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EDUCATION IN SWITZERLAND 1916-1918

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SWITZERLAND.

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GENERAL CONDITIONS AND CHARACTERISTICS.

Switzerland has an area of only a little over 15,900 square miles, a population of about three and one-half millions, but 25 distinct political units—Cantons—each virtually autonomous in the control of its schools. There is no Federal educational board to issue plans, decrees, letters, or special instruction tending to unify the system. Under this freedom of development the schools have assumed their character in accordance with the language, religion, race, industries, and historical traditions that prevail in the several Cantons. The resulting variety in organization and methods makes it impossible to give a general account of the schools equally applicable to all parts of the country; hence, features that may be regarded as fairly typical will be sketched from reports coming from specific localities, as Bern, Basel, or Zürich.

The Federal regulations that the Cantons have in common provide for obligatory attendance, free tuition, and, to some extent, free instruction material during a period designated by each Canton, optional attendance at instruction in religion, participation in required gymnastics, uniform entrance examination for students of medicine. The Federal Union also contributes to the support of all primary schools; it prohibits the employment of children of school age in the factories; and, finally, it imposes a uniform educational test on the recruits that each year enroll for service.

The annual recruit examinations have a decided educational significance. On a fixed day of the year, after the young man reaches his nineteenth birthday, he is required to report to the office of his home Canton, where he is examined by a board of health, a board on gymnastics and physicial training, and an educational board. In gymnastics the examination consists of lifting, running, and jumping. In reading the requirement is correct enunciation and emphasis, with satisfactory reproduction of a selection as regards content; in composition a theme is required, correct, or almost so, in arrangement and details of form; in arithmetic the four elements, with integral numbers and fractions, the metric system, proportion, per-

centage, and interest, are included; the test comprises also the history, geography, and constitution of Switzerland. The outcome of this examination will determine whether the man is to be accepted for immediate service in a military unit or whether he is to be assigned for special service, including attendance at a school, to remedy the inadequacies revealed in the examination. The final result is published by the statistical bureau automatically assigning to each Canton the rank held by its schools, with the consequent suggestion for competitive endeavor.

Though it has been objected that the procedure is not a satisfactory touchstone whereby to ascertain the comparative standing of the Cantons, for communal ambition may be tempted to establish circumscribed courses narrowly adapted with a view to the tests, yet some positive advantages are undeniable. It brings all young men together on the same plane of personal worth and human equality, disregarding the distinctions by which they had become segregated—shopkeeper and assistant, teacher and pupil, minister and layman, capitalist and peasant. Again, each commune has thereby been spurred on to see that its compulsory attendance laws were strictly enforced, and also that voluntary as well as obligatory continuation schools were established. The examinations are, moreover, conducted under circumstances adapted strongly to impress each young man with the sense of personal responsibility. To acquit himself well intellectually at the time he enrolls under the colors and takes the oath of service is in itself a distinction; to fail and to be placed under instruction for delinquents is here closely connected with failure in duty to one's country.

In regard to the diversity among the schools, it is apparent mainly in the outer form and organization. The obligatory period varies between six and eight years, but Cantons with the shorter period have generally a form of compensation in obligatory continuation schools of from two to three years. The latter, again, differ with respect to courses given and the general trend of their work. In some communes they supplement the instruction of the folkschools by carrying the subjects of these to fuller completion; in others, new subjects are taken up with the purpose of preparing pupils for the trades. Even within the same Canton local individuality asserts itself by departure from the cantonal type program. For example, an hour-and-subject schedule was adopted in Zürich in 1912 to continue in force seven years, but some communes in the Canton adopted different schedules which were supposed to be in closer accord with their own civic needs and with the psychology of their pupils. The hours of the day and the free afternoons—generally two each week—and also the vacation periods were variously distributed. This departure from the official

type, accepting the official program as suggestive rather than prescriptive, is a distinctive mark of the progressive trend throughout the country.

The age of admission and the length of term fixed for the infant schools differ considerably, the German Cantons receiving children at a later age than the French. The period comprised in the primary school varies a good deal, ranging from six to nine years; the period of the higher grade schools (Secundarschulen) varies from two to five years. In consequence these continue from the fourth, fifth, or sixth year of the primary. The concluding years of the latter run parallel with the beginning years of the former, giving rise to a duplication which, as in Basel, it is attempted to obviate by consolidating the two into one school unit. The communes exercise great freedom in deciding how the preparatory work shall be done, how to supplement the work of the [illegible]school, whether by schools continuing in trades and specialties or by those straight in the line of progress toward the gymnasium and the university.

The middle schools comprise a number of institutions variously named as gymnasia, colleges, teachers' training schools, girls' high schools, technical schools, agricultural schools. They do not fix any one year as the time of conjunction with the higher grade schools. The one characteristic they have in common is that they prepare their pupils for the university and hence usually retain them until the time for admission, i. e., to the age of 18 or 19. An instance of their diversity is seen in the gymnasium at Basel, which has an eight-year course, receiving pupils at the age of 10 and permitting them to enter directly from the primary, without attendance at a higher grade school. At Berne the course is eight and one-half years; at Zürich pupils enter at the age of 12 and continue for six and one-half years; the technical school at Zürich has a course of four and one-half years, receiving pupils at 14 or 15 and continuing from the second or third year of the higher-grade school.[1]

The flexibility in the scheme of articulation between school types of different degrees of advancement is due to the fact that the schools articulate from the bottom up. The local needs of separate cantons, with diverse industries and educational aims, have given rise to schools varying in aims and length of periods, and with these the advanced institutions make such connection as they can.

Closely concerned with this interrelation is the problem of the uniform school (Einheitschule), which here has a significance different from that of other countries. Like those in most other countries of Europe, the Swiss educators recognize the importance of adjusting the general school plans so as to avoid divisions due to

[1] From Special Report to the Ecclesiastical and Educational Department of Norway.

social cleavage, but they also call attention to other factors of the uniform school which in the general discussion are often obscured. Two conditions in the life of a child, both complicated by the social status of its parents, call for adaptation of the general school plans: (1) The demand which requires a definite course of training for a chosen calling—commercial, trade, industrial, or professional; (2) the selection of a calling according to the child's endowments. The Swiss believe that the child's endowments should first be ascertained and then its calling chosen, but in the deliberations among European educators the latter consideration mainly has been heeded. In dealing with the social aspects of the problem the political advancement of the country helps to eliminate such handicap as may depend upon the status of a pupil in society.

Even a cursory view of the school system reveals a close interaction between the schools and society. Society has demanded that every individual be given the amplest opportunity; that the schools encourage individual initiative, that they teach cooperative effort, that they deal with the industries, and, in general, that they show how each individual pupil can be fitted for the best service. How the schools have responded can be seen in what Switzerland has achieved.

PRACTICAL TREND OF THE SCHOOL WORK.

Touching the welfare of pupils, communal endeavor in Switzerland has created means for taking care of their health from earliest infancy, for seeing to it that they have the proper nourishment and clothing, for founding institutions adapted to the needs of pupils specially endowed or specially hampered. Again, this country has put into legislative form advanced ideas of a social and political character, like federal ownership of railways, socialized control of city improvements, banks, and industries, and, most significant of all, a constitutional proviso that Government enactments shall be referred to the voters for adoption or rejection. Aside from the contributions of these measures to the happiness and sterling character of the people, certain material ones more easily measurable may be mentioned. It appears to be a fact that:

> Switzerland, with no harbors, no coal, no iron, no copper, with high wages for manual labor, with agriculture inadequate to home needs, has succeeded in becoming, per capita, the next most industrialized nation of Europe, surpassing both England and Germany.[1]

In attempting to indicate at least a part of the share the schools have in the intellectual as well as material advancement of Switzerland, it appears that teachers have spontaneously put into practice the ancient maxim, "We study not for the schools, but for life," and that they

[1] Special communication from Dr. Herbert Haviland Field, Zürich, Switzerland.

are impressed with the importance of adapting their work to life conditions. When the health or the future of their pupils so demands, they have been able to move beyond the régime of books, lessons, and traditional programs and to guide their pupils in such other activities as are more closely concerned with their welfare. They are aware that the years of a child's plasticity is the time to discover and to insist on remedial treatment of such physical or psychical defects as may adhere to it from birth, and they appear conscientiously to include this among their duties.

The general system of the schools exemplifies the principle that education is a gradual process, with imperceptible beginnings and without abrupt finality. The service, therefore, that the school renders upon the first admission of a child is not of an instructional character; it assumes this character only after a transition period usually taken up by the child's own self-imposed activities. The nursery school takes care of the child, first of all, as assistance to a crowded home or a home in the distress of poverty, permitting the mother, who is probably a wage earner, to leave her child in safe hands while she is at work during the day. When a child is presented for admission a thorough medical examination is made, and if treatment is required it is given.

Among the institutions for the care of young children, the crèche, which is nearly always private, receives children of almost any age up to 3 years, at which time they may enter the infant school. The infant school has two divisions, namely, from 2½ years of age to 6, and from 6 to 7, the latter division preparing them to enter the primary school. From the first the child finds himself in a congenial environment in the school garden with its play equipment; there is no restraint as to regularity of hours, nothing giving rise to the feeling that in the interest of the school the young pupil is cut off for a certain time from home and parents. When the instructional stage is reached, there are kindly teachers to take him in hand, to see that he learns the correct pronunciation of words and that he acquires good personal habits. So far as expedient the child is left to himself in his first efforts to think, to observe, to understand, and to judge; he is permitted to drift into school tasks without the notion of compulsion; hence he does not come to feel that he is controlled by a rigorous taskmaster.

The first form of instruction assumes the nature of entertaining stories with talks of a practical tinge that furnish whatever nucleus there is in the early teaching. The opportunity for advancement is preserved in the recurrent periods of promotion, usually at the end of the year, though in case of the pupil's sickness they may come at the close of the first semester following the year in which the promotion would naturally have occurred.

This class of schools shows a tendency to increasing use of Froebelian methods. The original idea of assistance to the home and of a place of refuge offering a favorable environment is retained without any modification. To their success it is essential that unselfish people be placed in charge, who may anticipate the needs of the children and keep in close touch with their homes.

Just as the system permits the infant gradually to enter the instruction stages of the schools, it permits the young man or woman gradually to enter on the duties of a vocation while still remaining under the guidance of the schools. This principle is realized in most Cantons by the obligatory continuation schools. These are founded by the communes and by them brought to an accepted standard with regard to buildings and equipment in order to receive State aid. They are of two classes, schools for reviewing and supplementing the general school branches and schools mainly for training in the vocations and the trades.

In most Cantons the compulsory attendance for boys ceases with the completion of the fifteenth year, though in others, like Obwalden and Wallis, it is from 6 to 12 months longer; yet even these have a proviso permitting boys to discontinue at 15 by passing a special examination. In certain localities there is an obligatory continuation school of two or three years for girls, where instruction is given in manual work for girls and in household economy.

In most continuation schools is embodied an idea of the Grundtvig institutions of Denmark, namely, that of an intermission after the compulsory period by which time is provided for the pupil to recover from a species of classroom fatigue by which he is then handicapped; a year or two is permitted to lapse before the continuation; the pupil then takes up the work not only with better vigor, but with clearer conception of educational aims.

The brevity of time in the programs of these schools does not permit comprehensive curricula nor exhaustive study of any of the branches. Hence, only the subjects pertaining to practical and civic life are taken up. As a rule these schools admit only young men, though in some Cantons, as in those of Zürich and Bern, they are coeducational. As nearly all lead to such practical vocations and industries as pertain to the localities in which they are established, they show a strong tendency to specialize in the direction of the trades, in agriculture, horticulture, or commerce. In the Cantons of Fribourg and Thurgau there are household schools for girls; in the former the required attendance is two years, which may be extended to three years if the pupils' progress has not been satisfactory.[1]

The continuation schools specializing in the vocations and the trades are often conducted in accordance with a schedule that permits the

[1] Substance from the Report of Prof. Neuberth.

pupil to be both wage earner and pupil at the same time. The schoolroom and the workshop function in close cooperation. To be properly matriculated the pupil must have secured regular employment in the trade which he makes his chief study. The employer is closely identified with the school; he not only instructs the pupil, but he also looks after his interest as wage earner; he has a definite understanding with the school authorities about the courses and the time the apprentice pupil may reasonably spend at school. The time the pupil is to remain at the work he has begun, together with other particulars calculated to insure his attendance to duty, are embodied in a contract which the pupil is required to sign. The session is held almost exclusively in the winter, with from 6 to 12 hours so grouped as to fall upon two or three forenoons each week. The flexibility of the general system adapts itself to varying local conditions, and the instruction often extends throughout the year. The schools thus specialize in individual directions so that they fall into groups, each of which is characterized by the needs of its general patronage. It would be a mistake to suppose that the dominant endeavor is to impart peculiar technical skill merely to fit the pupil to be an acceptable wage earner. Ethical and humanitarian subjects are always included, to ennoble the work of whatever kind it may be by educational ideals and associations.

A view of the plans and methods prevailing in the teachers' training schools will show that their work is ordered in strict accordance with the one principle of anticipating what the pupils are to do later on in life. In the apportionment of the time between the academic and the professional subjects, those training directly for the teacher's future duties are given the greater prominence. Realizing the need of a review of the general branches, and yet the danger of allowing too much time for this, the regulations concerning it are so framed as to effect a carefully balanced compromise without unnecessary restrictions. The statutes of Zürich order that the future work of the teacher shall determine the allotment of time to each subject, as well as the character of the instruction; they also specify that the instruction in all branches shall be such that it may serve the pupil as an example in his future school work. To secure conformity to these regulations those who conduct the recitations are required to make thorough preparation for every lesson and to keep a book in which the plan of each lesson is preserved. Instruction material, textbooks, plans, programs, and apparatus are fully discussed, so that the prospective teacher becomes familiar with them, and reaches an estimate of their value for his future work. The training is conducted with regard to the twofold capacity of a good teacher: As a master of the details of his subject organically combined and, again,

as the instructor specialist who has the skill to fashion the subject matter for presentation before the class.

The official guides and study programs anticipate in their outlines the practical work of the pupil after his school days. The instruction plan for the Canton of St. Gall sets up as a chief principle that instruction in fact should predominate. In grammar, for example, there is to be less theory than practice; this book should, in fact, be only a guide to the correct use of the language in speech and writing, an aid in composition. The outlines direct the pupil to write on what he has seen or heard or experienced, and hence really understood. Description is to be not simply a list of the characteristics of an object, but it is to be brought into living relation to nature and to man. In history the events of one's country should be seen as related to what takes place about one's home. In the geography of particular localities and countries careful attention is to be given to the life of the people of these places, their work, and arrangements peculiar to their life and calling. In natural history the pupil is to be led to see why the object under inspection has the peculiarities he discovers and how well it is adapted to its mode of existence, what relations of reciprocity it holds to other beings, what value it has for man, and how man accordingly is under obligation to protect it or destroy it.

The report of Prof. Neuberth, of Christiania, supplying details of observations in the classrooms of Swiss schools, gives a glimpse of the actual work of teachers thus trained. He says:

> There was a quiet orderliness in all the activities of the pupils, no trace of indifference, no slovenliness, but evidence of painstaking care and of close cooperation between pupil and teacher. Some, to be sure, would fall below the good marks, but there was no real and certainly no general delinquency. The instructor was gifted with particular skill in framing his questions, a matter regarded of such importance that it is pointed out in the statutes of Zürich as the special mark of a good teacher. The questions invariably compelled the pupils to think; instead of furnishing the form for the pupil's answer, they left him to do this for himself. The teachers had, it appeared, carefully weighed and judged both the content and form of their questions, appearing to be indefatigable in training themselves to get their questions stated right. * * * The answers, which were given with very satisfactory readiness, often gave rise to new questions on the part of the teacher and, what was particularly noticeable, also on the part of the pupil. Though the deliberateness seen may be criticised for its dry outline character and for the absence of those spontaneous details that vitalize a lesson, the landmarks through the lesson were certainly charted and established, giving a chance to fill in with appropriate illustrative matter.

The practical life issues of the teaching have, as would be expected, a large share in the deliberations of teachers at their professional meetings. During its session of September 30, 1918, the Zürich Teachers' Association discussed contemplated changes in the higher-

grade classes and the courses to be given in these. As the suggested rearrangements involved time allotment to various subjects, the accepted or alleged values of these were again fully considered. It was evident that the world events and the recent experience of Switzerland made the teachers, even more than formerly, insist on positive answers to questions of a subject's value to the pupil after his years at school. The propositions for the discussion of the classics were formulated with regard to these considerations:

1. What significance does the culture of the ancients have for our own time?
2. Does the instruction at our gymnasia correspond with this significance?
3. Can not the same goal be reached in other ways, and, if so, what adaptation would it entail on the gymnasia of the future?

Early in the discussion it was insisted that Latin, to maintain itself, must show that it leads to undoubted present-day values. Since the war, it was urged, important developments have taken place in the industrial and social life, with new social phases, outlook, and ideals—the position of the individual in the State, the place of woman as a member of the Commonwealth, the principle of the family unit, the international position of the State—time must be found to master and to organize new masses of details to prepare the pupil for the place he is now to take. Hence the question,

Can Latin be dropped as an obligatory study and the time thereby gained given to modern subjects, and can the study of the ancients be extended by reading good translations? Time should be found for psychology which, as it is now being developed, moves close to everyday activities; we constantly come into psychic relations with other people creating perplexing situations and problems. Outside of the schools the pupil is left slowly, painfully, and wastefully to acquire the psychology which the schools could more conveniently give him.[1]

On the other hand it was held that the western world has been influenced by the old classic world for centuries, and hence no matter how high it might tower above the old, its roots get their sustenance from the ancient soil. Our modern social organizations—state, church, school, society—are the result of a development in a straight line from the ancient world. If our present-day intellectual conditions are to be apprehended in their integrity and continuity of development, their origin and growth must be understood.

Earlier in this account the pupil's gradual release from lessons and entrance upon wage-earning employment has been mentioned as a feature in the school arrangements. The transition period thereby created gives opportunity for the teachers to render service to the pupils, no less important because it comes outside of the usual school programs. In a circular published January 1, 1916, and addressed by the school authorities of Zürich to the teachers of district schools,

[1] Adapted from Schweizerische Lehrerzeitung, February, 1919.

higher grade schools, and folkschools, is set forth the duty of teachers to help pupils to find employment suited to their aptitudes. The school boards and teachers have, accordingly, cooperated with the Bureau of Statistics to ascertain what callings were most sought by pupils after completing the period of required attendance. The information brought in showed what callings were most attractive to boys and girls, and also in what fields of endeavor their labor was most in demand. It was taken for granted that the teachers would understand that the prerequisites were bodily force and vitality, power of orderly and sustained thinking, congenial manners, resolution in will and deed, and strength of character. The teacher through personal experience understands the pupil's mental and physical capabilities, and is, in consequence, prepared as no one else to assist the parents in selecting his life work. He would reach an understanding with the parents, and perhaps take occasion to explain to them the moral as well as the industrial conditions depending on the choice, and the disadvantage of being without a trade or calling. If a choice is difficult to make, a pupil may, while yet at school, be guided in the general direction of a trade or one of the commercial lines. In performing this duty the teacher, it was pointed out, would often have a delicate task, for he might have to advise the choice of manual labor in cases where the parents would insist on something they regarded as higher as the calling for their children. If the economic conditions of the parents would permit the pupil to pass through only the primary school, or at most, two classes of the higher grade school, a calling consisting in the main of labor with the hands should not be looked upon as unsuitable, unless marked personal gifts pointed to something different. If, despite the statistical showing that clerical positions and offices are crowded by young applicants, a choice of this calling should seem wise, it becomes the teacher's duty to point out that success here depends especially on tact and personal address, readiness in the use of several languages, skill in figures, and the ability to write a neat and legible hand.

The circular of the Zürich school authorities also states that young men and women should be advised that a great many of their number—most of them insufficiently prepared—turn in the direction of a calling requiring scientific training. These people crowd the middle schools, and when they have painfully and at great sacrifice gone through the courses, they find no opening commensurate with their hopes. It is an especially responsible task to guide those that contemplate taking up the profession of teaching. The requisite endowments and possibilities are not always obvious at the age of 14 or 15. The high order of mental power, with responsive temperament and strength of character, is not always indicated by the marks pupils get as the results of examinations. The teacher should there-

fore be aware of his solemn duty to counteract the vanity of parents by aiding his pupils in a choice which saves both them and their parents from cruel disappointments. Again, he will have the more agreeable duty of encouraging the capable boy and girl whom he finds in his class to take up such scientific or professional lines as appear to be within their powers. In behalf of these he will have occasion to confer with the boards and officials that will come to have charge of the pupils in the branches selected. As the question of expense is also involved, the teacher's further service consists in helping the pupils to secure aid and stipends from such funds as are available.

As an outcome of these early suggestions, educators began to consider the feasibility of a compendium in which this kind of service could be outlined in a form suitable to be taken up as a part of the scheduled work of certain types of schools. With this in view the educational board of Zürich directed that a vocational guide book should be furnished pupils at nominal cost and be studied as an obligatory subject in the eighth primary class and in the first two classes of the higher grade schools and that it should also be adopted for general use in the third class of the higher grade school. Attention was called to the desirability of treating its content as instruction material. The teacher was enjoined to stress the importance of training for skill and attention to duty and to find occasion to give his pupils helpful words of counsel as they entered on their chosen life work. He was reminded that the pupil's choice of calling should not invariably be regarded as final; the main point was to help him earnestly to consider the choice.

The movement here mentioned, which was well under way in 1916, has since then assumed new phases, and a scope beyond what was originally contemplated. In the annual report of the educational board some of the results for 1917 are given.[1] In many districts and communities, says the report, boards for vocational consultation were established. The official school journal for March, 1917, published a comprehensive list of places where applicants might come for consultation. Many benevolent associations, among them the foundation "For Young People" (Für die Jugend) gave financial support to the cause. The expectation was that a general service bureau for the entire Canton would be established.

The Jugendwohlfahrt, Revue Suisse de Protection de la Jeunesse, under date of January, 1919, surveys in part what was accomplished during the years from 1916 to 1919.

The suggestions published by the school board led to cooperation between the schools and the associations mentioned above. They

[1] Jahresbericht der Direktion des Erziehungswesen über das zürcherische Unterrichtswesen für 1917, Zürich, Switzerland.

succeeded in getting 42 business places, factories, and other industrial plants made accessible to pupils who in company with their teachers desired to visit these to reach a clearer conception of the work there going on with the view of choosing a calling more intelligently. Similarly, they conferred with about 160 foremen of shops and trades to procure information for those pupils who expected to seek positions as apprentices. Every teacher instructing final or graduating classes of the primary and the higher grade schools was furnished with a list of available positions and also of places in the city where practice in the trades could be secured. The teachers were also furnished with a list of applications from farmers who wished to employ boys having completed the school requirements; also a record of places where girls could find employment. Through the agencies mentioned, the instructors kept in touch with about 140 educational officials throughout the Canton, thereby extending the work until the city of Zürich felt warranted in increasing the stipends and funds for promoting instruction in the trades.[1]

As the importance of this form of school service became more extensively recognized, there was felt the need of organizing for its further prosecution. With this in view the occupational teachers of the Canton of Zürich, in the autumn of 1918, effected an organization of 200 members. The constitution adopted by this body sets up its purpose thus: (1) To guard and to further the material and ideal interests of the occupational teachers; (2) to promote the professional training of its members; (3) to cultivate right relations among the occupational schools, the folk schools, the trades, and industries; (4) to assist in procuring instruction material for the trade schools. The executive agencies of the association are to consist of permanent committees representing the various occupations. Their chief duty will be to further, in accordance with point 3, closer relations among the trades, the industries, and the schools.

REGARD FOR THE PUPILS' HEALTH.

In order to render the most complete service for life the responsibility of watching over the pupils' health has also been brought fully within the scope of the teachers' duties. Childhood is obviously the time when physical defects of whatever kind should be discovered and remedied. Each Canton has specific regulations touching the physical examination of the child upon entrance into the schools, the later periodical examinations, and reports of abnormal conditions discovered.

The school laws and published regulations show that the physician intrusted with this work must himself pass a rigid qualifying

[1] Adapted from Jugendwohlfahrt, January, 1918, and Jahresbericht der Direktion des Erziehungswesens, Zürich, 1918.

test. He must hold the practicing physician's license as required by the Federal Union. Employed by the department of education, he is not permitted individual practice. When the school board deals with questions of hygiene or sanitation, he may be summoned as an advisory member. His professional duties with regard to the schools and the pupils are minute and definite. In the Canton of Solothurn these include the examination of each individual pupil and inspection of every schoolhouse in towns and country districts. He is to visit schools for women's work at least once a year and to make careful inspection of ventilation, heating, lighting, cleanliness, sewers, water supply, courts, gymnastic rooms, baths, pupils' benches, school furniture, school utensils, and sanitation material. The physician must have regular hours for consultation; he must pass on all requests for exemption from attendance at school based on reasons of health; he determines whether pupils should be placed in classes organized for defectives, and whether or not they are to be sent to children's sanitariums; moreover, he enters on a special record cases where pupils are to be under observation for some time and where they need particular consideration during the school work; at specified intervals he is to repeat the examination of eyes, ears, and teeth. Vaccination, disinfection, precautionary measures against communicable diseases, tuberculosis, and diseases of the scalp, attendance on pupils taken ill—these are matters to which the school physician must attend. He may, if he wishes, make his inspection at any time, even during school hours, though it is expected that he shall interfere with the recitation as little as possible. He is privileged to be present at recitations any time when this may help him to an insight into the pupils' state of health. Early in the spring of 1919 the school periodicals discussed the physical measurements of pupils with the view of studying a new type of school bench adapted to their health and comfort, an attempt in which the school physician evidently takes part. Other duties falling to him are to approve the plans for school buildings, to inspect the health certificates of men and women teachers, to teach them how to treat the defects they discover in the speech and voices of their pupils, how to deal with children suffering from nervous trouble, and, finally, to lecture to teachers and parents on topics of hygiene. During the influenza epidemic pupils generally attempted to get back to school before complete recovery; hence they were in danger of incurring bad after effects. The school physicians adopted the regulation that no pupil should be permitted to return until the seventh day after complete recovery.

Various institutions having both curative and instructional purposes are found throughout Switzerland. Some of these are trade schools adapted to the capabilities of certain classes of defectives; but in all these institutions the instruction is subordinated to the restora-

tion of the pupils' health. They often have the character of vacation colonies, where pupils under the supervision of their teachers may come to recuperate. They are by no means limited to the poor, but well-to-do parents realize the benefits there received and send their children to these places in increasing numbers.

One of this class is the forest school, where recitations are held in the open under the trees. The first one was founded through communal initiative in Lausanne in 1908; in 1912 and 1913 two similar schools were founded in the Canton of Geneva through private endeavor; later one was established in Neuenburg, and in 1914 another in the Canton of Zürich. Their origin grew out of the needs of children with weak constitutions, to whom fresh air and nourishing food are the essentials. The location selected is in the edge of the forest; the period for the sessions is from May till late in September.

In El Monitor de la Educacion Comun an account is given of another achievement of Swiss educational and medical endeavor, namely, a sun school, where certain classes of pupils in poor health may do a limited amount of school work while they are receiving the benefits of the curative properties of the sun's rays. A school of this kind has been conducted summer and winter for 12 years at Leysin. The restoration to full usefulness under the treatment here provided is more remarkable in the case of children than in the case of adults, for the reason, undoubtedly, that the former can more readily comply with the necessary restrictions in regard to work. The location selected for these schools is at a high altitude, sometimes as high as 1,100 meters above sea level. The largest school has a farm completely equipped, under an experienced agronomist, himself a cured patient, where agriculture, dairying, and bee and fowl keeping are carried on. In so far as the treatment is adapted to the cure of tuberculosis, all lessons are subordinated to this purpose, the only mention of school proper being as one of the divisions of time among hours assigned to exercises for respiratory development, walks, and light agricultural or garden work.

In his account the author shows how the mental training goes hand in hand with the physical. No special place is designated for recitations, the covered galleries adjoining the chalets being generally utilized. A small, portable seat with writing desk attached, the frame higher than usual and requiring an upright posture, is furnished each pupil. When the weather is fine the class and the teacher roam in search of the most attractive place for recitations—it is the movable school par excellence. In addition to the lessons assigned, the teacher gives instruction on some theme arising out of the local topography, geology, botany, etc.

From the ethical point of view the effect upon the child is most happy. From the first there is an evident growth in evenness of

temper and stability of character, effects appearing as a consequence of the physical hardening.

The writer in El Monitor advocates the extension and adaptation of the best features above mentioned to the general public-school system. He does not attempt to prescribe the exact method by which this may be done, but he is confident that it can be worked out anywhere by a study of local conditions. Various instances of its realization are cited, as in Bern, Basel, and Geneva, where children from some of the public schools receive open-air instruction. In Lausanne, under the auspices of the city authorities, experiments in such instruction have been made with children selected by the physicians. Various cities of neighboring Cantons have organized advanced classes for further experiments. Objections on the score of expense are easily met, as the latter are obviously light, the necessary equipment being of the very simplest.

The Swiss journals and official reports also speak of other arrangements, both for the therapeutic treatment of school children and for special training in usefulness for those whom medical care is not able fully to restore. Under the direction of the health department of Zürich, children who suffer from defects of speech or ailments of the vocal organs are taken in hand. This branch of the medical department is intended first of all to impart such knowledge and skill as will be of use to teachers having charge of pupils afflicted with troubles of the throat and the speech organs. Sessions for these purposes are held in the consultation rooms of the city clinics. Here teachers may receive such medical knowledge as will fit them to discover and relieve the less serious cases that they find in their classes and also to see the importance of promptly referring troublesome cases to the specialists. As instructors, they are taught what to do with pupils that stutter or speak with an unnatural nasal tone, to understand the troubles at the bottom of recurrent or chronic hoarseness, as well as partial or incipient stages of deafness. The diagnosis which the teacher is prepared to make will be the first step toward a course of corrective treatment.

Again, unless the teacher understands troubles like these, he may classify an apparently backward child as below normal mentality, when the trouble is due to difficulties in the organs of speech or hearing.

Teachers in Zürich and Basel having charge of pupils of defective hearing explain the handicap under which these get an education. Many things at school and at home pass by them without leaving a trace. To restore these, so far as possible, to full communion with the outer world and thereby give their lives greater fullness is a worthy endeavor for the schools. It may be added that the knowledge requisite for this kind of service is in essentials also the foundation for elementary language instruction at schools with normal

children, at least when it is a question of raising the instruction from a purely mechanical method to one based on a knowledge of the speech organs.[1]

The Swiss school authorities are giving due attention to those pupils who suffer under some species of more or less marked psychic disturbance, which makes the usual school arrangements unsuited for their progress or recovery. Among the symptoms pointing to such cases are absent-mindedness, sudden rage, depression, unnatural activity of the imagination, delusions, and disturbed sleep. These young sufferers are obviously entitled to treatment such as their conditions require, which can be given only in school homes especially suited for them. Here they could be treated pathologically according to a plan adapted to each; the children could be segregated into groups to prevent harmful influences of one individual or class by another. These ideas are in part carried out in some of the cantonal schools, were special care is given to children of nervous temperament. Dr. Frank, of Zürich, advises that—

> Parents of such children should be visited and thereby a clew obtained to a correct diagnosis of their troubles. The teacher himself should not presume to play the part of a pathologist, for he might thereby do great harm, but he should train himself to detect these not uncommon instances of slight nervous disturbance. Sometimes a quiet word from the teacher will help to remove the slight psychic obstruction; in other cases the trouble is to be referred to the specialist before the damage becomes too great.

Dr. Frank adds that offenses committed by these children should be dealt with in a manner different, usually gentler, from those of others. The experiences reported from such homes in Germany make it plain that a rather long period is necessary to effect a cure, though even a stay of five or six weeks has been beneficial.

For those that can not be fully healed the teachers try to find work that comes within their powers. "This endeavor has not only an economic but a moral and ethical side, for it will help to keep these less fortunate people from feeling that they are a burden." An attempt to realize this purpose was made in Basel in 1917 by opening a little trade school for subnormal children.

> At first it was known as the Weaver's Shop, but it was by no means intended to be limited to the occupation implied in the name. Aid from the Canton and from private donors enabled the originators to carry the plan further. The teachers in charge found that sewing, stitching, covering cushions, and to some extent weaving could very well be done by subnormal pupils. The results were, in fact, so encouraging as to warrant the extension of the idea by opening a school at Stapfelberg for subnormal girls. Since then funds have been secured from other sources, so that it is now contemplated to extend the scope of the endeavor by organizing rural homes where children of this class may become familiar with farm work and thereby be placed in the way of gaining their subsistence.[2]

[1] Adapted from article in Die Jugend, January and February, 1918.
[2] From Jugendwohlfahrt, February, 1918.

Movements of this kind have been accelerated by the war, and some new arrangements formerly regarded as of doubtful expediency have been put into practice. From the Canton of Aargau, for instance, several measures taken by the schools are reported that may be regarded as typical of what the schools are doing elsewhere—greater attention to exceptional, criminally inclined, or unhealthy children; increase in the facilities for free lunch and free clothing; more thorough health supervision; improved sanitary conditions of schools and pupils' dormitories; reduction of the number of pupils in a class; conference on the choice of work, together with plans for free instruction of pupil apprentices; furnishing of writing and instruction material free of charge; remittance of tuition in the district schools; increase in the number of stipends for pupils; establishing courses in commerce adapted for girls and manual work for boys; greater freedom in the change, election, and omission of subjects; increase in the efficiency of agencies to secure employment for pupils; reduction, under certain conditions, of the obligatory school period.

In immediate connection with the programs of all schools, there is a marked tendency to investigate the value of work done at the home as compared with that done in the classroom. With the aid of experimental psychology, teachers have reached the conclusion (reported mainly in Schweizerische Lehrerzeitung for Feb. 28, 1918) that:

> The work done at school was generally superior to that done by an isolated pupil at home as home work. In copying and figuring at home it was materially less than it should be in comparison with the same kind done at school. Qualitatively the comparison was also favorable to the school. As over against this, the experiments showed that in the case of certain pupils who were permitted to work quietly at home the work was better than that done in the class. In proportion as higher spiritual qualities entered into it, the assignment (imagination, judgment, presentation, literary style) done at home was better; in proportion as it involved the character of a memory performance, into which little of the pupil's personality entered, the classroom work was better.

Among other conclusions reached was that the pupil, if permitted to select his own time for doing the assignment, would often choose hours unsuited to mental work, such as the time immediately after a meal. As the pupil grows more mature, with clearer realization of his responsibility, the home work becomes more satisfactory. It is obviously the duty of the school authorities to see to it that pupils do not become overburdened by assignments to be done at home. When home work is necessary, it may indeed serve as a link between the home and the school because the parents would be under obligation to see to it that the children have the necessary time for the home assignment.

EXTENSION OF SCHOOL ACTIVITIES DUE TO THE WAR.

One of the first effects of the war on the schools in Switzerland, as elsewhere, was to furnish an incentive to break through the fixedness of the school programs and to respond to the immediate emergencies created. Occasions arose for extending the work of the schools in directions that had been thought to lie entirely beyond their province. The justification of these departures became topics for deliberations by school councils, leading inevitably to a new survey of the usefulness and timeliness of the various branches of the curricula. A new outlook tending to take as its viewpoint the very fundamentals in education began to prevail. If this wholesome disturbance of the educational régime comes to crystallize into any new principle of teaching, its characterizing features will be a more direct regard for the health and the entire career of a pupil, whether such regard can best be observed by the aid of books and lessons or in some other way. The pupil's life interests will be more fully paramount; and the programs of schools will be fashioned toward these ends, no matter how they may come to deviate from the school traditions.

The possibility of suspending the school routine for the sake of greater interests first appeared in the form of an endeavor to help relieve the economic stress the war created. As the Swiss school publications report the early instruction for the guidance of teachers in conducting this relief work, and as later issues of the same publications give the actual achievement, it is possible to trace these endeavors through some of their stages. The Commission on Industrial Information in its report advises that those who have charge of placing city pupils as helpers should always have regard to the spontaneous willingness of the pupils to enter upon this kind of service. Of the two usual modes of making the labor of pupils available for agricultural productiveness, namely, as assistants during harvest and as independent tillers of gardens of their own, the latter is the more promising. To plant and produce crops of their own fosters a spirit of social responsibility and a sense of patriotic duty. Educationally, too, it has a superior value, for it is a form of experimentation in which the young agriculturist is spurred on to inform himself about the best method of tilling the plat allotted to him. It would be highly desirable, if city conditions would permit, to place school garden tillage on the program for the fifth and sixth years; even a further extension of it as a part of the curriculum would be advantageous if weather conditions would make it practicable to give it a fixed place on the daily schedule.

The school publications call attention to the considerations that determine the success of pupils assisting on the farms during the

busy seasons. The experiences of city pupils on the farm have not always been satisfactory either to themselves or to the farmers. Usually the boys come with incorrect and distorted conceptions of country work, and are therefore cruelly disillusionized during the first days; and, again, the farmer does not always have a correct conception of the city pupils' feelings and outlook. In participating in the work of the country it is best for the pupils to be accompanied by teachers and responsible persons who see to it that the stay in the country becomes profitable to their charges as well as to the farmers.

There may not always be the needed accommodations, in which case the village schoolhouse could be used as a dormitory. Here the work group could be kept busy at some form of lesson during rainy days. The help should not be rendered gratis, but should be compensated by a wage; even though nominal, it would be an encouragement.

The substance of the above suggestions, taken from the published instructions to Swiss teachers, is supplemented by information telling of the actual endeavors to carry them into effect. Instances are cited of individual farmers who spoke highly of the efforts made by the city pupils to help, adding that some of them rendered very material aid in harvesting the rye. The pupils from a certain modern school exceeded the expectations placed upon them. One result of these experiments was that an organization of teachers at Basel determined on a plan for carrying them further by making them a permanent school endeavor. To that end they invited pupils—boys and girls—to take part. The press was asked to assist by urging the farmers to avail themselves of the pupil's help at the next harvest. To get the farmers themselves interested was regarded as most important.[1]

As the schools of Switzerland are closely identified in their work with the practical affairs of life, they were closely touched by the economic disturbances of the war. One immediate effect, already mentioned, was to organize for productiveness; another was the necessity for augmenting the salaries of teachers. Where the burden of this emergency increment should fall was at first a matter of uncertainty. The Federal Government looked for a solution which would make the increase 400 francs, instead of 600 as asked by the teachers, and apportion it equally between the Canton and the Commonwealth. Temporary increments were granted until 1919, when permanent salary improvements will undoubtedly be made, arrangements which appeared to be entirely satisfactory to the teachers. Despite the opportunities for more remunerative work, few teachers left their posts of duty for other employment.

[1] Based on various issues of the Schweizerische Lehrerzeitung from Nov. 30, 1918, to Feb. 9, 1919.

Some dislocation of the work came about through the general economic stress. School boards received many applications from pupils for dismissal before the expiration of the required time, because the parents wished them released for remunerative employment. In the interests of both the pupils and the schools, these requests were granted only in cases of extreme urgency. Considerable interruption of the work took place, however. In the spring of 1919, for instance, the irregularity had become so extensive that many schools concluded the year's work without the usual semester examinations. Exercises of another kind were then substituted, but in no case did these have the character of tests. These arrangements were so much the more necessary as the influenza epidemic had, in many districts, compelled the schools to be closed for periods from weeks to months.

Increased opportunities for wage earners so diminished the school attendance in some districts as to make it difficult to maintain the school as usual. In the Canton of Zürich this led to the consolidation of several smaller districts, with the result of relieving somewhat the financial straits of each. In almost all these instances, the accounts state, the amalgamation, besides effecting a more equitable distribution of the school burdens, has been an advantage educationally. Hence there is a growing tendency to bring together a still larger number of school groups into consolidated institutions. The union of two schools is often effected by making one primary and the other of higher grade. Even districts and schools denominationally different from one another have in this way been satisfactorily brought together. In view of the ample supply of teachers the movement has not been in their interests, but its justification is upheld by a fairer distribution of the expenses, better equipment, better general instructional facilities, better utilization of the teaching force, a more ample supply of teaching material for each school. Again, it strengthens the community spirit and extends it into larger circles, widening the outlook by fuller sympathy with the people outside of the immediate circle.

Among the more permanent effects of the war is the desire to overcome the tardy processes of carrying out school reforms obviously needed. The procedure now in vogue in Switzerland and elsewhere is delayed by deliberations on petty objections until the needed legislation is postponed for years, by which time the social order has moved on toward new horizons.

An instance of how the usual delay can be overcome was presented when, in response to requirements arising out of altered conditions, vocational selection was brought into the courses. The same conditions also gave rise to a new inquiry into the educational significance of the manual labor that pupils and teachers voluntarily performed

during the war. So favorably have educators been impressed with it that they are unwilling to take the backward step of having it discontinued, hence prompt enactments may be expected, that will provide for its continuance and expansion. The direct practical aims that the schools set up insist on a corresponding directness on the part of the school authorities in making provisions for the new endeavors. The more independent of books the instruction becomes and the closer it draws to everyday life, the clearer becomes the necessity of a prompt response to the call for buildings to accommodate the new activities—suitably equipped rooms for girls' work, for boys' industrial courses, school exercises in chemistry and physics, pupils' lunch rooms, gymnastic rooms, playgrounds, and school gardens. Years ago some arrangements were begun for the cantonal and community control of supplies and instruction material. The plan was gradually adopted by the Cantons of Solothurn, Baselstadt, St. Gall, and Thurgau; they effected joint contracts with publishing houses to furnish books at prices which became lower through consolidated purchases. Other Cantons cautiously adopted the same plan, though modified in details. Recently some form of the general plan has been adopted by almost all the Cantons; traditional objections have been more easily overcome, and it is now recognized more fully than before that the movement toward a socialization of the schools in this way is in perfect accord with the democracy of the people of Switzerland.

The democratic trend of recent events is shown in the efforts to bring the problem of school inspection to a solution. When the schools of Switzerland became free from the church they came under the direction of secular inspectors who were governed by rules and directions which many teachers considered vexatious in their character. The argument that such State inspectorship is necessary to maintain uniformity among the schools is not regarded as valid by the Swiss teachers as a body. The defects, they argue, now remaining in the schools can be remedied at least as readily by the associated teachers as by the official inspectors. Through their associations, therefore, teachers are urging that the inspection be taken over by their own organization to relieve the schools from some of the features of the State inspectorship that are objectionable to them.

In the sessions of the school convention at Zürich in September, 1918, the political and social outlook created by the war obviously colored the educational deliberations. There was strong pressure in the direction of opening a still greater number of avenues toward practical work that could be taken up by pupils differently gifted. But the question of the manner in which the school organizations could best be adapted toward these ends gave rise to conflicting views. It was maintained that if an early segregation toward vocational

aims be made possible, the selections could be made from fuller numbers and on a broader basis. The trades would thereby gain many pupils who under the present organization are encouraged to go on to the middle school, though they are able to follow its courses only in part. By an early choice of calling the crowded middle schools would be relieved from the influx of a great many pupils whom neither gifts nor aims justify in going on with higher studies.

On the other hand it was argued that an early departure in the direction of a chosen calling can not be made from the safe basis of sufficient data on the pupil's endowments and aptitudes. Such early choice is therefore likely to be influenced by the social and economic position of the parents. The children should be encouraged to travel the same school highway, so far as possible, under the same teachers doing the same work, subject to the same tests for segregation toward special lines. An obligatory folk school with a lower division of six classes, and with these an organically united division of two classes—the latter adapted toward specialization of studies—would safeguard all interests of pupils and of society. Here would be room for manual work, real productive labor, which all pupils would be required to take up. The prestige work would attain by its elevation in the schools to a plane with other subjects, and the mutual participation in it by the pupils, were regarded as the most efficient way in which the schools could combat the notions of caste. It is realized that when pupils get together in the manipulation of actual things for industrial, productive, and, as such, patriotic purposes, social demarcations and cleavage tend to become obliterated. Subjects having much to do with criticism and scholastic achievements are a more favorable field for the growth and maintenance of distinctions among classes. Within its organized outlines it was insisted there must be scope for types and school units to specialize in industrial direction and at the same time to preserve coordinated interaction. These aims lie in the direction of decentralization and differences in administrative regulations with the view of adapting the work to fit the pupil's calling and endowments and the wishes of his parents. In brief, the present complicated administrative system should be made simpler and more elastic, so that it can more readily respond to the expanding activities of the schools.

At a teachers' meeting in January, 1919, the discussion seemed to show that new conceptions are beginning to crystallize into definite and positive forms. While due regard will be given to the many new and useful activities that claim admission into the curricula, the teachers of Switzerland are not disposed to neglect the old and established branches. The fundamentals of the system have not been disturbed by the war. The classroom instruction will, hereafter as before, comprise reading, writing, figuring; it will train the

memory and the judgment of children; it will give them constant practice in the analysis and the combination of thought processes. The schools will put forth their best endeavors to help lift the youth to a point above the narrow prejudice of egoism to sympathy with the world in which they live, out of limitations and seclusion, out of contempt for the concerns of the world, to a knowledge of actual life and to a participation in its struggles. Though there will be earnest attempts to remove the handicap which through birth or station may weigh upon a pupil, there will be no enthusiasm for the dead levels of mere equality. The social and educational values associated with manual labor as a required part of the school program will be fully recognized. In the future as in the past, there will be steady efforts made to attain results, material as well as spiritual; but the Swiss teachers will continue to bear in mind that they must compensate for the material things which must come from abroad by spiritual values within their own borders. The war has enhanced the fundamental values by stressing courage, energy, vitality, intelligence, and the love of freedom. In the interests of these values considerations of a merely scholastic character are, temporarily, at least, pushed into the background. The interaction of school units as a system will be subordinated to these ends.

The sessions at the January meeting stated that the school system must never be permitted to assume the character of a business department of the State, with mechanical functioning and consequent deterioration of its spiritual life. The schools must be relieved from routine, fixity of form, and officialdom. Lesson plans and methods should not impose a rigid scheme of instruction material to be mastered or memorized; the aim should rather be to adhere to whatever material or combination of material, or means, further the growth of the human intellect, and encourage its own early and spontaneous activity. Freedom, therefore, within the school régime is a dominant idea which recent events have made insistent. Human feeling begins loudly to protest against the thought that the most youthful, most original, and inherently most joyous period of life should be repressed by official formality.

Again, the teachers advocated Government aid for students, artisans, and teachers, to pass some time in travel to study their respective callings so as to attain a mastery of what was best in usages prevailing abroad. This was one of the most direct ways fully to utilize whatever resources their own country afforded, and thereby rise to a position where they could worthily and efficiently help to rehabilitate the countries devasted by the war.

While the teachers as an organization could advise in matters that the steady progress and the enlarged responsibilities of the schools now required, it remained for the Government to heed the full edu-

cational opportunities that the events of the past years had created. Switzerland occupies preeminently an international position, from which the harsher antipathies created by the war have been absent. According to a communication from Dr. Haveland Field, of Zürich, dated November 3, 1918, this would be an ideal location for a memorial educational institution from which sentiments of amity toward all peoples could radiate. Dr. Field calls attention to the aspirations which the Republic of Switzerland has in common with the Republic of the United States, making it especially appropriate for these two nations to take the initiative in the furtherance of this international idea.

A few educational movements that have gained a new significance by the war have been mentioned. Others now uppermost are: 1. The war has shown that woman can do some things formerly thought impossible to her. The schools will, therefore, adapt courses more fully to woman's intellectual and physical constitution and to the new possibilities brought within her sphere. 2. Teachers will cooperate more closely with the homes of the pupils. They will endeavor fully to enlist the sympathy of parents for the school work. 3. Democratization of the school control. 4. Decentralization of the working organism of the system. 5. Stipends to be made more generally available for talented pupils. 6. Endeavors to guide pupils to select occupations according to endowments. 7. The occupation of the teacher must be lifted above the influence of cliques. 8. Efforts to individualize the instruction. 9. Concentration of the instruction as studies and lessons. 10. Greater use of opportunities for exchange of teachers in foreign languages. 11. Exchange of abilities in city and country. 12. Coordinating manual labor with other studies of the curriculum.

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