted to retire, but he receives then only two-thirds of the full pension.

The total amount of the teachers' salary compensation forms the basis for computing the pension: Fixed salary, bonus, compensation for free home, light, fuel, and whatever else the regulations acknowledge as salary, such as pay as choir leader, secretary of the school board, etc. The pension is computed on the sum total of these salary units.

Full old-age pension presupposes at least 30 years of service, and comprises 66 per cent of the remuneration if it does not exceed 3,000 crowns. If the salary in the aggregate is larger, the pension is decreased by 0.004 crown for every additional crown up to 7,000. Upon voluntary withdrawal with less than 30 years of service the pension is diminished by one-thirtieth for each year; yet it must make an aggregate of at least 30 per cent of the full pension.

A teacher receives a disability pension when his physical or mental powers are impaired to such an extent that he must leave his position. In such cases the years of service are disregarded and the pension

made equal to that for retirement at the age limit. In other cases of invalidity the pension is diminished in the ratio of the old-age pension, yet not so as to be less than three-fourths of this. Partial inability to earn salary is the cause for a corresponding decrease in the pension. A widow's pension is 30 per cent of the salary or the pension of the deceased teacher, yet never less than 200 crowns and not more than 1,500. It is not paid in cases where a teacher marries after his sixtieth year or after his retirement. It ceases upon remarriage. Orphans under 18 receive each 25 per cent of the widow's pension, yet the total amount received by the children must not be more than 100 per cent of this. If both parents are dead, the pension of the children is doubled."¹

WAR CONDITIONS AND THE SCHOOLS.

During the entire war Norway's industries and commerce suffered more than those of any other neutral country. She sustained enormous losses by the destruction of a great part of her merchant fleet. Traffic from the first was insecure and, as a consequence, marine insurance was high. Raw material was difficult to procure and the finished products of shops and factories difficult to bring to the consumer.

While the war did not result in commandeering school buildings and the labor of teacher and pupil as in the belligerent countries, it virtually did this in an indirect way. The high cost of everything necessary to sustain life compelled all available forms of labor to become productive.

The pupils of many schools were requested to organize themselves into groups and, together with their teachers, to be ready to respond to calls for help on the farms. The shops and factories frequently experienced a shortage of labor and tried to recruit it from the same sources.

For these reasons pupils individually and in groups were virtually compelled to leave their class work to take up something more urgent. More or less confusion in the year's work was one of the immediate effects of this. Another was to emphasize a distinction, as never before, between book learning and training leading to productiveness.

The time was opportune for an inquiry into the aims and intentions of almost every subject in the course. What was its purpose? Where did it lead to? And what would it help to produce? As a consequence there arose a tendency to give preference to subjects that in these respects measured up to the demands of the times. There appeared also an inclination to stress the more practical phases of subjects already established in the courses. Educators began to

¹ Schweizerische Lehrerschaft.

point out that geometry, for instance, dealing with lines and angles, squares and cubes, could be brought into closer coordination with the art of making things—carpentry, cabinet making, building—where the lines and curves were embodied. Zoology might deal with domestic animals, their ways, and values, as well as with zebras and lions.

The importance of daily work and labor, and the duty of bringing it into the class room and teaching it as a recognized subject, was discussed in the teachers' journals and meetings. It was one of the chief points adopted by the Pedagogical Folk Meeting in Christiania on August 25, 1918. But the teachers of Norway went further. They were not content with simply giving labor a place in the curriculum; they demanded conditions that should obliterate social distinctions between work with the hand and work mainly with the intellect—they insisted on the prestige of labor. With this in view the educators of Norway have formally asked that labor should be brought into schools hitherto considered exclusive, and there given a place of distinction.

On the purely economic side the war affected teachers severely. During normal times a teacher in Norway has a fair salary. The pension of which he is eventually assured permits him to look forward to the future without anxiety and hence to do his work with a full collection of his powers. Yet his remuneration is so carefully adjusted to his actual expense that a sudden increase in the cost of living creates distress.

Hence the war brought hard times to the teacher as well as to others. His salary was not commensurate with the added outlay. The authorities were willing to provide relief, but to adjust salaries by enactments of the Storting proved to be slow. Through their journals and such other means of publicity as they could command, the teachers brought their economic difficulties before the people. At its meeting in Trondhjem the Teachers' Association virtually resolved itself into an organization to campaign for relief. The parliamentary response came, first in the form of war bonuses and high-expense bonuses, and, finally, with a plan for a direct general increase of salaries commensurate with the present times.

A communication from the president of the National Teachers' Association of Norway, Mr. A. Kirkhusmo, dated November 20, 1918, shows that while the bill providing an increase in salaries was pending before the Storting, the people throughout the country generally took independent action and very materially increased the salaries in their respective communities.

Economic pressure, too, caused a shortage of teachers that greatly handicapped the work of instruction in certain parts of Norway. Other lines of employment with more satisfactory pay attracted many teachers. A report came to the department of education at Christiania that in 1917 several hundred positions had remained vacant and that during the same year a still greater number of positions had to be filled by persons without professional training. In some parts of the country the weeks of the term of some schools were arranged so that the teacher could serve two schools.

The moral effect of the war on the pupils was forced upon the attention of the teachers. Familiarity with the accounts from the front, with details of bloodshed and violence, tends to disturb the psychic balance of a pupil in his impressionable years. Reports from the warring nations state that moral confusion sets in among school children to the extent of causing an alarming increase in juvenile offenses. The teachers of Norway are attempting to prevent the damage that threatens the children from exposure to notions of war and violence. They seek to lead the attention of the pupils away from these foreign interests to the interests and the affairs of their native land. In the scenes of Norway, in their fields and fjords, in their commerce and their industries, the teachers have found counter-attractions more favorable to the moral and psychic health of the pupils.

The war has emphasized another duty that falls on the teacher. The clergymen of the peace association of Norway have addressed themselves to the General Peace Association requesting the latter to formulate plans to enlist the teachers actively in the cause of peace. It had been assumed at the Peace Conference at Bern, in 1915, that the clergy could accomplish the most in the interest of peace. But later it became obvious that the field was too large, and that considerations of a purely psychological character added to the difficulty, owing to the popular misconception that the church and the school were two independent institutions. The public comments touching this question of the work for peace has brought the teachers' share in it into a clear light. No other class has an opportunity like the teacher for instilling and confirming humane and cultural sentiments of peace in the hearts of the young.

PRESENT TREND IN EDUCATIONAL THOUGHT AND SCHOOL LEGISLATION.

The present efforts to give the schools a more organic continuity from the primary years to the years of secondary advancement have their origin in the same general causes in all the countries of northern Europe. In reports prepared under the direction of the Ecclesiastical and Education Department of Norway, comprising a consensus of

opinions among the school men of that country, the movements there are traced and set forth in full. The several official publications issued under the auspices of that body, the latest bearing the date of March 2, 1917, indicate the issues that are uppermost. Supplementary accounts in the educational journals of Norway make it possible to follow the movements up to the end of 1918.

The committee entrusted with the preparation of the report maintains that not only educational, but, in a measure, social purposes come into play in adapting the schools of that country to the needs of the people. The unrest noted with the consequent demand for altered adaptations arises from the present democratic insistence that the purely social aim be eliminated and that the child's bent and endowments alone determine the stage where its divergence into a selected educational course may be permitted. With past school traditions in mind the committee maintains that in a community where a child's position in life is determined by its birth it is comparatively easy to plan a school well adapted to impart a fitting measure of information and training; a steadily ascending course of development leading directly toward the goal could then be planned, making it unnecessary for the learner to stray into by-paths or to be distracted by minor aims, but leading him to concentrate all his attention and bend all his energies toward reaching the goal clearly in sight from the beginning.

From the first the courses would, under these conditions, take different directions in accordance with various aims, soon creating a marked distance between the routes by their constant divergence. For this reason it would be difficult, if not impossible, to pass over from one route to the other, which might become desirable where one should discover during his progress that he had been mistaken in his destination or his endowments, and hence wished his aim changed.

In the latter part of the last century the movement toward unification began, when the preparatory classes of the middle schools were, to a great extent, taken over by the folk school. With the same general aim the law of 1896 provided a further lengthening of the folk school by two years.

After that date interest in reforms toward this end became more general, at least among teachers and patrons of schools. In consequence further changes were discussed in 1909 in connection with the debate on the budget for secondary schools. In this discussion it became clear that the articulation between the folk school and the middle school was unsatisfactory, and that it might be well to consider whether an adjustment in subjects and courses could not be effected requiring pupils to complete the seven classes instead of five of the folk school as entrance condition to the middle school.

The opposition contended that the present law did not place any obstacles in the way of such articulation, but that carrying it into general effect would necessitate extensive revisions of instruction plans and textbooks and that in the few places where it had been tried the result had not been satisfactory; even a three-year middle school had had great difficulties in bringing its pupils to a point of advancement where they could pass the examination. An alternative course of growth was suggested, by pointing out that the common school itself was capable of a development to the extent of preparing its own pupils for an examination virtually equal to that of the middle school. A nucleus of subject matter in the instruction could be provided and required of all; parallel with this could be elective subjects for those who had the middle school examination in view.

On November 7, 1911, a committee of seven persons was appointed to prepare a report on the question of how to effect a closer union between the folk school and the secondary school. As points of departure for their work the laws defining the aims of the two schools, respectively, were cited:

The folk school should help to give children a Christian bringing up and such general training as should be common to all members of society; the middle school continuing from the folk school should give the pupils a finished and advanced general training adapted to the receptivity of the children's years.

In May, 1915, the committee made a report in which the trend of opinion among Norway's schoolmen was clearly exhibited.

Among the difficulties set forth in the committee's published statement was that the contemplated reorganization would involve transition stages requiring special adjustment in courses and management. About 70 per cent of the municipal middle schools without gymnasium had only a total enrollment of from 40 to 150 pupils. If these schools lose their two lower classes, as some of the proposed plans would require, the attendance would be cut down to such an extent that they could not well be continued as independent schools. They would be merged with the folk school, and there would, in consequence, be one head for both institutions. This adjustment would have to be left to the administrative boards. Many middle schools are so large that even if they should lose the two lower classes they would continue to exist as independent institutions with respect to buildings, faculties, and management. As many of them are located in the larger cities, they would, when reorganized as an undivided institution, according to the plan under consideration, come to have a number of parallel classes. In those schools that offer full, or part, gymnasium work, it would be most natural to let the proposed two-year middle school merge with the gymnasium and be under the superintendence of its rector.

In adopting an order of this kind, various difficulties would be met, and not least in regard to the difference in the present training and duties of the teachers in the two classes of schools. The committee pointed out that the reorganization of the present middle schools into schools of two-year scope will have the immediate effect of making superfluous a number of teachers now holding positions without any provision for their employment in either the folk school or the reconstituted middle schools, even though these and parallel classes connected with them should increase in number.

At this stage of the progress the matter was again taken up by the Storting in 1916 and a sum of 3,000 crowns was appropriated to enable the committee to continue its investigations. The plans of the committee, which were in the meantime fully discussed by schoolmen throughout the country, and eventually submitted to the Storting were in substance as follows:

1. An outline for the apportionment of hours and plan for instruction in a two-year middle school continued from a seven-year folk school. In order to show the articulation best adapted to effect the desired coalescence, the plan includes a time-scheme covering years six and seven of the folk school and two years of the middle school. It also defined the aim to be attained in each subject in the concluding year of the folk school—the degree of advancement, in fact, that would have to be reached in religion, Norwegian history, science, etc. In a similar way the outline set forth the aim of the middle school. Specific remarks on the outline were then added touching on such details of subjects, hours, and adjustments as would be likely to come up in the reorganization. In the subsequent discussion of this outline, considerable opposition was met on the ground that it necessitated a serious disturbance of the plans followed by the folk school without any real and obvious gain.

2. The second proposition was a combination of a three-year middle school continued from the seventh class of the folk school. In the event this plan should be considered for adoption it was suggested that it might be well to follow the lead of a number of cities that had already put it into effect, and that a typical normal plan be adopted for these schools. Several suggestions regarding subjects were also made by the committee.

3. In view of the anticipated objections to plans 1 and 2 the committee drafted a third plan: A six-year folk school followed by advanced courses of instruction, one of which comprised a three-year middle school. There would then be two divisions of the six-year period, namely, an infant school of two years, and an elementary school of four. A schedule for these divisions covering subjects and hours was appended by the committee, though they did not find it

necessary to enter into all details of the instruction under this plan. The advantages gained by it would be: (a) The middle school examination would be reached after nine years; (b) the course of the middle school would comprise three years; (c) the folk school would at no point in its work be disturbed by adjustments necessary to the plan of the middle school.

4. In its further work the committee dealt with a plan for a practical continuation course in the middle school and found that there were no serious difficulties in the way of shaping a course of this kind, so that it would lead to the middle-school examination requiring equal advancement. The gain in this arrangement would be that the impression of a subordinate rank would be removed from the practical instruction which up to this time had been connected with the folk schools. There would, in every case, be the positive gain that such a course would lead to a goal which prevailing views associated with a certain respect and prestige.

The new arrangements thus outlined involved considerable departure from the present plan and organization of the schools, and in some cases, necessitated a regrettable disturbance of the present order. The Ecclesiastical and Education Department found that the views embodied in the report should be given thorough consideration, but as none of the propositions had a sufficiently general approval to be recommended for embodiment in the statutes to govern future school organizations, the department recommended to the budget committee of 1917 that 10,000 crowns be appropriated for the use of a new committee to push the work on this important and difficult problem to completion. Such further expenditure and delay did not meet with favor either among schoolmen or laymen.

Moreover, the general discussion aroused by the committee's report created a feeling among all ranks that the views of the people of the nation on these matters should be given official expression. During the spring and summer of 1918 this opinion gained support at a number of meetings held by various teachers' associations. The proposition received such general approval that a call was issued through the educational journals for a general teachers' and citizens' school meeting to be held at the University of Christiania in August, 1918.

In this way there came about what has been regarded as an epoch-making educational mass meeting; certainly this was one of the most notable school events in Scandinavia of 1918. Laymen and educators assembled at the University of Christiania on August 25, and outlined the demands that the Norwegian people should make on the schools. In formal resolutions categorically adopted they asserted that

1. "Bringing-up and character forming are more important for the elementary and secondary schools than intellectual training."

Insistence was laid on fewer examinations, more personal responsibility of the teacher, more efficient supervision, and greater freedom for the initiative of the individual. In discussing the point last mentioned those present deprecated the pressure that influences or compels a teacher to move only in the direction pointed out by a political or educational majority, and that laws, regulating plans, and examinations circumscribe the work.

3. Training for actual work must be made more prominent in all schools as well as in the middle schools and the continuation schools. The teachers' professional preparation should have regard to this. In this connection it was urged that the new middle schools should not be made more popular, but that every-day work should be elevated and given its place and prestige in the middle schools now regarded as exclusive.

4. "The Government should, as soon as possible, appoint a committee to prepare a unified plan for continuation schools, work schools, and other classes of schools to enter into a legally fixed continuity for an educational training based on the elementary schools. This committee should include members from all classes of city and rural schools, from the primary to the university."

5. "It will improve the peoples' bringing-up if each kind of school has its own council and that all of Norway has a central council of control, a national board representing all kinds of schools from the primary to the university. But it should be provided that each class of institutions shall act with full independence under the regulations of its own board."

There would, accordingly, be established a board for secondary schools, one each for agricultural schools, technical, normal, and engineering schools; and each board should work with complete independence of the others. At the same time it was felt that they have so much in common as to require a central supervising board representing them all and consisting of the superintendents of the individual boards, the rectors of the high schools, and the rector of the university.

6. "The State should establish a teachers' high school, either independent or as a part of the university. Whatever is fundamental in daily work should here receive the place and rank that corresponds to the basic elements in the people's life." "And it was added that real, every-day work should have a place in recognized courses of manual work for men and women, household, natural history, etc., yet in such a way that the aim of moral stability and the forming of character should give direction to it all."

That the work done by the school committee should lead to such a referendum was perhaps not anticipated, but though the complications resulting make an early enactment by the Storting impossible, they will eventually lead to a fuller embodiment of the people's views in the school system.

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SWEDEN.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

Public education in Sweden is administered through the Ecclesiastical and Education Department and its various bureaux. A local school board, consisting of four members chosen by the parish assembly, has charge of details touching the schools of each parish. The pastor, who formerly was an ex officio member of the board, is no longer so, according to a recent ruling, but must be elected like the others in order to become a member. Another change in the local school administration has resulted in the transfer of the management in many cities from a separate board to the city council.

Changes are also contemplated in the organization of the diocesan boards, which exercise supervision over the local administration. These boards, it is generally conceded, are not as at present constituted adapted for the satisfactory superintendence of instruction.

But in regard to the change that would be expedient to make them more capable, opinions do not concur. In the propositions prepared by a special committee and dealt with by the Riksdag, the alternative appeared to be either to reconstitute the diocesan boards so as to guarantee that they would deal with school matters with greater regard to the interests of the folk school and the demands of educational science or else that their functions as educational boards should cease altogether. Thus far the Riksdag has taken no other action than to refer the consideration of this question back to the committee. With the same purpose of perfecting the administration of the schools successive enactments from 1904 to 1914 resulted in the creation of a general supervisory board for the control of secondary education and of a special board independent of the other to exercise supervision over the folk schools and normal schools.

The character of the school inspection has also received much attention. The inspectors are appointed by the State; they visit the schools, confer with the school authorities; assist and advise these officials, examine petitions and appeals, and investigate and report on requests for State aid and for enlarging the activities of schools. How these important duties shall be attended to with the best results has also been the subject of investigation by a committee of the Riksdag. This body reached the conclusion that the work of the inspectors was that of specialists and that they should be appointed and directed by regulations with this character of their duties in view. Accordingly, the entire country was organized into new districts of inspection; a new code of instruction was provided, and new inspectors to the number of 34 were appointed.

Education in Sweden has been compulsory since 1842, the ages of required attendance being 7 to 14. If a child has not made satisfactory advance at the end of the fourteenth year, further attendance is required. These measures have had the effect of reducing illiteracy to a fraction of 1 per cent.

The common school period covers six years, divided into a primary course of two years and an elementary course proper of four. The pupil may then enter either a continuation school of two or three years or an intermediate secondary school, the latter continuing his schooling to the age of about 16.

As early as the third year of the elementary course the pupil's further studies may begin to assume a particular direction, if such has been determined. If advanced studies are contemplated, the pupil will enter the modern secondary school, which after six years opens to him either the modern gymnasium or the classical gymnasium, both concluding with a final examination (student-examen) preparatory for the university.

From the continuation school and the communal middle school the way leads to various trades and practical activities, business schools, household schools, agricultural schools, technical schools, and engineering.

The school year averages 35 weeks, 210 days, with a maximum of 35 hours per week. This normal duration of the year is varied to some extent by local conditions. If the degree of advancement attained at the completion of a certain stage be measured by the number of years from the pupil's entrance in the primary class, the following view of it will appear: (a) The elementary school completed after six years; (b) a continuation school, usually after eight years; (c) the real skola (modern school) after nine; (d) the communal middle school after 10; (e) the gymnasium after 12. (It is continued from the fifth class of the modern school.)

Schedules apportioning the time and specifying the subjects are drawn up for each school on the basis of a compendium furnished by the State. The school plans are not all uniform, for the intention is to leave such freedom to the local districts as may be required by conditions that prevail there. In the elementary school Bible stories and Luther's Smaller Catechism give the fundamentals in religious instruction. The Swedish language, history, arithmetic, geography, and natural history are taken up first. Swedish and religion are continued throughout; bookkeeping, psychology, civics, drawing, gymnastics, singing, domestic-science practice, and a foreign language (generally English) are added in the course of the last two or three years. Subjects pertaining to health, such as the hygiene of the teeth, are made obligatory. Training in swimming has of late received such attention that it is likely to be taken up as a regular subject.

Sweden has 77 advanced secondary schools, 39 with the six-year plan and 38 both real-skola and gymnasium, or the nine-year plan, and also 20 private institutions with gymnasium rank.

The fact that advanced schools for girls did not exist in any great number till toward the close of the nineteenth century is due to traditions that did not recognize education as necessary to a girl's advancement in life; now there are more than 80 institutions of this kind having a total enrollment of about 18,600 pupils. The courses include three years primary and eight years advanced instruction. The work in the upper classes has a gymnasium character, and leads to a final examination conferring a standing equal to that of the gymnasia for boys. In comparing the curricula of the upper classes with the corresponding ones in the gymnasia for boys we find, as would be expected, several new subjects, including domestic science and needlework. In the modern languages there is also a wider range of choice.

In the spring of 1918 there were 49 peoples' high schools in Sweden. Here they are similar in aims and methods to those of Denmark, where they had their origin, but unlike those of Denmark they have never been connected with any special folk movements in religion or civil life. They provide short practical courses for grown people whose schooling has been interrupted, say at 12 or 14 years, but who later wish further training. They receive their pupils mainly from the farms and they educate them back to the farms. They are founded by private or community endeavor; they receive state subsidy—in 1917 it amounted to 476,000 crowns—but they are, in the main, independent of state boards of control. The semesters are so divided that men receive instruction in the winter and women in the summer. There are no examinations, either entrance or final. The 30 or

more agricultural schools throughout the country are conducted in close connection with them.¹

Trade schools are found in all the principal cities. In Stockholm nine of these were established between 1912-1915. They comprise a machine workers' school, carpenters' school, blacksmiths' school, electric motor school, school for tinsmiths and coppersmiths, plumbers' school, milliners' school, dressmakers' school, school in household work, bakers' school, and a bricklayers' school. Each school is under state supervision having, however, its own board. With few exceptions they are "one-day" schools; that is, pupils attend one day a week and work as apprentices the remaining five. Their immediate object is to secure for the pupils suitable work in the shops and factories. The superintendent is in close cooperation with factories and their foremen, the latter often being instructors at the schools.

They give progressive courses of three years. The entrance conditions are to have attained 14 years, passed through 6 years elementary school, and, finally, to have secured employment in a shop of the kind in which the school gives instruction. Obligatory studies are reading, writing, social economy, bookkeeping such as applies to the trade, hygiene, and gymnastics. Though attendance is voluntary, studies may here be taken up to fulfill the requirements of the law of 1918, which makes attendance at a continuation school obligatory upon all pupils after having completed the elementary period.

Among institutions where advanced technical instruction is given are the following: The Technical School at Stockholm with five departments: 1. Technical Evening School; 2. Technical School for Women Pupils; 3. Higher Industrial Art School; 4. Building and Trade School; 5. Mechanical School, which has 80 teachers and about 2,000 pupils.

The Technical School at Eskilstuna has a department for the finer kinds of forging and metal working with instruction in freehand drawing with styles of art, modeling, carving, engraving, metal casting, chasing, metal hammering, etching, galvanizing, forging, filing, and turning. Other technical colleges are located at Malmö, Borås, Örebro, Norrköping, and Härnösand.

The Royal Technical High School at Stockholm gives advanced instruction in the mechanical arts and sciences. It is open only to those who have passed the final examination at the gymnasium. The course of study is four years and comprises: (1) Machine construction; (2) electrical engineering; (3) chemical technology; (4) mining science; (5) road construction and hydraulic engineering; (6) architecture; and (7) shipbuilding. There is also a department called the Material Testing Institute. The teaching staff comprises 24 professors, 2 lecturers, 24 special teachers, and a number of assistants.

¹Den svenska folkskolan. By Theodor Holmberg.

The past few years have been marked by a number of reforms and improvements in the facilities for preparing and training teachers. The salaries of the teaching staff at teachers' colleges have in general been liberally increased; so have also the allowances and stipends of students at these institutions. Nine training colleges for men, six for women, two private colleges for women—one at Gothenborg and one at Stockholm—prepare teachers for positions in secondary schools. They admit pupils between the ages of 18 and 26, the academic condition for entrance being the satisfactory completion of the elementary course.

The courses comprise four years, much of the time of the last two years being devoted to practice teaching. There are 34 other training schools for teachers of the primary grades. These give shorter courses, the total time of attendance amounting to from 8 to 16 months. There are three schools for teachers of defectives, 6 for sloyd, and 5 for domestic economy. Special institutions also train teachers in drawing, music, gymnastics, and games. In 1908 a professorship in education was established at the University of Upsala, and in 1911 a professorship in psychology and education was instituted at the University of Lund.

In order to provide for the continuous improvement of teachers, a number of courses, more or less permanently established, have come into existence. For this purpose there has been a lecture course in Stockholm since 1890. Academic vacation courses are given during successive years at Upsala, Stockholm, Lund, and Gothenborg. Special instruction in agriculture and horticulture is furnished through organized effort in Nääs and Jönköping. Various teachers' travel funds have been provided. A State grant makes an annual sum of 12,000 crowns available for this purpose. Lund, Malmö, Gothenborg, and Stockholm have municipal travel funds of from a few hundred crowns to several thousands annually.

CARE OF THE PUPILS' HEALTH.

The school authorities require an examination of the pupils' sight and hearing at stated times and have provisions for applying remedies and correctives for abnormal conditions. A statement from a physician is made out prescribing the treatment adapted to promote normal health and growth. If the parents are without sufficient means to have the child treated by oculist, dentist, or masseur, the cost is provided by the community. In most of the cities and larger towns the schools arrange for baths and swimming for both boys and girls at suitable places in the open, and in the winter plunge baths and shower baths are provided indoors. The use of the baths is voluntary in most cases; their importance is so fully brought

before pupils and parents that most children avail themselves of them regularly.

In the summer children who are sick or in delicate health are taken into the country on some farm where they remain for a time under the supervision of teachers and matrons. The place for these "vacation colonies," as they call them, is selected with the view of securing fresh air, sea breezes, and nourishing food for the children. There is usually a remarkable improvement in the health and vigor of the children when they return from these outings. In 1914 Stockholm managed 73 such colonies taking care of 2,430 children. Private persons have contributed liberally for this kind of welfare work, and in Stockholm the annual interest on half a million crowns is available for these purposes. Gothenborg, Malmö, Halmstad, Hälsingborg, and other cities send out thousands of children to farms and forest camps to recuperate in this way.

Again, upon the initiative of the National Teachers' Association many communities have instituted travel clubs for school children. These provide funds and plan trips to the large centers and other places affording enjoyment and instruction. The Tourist Association, under whose auspices the trips are often made, usually secure reduced railroad fare for the children.

As unsuitable and insufficient nourishment make it impossible for children to learn and develop at their best, many schools have taken this matter in hand by supplying free meals from the school kitchens, and, incidentally, furnishing the girls instruction in cooking. In some cases, too, they supply shoes and clothing to destitute pupils.

In connection with many schools are workrooms to provide occupation for children in the afternoon and thereby keep them from idling on the streets. Here they are taught to mend their own clothes and shoes and, in general, to occupy themselves with sloyd, weaving, crocheting, knitting, carpentry, metal fashioning, and basket work. Teachers are always present to direct the work. The expenses are provided by allowances from the municipality, donations, annual fees, private contributions, and the sale of the childrens' products. More than 75 such workrooms have been equipped in the villages and cities.

The General Teachers' Association, of Sweden, organized in 1860, has now a membership of about 12,000. Its subdivisions and committees, some of them with considerable funds at their disposal, pursue assigned activities in the interests of schools and teachers. The literature committee attends to the publication of matters of educational value. There are committees on syllabus and compendium for teachers, courses in drawing, school museum at Stockholm, traveling libraries, life insurance, and a Saga committee to publish

suitable literature for the young. There is also a bureau of information to assist teachers in economic and legal matters.

In 1906, a Women's Teachers' Association was organized. Its aim, as announced, is "to work for unity and cooperation among Sweden's women teachers and to further educational and economic interests." The association has its own school journals that work for these interests.

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

One of the most vital problems before the schools of Sweden at present is the proposed alteration in form and method of the religious instruction in the elementary schools. The present attempts to prepare new books as the basis for this subject are made in response to successive notions in the Riksdag appearing as early as 1903 and taken up again in almost every session from 1908 until the present. In 1911 a committee was appointed to prepare a textbook as a guide for the religious and moral (Sedeläran) instruction. Difficulties, partly anticipated and partly unexpected, arose, so that the committee could not complete its work as early as intended. In 1916 two editions were submitted, one for the elementary schools and one for the confirmation classes. The discussion that followed seemed to make still further alterations advisable; and the work is again in the hands of the board.

The attempts thus made to alter the form of Luther's Smaller Catechism cut deep into the religious traditions of the Swedish people, to whom this book has been the means of imparting the rudiments of religious instruction for centuries. The criticism of the new version came from two opposite directions: (1) The conservatives in the State Church who find in it an unacceptable departure from the church traditions; and (2) the radical Socialists, who want neither the old catechism nor anything like it. Much earnest consideration has, however, been given to this problem by Sweden's prominent churchmen and educators with the result that the new demands emerge in a clear light. "Religious truths," they hold, "should be brought before the children, not in religious formulas nor in maxims of conduct, but in concrete life pictures taken from the Bible and from the history of the church. This mode of teaching does not exclude a general survey of the truths deduced and an ordering of these in synthetic statements."

STUDIES OF THE HOME LOCALITY.

In the United States landmarks of historic interest, identified with the westward advance of the early settlers, are found from Cape Cod to San Diego. There are the vestiges of the settlers' trails, the log cabin era, and the ruins of the temporary structures that were needed

for maintenance and defense in those early times. When some one of sufficient enterprise collects material of this kind and proclaims the fact in print or by lectures there is usually a gratifying local response and appreciation of the effort, often resulting in endeavors to record or otherwise preserve whatever may enhance the prestige of the place.

In Sweden this conception has taken the form of summer courses, mainly for teachers, given under the auspices of local organizations, and generally designated as studies in the home locality. In accordance with the underlying idea they set up as their aim, not primarily intellectual training of an academic character, but rather the purpose of rousing devotion to the home region, its interests and traditions. From the very first, then, the course included a study of early history and legends and whatever the place had to offer of antiquarian interest; later they came to include such features of the region as were significant for natural beauty and for this reason adapted to enhance its prestige; at a still later stage the resources and industrial possibilities of the locality were brought within the scope of the lectures.

Three distinct characteristics, due to the origin, have marked the work from the first: (1) The lectures are given during the summer, when nature is at her best; (2) they are held at central points in the locality to be studied; (3) they are conducted by teachers who have been brought up in the locality to be studied and who in consequence take a personal pride in their work.

Their origin dates back a year or two prior to 1907, when at least eight Provinces in Sweden carried out programs of this kind. The work extended rapidly the following years until in 1917 it came to have a prominent place in vacation studies in all parts of the country, particularly in the south, where love of home surroundings is especially strong.

A typical instance of how these home locality courses start and develop is contained in an account of a meeting held in the city park at Simrishamn, on June 18, 1909, published in *Vor Ungdom* (September, 1917). On this occasion 300 persons effected a permanent organization for the study of the home locality, each member enrolled paying a fee of 5 crowns. A six-weeks' session was held. Says *Vor Ungdom*:

The forenoons were as a rule given up to lectures and the afternoons to excursions. Historic events of local import as well as prehistoric associations were discussed, in connection with an exhibition of relics from the Bronze Age. There was a lecture about the neighboring church, one about the history of the city, and another about life in a near-by city, Ingelstad, during ancient times. One excursion was connected with talks on the local flora, another about the shale and lime formations, and one about the floral studies and the trips made by Linnaeus in the vicinity; others dealt with the industries, among which fishing on the east coast of Skåne received special attention. But in the entire series nothing made such an appeal as did the folk traditions and the folk songs.

The course made use of the material contained in the city museums. A large and varied exhibition was provided showing ancient customs and equipments; and about one hundred volumes dealing with the locality were brought together.

A report from the course in the Home Locality at Engelholm, in 1912, shows that similar lines were followed. But here were no fewer than three exhibitions: (1) A gallery of paintings comprising 91 numbers; (2) an exhibition showing the history of the place in its development; and (3) another in the articles of sloyd produced in this vicinity, in connection with which prizes were awarded. The formal lectures treated antiquarian and historical topics—the history of the city and country. The series included reminiscences of noted men connected with the place, also the substance of old sagas and traditions. The State geologist gave a survey of geological conditions thereabouts, followed by talks dealing with forestry, agricultural and industrial resources. The series was concluded by a festival in which a conspicuous part was taken by a parade of knights in historic garb. Three counties were included; local banks provided a part of the expense; the Central Bureau for Popular Lectures contributed several hundred crowns. There were 222 participating members, 30 of them being teachers.

Some of these courses have departed both in scope and direction from the original aims. In 1916 the programs of those given under the auspices of the National Teachers' Association, while retaining the original feature of work in local interests, assumed the character of teachers' institutes. Another class has enlarged its scope so as to include not only matters of local prestige but also natural history, lectures on languages, civil history, methods, and class-room practice.

The organization that has brought these courses to their present advancement is Norrland's Society for Locality Study, founded in 1909. Its purpose is to gather funds for research in local history, to exploit this scientifically through library and school activities, and to disseminate knowledge about the province with the view of fostering love for home and country. The society has departments for archeological study, research in natural history, the study of provincial dialects, folk music (registering songs and melodies), library matters, and finally education. In a few years it has been able to collect specimens for a considerable museum, the expansion of an older collection—the numbers amounting to 9,000. In addition the members have an open-air museum comprising about 60 acres, from which is a magnificent view of the city, the surrounding country, and the sea. Here they have brought the buildings of a farmstead from Angermanland; a cattle shelter from Norway's peculiar pasture highlands, and a Russian tower of wood construction with belfry. Then, too, they have completed a natural museum with a collection per-

taining to history, zoology, and geography, and a library about Norrland. In 1913 this library numbered 12,000 volumes.

The educational means here provided have developed from the idea that the local parish school should bear, and be fitted to impart, a clearer impress of the locality. Teachers coming from the training schools have not received anything there calculated to help toward such impression. With the view of ordering the work toward these ends, four groups of subjects were instituted:

1. The natural history group: Geology and geography, to which later have been added surveying and map drawing, botany, zoology and meteorology.
2. The philosophy group: Swedish language with paleography; the study of provincial dialects; anthropology.
3. The historic group: The study of antiquity; Swedish history and sociology; statistics of history; local history.
4. The pedagogical group: Psychology; the history and theory of education; technique of studies in the home locality.

The plan of this work comprises lectures and exercises connected with excursions, all with the purpose not only of imparting information but of spurring the members on to independent study and research. Hence whoever wishes may apply for examination both in what he has formally gone through and what he has done independently. The total time of the course is four months, divided between two summer vacations. Four or five lectures, together with the exercises, constitute approximately the day's work. It is expected that all the members will be teachers from the provinces. To carry into practical effect the plan thus outlined, it was found that more money was required than was at the disposal of the association, a difficulty temporarily overcome by receiving permission to use part of the funds for the advanced training of teachers.

In this way the home locality course at Härnösand was started in June, 1914. The outbreak of the World War caused the work to be interrupted, so that a part of the plan had to be deferred until the following summer. But from that time until the present the work as begun has been maintained in steady activity. The number of those enrolled has grown until it includes not only people from Norrland but also from other parts of the country. The regulations for admission require that the candidate shall have served as a teacher at least two years and that he be below the age of 45.

The State aid which each member receives is somewhat less than in similar organizations in Denmark; there each one received 125 crowns in 1915. Those who take part are paid one-half of the traveling expenses where they have more than 60 miles to come. On the other hand, the instructors receive higher pay in Sweden than in

Denmark—15 crowns for each lecture and 15 crowns for each double hour of laboratory work. Over and above this, instructors living at a distance from the district receive traveling expenses in full. The teachers who have participated are preparing outlines of all lectures and publishing them as handbooks for the work in its entirety. These are published by Norrland's Association for Locality Study, and are of value for other forms of instruction besides those here discussed.¹

This mode of school activity has occupied so conspicuous a place among Swedish school conceptions that educators have contemplated making it the central unit in the projected university for summer work. But the consideration came up that the very nature of the work requires that it be done in specific places and not at a central point remote from such localities. Hence the courses are coming to be established at community centers and to depend on these for expenses. The work they do for teachers is not primarily intended to remedy defects or inadequacies in training, but to supply an element of local inspiration and interest that teachers' training schools have not yet attempted.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE COMMUNAL MIDDLE SCHOOL.

The modern (real) school created by the enactment of 1904 and providing a six-year course for children within the ages 9 to 15 has not, according to the opinion of school men in Sweden, altogether fulfilled its purpose of giving advanced instruction suited to positions in general civil life. It was accessible only to pupils who lived in or near a larger city; it did not sustain any organic relation to the folk school except in so far as its first three classes could serve as preparation for entrance. Its real purpose was taken over and filled by private schools for boys and girls or by coeducational institutions which, upon meeting specified stipulations, received State aid.

In Sweden, as in Norway and Denmark, there has long been a movement in the direction of requiring the folk school to furnish the basic instruction needed for admission to secondary schools. This movement assumed legislative form in the Riksdag of 1908 in a proposition for State aid to communal middle schools. As this step was taken late in the session it did not come up for formal consideration till 1910, when State subvention was granted to this type of schools. One significant effect of the act was to enable smaller cities and even villages to establish a class of schools that would bring their pupils to a point of advancement equal to that of the modern school. Between the years 1910 and 1916 the number of

¹ Teachers' and students' handbooks, including the scope of this work with plan for presenting its subject matter, have already appeared, such as: "Högledning vid Undervisningen i Hembyggsforskning." Parts I and II, by L. G. Sjöblom; Norstedt & Sons, Publishers, Stockholm.

institutions of this class doubled, increasing from 15 to 31. In consequence of their rapid growth the State appropriation was, during the same period, increased from 10,000 to 100,000 crowns.

Such schools are generally established by the reorganization of a former private coeducational school or a higher elementary school. As described in the order granting State aid—

The communal middle school is an educational institution founded and maintained by the community, aiming to impart such education for citizenship as the modern school emphasizes: it continues as a superstructure to the elementary school, and, with respect to entrance requirements, presupposes the advancement attained in the highest class of a fully equipped elementary school. It is to comprise four one-year classes above the elementary grades, each school year to consist of 38 weeks.

At first thought it would seem as if its parallelism with the modern school would result in a wasteful duplication of types. When, however, pupils who are expected to pursue advanced studies leave the public school, they are thought of as making a departure from the line of public-school continuity. They come under the charge of teachers who have had longer training; they are required to pay tuition fees; their associates come, in most cases, from homes a little better off economically, and they can hardly avoid the feeling of social differences. The communal middle school will furnish them the advanced instruction without any departure of this kind.

In the communal middle school the schedule is more flexible, adapting itself more easily to local demands. The appended schedule comprises the two types, the four upper classes of the modern school with the four classes of the communal middle, giving the average hours in the latter.

Subjects.	Modern school.					Communal middle school. ¹				
	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	Total.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	Total.
Christianity.....	3	2	2	2	9	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0	7.4
Mother tongue.....	6	4	3	3	16	5.5	4.1	3.2	3.1	15.9
German.....	6	4	4	3	17	7.3	5.3	4.5	3.8	20.9
English.....		5	5	4	14		4.3	5.0	4.2	13.5
History.....	3	3	3	4	13	3.0	2.5	2.8	3.5	12.2
Geography.....	2	2	2	2	8	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.0	8.2
Mathematics.....	5	5	4	5	19	5.0	4.9	4.3	5.0	19.2
Biology.....	2	1	2	2	7	2.2	1.5	1.9	1.8	7.5
Physics.....		2	1	2	5		1.8	1.2	1.9	5.4
Chemistry.....			2	1	3		.3	1.8	1.1	3.2
	27	28	28	28	111	27.3	29.0	28.6	28.5	113.4
Penmanship.....	1				1	.7				.7
Drawing.....	2	2	2	2	8	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7	7.0

¹ Lack of uniformity in the schedules of this type makes it necessary to reach an average in computing the hours, hence the fractions.

Though the communal middle schools are under the control of the State supervisory board, which appoints their superintendents and inspectors, they are in other respects dependent only on the communities. The training of the teachers and their eligibility for

appointment have elicited much discussion but have finally been embodied in regulations as follows: To be appointed as permanent teacher in any subject the applicant—

(a) Shall meet the requirements for appointment as assistant or subject teacher of a State school, but that the time of service required for such appointment may be substituted by service in a folk school.

(b) Shall have passed through a normal school and continued at a communal middle school, higher folk school, or a similar institution.

(c) Shall have studied the middle-school branches at the university and received good grades or passed the teachers' examination with good grades or in some other way acquired educational efficiency.

These regulations are to be in force until the question about the further development of the folk school shall have received a satisfactory solution. The communal middle schools may be organized either for one sex or as coeducational.

Their influence on the school system as a whole is already apparent; they have made it possible for the folk school to move on more directly toward educational aims in this country associated with scholarly prestige; they have made the connection between the elementary and the modern school closer, with the possible result that in the near future many of the six-year modern schools will be reorganized in accordance with their plan.

THE OBLIGATORY CONTINUATION SCHOOL.

A movement parallel with the foregoing has also been in progress for years and has finally resulted in the enactment of a law creating an obligatory continuation school. On May 8, 1918, the Riksdag passed a bill providing for such extension of the scope of the folk school as would bring Swedish youth to a further stage of educational advancement; the courses of instruction, to be devised with special view to the needs of present social and economic life. The far-reaching changes and modifications involved, in putting into effect the details of this law are to be carried out so as to be in full effect by the end of 1924. The State Supervisory Board has issued a compendium for teachers and school authorities, instructing them in the operation of the law and in the manner of effecting the changes contemplated.

The aim of the statute is the organization of a superstructure to the folk school to give young men and women vocational and civic instruction. It is a part of the aim already set up by teachers and philanthropic organizations; namely, to make use of the trades and occupations to keep the young in law-abiding and moral walks of life. The young man who acquires a trade or other vocational fitness has

not only thereby gained security for the future but he will also gain inducements toward correct living.

Touching the continuation school two principles are kept in mind as basic: To furnish training that will lead to the mastery of a trade, and to advance the folk school subjects to fuller completion. The higher folk school also comprised in the provisions of the statute will be a parallel type, with the advantage of a longer period of instruction and more comprehensive courses. It will be adapted for children who, after finishing the folk school, have the opportunity of giving some further time to their schooling. Like the other kind, this will also be organized as of two types: One with a trade in view, the other for general training. In accordance with special local needs and conditions it will comprise one, two, three, or four years, with 36 weeks a year.

The continuation school comprising a two-year period will be obligatory for all pupils who complete the elementary school without taking up studies in a school of some other kind. It is to have, as a rule, 180 instruction hours a year. The State appropriates the full amount of salaries for the teachers, but the community furnishes buildings and instruction material. The courses lead to the trade schools, also comprising two years, with 6 to 12 hours' instruction a week. The departments which the trade schools are to embrace will be of four classes: A school for industry, a school for trades and artisans, a school for commerce, a school for household work. The law recognizes the need of subordinate branches under each class and leaves the greatest freedom for such specialization as each calling or each locality may require. So far as the household work is concerned, it is for the first time placed on a level with other trades in respect to credits. It is made accessible to all girls who are not employed in some trade, industry, or business, or who are not receiving instruction of a kind equivalent to the trade school.

While these schools are made obligatory for the pupils, they are not for the communities for the reason that many of the latter are unable to bear the expense that the founding of such schools would entail. As the trade school will be attended by pupils above the elementary school years, many of them will be employed in the trades during the period of attendance. For this reason, their employers are required to release them from their duties for periods sufficient to participate in the instruction. The State contributes two-thirds of the teachers' salaries and from one-half to two-thirds of the expense of maintenance, while the community provides the buildings and the rest of the expense for maintenance.

In order to prepare the teachers and specialists needed to take charge of the work, advanced technical training schools and gymnasia are to be established. For the early instruction, business schools

will be started, connecting in their advanced courses with the commercial gymnasia already existing. The nature of the work is such that teachers who have both educational and technical training will be required.

There are already many continuation schools in Sweden, some private, others public, that have practical instruction in the trades as their aim. Many of these are excellently equipped through the munificence of private donors. The law just passed will, however, extend vocational instruction to all the children of the community. Its full effects will appear in added facilities for the work in reconstruction in which each community will have a share after the war.

Further reforms in prospect.—Though the provisions for new educational facilities created by the laws of 1908 and 1918 were timely, the educational press of Sweden is discussing still further reforms. Several problems rise immediately out of the relations the communal middle schools and the obligatory continuation schools are to sustain to existing school types. As early as 1913 and 1915 there were intimations in the Riksdag that State aid for schools duplicating each other's work could not be expected. The question, moreover, as to how the modern school subserves its purposes has become prominent. It is pointed out that its final examination comes so early in the life of the pupils that they are not mature enough for the promotions and positions for which this examination is intended to be the qualifying test—admission to schools specializing in agriculture, technology, postal and telegraph training, positions in the railway and banking service. Again, the schools for the education of girls need reforms with the view of reducing the expenses of attendance and making it possible for the teachers to become better prepared, and in general for transferring the instruction from the private schools to those of the State.

Further development in the system must, in consequence, have regard to the relation among the various types; it must secure a better ordering of the education of girls; it must reconsider propositions earlier laid before the Riksdag about additional main lines of study in the gymnasium as well as of the articulation between this type of school and the preparatory schools from which it continues.

The advocates of these reforms have in mind, evidently, the basic principles of the uniform school (*Enhetsskolan*), which requires organic and direct continuity between institutions of different degrees of advancement with the folk-school as their common basis and preparation. They emphasize the further principle that the work in the secondary schools should be grouped in courses such that only those best endowed are induced to select work leading to the advanced high schools and the university. With the same purpose of selecting the best gifted for higher studies, admission to the

gymnasium should be made dependent on natural endowments, whereby an undesirable increase in those immatriculating in the advanced institutions would be counteracted. The practical reforms already carried out in the communal middle schools and the obligatory continuation schools will assist in the further reforms here mentioned, which are mainly the theoretical completion of the former.

EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES APART FROM THE SCHOOLS.

Much educational work is conducted by teachers' associations and other groups outside of the scheduled work of the schools. These organizations are generally well established, and are usually supported by funds from the State or by the income from endowments. Their activity is not at all limited to the occasions of their periodical sessions or to the business that rises immediately from these, but they are organized with permanent offices, with the view of attending at any time to such matters as come within their scope. A few of these organizations in Sweden are the following:

The Society for Physical Training. Founded in 1913, and in 1914 united with the Swedish Society for Open Air Games and Health Education. It receives a State subvention of 1,000 crowns a year. Its purpose is to work for rational physical training. Address, Stockholm.

The Society for School Gardening. Endeavors to secure such further reorganization for gardening in connection with elementary schools as this work obviously deserves. Address, Nyqvärn.

The Central Society for Social Work. Disseminates information on social questions with the purpose of helping to solve important social problems. It organizes lecture courses among all classes of society. State subvention, 2,000 crowns. Address, Stockholm.

The Society for Folk Instruction. Maintains a lecture bureau for popular lectures on scientific subjects; arranges for the purchase of libraries for schools and societies; supports traveling and permanent libraries. It receives State and community aid to the amount of 34,000 crowns. Address, Stockholm.

The Society for Temperance and Education. Teaches temperance and morality on the basis of a Christian outlook on life. Its work is accomplished by literature and lectures, programs and entertainments, traveling libraries and traveling school kitchens. Resources, several hundred thousand crowns. Address, Vasagatan 9, Stockholm.

The Society for the Promotion of Folk Instruction. Publishes books and pamphlets of an educational character and discusses methods and means of improving the work of the schools. It maintains a girls' school with a three years' course, the last year devoted to practical instruction in occupations for women. Resources, 110,000 crowns. Office at Stockholm.

Teachers' Association for Folk High Schools. Encourages advanced instruction in branches taught in the folk high schools and the agricultural schools.

Teachers' Association of the Communal Middle Schools. The interests of this class of schools and their teachers are included in its aim.

The Society of Public School Inspectors. Address, Malmö.

Society of City School Inspectors. Address, Linköping.

Women Teachers' Mission Society. Its purpose is to train teacher missionaries. Address, Gothenborg.

The Association of Women Teachers. Promotes the educational and economic interests of women teachers throughout Sweden. Address, Lidingö.

The Congress of City Teachers. Founded in 1906. Cooperates in matters pertaining to the interests of education in the cities. Office at Gothenborg.

The Friends of the Swedish Folk School. Its aim is announced as follows: "Moved by the sincere conviction that education is inseparably united with a Christian life, the society will work for educational ends in accordance with this principle, so that Christianity in the folk school may be maintained in its Biblical fullness and permeate all instruction and, hence, become the life of school, home, and society." Address, Stockholm.

The National Teachers' Association of Sweden. Comprehensive in its scope and activity. Some of the foremost educators are on its directing board. It has a membership of about 14,000 and funds to the amount of about 70,000 crowns. In the course of its work, the association has developed so that it is now divided into a number of permanent bureaus and committees, each made up of specialists within the field assigned to it: (a) The literature bureau, with a membership of about 650, attends to the editing and publishing of educational publications. (b) The editorial committee prepares handbooks for teachers. (c) A special committee plans and directs courses in drawing. (d) A committee plans and manages courses in singing. (e) A special committee has charge of the school museum at Stockholm. (f) A Saga committee cooperates with a publishing house in Stockholm in collecting and publishing suitable literature for children and the young. (g) A committee has charge of the disposition and use of the traveling libraries. (h) A committee on school excursions plans and manages visits of pupils and teachers to other schools and other countries. (i) A board of economics has charge of the finances of the association. (j) The information committee confers with, advises, and helps teachers in economical and legal matters. (k) A life insurance committee advises teachers and looks after their life insurance interests. (l) The correspondence committee has the duty of bringing about suitable cooperation with teachers' associations of other countries.

Through these several branches the association takes the initiative in educational endeavors, conducts discussions, issues reports, and formulates educational measures for the consideration of the State supervisory board. In this way it has, for instance, done efficient work in the interest of the higher folk schools and in securing the enactment for obligatory attendance at a continuation school. The 15,000 crowns allowed by the Riksdag for teachers' continuation courses is due to the efforts of the association. By means of this sum the association has established teachers' libraries, teachers' courses in drawing, singing, and courses in practical labor. Besides instituting lecture series in studies in the home locality in several centers, the association is cooperating with the State supervisory board in efforts to secure a normal plan for locality study.

During 1913 the association conducted an investigation on the condition of the pupils' health. It found that certain steps toward ameliorating the conditions should at once be taken, and immediately submitted requests to the school committee on the care of the pupils' teeth. In its official organ it has combated the use of tobacco among pupils; it has caused the privileges of the pupils' health colonies to be more generally extended to children in poor health.

The association has accomplished much for its members and for the schools in general in campaigning for adequate salary increase in view of the high prices of recent years, and also in encouraging teachers to remain at their posts of duty instead of accepting tempting offers of more remunerative employment.

DENMARK.

GENERAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

Administrative boards representing both the church and the state exercise control and supervision over the schools of Denmark. The State adopts the regulations governing programs and courses, the length of the school year, and the distribution of the vacations; it provides the facilities for the training of teachers, passes on petitions for grants and subventions, and attends to the general management of all the economic matters of the schools.

In the several communes, local school matters are dealt with by parish commissions. In the cities the commission consists of the pastor, the mayor, and two or three lay members; in the rural districts it is made up of the pastor and one or two lay members. Through these authorities the communes exercise a degree of supervision and inspection that in other countries is usually vested in officials of the State. Immediately above the parish boards stands the county council with its school direction, whose chief function is to appoint teachers from lists supplied by the parish and to have charge of the apportionment of teachers' remuneration and pensions.

Through the ex officio position of pastors and bishops the school stands in close relation to the church: In each diocese the bishop visits the schools and informs himself directly concerning their educational needs, how teachers and school boards are attending to their duties, etc.

The status of religious instruction is a subject of recurrent discussion in the journals of education. The law as it reads now permits exemption from instruction in the case of children whose parents do not belong to the state church, on the condition, however, that they in some other way receive equivalent knowledge of general moral and religious truths.¹ In order to give the teacher freedom in conducting the recitation, no formal examinations are required in this subject and no grades are issued.

In former years it was held as self-evident that the schools should teach religion as the foundation for training in moral stability of character. But later views insist that pupils should be left independent of the problems of religion and that the subject should be taught as a part of general history, leaving purely religious instruction to the church and the home. The majority of teachers, however, hold that instruction as hitherto conducted should be maintained, even though many of them would gladly be independent of the ecclesiastical supervision now exercised over their work.

¹ Handbog i lovgivningen om den danske folkeskole, 1917.

The first compulsory school law was passed in 1814. As modified by later enactments now in effect, it requires children to attend from 7 to 14 years of age, the period comprised in the elementary school. In the event of privation or sickness prevailing in the home, a pupil may be excused from attendance at school. A formal release from attendance may also be granted before the expiration of the required school-period. The responsibility for granting such excuses for nonattendance rests solely with the school commission.

These regulations have been so strictly enforced that there is virtually no illiteracy. A careful record of absences is kept and reported, and when they are not accounted for in a satisfactory way, fines are collected. For the year 1914 the sum of 15,000 crowns¹ was thus collected in Copenhagen. In other cities and in rural communities the sum thus brought in amounted to 79,000 crowns.

The length of the school year is 41 to 46 weeks, about 246 days. The local board determines the proportion of whole and half days per week in the district, often making it four whole days and two half days in winter, and three whole days and three half days in summer. The number of hours required per week is a minimum of 21, not counting gymnastics, drawing, manual training, sloyd, and household work for women. The regulations also fix the maximum number of pupils in a class as 37 for schools in the country and 35 in the city.

At the age of 11 the pupil may enter on a four-year course in the intermediate school (Mellemskole) with one year extra for those who desire to prepare for the modern school (realskole) examination, which admits the pupils to the gymnasium. The gymnasium offers courses along three lines: The classical, the modern language, and the mathematical-scientific. School reforms now under consideration propose to reduce these lines by the omission of the classical, including its subjects under one of the two remaining ones. The same trend in the secondary schools moves in the direction of giving more time to the study of English and German by omitting Latin. How the status of German will be affected by the war is not clear nor can it readily be forecast from the reports that are at hand.

There are 48 gymnasia, of which 8 offer all three lines, 29 offer 2, and 11 only 1. The total number of secondary schools in 1912—commercial, private, and State—was 218, of which 146 were coeducational, while 32 were exclusively for boys and 40 for girls. Tuition in the intermediate school is 120 crowns per year; in the gymnasium it is 150 crowns.

¹ A crown is equal to 24 cents.

In response to the demand for practical training for those who have completed the elementary course, a number of trade schools, continuation schools, and evening schools have sprung up. As the pupils of these are generally wage-earners, many trade schools have the schedule of hours so arranged that a pupil may take up selected studies without discontinuing his regular employment in the factory or the shop. The attempt has therefore been made to extend the schedule so as to make use of the evening hours, giving rise to a considerable number of evening schools. For 1912 there were 798 throughout the country. But as the teachers of these schools and the pupils that attend them are employed during the day, it has been felt that other forms of continuation schools offer better working conditions. Again, the evening schools, by stressing almost exclusively the remunerative side of the occupation in which the pupil is engaged, do not respond to the need for more cultural activity, which asserts itself, even in these practical associations.

The objections against permitting the pupils to give a part of their time to remunerative work have not been overlooked. In 1908 an investigation by Denmark's Statistical Bureau showed that of a total of 370,440 children 45,512 worked certain hours a day for parents and guardians and that 65,397 had employment with others, hence less than one-third of the pupils had to perform labor not connected with school assignments. In so far as the investigation was completed, it did not substantiate the supposition that pupils employed under the child-labor regulations were thereby handicapped in health, development, or progress.

One class of institutions in Denmark has attracted the attention of the whole world, namely, the peoples' high schools, which, together with the agricultural schools, have greatly advanced the farming classes in prosperity and prestige. In Copenhagen is a veterinary school of high rank. There are professional schools for medicine, dentistry, and pharmacy; also noted technological and navigation schools. The Academy of Fine Arts and the Conservatory of Music rank high among institutions of their kind.

The University of Copenhagen comprises the faculties of theology, law, medicine, philosophy, science, and mathematics. The number of students, including those regularly matriculated and others, is upwards of 3,000. Its courses run through periods of 5 to 6 years. It is a center of research and scientific activity, which already numbers many scientists who have made momentous contributions in their several fields. In the United States these names are well known: Meyer in medicine, Lorenz in physics, Thomsen in chemistry, Höfding in philosophy and psychology, and Brandes in literature and criticism.

THE NATIONAL POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE.

This institution, ranking with the university in scope and advancement, has given direction to much of the scientifically constructive work in the northern countries. In 1918 it had a faculty of 46 professors, 39 instructors and 25 assistants, with a number of laboratory and machine shop assistants and attendants. Broadly speaking, the instruction embraces four departments with groups of courses in factory engineering, mechanical engineering, architectural engineering, and electrical engineering. To complete the work in any one of these lines, requires four and one-half years. The subjects taught include all those connected with theoretical and applied science. Counting the courses taught by lectures, the series of experiments and laboratory exercises, the number of subject units offered during 1918 amounted to about 600. A few of them are; Architecture and iron and steel construction; ship building; road building; house building; electrotechnics; heating and ventilation; municipal hygiene engineering; technical chemistry; machine testing; testing of materials; planning factory plants; theory of dynamic motion; theory of experimentation, in which the most common methods of making experiments in physics are explained; courses for workers and specialists in machine construction and factory engineering; chemistry for specialists in mineralogy and geology; technical chemistry applied in the study of fertilizers; glass composition and characteristics, melting and decoration; reducing ores and the extraction of chief products and by-products; distillation of peat deposits; purification and manufacture into gases and oils; and agricultural bacteriology; nitrogen-producing bacteria. These are only a few of the remarkably comprehensive list of courses.

Anyone who can give satisfactory evidence of being prepared to profit by the work is admitted. To register for examination, however, certain specified preparatory subjects are required. The cost of instruction, including laboratory facilities, is 50 crowns per semester for those registering for examination. The fee for a course of one lecture per week is usually three crowns per semester; for a greater number of lectures and laboratory hours the charges are at proportionate rates.

Recently a new degree has been instituted, that of Doctor of Technics, conferred on those who successfully pass the final examination and whose written theses are accepted. Foreign students, who present sufficient evidence of having completed the prerequisite studies and of being engaged in scientific researches approved by the authorities, may enroll for this degree.

Any one holding the degree of Doctor of Technics has the right to offer courses of lectures at the Polytechnic Institute after application in accordance with the rules of the institution.

A number of funds have been provided for the purpose of encouraging students to enter this institution. The American-Scandinavian Foundation of New York has liberal funds available for persons taking up studies in this or any other institution in the Scandinavian countries.

THE PEOPLE'S HIGH SCHOOL.

These institutions have long had the attention of educators from many countries. They have been regarded as one of the chief agencies that helped Denmark to recover from the disastrous wars of 1864-1866. To them, in a large measure, is due the achievement of making the meager soil of the country so productive as to raise the farming population from privation to a fair degree of comfort. The model farms, the dairying and packing-house industries, which have become the pattern for other countries, have been set down to their credit. Educators of the war-stricken countries will find in these institutions not only efficiency in the usual sense, but some of the basic elements that make for recovery and reconstruction.

The system of schools.—Though something may be credited to the system, as will be pointed out, the obvious achievements of the schools are mainly due to other causes. They have no class-room procedures that can be considered superior to the other schools of this country. Their teachers are not better trained; their experimental and laboratory facilities are not more ample. The agricultural schools are just as practical, and they do many things better. The vocational and trade schools are more direct in the insistence on the productive application of what is learned. The well-equipped technological institutions of Denmark supply better training in more advanced courses.

But the system establishes a relation between the pupil and the instruction that in itself promotes achievement. At the age of 14, or earlier, the pupil leaves the elementary school, usually to take a position as an apprentice in one of the trades or as an employee on a farm. During several years of the adolescent period he is employed in manual work, attaining development of body and also some definiteness of purpose. Most of all his experiences, often under a severe taskmaster, create in him a desire to lift himself above the restrictions in which he toils. Then at the age of 18, or later, he may enter the Peoples' High School to improve his opportunities, and he then readily meets the one entrance condition the institution imposes, namely, a desire to learn.

Where he sees an opening for useful work, he does not feel hampered by degrees or ends to be attained in the final examination. Older people may come to the high school to get information pertaining to some line of work they have in hand, and stay during the

days or weeks necessary to obtain the full aid of the school. This adaptable character makes it possible to take cognizance not only of the special needs of a group of farmers or fishermen, but of such particular conditions as govern the industries of any locality.

The spirit of the schools.—It is claimed that they have discovered the way to educate the young men back to the farms, and, if this be true, it is worth while to note how they do it. Some main causes are principal and some are contributory. In the first place, all their courses and experiments are associated with the sense of the dignity of labor. They teach, not caste, nor self-conscious pride that looks for contrasts and distinctions, but a simple love for the farm, the forest, and the sea—the dignity of the farmer's occupation, let other occupations be what they may.

The schools begin their recitations with songs, thereby investing the work with a zest that could not easily be obtained in any other way. This practice perhaps furnishes a psychological stimulus to the students and aids cooperative effort. Poetry and singing, in fact, lie close to all they do in the classroom as well as in the evening voluntaries. The students take their poets earnestly, seriously, while we, too often, only tolerate them. But poetry prepares the way for the Danish high school teacher to impress his pupils with a sense of individual moral responsibility, which is the only real basis on which cooperative work can be accomplished. People must trust each other and be able to turn aside from their own advantage and manifest an interest in others and the cause, if banking or marketing cooperation is to be successful. It is not some one's technical skill or grasp that makes such an enterprise possible but rather the spirit that pervades it.

We are accustomed to treat our school subjects strictly according to their character. Whatever is matter-of-fact is dealt with as such without any attempts to idealize it. We relegate sentiment to what is held to be its own proper place. But in the Danish schools geography, sociology, poetry, and love of country come into very human relations during the school hour. These schools are able consistently to deal with the main subject in its proper character without losing sight of its points of human connection.

As the principal facts about these institutions are readily available,¹ it may suffice merely to mention that there are about 80 such schools in Denmark, about 45 in Sweden, and 24 in Norway. They are started by public-spirited members of a community, who call a mass meeting, and raise the necessary funds by subscription. Afterwards the schools are accredited by the State and receive State aid. They

¹ A School for Grown-ups. By Philander Priestly Claxton. In Conference for Education for the South. Proceedings, 1909, pp. 199-203.
The Educational System of Rural Denmark. By Harold W. Foght. U. S. Bureau of Education, 1914.

give a six months' course in the winter for young men, and a five months' course in the summer for young women. In some of these institutions the courses cover two years; in others, one year. Worthy students receive State aid. An inspector visits them and reports on the work. The Government, however, does not interfere with the arrangement of subjects, courses, or hours, but satisfies itself with knowing that there are devoted teachers and authorities and permits them to go on without interference.

SCHOOL EXCURSIONS.

School journeys have become a part of the year's program in most schools. They are the realization of a principle which is gaining the general approval of educators in this country. Teachers and pupils, it is held, find some of their best opportunities for training and instruction in material lying outside of books and classrooms.

Every autumn, toward the middle of September, there is an excursion of two days for the boys of from 10 to 12 years, accompanied by a few of the larger boys, who make it as a final trip. These instruct the younger ones in the details of the journey, help in the discipline of the party, and encourage their younger companions in endurance while on the march, so that the latter may be trained to take part in the grand excursion coming later. If a pupil should show himself much fatigued by the trip, he is not permitted to take part in the later excursions. One of these comes in the spring and lasts seven days; another during the summer vacation and lasts from three to four weeks.

Usually there are about 30 or 40 pupils in the party and three or four teachers, the number taking part in the shorter trips being, however, considerably greater. As preparation, the pupils are instructed in the route with the map before them and otherwise helped to be benefited by what they are likely to see. They prepare a guide pamphlet of their own, with maps, descriptions, and also regulations to be observed while en route. Each pupil is required to keep a day-book, both for purposes of gaining clearer impressions and for acquiring a souvenir of the trip. A fine is imposed on those who do not observe the regulations and a prize awarded to the one who furnishes the best description. Each pupil carries a knapsack with his equipment and also provisions for a week, if the trip is to last that long. A day's march is often 37 kilometers (23 miles)—sufficiently long, as it would seem. Every two or three hours they rest an hour by some spring or stream, lunch, bathe, or, at least, take a foot bath. Toward 6 o'clock the party halts at a hotel and takes dinner or supper, usually a frugal meal. At 9 o'clock everybody is expected to be in his room, where he may not talk so as to disturb others, though he may converse quietly, and write letters or write the day's account

in his diary. The program indicates the hour for breakfast, and it rests with each one to get up and appear in time, for the members of the party are often lodged at different hotels.

For a trip of two days the expense of each pupil is 4 or 5 crowns a day; for the longer summer journeys, it is about 5 crowns a day. The journeys are not limited to Denmark, but include railway and steamship trips to Norway, Sweden, Vienna, Berlin, Milan, etc. Everything is carefully planned in advance, so as to reduce the expense.

The places included in the itinerary are those that afford an interest from the point of view of history or nature, so that the teachers may connect them with what the pupils do at school. In foreign countries practice in speaking the vernacular is eagerly sought. Visits are made to industrial establishments and operations and processes are explained. Notes are kept on the places visited, history, life of the people, natural resources, markets, etc., which are afterwards worked up into papers and essays. Teachers find that on a trip pupils show much greater interest than while on the benches of the classroom. On their part, too, pupils learn to know and to appreciate their teachers better.

Of a similar order are children's vacation journeys, originally intended to give poor children of the cities the advantage of a few weeks in the country. Every year about 25,000 boys and girls from the schools of Copenhagen, Frederiksborg, and Aarhus obtain free transportation by railroad or steamboat to the country to pass four or five weeks with families who extend hospitality to them. Usually the parents of the children make arrangements with some family willing to receive them during vacation, but a great many are furnished accommodations and entertainment through the efforts of the schools. At a certain time of the year the children inform the principal of their wish to spend some time in the country, of the place they desire to visit, and possibly the family with whom they would like to stay. The principal takes these suggestions into consideration, and with the assistance of the other school authorities prepares a list of the names to be submitted to the railroad or steamship companies with a request for the necessary tickets. These tickets are sent to the schools. The companies run special vacation trains carrying the children to their summer destinations. In order to reciprocate, the people of Copenhagen have formed a "Society for Entertaining Children from the Provinces." This society has met with great success. In recent years 163 village schools with more than 8,000 pupils have been benefited by its work. The transportation companies have been accommodating and generous. The stay in Copenhagen is at the expense of the society, which receives a subvention of 4,000 crowns from the city of Copenhagen and lesser sums from other cities.

TEACHERS' TRAINING, SALARIES, AND STATUS.

Teachers of the elementary schools are trained in the normal schools, of which there are 4 public and 15 private, offering three-year courses. Tuition at the private normal schools is 150 crowns a year. To be admitted the applicant must be at least 18 years of age. The teachers in the State secondary schools are educated at the university. Examination in specified academic subjects are required; then follows the special pedagogical training with practice teaching in some school approved by the university.

As new subjects have been added to the curricula and new types of schools developed, there has come to be an insistent demand for better training of teachers. It is not complete enough, the critics say; it includes no instruction in a foreign language, and, in general, it is too limited in view of the rapidly expanding field of education, both in practical and theoretical directions. Again, the teachers' colleges have too decidedly an academic character. The discussion of inadequacies of this kind have thus far led only to the regulation of 1913 requiring a strict entrance examination for admission to these institutions. By means of special courses in methods and practices the teachers have, through their individual efforts, tried to keep abreast of the progress made in their profession.

While the teachers' compensation, here as elsewhere, has been inadequate during the recent years of high prices, requiring special enactments for an emergency increase, the laws provide a fair competence during normal years. Here as in other Scandinavian countries the salaries and the eventual pensions are so regulated that a position means a certain salary, with periodical increases and, upon attaining the age limit, a retiring allowance. As a prerequisite for an appointment that places him in line for this remuneration, the applicant must have passed the teacher's examination and served successfully as a teacher during four years.

The prospect of a periodical increase in salary and a final retiring competence induces the teacher to look upon his calling, not as a stepping stone to something more desirable, but as a life work. He is also relieved, in a measure, of the petty annoyances of having to negotiate with local boards from time to time. Successive enactments have had the effect of placing the salaries on the basis of the needs and comforts which a person in the position of a teacher may reasonably expect. In a general way the remuneration is higher in Sweden, counting the successive increments for years of service. In all the Scandinavian countries there are, over and above the yearly pay, trees, home, garden, and fuel or the money equivalents of these. An interesting and significant part of the salary laws is the consideration given for length of service.

Through the courtesy of Supt. Holger Begtrup, of the People's High School at Frederiksborg, Denmark, the salary regulations now in effect, together with special enactments for 1919, are at hand. The fixed annual salary has for a number of years past been as follows:

For a rural teacher in the first salary class 900 to 1,500 crowns plus the teacher's home, garden plot, and fuel, with successive increments, which in the course of 20 years raise the salary to 1,900-2,500 crowns. For a rural teacher in the second salary class, 700-900, plus home, garden, and fuel, increasing in the course of 20 years to 1,700-1,900 crowns. Women teachers in primary grades (in rural districts), 500-700 crowns. Teachers in the cities of the provinces receive a basic salary of 1,600 crowns, increasing in 20 years to 3,000. Women teachers in the cities of the provinces, basic salary 1,500 crowns, increasing in 20 years to 2,000. A teacher in Copenhagen receives 1,800 crowns, gradually increasing to 3,600.

Besides the municipal "high-expense bonus," which, in places where it is granted, amounts to 100-200 crowns annually, the State, has during the same years also granted a high-expense bonus. It is paid to teachers under the civil-service enactment of 1917 and amounts to the following sums for 1918: Six hundred crowns for a married teacher and 400 for a single teacher, in no case, however, to exceed 60 per cent of the current salary. This addition to the teacher's salary has been further increased by recent enactments adding 120 crowns to a married teacher's salary for 1919.

This law then fixes the remuneration of a teacher in the cities for 1919 at the current annual salary increased by 25 per cent, plus 720 crowns for a married teacher (500 for unmarried teachers). To illustrate: A married teacher in the lowest salary class in the cities will receive for 1919, 1,600 crowns plus 400 plus 720, hence a total of 2,720 crowns. A married teacher in the highest salary class in the cities will receive for 1919, 3,000 crowns plus 750 crowns plus 720, hence a total of 4,470.

For 1919 a special addition will be made to the pensions of teachers, widows, or orphans entitled to annual stipends or pensions. According to paragraph 9, the bonus to be paid will be 25 per cent of the pension, provided this amounts to 2,000 crowns or more; 30 per cent in case the pension is 1,000 to 2,000; 35 if it is between 700 and 1,000, and 40 per cent if it is below 700; yet the bonus must in no case be less than 240 crowns. Again, the pension and the bonus together in any of these cases must not be less than that to which a person with lower pension may be entitled.

In attempting to follow the work of the elementary teacher closely enough to see what particular phases of it he emphasizes, the following facts will be noted:

1. Wherever possible the elementary teacher leads his pupils to a point of physical connection with what has been intellectually acquired. Excellent instruction material, he believes, is found in the physical properties of earth and air, plants and animals, local resources, traffic, and commercial relations. The pupils have a keen desire to see things, a characteristic to which the teacher can appeal, causing them, for instance, to watch the growth of a sprouting plant, by starting—it may be on a very modest scale—an aquarium or a herbarium. By bringing a bit of nature into the school, new impulses will be imparted to the children.

2. The Danish teacher stresses the unity and organized form of the subject matter. In the advanced elementary class the topic, for instance, may be Holland and her transformation from a stretch of coastal marshes to a region of fields, downs, and pasture lands. Following this in its development the struggle of the people will come into view, their means of subsistence and the causes that started the industries of the country and gave it its very appearance at the present day. In close association come topics about life in various parts of the country. In brief, Holland as a unit, an individuality, is presented with various aspects of life and development in causal relations, and all without attempts at speculative conclusions.

3. The Danish teacher insists on the cooperation of the parents. He endeavors to bridge the chasm between the school and the home by informing the parents by direct and honest statements just how their children are getting along. The reports of the standing of the pupils in the school, issued at fixed intervals, tell the story of the children's progress only in part. They do not come so closely home to the parents as the full explanations which are also furnished at fixed periods. The following are typical examples of the latter taken from Vor Ungdom:

In English X has shown diligence and interest; he has acquired a more correct pronunciation and better expression in his reading. But his progress is not as yet satisfactory. He is yet unskilled in English phonetics and in English spelling. He lacks readiness in the use of language, but he is fairly sure in grasping the correct grammatical construction of an English sentence, and he has fair ability to render it in Danish. By continued diligence he will overcome the difficulties the subject presents.

The progress made by Y in the German language is not very satisfactory; he lacks the power of combining expressions. (He translates the words by rote in the German word order.) His imagination is hampered so that in a connection where he knows all the words but one and the meaning of this one is fully clear from the context, he can not translate it. His eye does not sharply catch the words of the text, hence he constantly confuses *v* and *v*; *e* and *ie*. He has difficulty in retaining what he has once learned, both words and grammar forms. He deserves praise for the interest and diligence he has shown, but he should be impressed with the need of working with greater concentration. In some respects he has made fair progress; his vocabulary has increased; and his knowledge of grammar and his pronunciation have improved. While his general advance must be stated as hardly satisfactory, the fact must not be forgotten that he has studied German only one year.

The general supervision and inspection exercised over the teacher's work have been the subjects of considerable criticism. In his recent book, "The History of the Danish Public Schools" (1918), Joakim Larsen speaks of the "school supervision as virtually the same as that found antiquated 100 years ago, notwithstanding the fact that both teachers and schools have become entirely different." Many teachers hold that the independence of the schools requires that the supervision should be exercised by men from their own midst. Both as regards the administration and the supervision, teachers as well as clergymen are of the opinion that they lack the immediate authority found in most other countries. The Government commission of 1909 recommended that a supervisor should be appointed for each district and that he should take the place of the rector on the local board. The recommendation was not acted upon lest it should restrict the independence of the municipal board; again, some of the clergy saw in the proposed reform the beginning of the separation of the school from the church.

ARTICULATION BETWEEN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

Among the questions at present much discussed in school circles is how to effect a satisfactory continuity between the public elementary and the four-year intermediate school. There should be, it is felt, a more compact organic unity among schools of these different types; a division point should be provided so that a pupil at the age of 14 may discontinue, if he desires, courses reaching completion at that stage. The articulation should be so adjusted that pupils from homes of different social planes may be induced to attend the same school through the elementary period.

The present system of public-school education comprises several types of schools related in the following order of continuity and articulation:

I. The Folk School: (a) A common-school period for all children between 7 and 10. (b) Advanced division of the common school for pupils between 11 and 14, the end of the required period.

II. The intermediate school with a four-year course for pupils from 11 to 15.

III. A modern school division of one year for pupils having completed the intermediate school, leading to real-skole (modern school) examination. For pupils from 15 to 16.

IV. A three-year gymnasium for pupils from 15 to 18.

The law of 1903 was passed with the general purpose of effecting a closer union among these types and with the special purpose of making the folk school the groundwork of the entire system. As the same law provided for additional aid to the intermediate schools, one result was the creation of a large number of schools of this kind.

supplanting thereby a proportionate number of the private schools, which up to this time had prepared pupils for the modern school examination. The vogue they gained was not altogether welcomed by the teachers and authorities of the Danish folk school. These regarded the law as framed and passed mainly in the interest of the secondary schools. Political and social conditions rather than pedagogical, it was held,¹ had been the causes of the general expansion of the intermediate school. But its dual character of a preparatory school for the gymnasium and of a modern school had left it with a lack of organic unity that has been felt as a defect in its work. Moreover, the period of 11-15 is not satisfactory, because it fixes a division not at all in accordance with the changes that take place in the psychic life of the pupils at these years. The teachers of the folk school complain, further, that they lose a number of their best pupils who avail themselves of the opportunity to pass into the intermediate school at the end of the fourth year, thereby reducing the upper classes of the folk school to a form of subordination, both in number and prestige. Many of these enter the intermediate school without intending to complete its courses, the consequence being that they derive but little benefit from its instruction, and, in a measure, hamper the progress of others.

To remedy this defect, a regulation was issued requiring parents and guardians to sign an agreement upon the admission of their charges to the intermediate school to have them continue to completion. But protests and appeals against this requirement reached the supervisory board, with the result that the department in its letter of March 4, 1914, modified the order. While the creation of the intermediate school has had undoubted influence for the advancement of secondary education, its relation to the lower schools, particularly with respect to its connection with the latter, has not been satisfactory.

Discussions looking toward desirable changes were begun several years ago and are still continuing. In drafting propositions for alterations, the schoolmen have had to struggle not only with the usual principles of giving the period covered a rational and natural beginning, rounded completeness in itself, and adaptation for continuance, but also local demands urged by special provinces and, in particular, differences between cities and rural communities. In consequence, the plans could not be too rigid or inelastic in fixing, for instance, the number of weeks in the school year. The economic side, too, had to be considered, so that the plan would not entail too great expense by parent or community. Further, any abrupt departure from established school traditions would be sure to be opposed.

¹ Joakim Larsen, den Danske Folkeskoles Historie.

Social distinctions, which, especially in Copenhagen, have kept children from different social ranks in separate schools, have been connected with notions of restriction in the scope and character of the work to be done by this or that type of school.

In order to show the trend of development in the organic relations among the schools, several plans for proposed changes (one of them submitted in legislative form) will be briefly noticed.

One of the earliest suggestions came from Prof. Tuxen, the inspector of the Danish folk school, and may, therefore, be taken to represent views held by this class of educators. He would extend the period of compulsory attendance by one year, hence to the fifteenth instead of the fourteenth year, making the common-school period cover eight years. In this way he would have the three lower classes of the intermediate school merged with the folk school. He would take up one foreign language in this period and abolish the present final examination in the intermediate school. One year should be added to the gymnasium, admission to which should require an entrance examination. As an alteration of this scope would meet opposition in the Rigsdag, he believed a temporary regulation should be made, permitting the communities that so desired to put it into effect by extending the period of required attendance one year. In his opinion, the vital element is to avoid regulating the instruction with reference to the gymnasium, but to make it complete in itself, and not preparatory.

In March, 1917, the views held by the representatives of the modern (real) school were formulated by A. Christensen-Dalsgaard. He refers to a previous expression by the Modern School Association of Denmark, in which the members had unanimously agreed to work for changes in the common-school law, in accordance with the following general lines: 1. The instruction in the modern school should be concluded at the age of 16, with an examination in all branches meeting the requirements for entrance to the gymnasium. 2. A concluding division point in the instruction should be provided at approximately the fourteenth year. 3. The instruction concluded at the fourteenth year should be of an elementary character, with two languages and mathematics. 4. The association expressed the belief that a school reorganization to this extent could be made without materially affecting the modern school or detracting from its independence.

Outside of the teaching profession it is held—and most teachers are in accord with the proposition—that the folk school should be so ordered that it can, by continuation classes, impart instruction up to the sixteenth year without making it necessary for the pupil to leave home. It should be so conducted that the pupil does not become estranged from practical work, and unaccustomed to it, and so that

the expense does not become materially greater than at present. Regard should be had to social and economic arrangements, so that it does not cause vexatious innovations. The lengthened school period must not be extended to a point where schools and instruction become uninteresting and fatiguing, very common occurrences in the intermediate school.

Changes in accordance with these views are advocated by schoolmen in western Denmark. A superintendent from this part of the country, Karl S. Svanum, outlines a plan based on these principles, supporting his plan by details from schools where it has already been put into practice.

How the commission, appointed by the Department of Education to draft a revision of the existing law, has understood and embodied the present trend can be seen in the draft of a law prepared for the consideration of the Rigsdag. In its preliminary remarks the commission sums up the objections to the present law and states briefly what will be gained by adapting the proposed alterations. The law now in effect, the commission maintains, determines the articulation from above downwards, with the view of preserving the age of 18 as the year when the gymnasium course is to be completed, requiring the intermediate school as the preparatory, to conclude at 15. The immediate difficulty of these time limits is that they leave no point of conclusion at 14, the end of the compulsory period, but expect that the period would be advanced to 15 years, a change that at present does not seem likely. By concluding the intermediate school at 14, in accordance with the drafted plan, this difficulty will disappear. Another effect will be that the graduates from the intermediate school may continue either in the gymnasium or the modern school, the period covered by the latter being increased so as to comprise two years. The same change will also permit the pupils to continue together the first two years, when those who do not wish to go through the gymnasium may finish with a suitable examination, leaving the last two years for concentration on subjects best suited to the maturity of those who continue.

The drafted proposition thus defines each type of school and fixes the years it covers:

1. Proceeding from the instruction imparted by the folk school up to the years 10 or 11, advanced instruction is to be given, first in the intermediate school, then in the modern (real) school or the gymnasium.

2. The intermediate school comprises four one-year classes, imparting instruction of an advanced character and adapted to pupils of 10-14.

3. The modern school continues from the intermediate with two one-year classes of advanced instruction leading to a suitable examination.

4. The gymnasium continues from the intermediate school through four one-year classes with advanced instruction, adapted as a preparation for continued studies.

The instruction in the gymnasium divides along two chief lines according to the studies included in each and are to be known respectively as the *linguistic-historical* and the *mathematic-scientific*.

Besides fixing the course limits and interrelation among the types, the law as drawn up has in other paragraphs a number of provisions of vital importance in the system. The three classes of schools—intermediate, modern, and gymnasium—may be organized to give instruction separately to boys and girls, or they may be made coeducational. Where they are coeducational, certain phases of the work may be managed as separate for either sex.

Touching instruction in religion, pupils who do not belong to the State Church may, upon request from parents or guardians, be relieved from taking up the subject.

The commission points out that the proposed arrangement will be to the advantage of the common school in that its first three years will constitute a distinct unit covering the first stage, at the end of which a reclassification of the pupils and a change of teachers takes place. As this will leave the four upper classes of the folk school running parallel with those of the intermediate, it will be possible to group the subjects in such a way that the same plan can be followed by both schools. The plan will also lead to a simplification at a stage further along. The four-year gymnasium will comprise two halves, each a unit in itself. The parallelism of the first unit of two years with the modern school of the same period will make the two examinations coincide so that the status conferred by the one will be equivalent to that of the other.

As the revised plan reduces the lines of the gymnasium instruction by leaving out the classical line, and grouping its subjects under the linguistic-historical, the commission points out the advantages it believes will result therefrom. The omitted line had been followed mainly by students expecting to enter the ministry; but the scope of many gymnasiums had not been comprehensive enough to include it, hence prospective theological students at these institutions had to submit to a special examination in the classical languages upon entering the university. Under the revised plan it will be possible to take up these subjects as a part of the linguistic-historical line where occasion demands without any rearrangement of the curriculum. Though the plan omits the classical line, it has in reality strengthened

the classical studies by giving these an increased number of hours in the two concluding years, the years of greatest maturity.

While the present discussion of the proposed plan has met with only such criticism as would be expected upon suggesting a departure from a long established order, it has in general been commended for the completion of school periods at points coinciding with other school requirements and customs, for bringing the subjects of the gymnasium into a more consistent grouping and for simplifying the articulation among the schools so that they give a more compact unity to the system.

HOLLAND.

The analogy which the school and school systems of Holland bear to those of other European countries is not close enough to preclude distinct national traits. These are not so obvious in the distinct types of schools and content of courses offered as in the national spirit and temperament which pervades and controls them. The school enactments that were adopted early as guides for subsequent development have proved to be a sufficiently safe basis for expansion to make unnecessary later enactments of a purely corrective character.

In the statutes regulating the schools of Holland can be traced an unwillingness on the part of the legislators to introduce radical innovations or to impose unnecessary restraints on either parents, teachers, or local authorities. Hence every movement that has eventually resulted in a radical departure from the established order or has given rise to a new type of school, such as the up-to-date technical and agricultural schools, originated in private initiative, gained local support, and expanded through State subventions, marking at every stage a steady methodical growth. The lawmakers have assumed that the people understood how intimately their interests were bound up with the efficiency of the schools and that the people would ungrudgingly bear the expense of their maintenance and growth, and also that local enterprise and intelligence could be counted on to aid in their management.

The disinclination to regulate where regulation can be dispensed with is seen in the attitude of the State toward the earliest training of the child. Whatever educational efforts should be made during infant years have been thought of as devolving entirely upon the parents both as a duty and as a prerogative, hence the State does not maintain infant schools nor institutions to provide them with teachers. The same objection against unnecessary lawmaking accounts for the State's reluctance and delay in passing a compulsory attendance law. Parents saw to it that their children attended the elementary schools

with regularity. In the attainments of her people in the rudiments of education, Holland has ranked favorably with the other European countries. In 1900 such a law was, however, passed, but with a majority of only one; it fixed the ages 6 to 12 as the period of obligatory attendance.

In matters of vital concern to children, particularly the care of the youngest pupils, Holland has been by no means slow in passing the necessary regulations. The strictest form of inspection has long been exercised in supervising the health and care of the young. Official reports from every district and school community have been required involving a fullness of detail touching the ventilation, heating, kind and position of school desks, lighting, cleanliness, the source and nature of the water, the playground and instruction in games. The regulations also covered the form of the earliest instruction, providing that this should not be based on books but should be given in connection with the handling of objects and with such recreation and activity as might be provided in the school garden.

In determining the amount and character of work a child ought to be permitted to do outside of school hours, the controlling authorities have evidently avoided attempting to cover it by a legal formula, but have left it in such shape that an adjustment may be made by inspectors on the merits of individual cases. To that end the local inspector

may [art. 3] grant a temporary exemption from attendance at school for work in agriculture, gardening, tending cattle, etc., to children who in the last six months preceding the application, have regularly attended school, for not more than six weeks annually, not reckoning the vacations.¹

This article meets a condition common to all farming districts. At certain seasons of the year there is urgent need for the help that pupils of school age may be able to render with due regard to their years and health. If this demand is sufficiently general in a community, the school may, of course, be closed during the busy weeks, but, if this be done, there is the danger that some pupils thereby dismissed would have to waste their time in idleness. The application for excuse is left to an inspector after having heard the reasons, and specified regularity in attendance may be demanded as a prerequisite for granting it.

The law of 1900 and the later one of 1911 were found to be sound in principle, as proved by the embodiment of their main features in the law that superseded them in 1917, a child-protecting law prepared by the minister of education. This measure is not a substitution for these but rather a development of what was potentially inherent in them. The new enactment supplies a number of practical details and also extends its general application to urban as well as to rural life. In the first place, it distinguishes between wage-earning children employed by outsiders and one's own children employed at individual

¹ British Special Reports on Educational Subjects. Supplement to Vol. 2, p. 7.

work, like chores. A child under 12 with the duty of attending school may not be employed on the farm; the municipal authorities may, however, permit children above 10 to perform certain kinds of work under specified conditions. Young persons under 16 are forbidden to do any farm work between 9 in the evening and 5 in the morning. This clause supersedes the one of 1911 which prohibited factory work by children between 13 and 17.

Holland's avoidance of measures imposing restraint and her firm insistence on essentials have proved to be sound principles in building up the system. To the teacher must be left a degree of latitude in selecting the studies of the curriculum, in apportioning the number of hours, and, most of all, in finding his own methods. The schedules made out by an official committee usually bear evidence of a desire to include as many subjects as possible with insufficient regard to what may reasonably be managed and assimilated within the time allotted, matters concerning which the teacher, who is responsible for the results, should have something to say.

In leaving the way open for individual and local initiative and encouraging its exercise in the interest of progress, Holland has not altogether escaped the difficulties that obstruct progress of this kind. It has not always been easy for her teachers to get out of the old grooves nor to take up more timely subjects instead of the old ones to which they had been accustomed. The most difficult point in choosing details of the study program was settled, fortunately as it appears, in 1889, when the law applying to instruction in religion was so framed that this subject was not excluded from the schools but its presentation regulated so that there could be no objection to it on sectarian grounds. Its inclusion was made optional out of regard for prevailing views; but if a teacher imparted the instruction in such a way as to interfere with the wishes of school patrons, he made himself liable to severe penalties. The act which placed the private church schools on a par with the State schools by extending to them the same amount—30 per cent of the total expense—as State subvention, has been regarded as a wise measure for a country almost equally divided between Protestants and Catholics. But one less fortunate trend has been the result of this enactment. Between the private schools and the State schools arose an unexpected distinction through which the latter came to be known as schools for the poor. They have, in consequence, suffered a decline so marked that in 1917 a request to the Netherland Teachers' Association insisted on an investigation of the support and the attitude of the municipalities to the two kinds of schools.

The teacher of Holland is prepared for his work by a four-year course in the training colleges. In one respect the entrance conditions differ here from those of similar institutions in other parts of

northern Europe, namely, in the requirement of a strict physical examination over and above everything else. In other countries, to be sure, examiners and school boards are aware of the importance of health and vigor, but they usually go no further than to require the candidate to be free from such physical defects as may be a handicap in the performance of his duties; but in Holland, educators hold that it is advantageous for the pupils to have before them in their years of plasticity a teacher who is himself developed as a strong and even physically attractive personality. Among the further prerequisites for a position, the close supervision of the practice teaching is worthy of note; during the entire course of this part of the teacher's preparation, he has the benefit of experienced help and advice. The number of hours that may be assigned to him as pupil teacher are, both for the sake of pupils under his charge and for his own sake, limited by carefully considered regulations.

The teachers are grouped in three categories as a basis for remuneration and promotion:

1. Those holding the position of head master with certificates qualifying for this position.
2. Those holding such certificates but with a position less advanced than the one for which they qualify.
3. A final class, namely, assistants.

In 1917 the Teachers' Association advocated the recognition of a fourth class, formed from the number of supply teachers appointed to fill positions left temporarily vacant. These teachers have been necessary, but they have also been a source of perplexity to the regularly employed instructors by requiring salaries equal to the latter. For this reason the association asks that they form a class as reserve teachers with regular salaries. Though the remuneration of all classes of teachers has been fair, even generous for normal times, the last few years have, here as elsewhere, created conditions that compelled teachers to insist on an increase commensurate with the advanced cost of living. Through their own organizations as well as through their representation in the lawmaking assembly they have been able to show the reasonableness of their request; but in many districts friction has come about with the farmers who furnish a part of the increased salary.

The interruption and dislocation of the school work by the conflict near her border have not diverted the attention of the teachers of Holland from the permanent issues of their work. Though the opportunity of the farm in responding to the call for foodstuffs drew a large part of the school population to rural localities for a while, there was no evidence that teachers tried to impress pupils with the advantage of either rural opportunities or urban opportunities. The value of studies leading to productiveness was by no

means underestimated. Yet the people of Holland were unwilling to surrender any part of their literary studies in favor of studies with greater claims to meeting this one demand of the times. Although the schools here have one more foreign language than have France, England, and Germany, there was no attempt to relieve the schédule by curtailing the time given to Latin and Greek. In the case of the Girls' Higher Burgher Schools, the control of which is left entirely with the municipal authorities with no State aid, local pressure might have been expected to eliminate the one year of Latin or Greek required for admission to the university. In view of the flexible schedule of these schools, the alteration could readily have been made, yet humanistic instead of productive values so prevailed that these subjects were retained.

Among war measures pertaining to thrift and practical helpfulness, the schools of Holland instead of starting many new courses devoted themselves to strengthening those that already existed. Clearly the choice between the occasional and the permanent was here the determining factor. In consequence the courses in domestic service and domestic life with all the subjects in hygiene, sanitation, and thrift thereto appertaining were strengthened so that they are now taught in a more systematic way up to the time the girls reach 16 with special departments of the same general courses after that age.

Even in this period of stress the teachers of Holland are taking time to improve outside facilities of educational value. This is seen in the efforts made to perfect the educational value of the Netherland School Museum at Amsterdam instituted by the Netherland Teachers Society.¹ This contains an important collection of books and periodicals relating to education in Holland and elsewhere, and of teaching appliances. Not only are current journals displayed on a reading table and past educational journals accessible, but an index has been prepared of the articles on education that have appeared during the past 40 years in Dutch journals of general scope.

In Holland the war has given an impetus to the study of English both independently and in connection with the schools. "Their neutrality has yielded the Hollanders a number of interned guests available as teachers or touchstones of progress." For the purpose of studying the English language and literature English clubs and study associations have been established at the university at Utrecht, also in Amsterdam and other places. To the same end a Dutch firm of publishers is issuing a select series of English literature classics.

Familiarity with the violence of war has had an unfortunate effect on the psychic life of school children not only in the belligerent countries but in neutral countries as well. The reports that are at

¹The Journal of Education and School World. London, October, 1918.

hand from Germany, Norway, and Holland substantiate the conclusions that would be expected, namely, that details from the front have reached the young with a fascinating appeal, causing a disturbance in their sense of right and wrong. The abnormal conditions existing in certain parts of Holland, especially in the border zone, have furnished temptations to laxity and crime. Het Kind, dealing with this subject, finds that at Utrecht the number of legal actions against young persons under 18 was 176 in 1915, the following year it was 266, and in 1917 it had increased to 324. The damage that in this way threatens the moral life of the children has roused school authorities in Holland as well as in other countries¹ to consider the most efficient ways of combating it.

Hardships due to the war touched Holland's schools and social system with full severity. Geographically she held the precarious position of lying across the path of traffic between the belligerent countries and the world's food resources. During the course of the war she was entirely dependent on imports conditioned on an exchange of exports, generally viewed with suspicion by the opposing nations. Within her own borders unscrupulous profiteers did not hesitate to sell available food stocks to foreign buyers to an extent that threatened depletion and famine. The high cost of everything necessitated an internal regulation of prices on a basis partly patriarchal and partly socialistic, yet with very little hope of satisfying either the trades people or the consumers. The way in which these perplexities were met shows characteristic balance and clear view of the full effects, so that even when the solution had to be made in an emergency its remote consequences were clearly kept in view.

It is difficult to conceive how the principles that have entered into the intellectual and social life of Holland through the medium of the schools could have been more severely tested than during the past four years and a half. If these principles have guided her to fortunate solutions of perplexing problems and steadied her in embarrassing courses, it is reasonable to see in them evidences of the work accomplished by her schools.

THE SCHOOLS OF FINLAND.

With native literary treasures and native culture embodied in her traditions, Finland had the prerequisites for an educational system with strong national characteristics. From the very first, however, educational progress was swayed by influences tending to divert it from its native trend.

¹ In Germany it is recommended by the Minister of Education, that at stated times a special hour be devoted to the discussion of discipline and order and that notions of revenge be abolished from all forms of school life. In Norway the school authorities have under consideration plans to divert the children's attention from scenes of violence to the magnificence of nature. In Sweden six specialists from the Department of Justice have been appointed to prepare a plan for consistently combating the increasing tendency toward crime among the young.

The foundation on which the present Finnish schools were first built was laid between the years 1860-1870, and fashioned according to the principles of Pestalozzi. Soon a parallel tendency of an opposite character appeared, namely, classical aims, which finally resulted in the founding of the gymnasium of the present day. From the very first, the two languages used in the schools, Finnish and Swedish, have each represented a different tendency in shaping the school system. Again, every stage in the progress has been marked by the political as well as the academic pressure of Russia, Germany, and Sweden.

As in other European countries, the immediate effect of the war was to lower the attendance in general and especially in the secondary schools and to make it difficult to maintain the schools on account of the shortage of teachers.

In the statistics brought down to the 1st day of February, 1915, the schools giving instruction of an elementary character or concerned with these are grouped separately, and include the folk school of the cities and the country districts, trade schools, household schools, continuation schools, training schools for teachers of the primary and elementary classes. They number altogether 4,634, of which 4,470 are the public elementary folk schools. The number of teachers employed was 6,345, and that of the pupils in attendance 198,038. Of the 3,250 schools characterized as higher folk schools 2,806 were Finnish, 433 Swedish, and 11 with both languages. The constantly growing number of schools has reduced the average distance of these from the pupil's home. During the year 1914-15 the number of pupils with less than 3 kilometers between school and home increased by 1,481; those living between 3 and 5 kilometers from the school increased by 285, while the number of those with more than 5 kilometers to go decreased by 319.

In 1915 Evangelical Lutheran congregations to the number of 467 conducted 454 primary schools. This marked, however, a decrease of 199 schools during the preceding five years, one obvious reason being the better facilities offered by the public schools. Another reason pointed out is that many industrial establishments in the communities have taken over arrangements for the first instruction of the children, to which the congregations have readily consented.

The very large number of congregation schools still maintained is due to the unusually advanced age (9 years) at which children enter the folk school. This made some form of preceding rudimentary instruction necessary. It was given at the homes and supervised by the clergy through annual inspection at parish meetings in the villages. The control was made effective by setting the ability to read and write as a condition of preparation for the confirmation rite.

The next stage in the preparation for entrance to the lycees comprises two and often three years in the folk school or an equivalent course of instruction in one of the numerous elementary schools. The lycees comprise eight classes of which the first five have developed so as to present finished courses leading to common occupations or to business and agricultural schools. This tendency has led to the creation of independent schools with five-year courses and equivalent in advancement to the communal middle or real schools of Sweden.

In the statistics the secondary schools ("learned schools") are treated with much fullness of details of which the following seem most significant:

In 1916 there were 19 State lycees, 24 private, and 7 communal, all using the Finnish language. At the same time there were 7 State lycées, 10 private, and 4 communal using the Swedish language; 28 middle schools used Finnish and 8 Swedish; 16 girls' schools used Finnish and 9 Swedish. Of other institutions of advanced rank, 12 used Finnish and 7 Swedish. Of this total of 150 secondary schools, then, 105 used Finnish and 45 Swedish.

The three upper classes of the lycees constitute the gymnasium proper with two groups of courses, the modern group and the classical group. In the latter Latin is obligatory, while a choice is left between Greek and French. Pupils who do not wish instruction in either can elect the modern course in mathematics with the addition of physics, chemistry, or drawing. In case they prefer the brief course in mathematics as offered in the classical group, they can elect this conditioned on taking the modern courses in physics, chemistry, and drawing.

The time and subject schedules now in effect are not at hand, but those that were followed before 1905 throw an interesting light on the system that then prevailed. In the classical gymnasium the apportionment was as follows: The vernacular—the medium of instruction which was either Finnish or Swedish—16 hours; German, 12; Latin, 36; French (elective), 6; Russian, 40. In the modern gymnasium the Finnish was raised to 18; German to 18, French was made required and given 12; English was admitted as an elective with 4, and Russian maintained the same as in the classical gymnasium at 40 hours. In 1908 Russian had been reduced to 20 hours.

The two normal colleges—one at Helsingfors and one at Jyväskylä—are maintained as classical institutions and particularly for the training of teachers for secondary schools. The qualifications for positions include the preliminary university examination for the degree of doctor of philosophy, the completion of two terms of a training college with the practice instruction appertaining thereto. Further, a specified period of service, participation in criticism and conferences, and, finally, a direct teaching test passed upon by a

supervisory committee of the faculty. The candidate is, moreover, required to pass an examination in education and didactics before the professors in these subjects.

Three distinct tendencies are very marked: (1) Up to the outbreak of the war the Finnish-speaking element, as evidenced by student statistics, had made steady headway. Before 1890 Swedish-speaking graduates were in the majority, but since this date the Finnish have come to predominate. (2) The growth of private institutions with consequently greater freedom and variety in teaching plans and cultural agencies. (3) Education for present-day practical demands as offered in the modern line of the lycee has gained ascendancy over the classical. This is most clearly seen in the private schools, but a similar influence also sways the State schools.

Finland was far in advance of other countries in providing for the higher education of women. The first public secondary school for girls was begun in 1788 under the name of *Demoisellen-Classe der Hauptschule zu Wiborg*. In 1804 the name was changed to *Töchter-schule*, and again, in 1842, to *Större Fruntimmerskolan*. In 1835 a school for young women between 9 and 18 years of age was started in Helsingfors; it was conducted in cooperation with a coeducational primary school for children in the age of 7-10. This institution enjoyed a rapid growth, maintaining a faculty of 13 men teachers and 2 women teachers besides special instructors in singing and calisthenics. This field of educational work became recognized to such an extent that in 1844 the State founded an institution for the advanced instruction of women. The school law of 1843 fixed the status of girls' secondary schools by coordinating them with the school system of the country and specifying the subjects of the curricula in those of Wiborg, Åbo, Helsingfors, and Fredrikshamn. The continual advance of this type of institutions has proceeded by increasing the number of classes of those already existing, by granting them State subventions and by founding new ones. At the present time there are 20 Finnish—or Swedish-speaking secondary schools for girls. In their educational work they were able early to overcome the prevailing prejudice against gymnastics for women, and brought it to such advancement that the instruction in this branch as conducted in Helsingfors became a pattern for neighboring countries. In other schools coeducation came to be extended from the primary classes to advanced secondary instruction until at the present day one-half of the total number of schools admit members of both sexes to the same educational privileges. In the spring semester of 1916 there were 866 women students in the University of Finland out of a total attendance of 3,478.

The People's High Schools conducted in accordance with the principles of those in Denmark have gained recognition in Finland. They are founded, owned, and maintained by local organizations, but receive no State grant for their support nor aid for students.

Facilities for higher education are furnished by the Technical High School of Helsingfors with four-year courses in the sciences theoretical and applied, and by the University of Finland. In 1916 the university had a faculty of 239 members and an attendance of 3,478. Many learned societies connected with the university conduct comprehensive activities in study and research.

The latest reports, under date of October, 1918, which have come to hand through Swedish sources, speak of far-reaching changes and reforms to be inaugurated in the school system of Finland. According to these the Senate has appointed experts to submit a proposition for the reorganization of the free public school activities and, with this in view, to draft a plan for a central board of control to be made up of representatives of every active school organization and school board. The central board is to perform its duties through an executive committee working under its direction. The contemplated activities to be carried out in this manner include the founding of libraries, organizing lecture courses, instruction courses, and training in the practical arts of the home. The Government, too, as it appears, is determined to pass a general compulsory attendance law such as had long been discussed. The cost of all changes is estimated at 8,000,000 marks. The expense of maintaining the folk schools is to be readjusted so that the communities will receive 60 per cent of the total from the State. The chief of school supervision has been requested by the Senate to present a detailed proposition for the complete reorganization of the school system, based on the principle of the folk school as the foundation. The new organization, it is expected, will in its fundamental lines be a six-year folk school, divided into a first period of two years and a second period of four years; a middle school of either three or four years and a three-year lycee, or a total length of 12 or 13 years. Proceeding from the middle school as preparatory, instruction would be given in professional schools, teachers' colleges, and lycees.

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EDUCATION IN ICELAND.

By HOLMFRIDUR ARMADOTTIR.

Iceland (or Island), which is the proper name, is an island lying in the northeast Atlantic Ocean touching the Arctic Circle with its northernmost points. Its area is about 40,000 square miles; its population consists of about 90,000 people direct descendants from the Norwegian Vikings mingled with Celtic blood.

It was discovered at the end of the ninth century, and settled in the last half of the ninth and first half of the tenth centuries. The settlers had left their country because of the loss of their freedom through political struggles. In the year 930 a commonwealth was

established in Iceland; in 1262 it was united to Norway, and later on it became subject to Denmark or, rather, to the United Kingdom of Denmark and Norway. Since 1814 Iceland has belonged to Denmark alone. On December 1, 1918, Iceland became a sovereign State, though in coordinate union with Denmark. The proclamation of her sovereignty was made on December 2, and celebrated with impressive ceremonies. The national flag of Iceland was raised at Reykjavik the capital, and saluted by a Danish man-of-war sent there for that purpose.

The language spoken and written in Iceland is almost identical with that spoken by the ancestors of the present population, the changes being so slight that the Icelandic youth of to-day can easily read and understand the first book written in it dating from the thirteenth century.

Shortly after the adoption of the Christian faith, in the year 1000, the Icelanders learned the Roman alphabet and substituted it for the ancient Runic, which they had hitherto used for engravings on stone and metal. Already in the twelfth century schools were founded at the two ecclesiastical sees, Volar and Skalholt, and at two other places. Young men went to France and Germany and other countries to study. When they returned they became bishops, ministers, or teachers of the schools. In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries several monasteries were established, and, as in all other Christian countries, they became the centers of educational development. Some of the schools had the special aim of training young men for the ministry; others had the purpose of general education of the public. History tells us that they were attended by both sexes at all ages, the name of a learned woman who taught Latin in one of the schools being given. In this connection the famous old Icelandic literature deserves especial mention. The Sagas (legendary tales), the Eddas (Scandinavian myths), and other classic Icelandic literature were committed to writing in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. Early in the sixteenth century the first Icelandic books were published, and the whole Bible was printed in 1583. All through the dark periods of plague, famine, and other disasters, the schools were kept open, and they seem to have been a vigorous source of life for the stricken people. As a link between them and the common people we find, at all times, prominent preachers, religious poets, and civil leaders shining out as stars from the darkness. For ages it was the duty of the clergy to have supervision of the homes.

At the age of 14 years, which was the period fixed by law for confirmation, the children were supposed to know the Lutheran Catechism by heart, and for that they had to learn to read, and many a man and woman became a skilled writer. It was the greatest pleas-

ure for the people in the rural sections to assemble in the main room at the farmhouse during the long, dark, winter evenings, working and studying. One read aloud from the Sagas, Eddas, Folklore, or whatever books they had at hand while the rest were working with wool, knitting, spinning, carding, carving wood, or doing other kinds of domestic work. The evening ended with religious service, singing psalms, and praying. Gradually the towns grew and formal schools were established. The young people from the country were then sent to schools for the winter season; the working people went to towns or trading places to seek work. Home schools of this kind are therefore becoming more and more rare. About the year 1880 an act was passed by the Althing (Parliament) requiring that all children 14 years old should be trained in reading, writing, and arithmetic, and also be instructed in the catechism and Bible history. To comply with this law, schools and teachers became necessary, and, in time, both were provided. According to the law of 1907, the country is divided into 220 educational districts. In the five towns and in 48 districts, schools have been established, but 167 provide only itinerant instruction. For each of the school districts a school board of five members is elected, but for the itinerant districts a committee of three members. The cabinet appoints the superintendent of elementary education for the whole country. The school boards and committees of education have to provide adequate means of education and are responsible for the fulfillment of the law.

All children are bound to go to school six days a week, not less than six months a year, from 10 to 14 years of age in the school districts, but in the itinerant districts the children at the best and most central farmhouses must get at least a two-months' course each year. For the rest, their instruction depends entirely on the homes. If the parents or guardians wish to teach their children only at home, they may do so. From 10 to 14 the children are expected to go through one grade a year, with examinations. In May is held an examination for all children 14 years of age, whether they have been at school or not, conducted by a censor appointed by the Government or by the country superintendent. If a child has been neglected and not sent to school or taught the required subjects at home, the parents or guardians are fined. The parents or guardians are required to give their children the primary instruction in reading, writing, and numbers, either at home or with the assistance of a teacher. If they do not, the educational committee or the school board is authorized to have the children taught at the cost of the parents or guardians. In many of the elementary schools are grades for children under 10 years of age, but most of them require fees. All schools for children from 10 to 14 years are free. For that age a local contribution bears the entire cost of instruction.

with additional support from the county treasury. In several places private schools have been established especially for primary teaching:

The subjects the law requires for examination of pupils at 14 years of age are: Icelandic (reading, grammar, composition, literature), writing, mathematics, religion (catechism, Bible history, psalms), geography, natural history, and Icelandic history. Furthermore, according to governmental decree many schools have added singing, general history, drawing, physical training, and needlework. A few schools give manual training and domestic science; but a great many give instruction in one or two foreign languages, preferably Danish and English. Most schools begin October 1 and close May 14. For that period attendance is compulsory six days a week. At the present time no normal person can be found in the whole country without the knowledge of reading, and hardly one who is not able to write and use numbers. Although there seems to be a great difference between the rural popular education and that of the towns and more thickly inhabited parts of the country, yet children brought up in the rural sections with only two months' instruction a year, have often proved themselves to have better capacities than those from the regular schools. In the country the children have to work the greater part of the year. Study is a luxury for them, to which they look forward. On the contrary, the town children look forward to being free from school and prefer to go into the country and help the farmers there in summer. The simple and healthy country life gives the children living there opportunity to study nature and life in its reality. Very often the young people do not go to high schools (unglingaskolar) till they are 17, 18, or 20 years old. From the time they leave the elementary school till they reach this age they perform manual labor.

The schools corresponding to the American high schools are 25 in number, most of them junior schools. A few of them are evening schools and partly technical. Many of them are connected with the elementary schools, having the same master and directed by the same school board. All these schools are equally for men and women. Two senior schools are for women only. In these are grades for domestic science, and three schools are for domestic science only. All these schools receive more or less aid from the national treasury; a few of them are private, but most of them have grants from local authorities. Professional schools are as follows: Nautical, 1; mechanical, 1; agricultural, 3; commercial, 1; normal, 1; obstetrical, 1. With the exception of the commercial these schools are all national and are supported by the Government. For the deaf and dumb there is one school. In the town is a "real" school (gagnfrieskoli), established in 1880 and affiliated with the college in Reykjavik. It is a boarding school, as are several of the schools before mentioned. The

College in Reykjavik (the capital of Iceland) is in reality a continuation of the Latin Skalholt school founded in Skalholt immediately after the middle of the eleventh century. It is now in two divisions, the "real" school or high school, and the college. The Icelandic name is: Hinn almenni menntaskoli. It is national as is the "real" school in Akureysi.

The University of Iceland was established by the law of July 30, 1909, and has been active from June 17, 1911. It has four faculties: Theology, philosophy, medicine, and law. Before its foundation there were a school of medicine and a theological seminary in Reykjavik; for all other higher teaching the students had to go abroad. A student from Iceland had great privileges at the University of Copenhagen. Most of them studied there and are still doing so, especially in those subjects not offered at the University of Iceland. Besides the Icelandic faculty, there have been French, German, and Danish professors at the university, sent by the governments of these countries, but when the war broke out the French and German had to retire. Popular lectures were given at the university in philosophy, literature, and history; statistics as to the number of attendants on these, however, are not available. In the normal school is a course for teachers in the spring season, where they not only receive free tuition, but are also allowed their traveling expenses and support. Many teachers go to the Teachers' College in Copenhagen for their further education, and others now go to America. Men and women have equal right to attend all the educational institutions and to fill public offices as well.

Many of the high schools, likewise those for the professions, are free. Schools for advanced education are all free and even give a little support to the poorer pupils.

Since the war began education in Iceland has been at a standstill; indeed, retrogression has been seen in some places. In spite of the fact that the island is so far away from the great disaster, it has been seriously affected. Fuel has been so scarce and the prices of all necessities so exorbitant that both the school year and the daily hours have been greatly reduced in most schools, and a few have been closed altogether. In common with the rest of the civilized world, Iceland earnestly hopes for better times.