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OFFICE OF EDUCATION

WILLIAM JOHN COOPER, Commissioner

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NATIONAL MINISTRIES  
OF EDUCATION

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## LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,  
OFFICE OF EDUCATION,  
Washington, D. C., June, 1930.

SIR: From time to time during the past 100 years individuals or organizations have suggested, or seriously proposed, the establishment of a Federal department of education. Immediately after the Civil War the early advocates, led by Henry Barnard, almost succeeded in their plan. In 1867 a bill creating a department of education, introduced into the House by James A. Garfield, became law. The head of this new and very small "department," however, was a commissioner and not a secretary with a Cabinet seat. The following year the law was amended in such a way as to establish "An Office of Education in the Department of the Interior." During the years since the World War, which brought forcibly to our attention certain defects which many believe only education can remove, the agitation for a department of education has been very vigorous, and the opposition to it has been pronounced and in some instances bitter enough to assail the motives of the proponents.

A strong aspect of this controversy is the extent of the argument and the paucity of real facts on which to base a policy. It is likely that most authorities on our Constitution would agree that the establishment of a real administrative department of education would mean a fundamental change in our scheme of government, and that any act creating a department with enlarged powers of research would merely "glorify" the present "Office of Education"—a gesture, so to speak, to those who ask for a real department or a first step in that direction. Certainly no American will deny to anyone his right to urge a change in government by constitutional amendment. Since every one is called upon to express his desire, he must have facts.

This manuscript consists of chapters taken from the thesis of James F. Abel, chief of our division of foreign school systems, which was submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of doctor of philosophy at George Washington University. It offers in brief compass a survey of ministries of education in other countries and a bibliography for those who care to investigate the subject further.

In order to provide real data for those who care to study seriously the place of educational administration in our scheme of government, I recommend that it be published as a bulletin of this office.

Respectfully submitted,

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

WM. JOHN COOPER,  
Commissioner.

## FOREWORD

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*National ministries of education.*—A ministry, department, secretariat, or board of education is one of the main divisions of the central executive authority in 55 of the 73 independent national entities into which the people of the world are grouped for purposes of government. By virtue of the fact that in those countries it is a ministry, the ministry of education is presumably coordinate with the other main divisions of the executive branch of the government, such as those that direct foreign, financial, commercial, colonial, defense, and other matters of national concern; and the minister is one of the immediate aides of the chief executive, whether that be king, prime minister, president, or committee. National direction and administration of education, a policy that has made its way slowly in the political developments of mankind, now expresses itself through the agency of central ministerial offices, whose duties relate chiefly to general education, provided for either directly or indirectly in the national constitutions among some 907,380,000 people—about 50 per cent of the world's population—occupying approximately 13,699,000 square miles or one-fourth of the world's inhabited land area.

*Purpose of the study.*—The purpose of this study is to report somewhat in detail on the status, functions, and activities of the national ministries of education as they are now. It is not a historical account except in so far as the facts of history are necessary for a better understanding of the present situation. No ministry of education that is less than national in its legal and functional characteristics is included. This excludes such organizations as the ministry of science, art, and education in Prussia, the commissariat of public education in the Russian Socialist Federated Republic, the department of public instruction in New South Wales, the University of the State of New York, and others. They are important administrative bodies but they do not logically come within the scope of this inquiry.

*The nature of the data.*—The data presented are chosen from publications of different kinds, mainly official and generally direct from the country with which they deal. Whenever possible, citizens of foreign countries or American educators who had travelled much were interviewed in regard to the administration of education abroad. The questionnaire given in Appendix I was sent through the Department of State to the American consular offices in nearly all of the foreign countries. The replies furnished good guide lines for further study.

# NATIONAL MINISTRIES OF EDUCATION

## CHAPTER I

### A Brief History of the Development of National Ministries of Education

An account of the growth of ministries of education is mainly that of a phase of the growth of the ministerial executive authority that is a part of practically every modern central government and is reflected in the larger political subdivisions of many nations. The establishment of ministries of education represents in general changes in an intolerable state of affairs and attempts to better through education the condition of the great mass of the people and to train them in ability to manage their matters of common concern. Very frequently ministries of education came into being immediately after great national or international disasters.

The tradition of a national office concerned with education extends in China back some 41 centuries to the time when the ruler Shun appointed Hsieh minister of education to teach the people the duties of the five human relationships. Other ancient oriental nations may have had similar officers. The notable example of a minister of education in the early Christian Era is Alcuin who, from 781 A. D. to his death, was confidential advisor to Charlemagne in that monarch's schemes of education.

*The Eastern Hemisphere in the eighteenth century.*—On the Eastern Hemisphere before 1800, the suppression of the Jesuit Order in 1773 furnished the occasion in Austria for the establishment of a central school commission to have authority over all the schools; and in Poland on motion before the Diet by the vice chancellor of Lithuania, a commission of education was created that had control of public education and later took over to use for public instruction all the landed property and other wealth confiscated from the Jesuits. The commission planned and partially carried out, before the division of Poland in 1795, a remarkable system of primary, secondary, and higher institutions. That commission is considered to be the first of the modern European ministries of public instruction.

*The Eastern Hemisphere in the nineteenth century.*—Sweden, Norway, France, Greece, Egypt, Italy, Hungary, Denmark, and Austria in turn developed national educational ministries in the years between 1800 and 1850. Sweden lost Finland to Russia in a war of 1808, a disaster that was followed by a revolution and the

adoption on the 5th of July, 1809, of a new constitution under which the department of education and ecclesiastical affairs was begun. The people of Norway, thoroughly roused by the action of the Congress of Vienna which transferred them from Danish to Swedish rule, held a convention at Eidsvold and on May 17, 1814, adopted a constitution framed on those of America, France of 1791, and Spain of 1812. Sweden and Norway were united until 1905 but the Norwegian constitution remained in force and shortly after its adoption the royal ecclesiastical and educational department was instituted.

The story of the development of the ministry of France is fairly well known.<sup>1</sup> Cournot makes an interesting comment on it in his note:

The memoirs of Chateaubriand tell us of the negotiations between Richelieu and Corbière who refused obstinately to enter the cabinet if he was not given the presidency of public instruction. The tenacity of a mediocre Breton attorney, supported by a poet who was placing his brilliant palette at the service of politics, in one of those rare moments when the poet was in favor at court, it was that which gave to France a ministry of public instruction.<sup>2</sup>

The uprisings of 1820 against the return to medievalism arranged by the Congress of Vienna led to the independence of Greece and its establishment in 1833 as a kingdom. Its leaders looked to education as a means of strengthening the Greek people and early in its struggle for independence (1821 to 1829) a national educational office was authorized. The ministry of Egypt was started by the impetuous Mohammed Ali during his struggle with Turkey when he wished to bring western European culture into Egypt and to maintain a system of schools modeled after those of France. The vigorous revolutionary movement that swept over Europe in 1848 left some of its traces in national ministries of education set up in Italy in 1847, Hungary and Denmark in 1848, and Austria in 1849.

Turkey in 1857; Rumania, 1864; Japan, 1871; New Zealand, 1877; Belgium, 1878; Bulgaria, 1878; Serbia, 1882; Portugal, 1890; and Siam, 1898, made ministries of education part of their national governments during the half century from 1850 to 1900. The severe crisis through which Turkey passed about 1830 to 1840 necessitated attempting to remodel the government. Near the close of Muhammed II's reign (1839) ministries were instituted and a council of ministers begun. Following the treaty of Paris by which Turkey was admitted to the family of nations, reforms that did not endure were started and at that time a ministry of public instruction was established. The

<sup>1</sup> Buisson, Ferdinand Édouard. *Nouveau Dictionnaire de Pédagogie et d'Instruction Primaire*. Paris, Librairie Hachette et Cie., 1911.

<sup>2</sup> Cournot, Antoine Augustin. *Des institutions d'instruction publique en France*. Paris, Librairie de L. Hachette et Cie., 1864.



breaking up of Turkish power in Europe gave Rumania, Bulgaria, and Serbia their independence. The Rumanians with their distinctly Latin language and culture were early influenced by French ideals and it was natural that after the union of Wallachia and Moldavia, they should set up a school system much like that in France with a minister at its head. The virile Bulgarians, whose rapid coming into national strength and power has no parallel in Europe, made an educational ministry part of the government shortly after it became autonomous in 1878. Following the treaty of Berlin which recognized the independence of Serbia, a law was passed reorganizing public instruction under a ministry.

The first ministries in Belgium and Portugal represented temporary victories of republican and liberal elements over church and monarchical groups. Both were shortly suppressed but reestablished in later years.

Japan began its rapid change from feudalism to a modern civilization in 1868 and Emperor Meiji immediately placed great emphasis on education as one of the most effective means of bringing about that transition. He appointed an educational officer and began establishing various kinds of schools. Three years later a department of education was set up for the control of educational affairs in the whole country. In the later eighties and the early nineties the outlook for Siam was brightening greatly; the boundary disputes and wars that had been going on for centuries were in a fair way to be settled and internally the country was at peace. The Anglo-French convention of 1896 definitely fixed the status of the country. During this period educational betterments were projected and a ministry of education established.

The early colonial settlements of New Zealand were organized into Provinces in 1852 and each developed its own schools. The Provinces were abolished in 1876; education was made a national business with teaching free, secular, and compulsory; and its administration was vested in a ministry of education. In England, the Royal Commission on Secondary Education, of which Lord Bryce was chairman, reported in 1895. It reviewed the work of the charity commissioners, the department of science and art, the education department, and the board of agriculture, all of which were central authorities connected with secondary education and wrote:

We conceive, in short, that some central authority is required, not in order to control, but rather to supervise the secondary education of the country, not to override or supervise local action, but to endeavor to bring about among the various agencies which provide that education a harmony and cooperation that are now wanting.

The central authority ought to consist of a department, of the executive government, presided over by a minister responsible to parliament, who would obviously be the same minister to whom the charge of elementary education is intrusted.

Four years later the recommendations of the commission were translated into reality, and the board of education became a ministry.

*The Eastern Hemisphere in the twentieth century.*—In the pre-war years of the twentieth century Spain, Liberia, Finland, Persia, the Union of South Africa, and Albania established ministries of education, and that of Portugal, when a republican form of government was adopted, became a permanent institution. Internal dissatisfaction in Spain with the outcome of the Spanish-American War by which that country lost the last of its important colonies, the heavy indebtedness, the high rate of illiteracy, and the general economic and social disorganization forced the Government to make some attempts at reform, and among them was the creation of a ministry to inquire into and better the condition of the schools throughout Spain. The strike of the Finns in 1905 against the intense Slavophil policy of Alexander III of Russia forced the restoration of the old Finnish constitution and, that having been gained, the Diet of Finland proceeded in 1906 to revise the constitution so that the executive consisted of a minister-secretary of state and members of the senate, in effect ministers responsible to the Diet. One of them was the administrative officer for educational and religious affairs. This revolt in Russia had an echo in Persia, where in 1906 the Shah was compelled to issue a rescript calling for the formation of a national council. An ordinance of that year states the powers and duties of the council, or parliament, and of the ministers who are responsible to it for the government of the nation. An education ministry is included.

In South Africa before the union of 1910, the University of the Cape of Good Hope had been an examining and degree-granting institution for all the colonies and hence a kind of unifying organization. Partly because of this the Union Parliament assumed control of higher education and granted to the provincial councils the administration of only education other than higher. The department of education of Liberia was the result of a quiet, sincere attempt to better educational conditions in the Republic.

Out of the treaties that closed the World War came the reestablishment of Poland; the complete independence of Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, the Free City of Danzig, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, and Albania; and later the recognition of Afghanistan and Iraq as national entities. Each of them made a ministry of education a part of the national executive authority. The treaties themselves, involving as they did solemn commitments to recognize the rights of

minorities to the use of, and education in, their mother tongues, and the embodiment of those obligations in the new constitutions practically forced the national governments to take control of education and handle it through a central office. The nation, not its subdivisions, was by treaty and constitution made responsible for freedom of educational privileges.<sup>3</sup>

Later the Irish Free State gained the status of a self-governing dominion in the British commonwealth of nations and followed the example of the other newly established national governments. The creation of a ministry of education, science, and art in 1918 in the Netherlands came as a part of the changes that the Dutch people were making in the Government even during the difficult period of the war.

*The Western Hemisphere.*—Historical accounts of education in the Latin American countries are few and as a rule brief and incomplete. Exceptions to the latter statement are a 2-volume history of primary instruction in Argentina issued in 1910 by the National Council of Education and Orestes Araujo's History of the Uruguayan Schools issued by the direction general of primary instruction in 1911. The Latin American peoples gained their freedom from Spain in the years 1800 to 1830 and gradually established more or less stable governments under constitutions similar to that of the United States of America. By 1900 all of the republics then existing with the exception of Uruguay had cabinet offices for the administration of education. In that country the direction general of public instruction had functioned well in either the ministry of home affairs or of public development and it was not until about 1908 that it became a part of the ministry of industry, labor, and public instruction, nor until 1918 that public instruction was the exclusive work of one ministry. In 1905 the secretariat of public instruction and fine arts in Mexico was created from a part of the former office of justice and public instruction. Panama and Cuba both set up cabinet offices for education shortly after they became independent and established their own governments.

*The character of the ministry as shown by its title.*—The title of the ministry, to some extent, indicates its character. In Belgium, Cuba, Danzig, Ecuador, the Netherlands, Persia, and Spain either the words "sciences" or "fine arts" or both are included to indicate that the ministry is concerned with cultural activities other than instruction in organized schools. In 15 countries the office of public instruction is combined with some other not so closely allied with strictly educational work as are the fine arts and the sciences. In

<sup>3</sup> For a more extended discussion of this, see Major Trends of Education in Other Countries. By James F. Abel. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1928, No. 18. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1928.

Latin America, the department of education is united with justice in Argentina, the Dominican Republic, Paraguay, Peru, and Salvador; with agriculture in Bolivia; with posts and telegraph in Ecuador; with charity and prisons in Peru; and with foreign relations, charity, and public health in Salvador.

Religion and public instruction have been a very common combination and it still persists in Finland, Greece, Norway, Persia, Poland, and Sweden. The office was known in France from its inception in 1824 to July, 1830—the period of restoration—as the ministry of ecclesiastical affairs and public instruction. For the following two years it was the ministry of public instruction and cults and resumed that name for a period of 15 years after an interim of 16 in which it was the ministry of public instruction. Again in 1863 it became the ministry of public instruction and continued so until 1870 when it took the title of ministry of public instruction, cults, and fine arts; in 1879 the name of ministry of public instruction and fine arts was assumed and, except for short periods, has since been used. Religion was separated from public education in the ministry in Austria in 1918, Denmark in 1916, Yugoslavia in 1926, and in Ecuador about 1885. The present tendency in all countries is toward a combination of education, fine arts, and public health.\*

*Countries without national ministries of education.*—The 18 countries each of which does not have a national ministry of education are, in the order of population, the largest named first: India and its dependencies, Union of Soviet Republics, United States of America, German Reich, United States of Brazil, Empire of Abyssinia, Dominion of Canada, Arabia, Empire of Morocco, Kingdom of Nepal, Commonwealth of Australia, Swiss Confederation, Newfoundland and Labrador, Grand Duchy of Luxemburg, State of Bhutan, Principality of Monaco, Republic of San Marino, and Principality of Liechtenstein. They have a combined population of about 720,000,000 and occupy an area of 25,610,000 square miles.

\* Readers who wish more detailed data about the historical ~~and~~ of the establishment of ministries of education will find brief accounts for each country in Appendix IV, pp. 135-150. The exact name of each ministry, in the language of the country, is given if it could be secured.

## CHAPTER II

### General Characteristics of the Office of Minister and of the Ministry of Education

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*Types of national government in which the ministries function.—* The nature of any particular national ministry of education depends much on the type of government of which it is a part. Of the 55 countries with such ministries, 19 are monarchies, 29 are republics, 4 are federal unions, 2 are self-governing dominions, and 1 is both a federal union and self-governing dominion. The monarchies in Europe are Norway, Sweden, Denmark, the Netherlands, Belgium, England, Hungary, Rumania, Yugoslavia, Albania, Bulgaria, Spain, and Italy. Those in the Far East and the Near East are Japan, Siam, Afghanistan, Persia, Iraq, and Egypt. In all these, with the exceptions of Siam and possibly Afghanistan, the form of government is parliamentary; the executive authority is wielded not by the monarch but by a cabinet of ministers, or "government" whose personnel is determined by the political party in power. When the ministry in control can no longer carry its measures through the parliament or its party is defeated at an election, the leader of the opposition is invited by the monarch to become prime minister, select the other members of the cabinet, and carry on the affairs of the nation according to the program of the majority party or of such a coalition of parties as will constitute a majority. In this parliamentary form of government the tenure of office of the ministers is uncertain; the ministers customarily are members of the parliament, with the usual speaking and voting privileges; and they are directly responsible to it. While administering the affairs of the executive branch of the government, they must at the same time direct the course of legislation and help maintain the party organization.

The European Republics are Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, the Free City of Danzig, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Greece, France, and Portugal. Excepting for the moment Danzig and Estonia, these republics are parliamentary; the president elected for a set term is not the responsible executive. Administration is by a ministry that falls when its party loses its majority. Estonia has taken an additional step in popular government and left out entirely the

office of president. The prime minister is state head. The president of the senate in the Free City of Danzig directs and supervises the whole routine of administration and is elected for four years.

Sixteen of the remaining republics are Latin American and in them the "presidential" type of government, similar to that in the United States of America, prevails. The will of the people waits on the calendar. The President is elected for a definite term of office and his party is in control of the administration for that period even though it may be in the minority much of that time. The President is both chief executive and head of his party. He chooses his cabinet from its leaders and a cabinet member may not be a member of the congress or, if he is, his membership in the latter body is suspended during his ministry. Except in Chile, where custom, not law, decrees it, the cabinet need not resign if its measures fail in the Congress.

In two important respects the governments in these republics are unlike that of the United States and similar to those of Europe: (1) The President has wide legislative powers in the matter of issuing decrees and orders that have the force of law; and (2) he is inviolable to the extent that all his decrees must be signed by the appropriate minister or ministers, who then are held responsible.

Government in Uruguay is unusual in that there is a vertical cleavage of the executive authority. The President is elected for four years and is intrusted with many powers that are commonly termed the "political" functions of the executive. He selects and removes the ministers of foreign affairs, war and navy, and the interior. A national council of administration consisting of nine members elected by popular vote for six years, one-third retiring every two years, administers all matters not expressly reserved to the President or other authorities. These include public instruction, finances, public works, labor, industries, and agriculture, charities, and sanitation. The ministers of these departments are appointed by the national council and are responsible to it.

Of the remaining republics, Turkey has the parliamentary form of government and the trend in China is in that direction. The Government of Liberia is of the strictly presidential type.

Five federal unions have national ministries of education. They are Argentina, Mexico, Venezuela, Austria, and the Union of South Africa (also a self-governing dominion). In the first three the government is of the fixed-term, presidential form; in Austria it is parliamentary with the exception, unusual in Europe, that a minister may not be a member of the law-making body and may appear before it or its committees only on invitation of the main committee. The

Governments of New Zealand, the Irish Free State, and the Union of South Africa follow the English parliamentary plan.

*The office of minister—a partisan political office.*—With this general characterization of the status of the “government,” ministry, or cabinet in the executive branches of present-day national administration, it is easy to understand that the office of minister of education is in most cases distinctly partisan political and the minister will be chosen more for his political affiliations and activities than for other considerations. Some exceptions occur. In Sweden the office is definitely nonpolitical; partisan politics are excluded from the educational program in Estonia; and in the Free City of Danzig education is in practice largely free of party connections and influence. In Colombia and Albania the office is presumably nonpolitical, and the tendency in Costa Rica is to make it so by appointing educators. It is nonpolitical in Siam where there are no political parties.

*Professional qualifications of the minister.*—That the office is “in politics” does not prevent public sentiment and “good” politics in a considerable number of countries from influencing the appointment of minister in the direction of successful, experienced educators. In Denmark and Sweden the minister is invariably a successful educator. He is usually so in Albania, Colombia, Costa Rica, Czechoslovakia, Danzig, Estonia, Latvia, Poland, Japan, Panama, and Salvador. Distinguished educators are appointed in the Irish Free State. Six of the first eight ministers in Belgium were university professors. The appointee in Rumania is commonly promoted from one of the lower but prominent positions in the ministry of education. The minister in Finland is commonly chosen from persons engaged in educational, scientific, or cultural pursuits. In Uruguay and in Cuba he is supposed to have had experience in education. A lawyer is generally chosen in Peru; a publicist who is a university graduate in Argentina; and in Mexico, a man who has been engaged in some kind of professional work. In Portugal the minister is always named for political reasons, but during the many cabinet changes in the last few years persons with successful educational experience have been selected for the post. The strongest of Bulgaria’s educators, authors, and learned men have held the position in that country.

The policy in England is rather against than for that of appointing an educator to be president of the board of education. The case of the Hon. H. A. L. Fisher, who had been a university teacher and administrator and who later became warden of New College in Oxford, was exceptional. The office in France is considered to be a *petit* ministry, that is, one to which younger and less-experienced politicians are appointed and in which they may gain experience to prepare them for other and presumably more responsible places.

M. Raymond Poincaré held it from April to December in 1898 and again from January to November in 1895. M. Aristide Briand was minister of public instruction from March, 1906, to January, 1908. All ministers in Yugoslavia, including the minister of education, are selected on the basis of their political influence and the number of votes in the Parliament that they are able to bring to the support of the cabinet. There are any technical qualifications that a minister may have for his position are of purely secondary importance. The same is true for practically all of the countries not mentioned in this and the preceding paragraph.

Women are seldom appointed, but in Denmark Mrs. Nina Bang held the office for some time, and Madam Adnam, of Constantinople, was minister of education of Turkey in 1926.

*The term of office.*—The term of office for the minister of education is uncertain, primarily because the appointing power may at any time remove him. If any consideration exists that frequent changes in the educational ministry are undesirable, or any more undesirable than in other ministries, there is little evidence of it. Further, in those countries with parliamentary governments changes are very frequent. In the following table are data with respect to the terms of office in four European countries:



TABLE 1.—Terms of office of the ministers of education in four European countries

Country	Period of time	Dates	Number of appointments	Number of persons appointed	Longest term on 1 appointment	Longest term of 1 person	Terms of—						
							Less than 1 month	Less than 6 months	6 months to 1 year	1 to 2 years	2 to 3 years	3 to 4 years	More than 4 years
1	3	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Italy	80 years	Nov. 30, 1847- Nov. 30, 1928.	73	55	4 years 2 months 28 days.	8 years 5 months 15 days.	5	26	20	17	6	3	1
France	83 years 8 months 8 days.	Aug. 20, 1824- Jan. 4, 1908.	77	65	6 years 10 months 10 days.	6 years 10 months 10 days.	7	32	19	12	6	3	4
Greece <sup>1</sup>	47 years 2 months 5 days.	Jan. 5, 1833- Mar. 10, 1880.	70	52	3 years 29 days	4 years 11 months 25 days.	10	34	17	11	6	1	0 <sup>d</sup>
Bulgaria <sup>1</sup>	46 years 6 months.	July 5, 1870- Jan. 5, 1926.	39	24	6 years 8 months 29 days.	6 years 8 months 29 days.	8	19	8	2	4	2	3

<sup>1</sup> Chassiotis, Georges. L'Instruction Publique chez les Grecs depuis la prise de Constantinople par les Turcs jusqu'à nos jours. Paris, Ernest Leroux, Librairie-Éditeur, 1881. 560 p.

<sup>d</sup> Data for the prime minister; probably the minister of education, retired, also.

Cournot says of the early ministries in France:

In the course of 40 years that have passed since the death of Louis XVIII, we have had a succession of 30 ministers, leaving out entirely those provisional ministers that had an existence of only a few days, or even of a few hours, seemingly because they had not been born with a chance to live. Guizot, Salvandy, Villemain, Giraud, having occupied at two different times the ministry of public instruction, one may, if one wishes, count only a succession of 26 ministers in the time indicated (1824 to 1864). Six of the appointees may be considered as coming from the university ranks: Guizot, Villemain, Cousin, Giraud, Fortoul, and Duruy.

Twelve ministers of education were appointed in England in the years from 1900 to 1927. The longest term, 5 years and 10 months, was held by Mr. Fisher.

In the presidential type of government common on the Western Continent, the minister of education will, if he is acceptable to the President, presumably hold office for 4 years in 13 of the Latin American countries, 6 years in 4 of them, 5 years in 1, and 7 years in another. But the executive authorities of the Latin American countries have changed with great frequency and it is probable that ministers of education on the Western Continent have on the average retained their positions no longer than those in the Eastern Hemisphere where the nature of the regular government makes them subject to immediate retirement.

This uncertain tenure of office is to some extent compensated for by the fact that in many countries the ministry of education has a permanent head official who is a strictly professional educator, is appointed under civil-service regulations and carries on the work without being too greatly disturbed by changes in ministers.

*Limits of authority, as to kinds of schools.*—Most ministries of education are limited in their direct authority to institutions of general culture. Special types of education of all kinds, such as agricultural, trade, vocational, commercial, military, naval, and technical, are, if they are under national control at all, dependent on ministries other than that of public instruction, usually the ones that have jurisdiction in those respective fields. Control of education is commonly believed to be nationally very highly centralized in France, but Camille Richard began his standard work on education in that country with the sentence, "Il n'y a pas en France de Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale." M. Richard meant and went on to explain that many of the public educational institutions in France are administered not by the ministry of public instruction and fine arts but by other branches of the executive authority. In fact, the ministries of agriculture, commerce, and industry, labor and hygiene,

public works, war, marine, the colonies, foreign affairs, and the sub-secretariat of merchant marine and fisheries all have charge of the types of education that pertain to their particular fields. Austria has schools under the federal ministries of public instruction, social welfare, trade and commerce, agriculture, and war.

The conditions in France and Austria are fairly representative of all the larger nations. In both countries efforts are being made to combine the many kinds of education under one ministry of public instruction. Such a plan was tried for a short time in Bulgaria and given up in 1923. By royal *décree* No. 1314 of June 17, 1928, the agricultural, commercial, industrial, and mining schools in Italy that were formerly under the ministry of national economy were transferred to the ministry of public instruction. Nearly all kinds of schools in Czechoslovakia are dependent on the one ministry. Changes in the direction of making all types of school training dependent on the ministry of education will probably come slowly if they come to any great extent. Other ministries have developed and wish to direct the training of workers in their special fields, and leaders in technical education are generally unwilling to commit their programs to a ministry whose chief concern is general education.

*Areal limits of authority.*—The area over which the ministry of education has jurisdiction is usually coterminous with the national boundaries but there are at least three kinds of exceptions to this rule. First, education in the colonies, if the country has any, is under the general control of the ministry of colonial affairs; the public instruction ministry has little or nothing to do with it. Second, the ministry of education may have full administrative-executive authority over a part of the national area and be merely an advisory and promotional organization for the remainder. Notably, the secretariat of public education in Mexico administers the schools of the Federal district and the Territories of Quintana Roo and Baja California. Within the States where State officials regulate education, the secretariat advises about and promotes public education and in doing so establishes and directs a comparatively limited number of normal and model schools and cultural missions. Essentially the same condition exists in Argentina. For a time the ministry in China had direct control over no schools but those of the city of Peking. Finally, the ministry may go beyond the national boundaries to the extent that it maintains and directs schools in other countries for the children of its nationals resident abroad.

*The internal organization of the ministry.*—The partisan political part of the ministry of education consists of the minister and some

half a dozen persons that enjoy his confidence, as his immediate aides, together with the necessary clerical staff. This small group, sometimes known as the "secretariat," "the ministerial office," "the presidial bureau," or "the minister's office," will include one or two persons as parliamentary vice ministers or parliamentary secretaries, the minister's private secretary, and possibly a small council of two or three persons to advise with the minister. The business of the group is to maintain contacts with the parliament and the prime minister, keep informed as to the political situation, and, in general, to act as liaison officers between the ministry, the government, and the party. Usually the group retires with the minister.

On its professional side, the internal organization of nearly every ministry of education is basically arranged or centers around a scheme that corresponds to the three levels of instruction: Primary, secondary, and college or university. If the ministry is that of a small country and consequently with few employees, the tendency, particularly in Latin-American countries, is to unite secondary and university education in one section. Teacher training for primary school teachers is usually in the primary education section. The fine arts and science phases are commonly allocated in the organization in a separate group or along with the universities. Religious matters and those pertaining to justice, or the attorney general's office, in those ministries in which such combinations exist, are handled by sections distinctly separate from those directly concerned with the schools. Private schools are not given a separate section; in the Latvian ministry the minority schools are.

Attached to the basic professional groups that correspond to the levels of instruction are the necessary sections for personnel; dispatch or correspondence; files and archives; material, purchase, and supplies; the budget and accounts; and publications. The professional part of the ministry in its entire personnel is usually subject to some kind of civil-service regulations and does not change with changes of administration. Its head is chosen for his professional fitness; his tenure of office is dependent upon good service and proper conduct, not political arrangements.

The details of internal organization vary greatly as a matter of course. Among the very small ministries is that of Guatemala which consisted a few years ago of the minister, an assistant secretary, a chief clerk, and seven or eight other clerks. No division into sections was needed or was made. Among the larger and more elaborate ministries, one that does not involve the administration of justice or of religious affairs, is that of Italy. In its greater units it is organized as follows:

The minister

The subsecretary

Cabinet of the minister (11 persons)

Secretariat of the subsecretary (3 persons)

Minister's council of administration (8 persons)

Committee on personnel discipline (9 persons)

Council of administration for subaltern personnel (4 persons)

Superior council of public instruction (26 persons)

Commission on appeals of elementary teachers (8 persons)

Commission on appeals of secondary teachers (8 persons)

Superior council of antiquities and fine arts (20 persons)

(4 sections)

Central commission of libraries (8 persons)

National committee for the history of the renaissance of Italy (26 persons)

Central office of personnel (40 persons)

Direction general of elementary instruction (80 persons, 4 divisions)

Direction general of secondary instruction (105 persons, 4 divisions)

Direction general of higher instruction (45 persons, 2 divisions)

Direction general of academies and libraries (26 persons, 2 divisions)

Direction general of antiquities and fine arts (69 persons, 3 divisions)

Employees of the central office in other offices or on missions (22 persons)

Transitory personnel in other offices (8 persons)

Central accounting office (58 persons, 3 divisions)

Service personnel (104 persons)

Here is a staff of almost 700 people in or immediately connected with the central office of the ministry. The arrangement provides roughly for five main offices assigned to the three levels of instruction, academies and libraries, and antiquities and fine arts. They constitute the professional, active divisions to which the others, such as the councils and boards, the committees of appeals and discipline, and the accounting office, are joined as advisors and coworkers.

Outside of this central office, Italy is divided for purposes of educational administration into 19 regions. The organization for all of these is on the same plan; the number of circumscriptions into which the region is divided and hence the number of employees differs. In 1928 for the first of these regions the arrangement was:

Royal supervisor of education

His staff (14 persons)

Board of secondary education (4 persons)

School council (6 persons)

Council of discipline (4 persons)

Elementary school direction and inspection

(One for each circumscription, in this case 8 persons)

Circle of governing educational direction

(One for each circumscription)

Another ministry with a large staff, many and complicated duties, and its organization worked out in much detail is that of sciences and arts of Belgium. In the main it is organized as follows:

The minister  
 . The general secretariat  
 Administration of general affairs (within the ministry)  
 Secretariat of public instruction  
 Administration of primary education  
 Administration of normal education  
 Administration of middle school instruction  
 Administration of higher education  
 Administration of fine arts, letters, and public libraries  
 Administration of pensions  
 Honorary officials and unattached

This organization need not be discussed further here. A detailed statement translated from the Almanach Royal of Belgium is Appendix III, and is included as an example of a type of organization in use in a country that has made much progress in education and the fine arts.

The scheme in Persia provides for five main divisions of the ministry, two of which are directly connected with the schools, one with religious matters, one with accounts, and one is an advisory board. These divisions with the respective duties are:

**A. General instruction office:**

1. Directs instruction in elementary and intermediate schools.
2. Secures information from all schools.
3. Prepares reports on the condition of the schools and their needs.
4. Limits the number of schools and their pupils.
5. Secures teachers and assigns them their work.
6. Prepares classes for adults.
7. Prepares free schools for orphans.

**B. Education office:**

1. Directs higher education.
2. Founds libraries, museums, scientific and literary societies.
3. Has charge of antiquities and excavations.
4. Prevents loss and destruction of antiques.
5. Has care of holy places and objects of art.

**C. Pious foundations office:**

1. Lists all pious foundations regardless of their purpose.
2. Inspects and protects the above.
3. Makes weekly, monthly, and yearly reports on schools, pious foundations, progress of instruction, and the condition of the offices of the ministry.

**D. Accounts office:**

1. Accounts of salaries, income, and expenses of education and of pious foundations.
2. Monthly report to the council of education.
3. Publishes semiannual report.

**E. Council of education :**

1. Considers problems of general education.
2. Endeavors to raise the standards of the schools.
3. Accepts or rejects school books.
4. Determines the method of expending special funds or gifts.
5. Advises the minister in any question referred to it.

F. Is an advisory body chosen by the minister from among the clergy, influential and educated men, principals, and school teachers.

The ministry in Uruguay is a loosely bound organization of a number of almost autonomous bodies or councils that have direct supervision over each branch of education and are located at Montevideo. Most important of these is the national council of primary and normal education, the legal successor to the former general direction of public instruction which administered elementary education from 1877 to 1918. The council consists of a director general and six members, all appointed by the national council of administration. One-third of the members go out of office each year. It has charge of all matters affecting elementary education and the training of teachers. It has 16 divisions. In a similar way there is a central council for university education which has subordinated to it a number of other councils including one for each faculty and one for secondary education. Other institutions such as the teachers normal institute, the national institutes for deaf and dumb boys and girls also have their councils and there is considerable question as to how far the central office of the ministry has authority over them.

*Organizations advisory to the ministry.*—Along with the administrative organization, examples of which have just been presented, runs a group of advisory organizations that are in certain respects the more important part of the ministries. They need to be considered in some detail. In several countries, notably Hungary, France, Belgium, Spain, England, New Zealand, Persia, and Bulgaria, there exists within the ministry of education or parallel to it a council of education whose duty is in broad terms to investigate any aspects of education and report its findings to the minister for his use. These councils must not be confused with the national councils of education in Argentina, Uruguay, Greece, and other countries where they are integral parts of the ministry and are administrative bodies. Those that are now being considered are organizations somewhat apart from the ministry, although the minister is usually the presiding officer; their membership is made up more from persons outside the ministry than from its personnel; their regular sessions usually occur only annually; the general membership is not paid for its services, though a small permanent committee may be; and they are expected to deal with broad principles and larger questions of educational

policy. They represent a kind of direct contact groups between the ministries and the peoples of their respective countries.

The story of the origin and development of the superior council of instruction in Hungary is valuable in that it shows the steps by which that council attained status as a responsible advisory body after having been drawn into and later relieving itself of administrative duties.

When after the reestablishment of the constitution in Hungary, the minister of public instruction began the work of organizing national education in 1867, he found it necessary to create a council that would be in part the authorized interpreter of the desires and opinions of specialists and also the consultative organ of the government for public instruction. He instituted in 1871, with the approval of the King, the superior council of instruction which has changed much but is still in operation and has left marked traces on the intellectual life of Hungary. At first the council was composed of representatives of the different kinds of schools with part of its members named by the minister and the others elected. The election idea was discarded in 1875 and the members were appointed not by classes of schools but branches of science, such as mathematics, natural sciences, etc. The council had some permanent members to form a "petty council" to which propositions were first submitted and then, in case of need, to the main body. That plan lasted for 15 years and in that time the council elaborated plans and courses of studies for secondary schools and considered all questions placed before it in the process of passing the law of 1883 on secondary education. It was made the official censor of school books and its views on purely administrative matters were often sought.

The censorship of schoolbooks and the rapidly growing system of education overcrowded the petty council with work until it was delaying, not helping, the progress of the schools. The third system, that of 1890, divided the permanent members into two scientific sections—historical-philological and mathematics-natural sciences; and into two school sections, second and primary, in such a way as to unite the specialists in sections competent to handle their respective questions. In place of the permanent members there were "permanent reporters," which tended to assure that each section would deal only with its special matters. The censorship of schoolbooks was divided among the sections and the council authorized to distribute it among "members selected by need." Moreover, members of the council were assigned the mission of visiting the schools according to a duly arranged plan. The council was more and more being drawn into school inspection and supervision and away from its real duties.



A fourth plan was adopted in 1895. The censorship of school-books and the administrative duties were entirely removed and the arrangement was that each question should be handled by competent specialists. According to the plan followed since 1895, the work of the council is to inquire into the scientific and pedagogic spirit of public education in Hungary and to give the minister its views on any phase submitted to it by him or which it may take up of its own initiative. Its sphere of action embraces all questions of principle concerning the schools that are under the direction of the minister. It reports directly to him and does not communicate with the other school authorities.

In organization it includes the minister as its president, a second president, a vice president, a secretary, 10 to 12 reporter councillors, and a maximum of 50 councillors. The second president and the vice president are appointed by the king; the reporters and councillors by the minister for a period of five years. Persons may be delegated from the minister's staff to assist but they have only a consultative voice. The president has the right to invite outside experts to assist at the sessions and to take charge of certain work. The vice president and the reporters are paid; the councillors are remunerated for the meetings at which they are present. The secretary is chosen from some of the public institutions and is delegated for the service.

The presidents, the reporters, and the secretaries form the permanent committee, which deliberates under the presidency of the vice president, the secretary being charged with preparing the program. The vice president, in general, fixes the duties of the staff, arranges committees of investigation, and attends to the work of the reporters. The permanent committee has the following duties: (1) Attend to matters submitted to it by the minister; (2) propose each year a plan for visitation of schools and present the annual reports on visits; (3) submit to the minister by reason of its observations, propositions relative to improving public education; and (4) study questions submitted to the plenary sessions of the council and to carry out the plans adopted by those sessions.

The regular plenary sessions of the entire body occur once a year but the minister may call a meeting at any time. He fixes the order of the day and presides at the meetings. The report of the proceedings is given to him and from him orders go to the permanent committee to execute the resolutions of the council.

The educational system of Belgium is replete with councils. Four of the important ones are allotted one each to the three levels of instruction and one to instruction in arts and drawing. These four are very similar in purpose, composition, and nature. Each bears the title "Council for the improvement of ——" (*conseil de per-*

fectionnement de l'enseignement ———); is presided over by the minister, who fixes the order of the day, and meets at his request; considers any questions submitted to it by him and may initiate propositions of its own; has a definite organization to carry on its work; and is almost wholly an advisory body. Members of the ministerial staff may and do attend the meetings of these councils and assist in the deliberations but they have no vote. Other persons outside of the school system may be called in to give advice or take charge of definite pieces of work.

The council for the improvement of normal and primary education (conseil de perfectionnement de l'enseignement normal et primaire), created by law of July 1, 1879, with 25 members, is the largest of these groups. Its work is important; any member who is absent without good cause for three successive meetings is considered delinquent and removed.

The council comprises four sections: (1) Kindergarten education, which deals with questions concerning the preparation of kindergarten teachers; (2) primary education; (3) primary normal education; and (4) the section of secondary normal instruction. These meet at the call of the minister and deliberate in common or separately. The council, deliberating in plenary session or by sections, is legally constituted if half or more of the members of the whole body or the section, as the case may be, are present. Resolutions are adopted by majority vote; in case of tie the president casts the deciding vote. The council gives its views on kindergarten, kindergarten normal, primary, primary normal, or secondary normal instruction and questions pertaining to them on all subjects that the minister submits to it. It may, moreover, consider any proposition that is submitted to it by one of its members and express its views for presentation to the minister. Finally it may prepare annually a list of books to be recommended to the libraries of the normal schools and the cantonal libraries for teachers. The competent sections examine the reports on the condition of primary and kindergarten education addressed annually to the minister by the principal inspectors of primary instruction. It prepares to be inserted in the triennial reports an exposé of its work and a résumé of the reports of the inspectors of primary instruction. The council is assisted by two secretaries appointed by royal decree to report the proceedings of the sessions. It has, in addition, a records clerk named by royal decree and a helper designated by the minister. The minister may, when he deems it expedient, charge any of the members with certain temporary and special inspections.

The council for the improvement of higher education instituted by a law of July 15, 1849, and organized at present under royal

arrêté of March 20, 1924, is composed of 10 professors from the public universities (1 for each faculty and a professor from the special schools of civil engineering and of arts and manufactures annexed to the University of Ghent), 2 professors of the Free University of Brussels, and 2 from the Catholic University of Louvain (chosen in such a way as to represent the different faculties), a professor of the School of Mines and Metallurgy (technical faculty of Hainault), at Mons. They are named by the king for 2-year terms. The director general of higher instruction and sciences, the director general, and the secretary of public instruction as well as all other persons that the minister designates, assist in the sessions with consultative voice.

The council for the improvement of secondary education, authorized by section 33 of the law of 1850 on secondary education, created by royal arrêté of February 16, 1852, and now functioning under arrêté of January 31, 1920, has 10 members and gives its views on programs of studies, examines books used in instruction or given as prizes in the secondary schools, proposes instructions for the inspectors of secondary schools, examines their reports, and deliberates on all matters concerning the progress of studies.

The council for the improvement of instruction in arts and drawing has 12 members, of which at least 7 are named by the teaching personnel of the academies of fine arts and the schools of drawing. Members are appointed for three years. It meets in ordinary session each year at Easter and may be convoked in extraordinary session by the minister. It gives its views on questions submitted by the government. Each member may call to the attention of the minister any matter within his competence and may take the initiative in a measure to be submitted to the Government or in a view to be expressed to it.

In Spain a council of public instruction (*consejo de instrucción pública*), composed of professors, authors, and other distinguished persons nominated by the Government, intervenes consultatively in all questions in which the Government desires to express itself, on cases of doubt or importance. This council is ruled by regulations of August 12, 1912, and royal decrees of January 18, 1911, October 20, 1911, November 7, 1913, and February 7, 1914. It has two permanent commissions; one of 10 members and a secretary, and one special with 5 members for primary education.

The full council, about 45 persons, must be consulted in the formation or reform of plans and regulations of studies; in the regulations for examinations, degrees and admission into professorships, and the provision of professorial positions; in the creation or suppression of official establishments of instruction of any kind or

degree; in the provision of professorships created anew and in the doctorate of the faculties; in the expediency of withdrawing or continuing holders of professorships, professors, and teachers; in naming the judges of competitions and in all the cases which include any alteration in the régime of education. Necessarily the sections should be consulted always in cases of dispute, both protest and reclamation; in the creation or suppression of schools; in those of construction or repair against dispositions dictated by the ministry; in the formation of questionnaires and selections of books; and the budgets of the judges of competitions. The functions of the larger permanent commission are: To prepare information on matters that should be submitted to the full council and not those that because of their special nature should go for previous consultation with the sections; review proceedings, not contested; changes and competitions in professorships and their helpers; matters of correction of teachers, and authorizations for the exercise of the professions and the evaluations of studies in foreign countries.

After having advised the creation of a ministry of education, the Bryce Commission in England (see p. 3) stated:

There will be some matters, however, in which the counsel of persons specially conversant with education and holding an independent position, may be so helpful, and there will be some duties in their nature so distinctly judicial rather than executive, as to make it desirable to secure for the minister the advice of persons not under his official direction. There will moreover be some work to be done in the central educational department, so purely professional, as to belong rather to an independent body than to a department of state. For these purposes we propose that there be created an educational council, which may advise the minister in the first-mentioned class of matters and in appeals, while such a professional function as the registration of teachers might be entirely committed to it. We do not advocate such a council on the ground that it will relieve a minister of responsibility, for we conceive that the responsibility both for general policy and for the control of administrative details ought to be his and his alone; but we believe that the unwillingness which doubtless exists in some quarters to entrust to the executive any powers at all in this branch of education would be sensibly diminished were his position at once strengthened and guarded by the addition of a number of independent advisers.\*

The commission recommended a small council of not to exceed 12 members, one-third chosen by four of the universities, and the remainder selected by the other members of the council. The term of office was recommended as six years with only part of the members retiring at any one time. The council should be granted power to co-opt such members as it saw fit.

Accordingly, section 4 of the board of education act, 1899 (62 and 63 Vict., ch. 33), authorized the queen to establish by order in council

\* Great Britain. Royal Commission on Secondary Education. Report of the Commissioners. Vol. 1. London, His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1899. 451 pp.

a consultative committee consisting, "as to not less than two-thirds, of persons qualified to represent the views of universities and other bodies interested in education" for the purpose of—(a) framing regulations for a registry of teachers; and (b) advising the board of education on any matter referred to the committee by the board. An order in council of August 7, 1900, created the committee of 18 members, named the first members, and fixed the term of office at 6 years with one-third retiring every two years but eligible to reappointment. Succeeding members were to be appointed by the president of the board.

During the World War the consultative committee ceased to exist, because its members were too actively engaged in other things to attend to the duties of the committee. Accordingly, it was recreated by order in council No. 1582 of July 22, 1921, to consist of 21 members, for the same terms and eligibility as those fixed in the order of August 7, 1900.

A commission on education in New Zealand, appointed in 1912 to inquire into the educational system of that country, recommended, among other things, that a council of national education be established to report to the minister, on education in other countries or on any question relating to national education and its administration in New Zealand, and to prepare guiding principles relating to school curricula, attendance, staffing, classification of teachers, erection and equipment of schools, conveyance and board of pupils, scholarships and free places, maintenance of higher education, and other matters relating to the schools. As recommended, the council would consist of 15 members, with the minister as chairman, the director of education and the supervisor of technical education as members ex officio, 2 representatives of the producing industries of the Dominion, and 10 other members elected by and chosen from different branches of the professional educational groups.

The education act of 1914 accordingly created a general council of education of 17 members consisting of 3 officers from the education department—2 appointed by the minister to represent industrial and technical interests, and 1 to represent the interests of the education of girls; 2 each elected by the members of the education boards in North Island and in South Island; and 1 each elected by the certificated men teachers and the certificated women teachers of North Island and of South Island; 1 each by the men and women teachers in secondary and technical schools; and a member from the University of New Zealand chosen by its senate. The term of office is three years. The council meets annually in June.

Its duty is to report to the minister of education on: (a) The methods or developments in national education which in its opinion

it is desirable to introduce into New Zealand; (b) any matters concerning the provision of facilities for education in New Zealand or in any district thereof, and upon the coordination of the work carried on by the various bodies controlling education; and (c) any other matters in connection with education referred to it by the minister.

The law establishes also similar advisory committees to aid the education boards in the nine education districts into which the Dominion is divided for purposes of educational administration.

The national council on education in Bulgaria consists of about 80 members, many ex officio and others elective. It is convoked by the minister, and considers such important matters as projects, programs, regulations, and changes in the laws. Its membership includes representatives of the teachers, of public schools, of the professors, of the church, of the chief inspectors, the rector of the university, the directors of the national museum, national library, and national theater, and other groups and bodies actively engaged in or concerned with education.<sup>6</sup>

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<sup>6</sup> For a discussion of the superior council of public instruction in France, see p. 105.

### CHAPTER III

#### Population, Cultural, Economic, and Other Conditions Affecting the Work of the Ministry of Education

*Population.*—As to responsibility involved when measured in terms of the population and area of the country, the work of the national ministries of education ranges from that necessary to administer the schools in Costa Rica with fewer than half a million people, not more than 110,000 of whom are of elementary school age, living in an area about the size of the State of West Virginia, to the stupendous task of providing educational facilities in China for 400,000,000, at least 80,000,000 of whom are of elementary school age, crowded into and scattered over an area of about one and one-seventh times the entire United States including its outlying parts. In rough quantitative terms the latter is an undertaking eight hundred or more times greater than the former.

It is well to set aside occasionally all differences in cultural status and educational progress among the nations and consider briefly and sharply the purely quantitative side of the powers, duties, and responsibilities of the national ministries of education. Too often this is overlooked.<sup>7</sup> Only four nations of the world—China, India, the Union of Soviet Republics, and the United States of America—have each more than 100,000,000 of people living in contiguous territory. Of the four, only China is attempting to maintain a national ministry whose sole duties shall be educational and in which the main administration of all the country's educational activities shall be centered.

Each of 42 of the 55 countries we are studying has fewer than 10,000,000 people; the total combined population of the 42 is less than one-third that of China. In strictly numerical terms, to attain equivalent results the ministries of the 42 combined need put forth much less effort, spend less money, and employ fewer people than the one ministry of education of China. By that one criterion the educational institutions of China must be more than double those of all America, both North and South, if the Chinese children are to be supplied with educational material and personnel equal in quality to

<sup>7</sup>A list of the 73 main political divisions of the world with the approximate population and area of each is given as Appendix II.

that now being used for the children of the English-speaking peoples of North America.

Each of 28 of the countries with national ministries of Education has fewer than 5,000,000 population; their combined total is approximately 60,000,000, or about equal to the central islands of Japan. In other words the school system of Japan must enroll and keep in attendance about as many children as all the schools in Bolivia, Bulgaria, Chile, Cuba, Denmark, Ecuador, Estonia, Finland, Guatemala, Haiti, the Irish Free State, Latvia, Liberia, Lithuania, New Zealand, Norway, Paraguay, Salvador, Uruguay, Venezuela, Iraq, Albania, Costa Rica, Danzig, the Dominican Republic, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Panama. Japan's human training problem numerically is practically equivalent to a combination of those in France and England.

France, Great Britain, and Italy are fairly comparable in population, about 40,000,000 apiece. Poland with twenty-eight, Spain with twenty-two, and Rumania with seventeen millions form another group with its members of approximately the same population magnitude. Afghanistan, Czechoslovakia, Egypt, Mexico, Turkey, and Jugoslavia are all in the twelve to fourteen million class, or one-third and one-half, respectively, of the average of those in the two groups already named. In any inquiry into the nature and functions of the national ministries of education, these size elements must be kept in mind. They are essential factors that have had an important part in making each ministry what it is. They determine largely its present strength and have much to do with fixing its limits in the future.

*Cultural status.*—The activities of the ministries of education vary greatly with the relative cultural status of the people of their respective countries and the adequacy of their present school systems. Only crude measures of that status and that adequacy are obtainable. For the few criteria of national intellectual attainment upon which gatherers of data are agreed, national statistics that will admit of international comparison are available only to a limited extent and they have not been assembled, though the International Institute of Statistics is now promoting a plan to secure them from all countries, and the Rousseau Institute and the International Bureau of Education are working on some aspects of international educational statistics. Pending the success of these efforts, a few indicators of comparative cultural advancement may be used for the countries under consideration.

*Compulsory education.*—With the exceptions of China, Colombia, Iraq, and Persia, all have either constitutional or statutory mandates, or both, that primary education shall be compulsory—and free of tuition charges, except in Belgium, Japan, Lithuania, and the Netherlands where it is in part free. The age range of school attendance covers at the least, 4 years and at the most, 10; with 7



and 8 years as the most commonly accepted term of training that every citizen is legally bound to have. The beginning of that term is not below the fifth year of age, usually the sixth, and not above the sixteenth, usually the fourteenth. In these laws, whether obeyed or not, is set the primal duty of the national ministry of education, that of seeing to it that the nation's citizenry is uniformly furnished with the tool subjects for acquiring knowledge. How far the ministries have succeeded in this first important task may be judged to some extent from the statistics of illiteracy.<sup>8</sup>

*Illiteracy.*—Using the term illiteracy to mean inability to read and write in any language among persons 10 years of age and over, Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Danzig, Denmark, England, and Wales, France, Irish Free State, Japan, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Sweden, and the Europeans in the Union of South Africa are less than 10 per cent illiterate. In Denmark, Norway, and Sweden illiteracy is probably even less than 1 per cent.

For the other countries under consideration the data are as follows: 10 to 19 per cent, Estonia and Hungary; 20 to 29 per cent, Argentina, Italy, and Latvia; 30 to 39 per cent, Costa Rica, Cuba, Finland, Lithuania, Poland, Uruguay, and Yugoslavia; 40 to 49 per cent, Bulgaria, Chile, Panama,<sup>9</sup> Paraguay,<sup>9</sup> Rumania, Spain; 50 to 59 per cent, Colombia, Mexico, and Greece; 60 to 69 per cent, Nicaragua, Portugal, and Venezuela; 70 to 79 per cent, Albania,<sup>9</sup> Dominican Republic, Bolivia, Ecuador,<sup>9</sup> Honduras, Peru,<sup>9</sup> Salvador,<sup>9</sup> Siam, and Turkey; 80 to 89 per cent, Guatemala, Haiti,<sup>9</sup> Iraq,<sup>9</sup> Liberia,<sup>9</sup> Persia, and Afghanistan; 90 per cent and more, Egypt, the Bantus in the Union of South Africa, and China.

By these data the ministries of education in Poland, Rumania, and Spain, not widely variant in total population, are working with peoples on approximately equal cultural levels. That of Czechoslovakia has a more advanced task than the ministry of Yugoslavia, and both are dealing with peoples far better equipped in the arts of reading and writing than those of Afghanistan, Mexico, Egypt, and Turkey, all countries of about the same population strength.

*Public opinion toward education.*—The different attitudes of the people of different countries toward illiteracy and compulsory education express well the varying nature of the conditions with which ministries of education must deal. Illiteracy in Denmark is almost nil; a compulsory education law has been in effect since 1814; the Danes habitually keep their children in school as a matter of course. In Sweden attendance at elementary schools, at least, is so much a matter of public sentiment that some people in that country favor

<sup>8</sup>Abel, James F., and Bond, Norman J. *Illiteracy in the Several Countries of the World.* Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1929, No. 4. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1929.

<sup>9</sup>Estimated.

repealing the compulsory education law as being no longer needed. In several countries statistics of illiteracy are not gathered at the regular decennial census because illiterates are so few in number that the expense of gathering the data is unwarranted when so many other important items should be placed in the census schedules. Contrast this with conditions in Iraq or some of the other countries in which there are no compulsory education laws partly because public sentiment does not favor them and more because not schools enough can be provided to make the law effective. In certain communities of northwest India the men belong to a warrior class and will not admit ability to read and write, even though they have it, because among them reading and writing are considered to be effeminate pastimes.

*Population in school, per capita wealth.*—To carry the comparisons further and bring in other elements that must affect and help to determine the work of the ministries, use these items: Per cent in school of the total population; per cent of illiteracy; and per capita wealth. The following table gives them for 18 of the countries we are studying. These countries are selected partly because for them the data are available, and partly because they represent rather extreme cases. For our purpose here there is no special reason for dealing with the average of conditions or for attempting to be particularly moderate in showing variations.

TABLE 2.—Per cent of population in schools, those illiterate, and per capita wealth, by country

Country	Per cent of total population in school <sup>1</sup>	Per cent of illiteracy <sup>2</sup>	Per capita wealth <sup>3</sup>
1	2	3	4
Argentina.....	18	24	\$1,408.80
Bolivia.....	4	83	576.90
Belgium.....	15	7	1,357.70
Colombia.....	7	63	803.20
Czechoslovakia.....	14	7	680.30
Denmark.....	16	1—	1,532.70
England.....	18	1—	2,677.70
Greece.....	11	57	394.40
Italy.....	11	28	520.90
Japan.....	20	5—	818.10
Mexico.....	10	62	449.00
Netherlands.....	20	1—	1,082.10
New Zealand.....	21	4	3,029.00
Peru.....	5	50	333.00
Rumania.....	9	60	654.50
Spain.....	12	42	1,875.90
Uruguay.....	8	35	1,480.00
Venezuela.....	3	72	404.70

<sup>1</sup> Epstein, M., ed. *The Statesman's Year-book, 1923*. London, Macmillan & Co. (Ltd.), 1923.

United States Department of Commerce. *Commerce Yearbook, 1923*. Vol. II. Foreign countries. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1923.

<sup>2</sup> United States Department of the Interior. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1929, No. 4, *Illiteracy in the several countries of the world*. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1929.

<sup>3</sup> *World Economic Chart, 1928*. New York, Redmond & Co., 1928.

In New Zealand education is supported entirely by the national government, and the number of indigenous people to be trained is comparatively small. Of the total population of 1,407,000 at least 21 per cent is in school, illiteracy is 4 per cent or less, and the per capita wealth is \$3,029. The ministry of education of New Zealand has a very favorable situation with which to deal when viewed in the light of conditions in Venezuela, for example, where of the total population of 3,027,000 about 3 per cent are in school, illiteracy is 72 per cent, the per capita wealth is \$404.70, the Government is not strongly centralized, there is a large indigenous population, and the compulsory education laws are not easily, if at all, enforced. Or England, with 18 out of every 100 persons in school, about 1 per cent illiteracy, a per capita wealth of \$2,667.70 out of which to pay for schools, and a population fairly homogeneous, must and does conduct an education system far different from that of Mexico, with 10 in every 100 in school, 62 per cent illiteracy, the low per capita wealth of \$449, and a decidedly heterogeneous people. Again, to select two countries that are near neighbors and both are Latin-speaking peoples, Spain, with a per capita wealth of more than three times that of Italy, should easily maintain a much better school system, other things being equal, than the ministry of education in Italy can hope to evolve and carry on.

*Other economic conditions.*—The per capita wealth represents, of course, only one item of the economic conditions that the national educational office must be taking into account at all times. Western Europe is an industrial, trading area of the world. Its people are in constant, sharp, competitive contact with others. They must have knowledge and continue to increase their store of it if they are to maintain their relative places in human advancement. Driven by necessity, they will more or less force a ministry of education to be alert, active, and resourceful. Conditions in the highlands of America, where folk are rather away from the main stream of industrial and commercial activities, have in them no such driving elements to compel people to live at their best and to be always widening their control of natural forces. Here a ministry of education may by choice take a position of leadership; it will probably not be compelled to assume guidance by a people that has established it for such a purpose and look upon it as having failed if it does not represent the most advanced thought on education.

*Changes in national thought.*—Again, changes in national thought are sometimes translated into action and achievement rather suddenly. The change in thinking may have been slow; a political development offered the opportunity; and the ministry of education was enabled to rearrange its aims and methods in a short time.

Many ministries of education came into being as a result of such national upheavals. A few instances of radical changes in the nature of ministries already established are worthy of consideration. For about 63 years after the Casati Act of 1859, the ministry of education in Italy moved along rather slowly in a fairly fixed direction in conditions under which a school system had been fostered that was singularly devoid of a deeply religious, national, and human ideal.<sup>10</sup>

In 1923, Giovanni Gentile, who had for 20 years or more been writing and lecturing against the educational system, was called to the ministry of education by the Fascist régime and given by the Chamber of Deputies unconditional powers to reform the schools. With the idea that the essential characteristics of nationality are a common language, common religious beliefs and organizations, natural boundaries, and a common culture, he took this opportunity to organize a system of education designed to strengthen nationality through fostering a common culture. The details of the changes he made need not be given. They were many and thorough and the ministry of education, somewhat altered in composition and organization, is much more altered in outlook, purposes, and position of importance in the national scheme of government.

With the coming into power of the Agrarian Union in Bulgaria early in 1920, Homarchefsky took the position of minister of education. His changes in the policies of the ministry and in education in general in Bulgaria are no less remarkable than those of Gentile in Italy. Believing that education in his country was too intellectual, too far removed from life, too little accessible to and unfitted for the rural people, too much imbued with the spirit of communism, and generally inadequate both in quality and quantity, he summarily dismissed radical teachers, attempted to restore discipline and order in the schools, developed vocational education and a respect for labor, and under his leadership, after eight months of careful consideration by the people and the national assembly a new education code was passed. Here again a ministry of education was practically reversed in its outlook by a national social movement.

Other examples of more or less pronounced changes in national ministries include that of Spain under the dictatorship of Rivera, the Fisher bill of England in 1918, the new educational outlook in Turkey under the Republic—particularly the change to the Latin alphabet—the effects of the Kuo Min Tang on the ministry in China, the changes that came with the accession and abdication of Amanul-

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<sup>10</sup> Marraro, Howard A. *Nationalism in Italian Education*. New York City, Italian Digest and News Service, 1927.

lah Khan in Afghanistan, and the assumption of power by King Alexander in Jugoslavia.

*National disasters.*—Further, national disasters may curtail or accelerate the activities of the ministry of education. After the great earthquake in Japan that country was forced into considerable borrowings for rehabilitation and rebuilding and considerable amounts were used to restore the destroyed schools. In Cuba particularly, since the disastrous hurricane of 1928, the ministry has had to work hard at reestablishing destroyed schools. The fall in the price of nitrates after the war seriously affected the schools of Chile, and the economic postwar decline in British Guiana prevented any improvement of an extremely inefficient school system.

It is not assumed, of course, that the conditions recounted here do not affect national ministries other than that of education in equal or greater measure. They do; but we are dealing with the one national office and its relation to the cultural and educational phases of national life.

## CHAPTER IV

### General Functions of the Ministry of Education

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The ministry of education is primarily an administrative-executive organization concerned with making effective the constitutional mandates and national laws relating to education. Beyond that it has legislative, advisory-consultative, inspectorial, research, and judicial functions. In the process of performing these functions and making them known to the people of the nation it may publish or direct the publication of educational writings of various kinds. Which of these activities predominates in any individual ministry depends largely on the form of the government of which that ministry is a part and on the historical development of education in that country.

*Administrative-executive functions.*—The extent to which its administrative-executive authority reaches into the details of public and private school control varies greatly in the different nations. Its powers, partially summarized for all nations, include the determination of the number, location, and kind of schools that are maintained; the amount, allocation, and expenditure of national educational funds; the subjects that shall be taught in the schools and how and when they shall be taught; the training, licensing, selection, promotion, and dismissal of school officers and teachers; the promotion of pupils and the granting of diplomas and degrees; the provision of school buildings and plants and their adequacy; and, to a lesser degree, the enforcement of compulsory school laws and the care of child health. This executive side of the ministry is very pronounced in Siam, Afghanistan, Japan, Persia, Rumania, Yugoslavia, Italy, Spain, and Peru. It is much less in evidence in those of England and Wales, Portugal, Norway, Denmark, and Uruguay. Between the extremes represented by these two groups of countries are many gradations of administrative responsibility.

Besides the duties just enumerated that pertain directly to the schools, ministries of education in one or more countries are intrusted with other matters of importance. Department III (fine arts) and Department IIIB (sciences) in the ministry of Hungary have control of the following-listed affairs: Art exhibitions, purchasing works of art, scholarship and art associations, National Fine Arts Council, industrial arts, licensing and supervising music schools, subsidies

for art, orchestras, concerts, Royal Hungarian High School of Fine Art, Training School for Master Draughtsmen, National Industrial Decorative Art School, National Academy of Music, National Academy of Scenic Art, Royal Hungarian Opera House, national and chamber theaters, theater licenses, private scenic schools, national art relics, motion pictures, National Motion Picture Board of Pedagogical and Educational Films, film actors' training schools, film censor committees, publication of literary products, copyrights, subsidies for writers, National Council of Literature for Children, editing the official gazette—and (sciences) all scientific matters, scientific collections, foreign scholarships and connections, international scientific meetings, foreign scientific institutions, Theresianum Academy, and participation in foreign scientific movements.

This fine arts and sciences phase of the ministry is well-arranged and strong in Austria, Bulgaria, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Danzig, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Hungary, the Irish Free State, Japan, Mexico, Norway, Portugal, Yugoslavia, Spain, and Sweden, and is planned in Turkey. Nor does the list of general cultural and scientific activities given for Hungary exhaust the things of this nature that are within the purview of ministries of education.

Among others are: The meteorological work of the nation; the entire geological survey; archeological activities, excavations, and the preservation of national monuments; astronomical observatories; museums and particularly the national museum; academies of art and science and especially the national academies; bibliographical institutes, the national library and other libraries; the national archives as well as those for education; national sports and olympic games; students abroad, travel and maintenance subsidies for investigations abroad; cultural relations with other countries; and the status of the national language and culture of the country of the ministry in other countries.

Section 1, the church section, of the ministry of Norway, deals with church constitution and legislation; public worship; division of the country into ecclesiastical districts; the churches, churchyards, cremation; dissenters (in part); missions, clerical appointments; marriage laws (in part); and ecclesiastical property. Other countries that have a responsibility for religious matters vested to a considerable extent in the ministry of education are Austria, Czechoslovakia, Finland, Hungary, Persia, Japan, Peru, and Sweden.

In some cases the ministry of education is the editing and publishing house not only for its own material but for that of all the other government departments as well. That of Siam has a textbook bureau that compiles, publishes, and sells school texts. A few purchase and distribute all school supplies. The Ecuadorean ministry

has supervision over mails, telegraphs, telephones, and wireless stations. In the field of justice some ministries have charge of children's courts, reform schools, and even the general penitentiaries.

*Legislative functions.*—In addition to being an administrative organization the ministry is characteristically a legislative body. In all forms of government it is required to initiate financial legislation pertaining to the schools to the extent that it makes up the annual or biennial budget for educational appropriations and presents it either to the cabinet as a whole or to the ministry of finance, or both, for approval. In the parliamentary type governments the minister will help to pass that budget through the legislative body and further he is bound to use the debating and voting privileges of his membership in the parliament to defend and explain the educational policies of the government and to propose its new programs.

As an example, Sir Charles Trevelyan, now president of the board of education of England, is a member of Parliament for Newcastle Central, and is undertaking the task of making effective the promises of the Labor Party to raise the compulsory school age from 14 to 15, and to provide more nursery schools. Taking at random some of the questions that had been submitted to him and to which he replied in the House of Commons on July 5, 1929, the interrogations included: His policy toward the regulations in force for giving grants to pupils between the ages of 12 and 14 plus; the additional cost to the Government to add another year of schooling for 450,000 children; the proportion of children to the total population that enter secondary schools in the county of Kent and in England and Wales as a whole; the total number of elementary schools and of scholars registered in them; and the number of local authorities that have adopted by-laws as required in the education act. On all these matters he was bound to answer as accurately as possible.

The discussion in the Senate of France that arose on the 24th and 26th of December, 1928, over the education budget, included as wide a range of topics as the unity school and its merits; mixed classes (coeducation) in communes with fewer than 600 inhabitants; the relation of the educational budget to the total of governmental expenditures; the straitened financial conditions of the universities; a defense of classical culture; a discussion by M. Léon Bérard, former minister of public instruction of the secondary school reforms of 1923; the cinema as an educator; the salaries of primary inspectors; school vacation times in different areas of France; and the provision of residences for teachers.

In the presidential type governments the ministry of education has much less of this kind of legislative responsibility. The minister of



education, not allowed to be a member of the parliament during his ministry, may attend its sessions and speak but not vote, or may even be denied the privilege of appearing before it or any of its committees. One or the other or both branches of the congress may call him in for questioning and explanation, and he is required to render an annual or biennial report on the activities of his department. Beyond that his influence on the legislative branch of the government is such as he can wield on its members outside of the legislative halls.

Another and perhaps even more important legislative function of the ministry of education lies in its power to issue orders, decrees, or *arrêtés* that have the effect of law and frequently relate to subjects that may properly come within the scope of legislative action. A large part of the world's educational legislation is in the form of ministerial decrees and orders, not in statutes.

*Advisory-consultative duties.*—The advisory and consultative duties of the ministry in its relations to the cabinet as a whole or to the chief executive are considerable in every country. In its relations to the educational authorities in the political subdivisions of the country they are important and the tendency is to increase them and to lessen the administrative powers. In other words, national control of education is resting more on expert knowledge and advice and less on the mere right to command. This advisory, consultative side of the ministry is highly developed in England and Wales, and Denmark. It is being increased rapidly in Mexico and Argentina. The Board of Education of England and Wales has a staff of trained, experienced educators whose business is almost entirely that of inspecting schools and giving advice as to their betterment. The Danish people have long and consistently held to the principle of considerable local autonomy in public education and of the right to establish and maintain private schools. The ministry of education there is more advisory and supervisory than administrative in its nature. National control of education in Argentina and Mexico has territorial limitations within those countries; national encouragement, promotion, and advice have no such limits, and since both countries are moving ahead rather rapidly in an educational way, their ministries of education are compelled to use advisory, consultative methods rather than those of an executive nature.

*School inspection.*—The power of school inspection is within the purview of most educational ministries and applies generally even to those schools, both public and private, over which the ministry has no direct administrative authority. The national government, having decided that a certain amount of education must be made available to every child, and in many countries having issued orders

giving in some detail what that training shall be, is logically forced to inspect the schools with a view to determining whether the laws relating to education are being made effective. Particularly is this true in those countries where the language and religious rights of minority peoples are guaranteed by treaties and constitutional provisions. The inspectorial staff for primary education alone of the ministry in Belgium numbers about 250 persons and includes three general classes: Inspectors of religious instruction, of primary education in general, and of training for girls. Further, if national funds are given in support or aid of education, the ministry is held to inspect the schools and see that the money is well spent. In addition, the feeling of nationalism usually requires that private schools, especially those established and maintained by aliens in the country, be inspected with relation to their teaching of history, language, and religion.

*Research.*—Accepting Professor Ogg's statement that in the main man adds to his knowledge by definite, deliberate inquiry,<sup>11</sup> by coming up against a question or a problem and casting about for an answer or solution, and that this conscious, premeditated inquiry is research, about one-fourth of the national ministries of education are either actively engaged in some form of research activity or are supporting and promoting it. This applies not merely to research in the principles and practices of education but to other fields of scientific inquiry. One of the very common forms of research is the study of science and education in other countries. Since the beginning of the Meiji Era Japan has been consistently and strongly active in this way. Its department of education has students and research workers in considerable numbers always in foreign fields and definitely supports and directs many lines of research in the homeland. The Board of Education of England and Wales has been forced by its advisory, consultative nature to do a large amount of research work, mostly through consultative committees, and some of its reports are very valuable documents. The universities and libraries of France carry on much research in many fields, and to the extent that those institutions may be considered a part of the ministry it is a research body.

The ministries of Estonia, Poland, and Hungary support and direct research in institutions organized for that purpose. Those of the Netherlands and Bulgaria make investigations of methods of study and teaching. Costa Rica is using all of the schools for research and maintains a special department of educational research in the normal school at Heredia. In Mexico the now very active

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<sup>11</sup> Ogg, Frederic Austin. *Research in the Humanistic and Social Sciences*. New York, Century Co., 1928.

secretariat of public education is carrying on many experiments and research studies in education and is promoting research in other fields through the university, the national museum, and the board of anthropology. The ministry of Czechoslovakia has a standing committee for the study of educational reform and the Comenius Institute of Pedagogy was established for educational research and inquiry. When the first minister of education in Austria, under the republican government, undertook in 1919 to reform the elementary school system he placed the work in the hands of a reform section and began and carried on experimental and demonstration classes of various kinds.

*Judicial functions.*—Since the ministry of education is a part of the administrative-executive branch of the government, it is never primarily a judicial body. In general its actions are subject to appeal to and review by the courts. Nevertheless, in carrying out its administrative work, many of the things it does are partly judicial in character and in some instances it has powers that are strictly judicial; part of the ministry sits as a court, usually on an appeal. Frequently it is the court of last resort in the matter of establishing new elementary schools and in discontinuing or changing the location of any schools that are in operation. Often also it is the final authority in the matter of the dismissal or punishment of teachers.

The secretary of public instruction and fine arts in Cuba, in accordance with regulations approved by the President of the Republic, is competent to resolve all of the appeals made against resolutions of the board of superintendents, boards of education, and the officials in charge of institutions and special schools. His judgments in such cases are final and binding. The superior council of public instruction in France is both an administrative council and a tribunal. It sits in appeal and in last resort on many disputed and disciplinary matters, particularly matters pertaining to the establishment and maintenance of private schools. A number of questions related to the maintenance of communal primary schools, the dismissal of teachers, and the language of instruction in Belgium are by law vested for final decision in the king, but the monarch undoubtedly acts through the ministry of sciences and arts. In Italy similar questions may be decided by the minister of national education, after consultation with the proper advisory committee.

The council of public instruction in Spain has essentially judicial powers in matters affecting the creation or suppression of public educational institutions of any class or grade, the creation of new professorships in the universities, and in the decisions of cases which imply any alteration in the régime of education.

Graduation from secondary schools and the awarding of the certificate of maturity which admits to university courses is a matter of so much importance in European countries that the examinations are usually conducted by a body either termed a "jury" or resembling a jury, made up of persons appointed by the minister of education, or presided over by his representative. The examining commission sits in judgment on the applicants' ability, knowledge, and skill, and in some countries the award or refusal is recorded in number of votes for and against rather than in a scale of marks. Somewhat similar practices prevail in most of the Latin-American countries.

*The ministry as a recording and publication agency.*—The volume of educational material issued annually by the ministries of education is great in amount and widely diversified in character. Through their official publications or the publications of private organizations, which they use for official purposes, they make available to the world a record of their actions, their work, and their theories that is of surpassing value. Much too little use is made of it, principally because distribution and exchange are not yet adequately arranged. A comprehensive review of the educational material issued by the ministries would in itself be a volume of no small proportions. We shall call attention to a few of the more important.

First in order of importance is the record of the laws passed by the legislative bodies of the different nations. In many countries these are made into a collection separate from the other laws, and published by the ministry of education. When it is considered that in most instances those laws are initiated by the ministry or by one of its important advisory bodies, that they are introduced into the law-making body only after careful consideration by a number of experienced, trained experts in education, and often only after some experiment, and that in the law-making body they have been subjected to rigid analysis, one realizes that the collection of educational laws of other countries represents many of the keen national struggles and aspirations, and that in them is embodied much fine thinking and the results of years of experience or experiment on a national scale.

With the laws usually go the ministerial orders, decrees, arrêtés, circulars, etc., by which the former are made effective. In so far as these relate to the naming of individuals for positions, the fixing of a salary here or there, the granting of a pension, or the validating of a degree, they are of little use to the student of education other than as material illustrative of the powers and duties of the ministry or the way in which its members use their time. But that part of them which outlines in detail the courses of study for some level of

instruction or some class of schools, is of great import. It represents the professional and national expression of the conception of the kind of human training needed to make that nation a success. Those courses reflect the historical, economic, cultural, and international aspects of the country whose ministry of education issues them and usually they are worthy of careful study.

Again, in many countries the ministry of education is required to report at set intervals to the legislative body or the chief executive. The orders, decrees, etc., mentioned in the previous paragraphs are its communications to the school authorities and instructional personnel with which it deals. The reports are commonly its general communication to the nation through its officials. Necessarily they are written usually in more popular style and are a broader record of events or even a justification of policies. They must be read in the light of the political activities of that time. Nor should the student of education be inclined to give them scant consideration because of that. For strong political movements in any country will be reflected in the educational system of the country whether that system be nationally or locally administered, and it is of value to note how political and economic conditions affect schemes of human training.

Further, if the ministry maintains any kind of research organization it publishes the results of its investigations. Taking the world at large, not much of this has been done by national ministries, but the trend is in that direction, and we may expect that researches and experiments in increased number and importance will soon be carried on by the central offices of education.

To cite a few examples of the kinds of educational publications just mentioned: The national council of primary and normal instruction of Uruguay has issued eight volumes of the *Legislación Escolar Vigente*, each volume being a chronological recapitulation of the decisions, circulars, decrees, laws, programs, and regulations relative to public primary instruction. They relate, respectively, to the periods 1877 to 1880, 1881 to 1891, 1892 to 1895, 1896 to 1897, 1898 to 1903, 1904 to 1905, 1906 to 1918, and 1918 to 1921. From them an account of the development of primary school legislation in Uruguay could easily be written. The *Bulletin Administratif du Ministère de l'Instruction Publique* of France, the *Bollettino Ufficiale* of the ministry of national education of Italy, the *Boletín Oficial del Ministerio de Instrucción Pública y Bellas Artes* of Spain, and the *Bulletin du Ministère des Sciences et des Arts* of Belgium are of the same nature, in that they are devoted strictly to the laws, orders, decrees, etc., affecting education in those countries. They contain or are the legal documentation.

Reports of the more popular, descriptive, or statistical character are well illustrated by the report of the board of education for England and Wales for any year. This gives the statistical data in the way of registration of pupils, expenditures, number of teachers employed, and like items, as well as an account of the educational progress and main events during the time. The Memoria presented to the Congress of Argentina by the minister of justice and public instruction is usually in two volumes, one for justice, the other for education. The latter is an account in detail of the work of the ministry, and is an unusually interesting, valuable report. The Memoria of the ministry of national education of Colombia is usually a compilation of the reports from the different departments. These are valuable, but not so readily used as a good general survey of education for the entire country. The annual report of the minister of state for education in Japan is almost wholly statistical. It contains—at least the English edition—little in the way of descriptive or interpretive writing, and for that reason is difficult for the reader unversed in the Japanese school system to understand.

The Boletín de la Secretaria de Educación Pública of Mexico appears monthly and includes texts of laws, records of achievement, articles on principles of education, and statistical data. In many ways it is one of the most valuable official publications issued by any ministry because of the variety of its content and the connected nature of its data. El Monitor de la Educación Común, the official organ of the national council of education of Argentina is also a pedagogical, administrative, and statistical journal of considerable value because of the different kinds of material it includes in its numbers.

One of the most noteworthy series of research studies ever published by any ministry of education is the special reports on educational subjects issued by the board of education of England and Wales. They were prepared by the office of special inquiries and reports, include more than 25 volumes, and deal with many aspects of education in a large number of countries of the world.<sup>12</sup>

<sup>12</sup> For other publication activities of the Board of Education, see Ch. VIII.

## CHAPTER V

### The Relation of the National Ministry to Elementary Education

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*Introduction.*—No other relationship of the ministry of education is so intricate and many-sided, so much an expression of the ethos of the people, so closely woven into the fabric of its social and political life as that with the elementary schools. On this level of instruction, more than on either of the two others, the ministry deals with large numbers of people in all kinds of vocations and of all social strata, reaches into remote areas and mingles in the affairs of the locality, takes part in intimate matters of the home such as the language that is spoken there and how it is spoken, how the child is fed and clothed and spends his time, his parents' outlook on life and what they hope for him, his quality of mind and its susceptibility of training for great productiveness, and even his religious beliefs.

Naturally the history and character of the people will largely determine the kind and extent of these relationships and naturally also they will differ much among countries. Because of their multiplicity and many variations and further because they are only meagerly expressible in laws, regulations, and reports—no matter how voluminous—the student of this phase of the ministry's activities will almost surely leave it with a sense that it is very complex, and often intangible and vague but for all that probably the vital, fundamental, strong expression of the nation's attitude toward human training.

To recount for each of 55 countries the details of the contacts between the national ministry and the separate units in which elementary instruction is given, would mean much repetition and a great amount of delving into laws and regulations many of which are transitory. The labor and expense of securing them from some of the oriental countries and interpreting them in English is prohibitive for anything less than a well-financed and considerable corps of workers versed both in those languages and in the science of education. In the subsequent Chapters VIII, IX, and X, dealing with the ministries of England, France, and Mexico, will be found data on this phase of the ministry's duties in each of those countries. Here the relation of the national ministry to the elementary schools is discussed for Honduras, New Zealand, Belgium, Argentina, Sweden, Bulgaria, and Siam. No claim is made that these ministries are typical of any group of countries. They were selected because recent

data were available for them and their general natural, political, and economic conditions present extreme differences.

*Honduras.*—Honduras with an area of 44,275 square miles and a population of 774,000 is a centralized republic divided for purposes of civil administration into 17 departments and 1 territory. The head of each department is appointed and removed by the national president. The departments are divided into municipalities each of which has considerable local autonomy and carries out its administration through elected councils and officers of its own choosing. The units of school administration are generally coterminous with those of the civil administration.

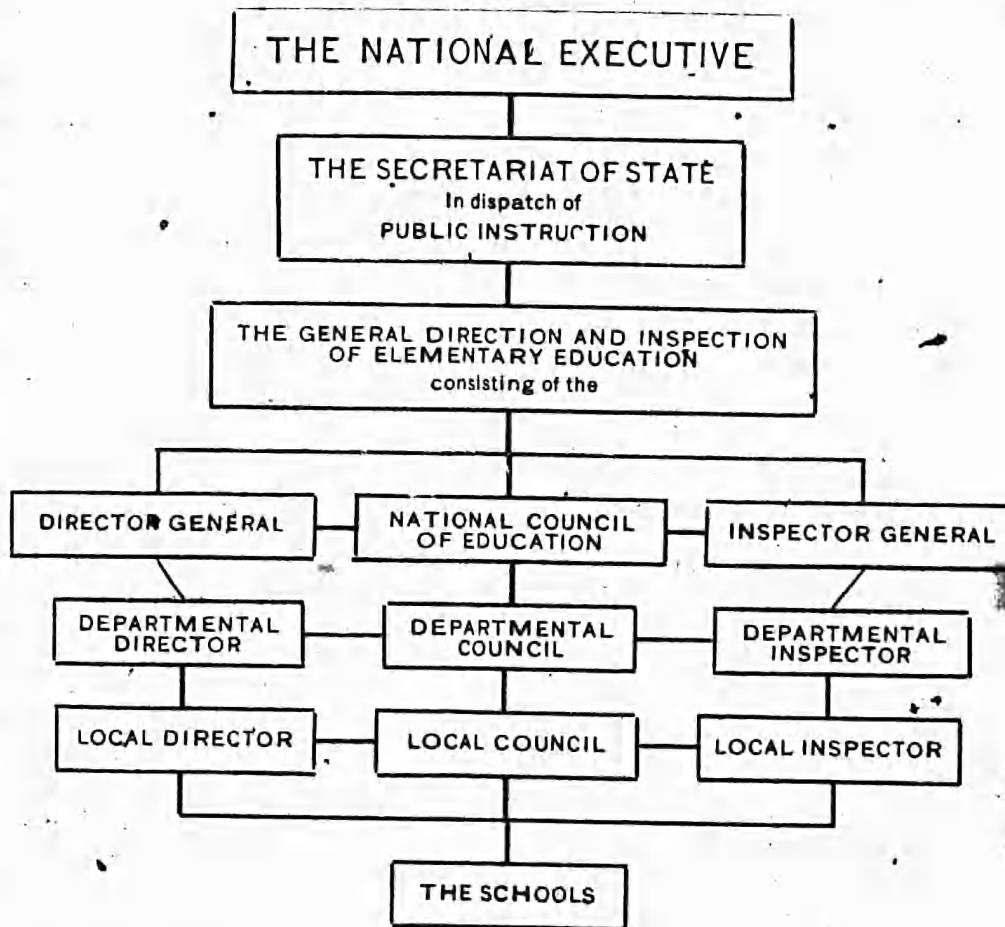
Education in all its branches is organized by the terms of an elaborate code of laws (executive decree No. 79 of June 25, 1923) and the general regulations for elementary instruction (Acuerdo número 718 of April 25, 1928) issued by the secretary of state for public instruction. The Government organizes and directs all public schools and in them instruction must be lay, and for the elementary grades, obligatory and free. The law divides public instruction into four classes: Elementary, normal, secondary, and professional.

Elementary instruction is administered by two parallel series of authorities; the direction and the inspection, both centering in that division of the ministry of education known as the direction and inspection general of elementary instruction (La Dirección e Inspección General de Enseñanza Primaria). (See p. 43.) The chief officers and assistants in both series must be certificated teachers with successful experience. The direction is occupied mostly with the externa; the inspection with the interna of school affairs. In each series are three steps between the minister's office and the schoolroom and each step is a professional not a lay body. The direction begins with the director general of elementary education assisted by the national council consisting of the director general as president, two active members and two substitute members appointed by the executive. Subordinate to this body are the departmental directors aided by the departmental councils, one of each in each department. Departmental directors are chosen by the executive; the two active and two substitute members of the departmental councils are appointed by the national council. Next in line are the local directors and local councils in each municipality. The local director may be the mayor or a special appointee of the departmental director; the four members of the local council are chosen by the departmental council. In each of these three bodies the director nominates the members of the council.

Inspection is headed by the inspector general who may be the director general also and subordinate to him are the departmental in-



spectors, usually one for each department. Finally, each municipality has its local inspector who may or may not be the mayor. The distribution of the authorities and duties between the two parallel vertical divisions of the administration and the three parallel horizontal divisions is set out in great detail in the laws and regulations. If the councils are considered as a separate series—the regulations really make them such—there are three rather than two parallel vertical divisions. The scheme may be graphed roughly as follows:

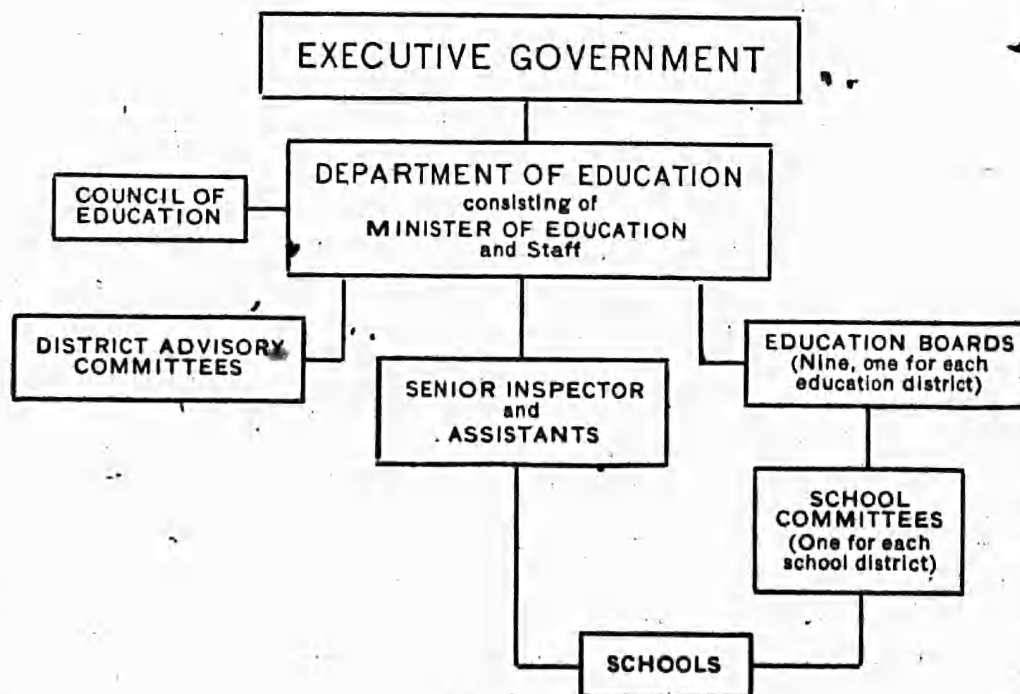


The chief characteristics of this organization are the extreme amount of administrative machinery for a small school system—Honduras had in 1927-28 only 95,188 children between 7 and 15 years of age and of them only 36,489 were in school; the unusual number of steps especially for a centralized government, between the national office and the schools; the lack of lay participation in any of the administration except when the mayor is inspector and his duties are then carefully limited; the attempt to work out in these series of offices fine distinctions between professional administration and professional supervision and in practice keep those activities separate; the wide powers given the educational authorities to impose penalties and levy fines on laymen as well as on the educational personnel;

placing the enforcement of the compulsory education law in school rather than in civil authorities; and the manifest indication that here is an attempt to build a school system by using the power of the central government. The system is not growing from the locality up; the stream of power is flowing from the center not toward it.

The plan contemplates that the elementary school pupil in Honduras will attend a school maintained by order of the ministry of education in a school building of its planning, using apparatus and books of its selection, pursuing a course of study for the number of minutes per subject and hours per day that it dictates, taught by persons trained under the ministry's supervision, selected and classified by it, paid a salary which it determines, and subject to direction and supervision by at least three categories of the ministry's personnel. The child's parents participate in the school to the extent of helping to support it by paying taxes but they have no authoritative voice in the management though they may be urged by employees of the ministry to assist in such educational organizations as parents' societies and school cooperatives.

*New Zealand.*—Several conditions make the relationship between the national ministry and elementary education in New Zealand relatively simple, direct, and well defined. The population is about 1,500,000, and with the exception of a few Maoris, homogeneous, using one language and having common cultural ideals. The National Government provides all the school funds that come from public sources. The locality levies no school taxes; it may accept and administer gifts. The organization may be graphed as follows:



New Zealand is divided into nine education districts whose boundaries were determined by the general council of education. (See p. 23.) Each district has an education board of six members for rural areas and two for every 60,000 or part thereof in urban areas, elected by the school committees. The term of office is four years with eligibility for reelection; from one-third to one-half the members retire biennially. The board is a body corporate with perpetual succession, a seal, and the general rights of bodies corporate. It selects its own officers, holds regular meetings, and determines its rules of procedure.

It establishes, maintains, and directs the public schools within the district; appoints the teachers after consultation with the school committee; allots scholarships; arranges for the conveyance of children to and from school; establishes school districts and school libraries; arranges the school calendar; administers all the funds that become the property of the board; and reports annually to the minister.

Each school district set up by the education board has an elected school committee of five to nine members that in rural districts hold office for one and in urban districts for two years. Subject to the general supervision and control of the education board, the school committee must keep the school plant in good repair and order and in sanitary condition; appoint teachers of sewing in any school in which there is not a woman teacher; expend the funds for incidental purposes in accord with the by-laws of the board; establish school and class libraries and savings banks for the children; fix school holidays; keep accounts, and render an annual report to the board.

This is the lay management of the school in which the ministry intervenes to establish district advisory committees when it sees fit (see p. 24); require reports, returns, and information from the education boards; allot the funds both general and special and approve their expenditure; decide in the final issue on the establishment or discontinuance of a school district; sanction the maintenance of special classes for defective children; make any public school a model school for practice teaching purposes; act through its senior inspector as consultant in the appointment of teachers; and decide in certain cases as to allowing the expenses of removal when a teacher is transferred from one position to another.

The law provides that elementary instruction must include certain subjects, and must be free, secular, and compulsory for children between the ages of 7 and 15 years. Teachers are civil servants and tenure is secure if the teacher is reasonably efficient. Regulations for the organization, examination, and inspection of public schools and the syllabus of instruction as well as regulations for teacher training, certification, salaries, and many other conditions of em-

ployment are drawn up in the ministry of education and issued as orders in council by the governor general.

For the professional management of the schools, the permanent staff of the ministry consists of a director of education, an assistant director, and some 50 inspectors. A group of inspectors under a senior inspector is stationed in each of the nine educational districts and works in close association with the education boards. In general each public school must be visited by an inspector at least once annually who furnishes the head teacher a brief confidential criticism of the school, takes such notes as will enable him to grade the teacher with confidence, and either with special commendation or adverse criticism brings the condition of the school plant to the notice of those concerned. He must present an inspection report to the board. The character of the inspection and report and the general spirit of the work are expressed in the following excerpts from the regulations issued in 1922:

8. (1) The inspection report shall consist of a statement in general terms regarding the efficiency of the school as a whole, and shall relate to the organization and management of the school; the order, discipline, and tone; the regularity of the attendance; the general efficiency of the teaching; the instruction and training of the pupil-teachers and probationers; the accommodation; the state of the buildings, grounds, and fences; the provisions made for ventilation, warming, and cleaning; special circumstances affecting the efficiency of the school; and any other matters which, in the opinion of the inspector, should be brought under the notice of the board and the school committee.

(2) After each visit the inspector shall furnish the teacher in charge with a brief confidential criticism of the details of the work of the school and with notes for his guidance. Such detailed notes shall relate to any or all of the following matters:

(a) The organization of the school as arranged by the head teacher with respect to (i) the manner in which the staff has been distributed in accordance with the accommodation, the size of the different classes, the abilities of the teachers, and the salaries they are receiving; (ii) the general scheme of instruction; (iii) the arrangement of the time-tables; (iv) the instruction and training of the pupil-teachers and probationers; (v) the arrangements for playground supervision, for keeping the grounds tidy and attractive, and for physical instruction, organized games, and the like.

(b) The head teacher's management of the school with respect to his direction of the work of his staff, and the extent and manner in which he makes his influence felt throughout the school, particularly in the development of a good tone, of corporate life, and of the patriotic sentiment, his relations with his staff and with the parents of his pupils, and the discretion he displays in the determination of the promotion of pupils from class to class.

(c) The efficiency of each assistant teacher with respect to his development of the scheme of work outlined by the head teacher, his method and power of imparting instruction, his influence over his pupils as shown by his ability to secure their cooperation in the work of instruction, in class government, in keeping their classroom tidy and attractive, and in organizing playground activities.

(d) Any other matter the inspector may see fit to comment on. \* \* \*

(5) The inspector's investigation should be made on the broadest lines possible, and he should guard against estimating the efficiency of a school or a teacher solely in accordance with measureable results, irrespective both of the manner in which these results have been produced and the effect the production of such results may have had on the mental and spiritual development of the pupil as evidenced by his intelligence, his spontaneity, his interest in his work, and his general alacrity. In every case more credit should be given to a teacher who relies with success on some system of autoeducation than to one who relies on the more rigid drill methods of instruction. Every encouragement should be given to teachers to investigate and experiment with the newer methods of imparting instruction and to modify their methods in accordance therewith.

The syllabus of instruction issued by the ministry is intended merely as a guide by which teachers and principals may make out their own schemes.

New Zealand was made up of independent provinces with their own schools before it was a Dominion. The education system grew from the locality up; and after having been partially formed was centralized in the Dominion Government. It represents a pooling of interests and authority rather than a division of them. In growth and general organization it is like the county-unit plan in the United States.

The people of the locality have a voice in the management of the school through the committee which they elect, and the committees choose from their membership the personnel of the education board to form the corporate body that controls the business affairs of the education district, and that board is the only step in authority between the ministry and the local school. On the professional or supervisory side of the school work even that step is eliminated; the school is in direct contact with the ministry in the form of its inspector. The relation is close, and while not defined at great length in the laws and regulations, it is broadly carried out along lines that will conserve human life and promote human welfare.

In general, the child-welfare branch of the education department deals with all children who need special care or who are not fitted to attend public school or remain at home with their parents. It deals with the maladjusted child in his own home as far as practicable; supervises children that are in employment before or after school hours; cares for infants that are maintained apart from their parents and for illegitimate children.

By some statistical criteria the school system is doing well. In 1916 of the persons 5 years of age and over (not including the Maoris) 94.06 per cent were able to read and write. For a total population of 1,344,384 in 1927, the 2,601 public elementary schools had an average attendance of 192,284 and that attendance was 89.2 per cent of the average weekly roll number. The expenditures for elementary education, not including expenses for general administration were £2,464,367.

*Belgium.*—Belgium is divided into nine Provinces and these in turn into 2,636 communes. Another civil division, the canton, which includes several communes, is taken into account in the service of school inspection.

Each provincial government is headed by a governor, usually a political supporter of the ministry in power, appointed by the King, and with a salary paid by the kingdom. He is assisted by a provincial council of 44 to 93 members according to population, elected for 4-year terms. When not in session, the council acts through a permanent deputation of six members. At the head of each communal government is the burgomaster as representative of the crown and appointed by the king. The commune has its communal council of 7 to 45 members, again depending on population, elected for 6 years. The executive committee of the communal council is the college of burgomaster and aldermen, the latter numbering from two to seven and working with the burgomaster who is president of both the college and the council.

The relationship of the ministry to elementary education including classes for adults, kindergartens, and normal schools for training elementary teachers is more direct between ministry and school than it is in New Zealand and at the same time more complicated. It is more direct in that for purposes of administering elementary education the intermediary authority (the provincial government) is practically short-circuited and the ministry deals directly with the communal civil officials, not a special body chosen for the schools. It is more complicated because the cost of the schools is distributed among nation, commune, and province; private schools are many and are carefully safeguarded in their rights; there may be two or more languages of instruction; and religion is a subject of instruction in the public schools.

Elementary schools are either communal, adopted, or adoptable. Communal schools are public and directed by the communal councils; adopted schools are owned and directed by private agencies that have entered into contract with the communal council to furnish elementary education to the children resident in the commune. Adoptable schools are private primary institutions of such quality that they could become adopted but have not done so.

The communal council is the directive body for the communal schools, but its power of direction is limited in many ways by law and by ministerial regulation. A school once established may not be suppressed except by authorization of the king. The ministry issues a model set of regulations for the schools. The law fixes a minimum program of studies and carefully safeguards the rights of teachers in chief (principals), teachers, and special teachers with respect to qualifications, tenure of office, basal minimum salaries,

indemnities for residence, for higher qualifications, and for added experience, salaries of expectation if the position is discontinued, leaves for illness, and matters of discipline.

The use and the distribution of the school funds are almost wholly matters of law and royal decree. National subsidies cover all personnel expenses, provided the number of pupils per class does not exceed that fixed by royal decree, and the schools observe the school laws and regulations; they cover also extraordinary expenses such as construction of buildings, purchase of furniture and teaching supplies, etc., through a simple credit set up in the annual budget. Provincial subsidies apply by law to material furnished the pupils and are fixed at a minimum (per pupil) by royal decree and at a maximum by law. Provincial assistance in extraordinary expenses is wholly optional and differs in the different provinces.

The establishment of kindergartens is in the hands of the communal councils, but their suppression, the granting of national subsidies, and the relationships with the teachers are determined by law or decree in almost exactly the same way as in the elementary schools. Schools for adults are also under the councils, and here the national authority steps in to the extent of regulating disciplinary matters in the teaching personnel and guaranteeing salaries of expectation. The national budget includes each year a credit for subventioning those schools that accept the conditions fixed by the Government.\*

The particular part of the school's activities over which lay authorities of any rank have practically no control is the obligatory teaching of religion and morals, considered by law to be inseparable subjects, in every communal and adopted school. The tenets of the faith professed by the pupils or a majority of them must be taught in the first or last half hour in the morning or afternoon. But no children are forced by law or the school authorities to attend the class in religion; the parents must, without solicitation by teacher or communal council, decide whether their children shall be in the class, and they may withdraw the children from it at any time during the school year. If any children in a class do not participate in the religious instruction, the general teaching of that class must be free from religious bias, otherwise all the teaching may have a confessional character conforming to the view of the parents.

By law the clergymen are the only persons competent to give or supervise the religious instruction. If the teacher is willing to do it and he is invited by the clergy, he may give it. If neither clergyman nor teacher is available, the clergy and the communal council may agree on someone else, and in this case only is the teacher of religion paid a salary by the council. In any event the instruction in religion is directed, controlled, and inspected by the clergy, all of whom are paid and pensioned from national funds.

Another difficult phase of administration is the decision as to language of instruction. The general principle is that in all communal schools, adopted or adoptable, the mother tongue of the children or a majority of them is the vehicular language. The head of the family declares the maternal language of the pupil but the head of the school may give a different opinion. The school inspector makes the final decision. In certain special areas (Brussels and the linguistic frontiers) the ministry of sciences and arts may authorize changes from this régime, but such changes may not deny a thorough study of the maternal language, and the authorization is merely an authorization, not a command. The school authorities need not follow it. The practice recommended is that representatives of the ministry meet with the communal authorities and agree upon a program which is later authorized by the ministry.

Normal schools may be established by the nation, the province, the commune, or private agencies. In principle, only the diplomas granted by the national normal schools have legal value. Those of other normals may be recognized if the schools follow the national programs and regulations and submit to national inspection. These regulations, among other things, safeguard liberty of conscience in regard to religious teachings. On the same conditions, normal schools other than national which are, of course, entirely supported and controlled by the government, may be subsidized by the nation. The salaries of teachers and many scholarships are paid from national funds.

In the national normal schools the ministry decides on: The number and qualifications of the administrative and teaching personnel; the program of studies; requirements for admission, promotion, and graduation; pensions and withdrawals; administration and accounting; dormitory facilities for resident students; hygienic and medical service; care of the school plant; library service; and the training school. Salaries are set by royal arrêt.

*National inspection.*—National inspection extends to all private, adopted, and communal elementary schools, kindergartens, and courses for adults subsidized by the nation, the provinces, or the communes, and the inspectors must visit with equal care each kind of these schools. The inspectors must, in general, report on the condition of the schools, their programs, and activity. They control the use of the national subsidies and the prompt execution of the laws and regulations. They watch carefully over compulsory education enforcement, and legal safeguards to religious instruction and the vehicular language. The inspectors must actually deal in person with members of the communal councils and the teachers, exact from them the needed information, and carry on investigations. They may interrogate the pupils. They must make official reports to the



Government, and present their opinions on any question submitted to them.

The corps of inspectors includes 2 inspectors general, 30 principal inspectors, and not more than 184 cantonal and assistant cantonal inspectors. Women may be inspectors. Inspectors are appointed, promoted, and dismissed by royal arrêt . They may be suspended by the minister of science and arts. Each grade of inspectors, except the inspectors general, is divided into three classes; the salaries, indemnities, and expenses are fixed by royal arrêt .

The inspectors general coordinate the reports which are made to them by the principal inspectors; submit to the minister the programs of the cantonal conferences of teachers; render an annual report on the condition of primary education to the council of perfecting primary and normal instruction (see p. 20); and every three years address a complete report to the minister for inclusion in his triennial report. In all these matters they are required to express their opinions relative to the elementary education situation. With the approval of the minister they may visit schools and teachers' conferences.

The jurisdiction of each principal inspector is determined by arrêt . He must visit each elementary school at least once every two years, and kindergartens and schools for adults when his duties permit. He shall preside annually over at least one teachers' conference. He is the immediate superior over the cantonal inspectors and their assistants, receives their reports, and himself reports annually to the ministry.

At the head of each canton is a cantonal inspector or assistant inspector but the minister may modify the areal jurisdiction of any of these inspectors. They work in cooperation with the communal authorities, the teachers, and the parents. Each inspector must visit every school at least twice a year and make a report to the head of the school and the teacher concerned. He must make a weekly report in a form prescribed by the ministry to the principal inspector. He must conduct a teachers' conference at least once a trimester.

The inspectors general must hold meetings at least three times a year of the principal inspectors and carry out a program set by the minister. Principal inspectors must in like manner hold three meetings yearly of cantonal and assistant inspectors. In each case reports of proceedings are made to the minister.

Inspection of needle work, home economics, child care, and applied drawing is done by women inspectors at least once a year.

By royal arrêt  every commune, or two or more communes in union, must maintain a free medical inspection service for the kindergarten and elementary schools, communal, adopted, and privately subsidized. The details of the inspection, the reports, and necessary equipment are fixed in the arrêt .

Normal-school inspection on the literary and scientific side is carried on by an inspector general and three principal inspectors; for the training in gymnastics, drawing, manual work, and music by special inspectors who do the same work in the middle schools; and for needle work, domestic science, cooking, and good manners by special women inspectors. This service is governed by royal *arrêté* and organized in practically the same way as that of the elementary schools.

This Belgian system of administration is, so far as the external of the schools are concerned, vested in the local authority which acts in accord with specific laws that detail its powers and duties and permit the ministry to intervene only in a few matters and then in the nature of a court of last resort. No series of officials has been set up to connect ministry and school. On the professional supervisory side the system is elaborate and graduated from ministry through the inspectors general, the areas for each principal inspector, and the cantonal inspectors, to the school.

This also is an educational scheme that grew from the locality and the private school; authority was given to the central government slowly and reluctantly, and is manifest more strongly in the professional phases, for there the layman is more easily brought to yield to the educator.

*Argentina* is a federal union of 14 provinces, 10 territories, and a federal district (Buenos Aires). The constitution is almost identical with that of the United States of America. Each province has its elected governor and legislature and controls its own affairs largely independent of the central government, which administers matters of national concern and the federal district and territories.

National control of elementary education is limited with respect to area to the federal district, the territories, and those sections of the provinces in which by provincial request it establishes national schools. Each province maintains its own independent elementary school system, for which it enacts the laws and furnishes the funds. If those funds amount to more than 10 per cent of the total provincial expenditures, the federal government supplements them by subventions.

The ministry's active authority for handling the elementary schools under its jurisdiction is vested in a rather autonomous body, the national council of education, consisting of a president and four other members appointed by the national executive for five years with the privilege of reappointment. It is a powerful administrative organization, that comes in direct contact with the kindergartens, elementary schools, schools for adults, and ambulating schools in its areas through an inspection staff for supervisory purposes in Buenos Aires and both administration and supervision elsewhere. Lay

advice and participation under the terms of the law are almost nil, except in the capital.

The powers and duties of the council are:

1. Direct instruction in the elementary schools according to the laws and the regulations for executing them.
2. Administer education in the normal schools of the capital, national colonies and territories, and, with the approval of the ministry, elect or remove the personnel or grant pensions.
3. Administer the educational funds of any origin whatsoever.
4. Organize inspection of the schools, the accounting, and the custody of the funds.
5. Supervise the school inspectors, regulate their functions, and direct their acts.
6. Promptly carry out the educational laws of congress and the decrees of the executive, who may by proclamation call on other authorities to help.
7. In January of each year formulate the educational budget and send it to congress through the ministry.
8. Hold at least three sessions weekly.
9. Make its own internal regulations and assign the duties of its members.
10. Distribute forms for matriculation, registers of attendance, and statistics and census of school population, and direct their use.
11. Dictate the programs in the public schools.
12. Grant teachers' certificates on examinations and proof of legal capacity to those who wish to teach in public or private schools.
13. Revalidate the diplomas of foreign teachers.
14. Annul some or other certificates for causes fixed by the school regulations.
15. Prescribe and adopt the texts for the public schools, and assure their uniform and permanent use at a moderate price for not less than two years.
16. Suspend or dismiss teachers, inspectors, or employees for cause, subject to the approval of the ministry.
17. Hold teachers' conferences and reunions of educationists at proper times.
18. Promote and help establish popular and teachers' libraries and those of associations and cooperatives of public education.
19. Direct a monthly publication on education.
20. Contract for special teachers, both citizen and alien, with the approval of the ministry.
21. Administer the personal and real property of the schools.
22. Receive inheritances, legacies, and donations for education.
23. Authorize the construction of school plants and buy land in accord with law and with the approval of the ministry.
24. Take steps necessary to obtain the grounds that the public schools need.
25. Carry out in the provinces the law on popular libraries and those in regard to subventions to the provinces, soliciting from the executive power the necessary funds.<sup>19</sup>

<sup>19</sup> Argentina. Laws, statutes, etc. Consejo Nacional de Educación. Digesto de instrucción primaria. Leyes, decretos y resoluciones vigentes para las escuelas y dependencias del Consejo Nacional de Educación. Buenos Aires, Imprenta Mercatili, 1920.

Students of educational administration who wish to trace out in all its finenesses a school system that is closely regulated are referred to this digest as worthy of careful study. It is in eight parts: The constitution of Argentina, with the national laws and decrees; the administrative section relating to the internal organization and duties of the national council; regulations for the schools of the federal district; the national schools in the provinces; schools in the national territories and colonies; resolutions relating to the schools in the territories, provinces, and national colonies; general resolutions for the federal district, provinces, and territories; and the administrative and school calendar.

The national council created 14 school districts in the federal district, and determined their boundaries and appoints for each a permanent district school council of five heads of families. The district council is immediately responsible to the national council and is expected to meet once a week. It arranges its own internal organization and has the following listed powers and duties: Have care of the hygiene, discipline, and morality of the schools in its district and to do that, it may visit them frequently and at any time; stimulate by every means attendance at the schools and for that purpose may furnish clothing to indigents; set up night schools and courses for adults; promote the formation of cooperative societies and popular libraries; open annually the book of registration and receive the taxes of the district, proceeds of registration, and private donations and subventions, report them to the national council and employ those moneys for the purposes set; punish parents for infractions of the compulsory education law or other laws, and refer its decision to the national council for final determination; propose to the national council for election the teachers and other employees of the schools and of the district council; preside over the public examinations in the schools of its district; appoint commissions of women to visit the mixed schools and schools for girls; and render a monthly report of the school funds and the condition of the schools to the national council.

Members of both the national council and the district school councils are individually responsible before the courts for the proper handling of the school funds.

To carry out its administration the national council has an inspection staff consisting of a general inspector in charge of three inspectors general, one each for Buenos Aires, the schools in the territories, and the national schools in the provinces. These three are in turn assisted by regional inspectors and a considerable number of special inspectors for night schools, schools for illiterates, and such special subjects as music, drawing, manual training, home economics, etc.

The inspector must go to each school during class hours and investigate the instruction to see that it is given in accord with the law and the regulations, and programs and methods established by the national council; correct all errors in teaching; see that the official texts, systems of registers, statistics, and inventories are used; inform the national council of the results of the inspection indicating the condition of the school and of any defects that should be corrected; and report on the condition of the buildings and equipment. He must report monthly to the president of the council.

National schools are established in any province which demands it, the general understanding being that the educational needs of remote and sparsely settled districts will be met in this way. Locally each such school has a school agent (*encargado escolar*) appointed by the national council and with duties similar to those of the district school councils in Buenos Aires.

The sectional inspector, a subordinate of the inspector general, has within his particular area or province distinctly administrative duties corresponding very closely to those of school superintendent in the United States. He is aided by school visitors, one for each 20 schools, who visit the schools and keep him informed on their condition. He must visit such schools as the inspector general orders. Moreover, the inspector general may have traveling inspectors whose duties are more in the nature of general observers or surveyors to study the schools, the general geography of the province, and the condition of its people and to make recommendations for improving the educational system.

In the 10 national territories, with a population of 492,000 scattered over an area of 527,917 square miles, and the two national colonies (Martín García Island and Puerto Militar), the inspector general is assisted by such sectional inspectors and office personnel as the budget law allows. Only the inspector general resides at the capital; the sectional inspectors are placed in the 40 or more school sections into which the area is divided for administrative purposes. The schools are handled directly by the sectional inspectors, the principals, and the teachers without the intervention of local authorities like the district school councils and the school agents. The sectional inspectors have practically the same duties as those handling the national schools in the provinces.

Within the competence of the authorities of this national system of kindergartens, elementary schools, schools for adults and illiterates, and ambulating schools, is also the administration of the school-health service; the teachers' library in Buenos Aires; the libraries, archives, and museums connected with the schools; the training and certification of teachers; and the examinations for promotion in and graduations from the schools. The educational scheme in active operation lacks few or none of the phases and activities now a part of the human training plan in the more advanced countries. The national council handled in 1927 schools to the number of 10,503, enrolling 1,312,009 pupils with an average attendance of 1,042,372, taught by 47,198 teachers. Beyond its legal right over these schools and agencies is the powerful influence that its example has over the school systems in the different provinces. They are largely modeled after the national system.

*Sweden.*—The royal board of education in Sweden is the professional educational part of the ministry of education and religion. It is divided into three departments: secondary, elementary, and vocational; and a statistical bureau. The elementary department with a staff of six educational advisors (undervisningsråd) deals with matters relating to the elementary, continuation, and training schools for elementary teachers. The latter are completely administered and controlled by this department. The elementary and continuation schools are largely under local control. The department has 52 elementary school inspectors, 1 for each of the 52 state inspectorial areas.

On the side of the lay management of the elementary school, the inspector deals in rural districts with the vestry which consists of all the citizens of the parish who assemble at three regular meetings a year to consider the affairs of the school such as prepare the budget, decide on the local funds, vote on the construction and up-keep of school buildings and the issuance of bonds, select the members of the local school board, and choose the teachers from among the nominations (three for each position) made by the school board. In urban districts the functions of the vestry are taken over by the town or city council, as the case may be. It selects half the members of the school board; the church, the other half. The school board carries out the decisions of the vestry or urban council, has general care of the schools and administrative oversight of the teachers, and in the larger districts selects a head teacher or principal, or in the cities, an inspector who is in reality a superintendent.

The national treasury bears about 90 per cent of the total of the teachers' salaries and assumes this responsibility only on condition that the community meets certain standards as to length of term, suitable buildings and equipment, and teachers' salaries as fixed by law, and follows a course of study that has been approved by the board of education. The chief duty of the 52 school inspectors is to see that these requirements are met. The inspector must approve all sites and plans and specifications for buildings.

On the professional side of elementary school management, the ministry has full control of the training school for teachers, the requirements for admission to and graduation from them, and the amount and kind of practice teaching and experience required for permanent appointment. It must approve the course of study drawn up by the local school board, and approves a long list of books from which the texts may be selected. The State inspectors are expected to visit each school in their respective areas at least once a year and they may supervise the instruction, but in reality their time is almost wholly taken up in consultation with the lay management of the school.

*Bulgaria.*—The central office of the ministry of education in Bulgaria deals with the elementary schools (the 4-year primary school and the 4-year progymnasium following it) through only one intermediary agency, and that agency, a departmental inspector, is a part of the ministry, is strictly accountable to it, and the agent is chosen by the minister. Seventeen of these inspectors, one for each administrative department and Sofia, and 92 assistant or district inspectors are expected to visit each teacher within the respective jurisdictions at least twice each year.

The lay authority immediately connected with the elementary school is the local school committee elected by popular vote, with a president and a secretary, both paid officials. The committee prepares the budget of the school and submits it to the city council, collects the revenues, pays most of the bills, appoints the teachers and janitors, is custodian of the school funds and property, supervises the school plant, and represents the school district, which is a body corporate, in courts of law. Most of the funds are provided by the locality; the teacher's salary or, part of it may come from the national treasury.

All the work of the school committee is subject to check by the departmental inspector or one of his assistants. If he reports to the minister that the committee is derelict, the minister may appoint a new one from those with the highest vote, next to those elected, at the last preceding election. The inspector has final approval on the budget both by items and in its entirety; he inspects the books of the committee and may check its annual financial report.

Over the professional authority in the school—the teachers and principals—the ministry of education has direct jurisdiction in that it sets out the course of study by which teachers are trained, appoints them in schools in which it pays all the salary, has supervision over them while they are teaching, gives the examination by which they change from probationary to regular status, and through the inspector receives from the school principal full reports on the teaching staff. Having once become a member of the regular teaching force, no teacher may be dismissed by the school committee though that committee may enter complaint against a teacher with the inspector. After each visit the inspector must make a written report, and read it over to the teacher and the principal, either of whom may enter objections. A copy of both report and objections goes to the minister. If the inspector is dissatisfied with the teacher, he must visit the teacher again within three months, arrange a report signed by the principal or district inspector, and forward it to the minister for final action. All teachers are civil servants with salaries set by classes, and salaries, retirements, promotions, etc., fixed by law.

Enforcement of compulsory school attendance is largely in the hands of the local civil administration and the school committee.

*Siam.*—The work of the ministry of education in Siam with elementary schools is interesting not because of any complexity of organization or unusual schemes arranged in the school law, but because of the simplicity and directness with which the central authority has gone about introducing education in a nation of about nine and one-half millions that has not the wealth to build a system rapidly.

Siam is divided into 13 circles, each under the control of a lord lieutenant, whose authority comes direct from the King, and the city of Bangkok, also a circle under a lord prefect. The circles are divided into 80 provinces; the provinces into 421 districts; and the districts into 5,010 communes. In school administration considerable use is made of the civil authorities.

The primary education act of 1923 is simplicity itself and lays the foundation for an expanding, growing system. By it education is free of fees in government and local schools except for some special schools, and attendance is compulsory for children from the age of 7 to 14, though the age of 7 may be raised by the ministry of education to 8, 9, or 10 on account of local circumstances. Those that have completed the primary or "prathom" course, a 3-year course, before the age of 14 may be excused; those that have not completed it and have not passed the examination prescribed by the ministry may be held after they are 14.

The people of any village or commune may establish a local school if they subscribe an amount of money that the governor of the province thinks sufficient and, permission having been granted, the subscribers may elect a committee of five managers to be approved by the governor. The committee registers with the district officer and from then on is held responsible for raising, accounting for, and expending the school funds, providing school accommodation, and giving assistance to the ministry's inspectors, the school attendance officers, and the education committee when required. In addition, the district officer may create a local school, to be managed by him and the district inspector, when he sees fit. He may appoint an education committee to assist him. Such a school is maintained by an education poll tax. The ministry may give grants in aid to any local school, but such grant shall not imply a reduction of the voluntary or annual contributions. In 1924-25 income from Government grants for general education was 1,390,318 ticals (\$0.37 par at that time); that from other sources, mostly local tax, was 2,563,626 ticals.



Besides the local schools there are Government schools maintained and directly controlled by it as model schools in central places. Matters of training, selection, promotion, and dismissal of teachers and those of pupil promotions, and the granting of diplomas or certificates of graduation are wholly within the competence of the ministry.

The local schools are subject to the regulations of the ministry regarding school times, the syllabus, the books to be used, the discipline, temporary closing for epidemics, suitability and sanitary conditions of the premises, and generally everything that pertains to the instruction and the care of the pupils. The ministry maintains a textbook printing and distribution bureau. Headmasters and teachers are appointed and removed by the governor of the province with the approval of the lord lieutenant. School-attendance officers are appointed and paid in the same way as the teachers.

The ministry uses in its school organization and inspection offices, 3 chief officers for divisions and 18, with 16 assistants, for the circles. In the provinces, the districts, and the metropolitan district are 444 additional officers.

By such a plan of support and organization which is the extreme of centralized authority but also places considerable responsibility on the locality and is arranged to place increasingly more there, 3,625 of the 5,010 communes had come under the operation of the school law in 1925 and the attendance at government and local schools jumped from 216,842 in 1921-22 to 577,036 in 1924-25. Much of the increase was due to an increase of girl pupils from 16,819 in the former year to 209,061 in the latter.

*General principles.*—From the relationships of the ministry of education to elementary school training in the seven countries just outlined, may be drawn an idea of the many variations in the arrangements by which the national government directs the public elementary schools. Out of these outlines and those in Chapters VIII, IX, and X, as well as less-extended study of the remaining 45 countries, a few general principles that are in operation or are developing may be drawn.

Upon whatever plan the internal organization of the ministry may be arranged it will include a division whose major duties are those connected with the elementary schools.

The trend of the growth of national administration is from complete local control of the schools to a division of authority whereby the locality takes charge of the appurtenances, or externa as they are sometimes called, of education, the nation of the interna or professional phases; the influence of the central office then extends to and later controls also the externa.

Lay participation in actual official conduct of the schools is decreasing; in creating public sentiment favoring education it is probably increasing.

Local civil authorities are used only to a limited extent in the administration of national systems of education; if there are local educational authorities they are in a majority of countries, separate from the civil bodies.

The ministry's voice in determining the number, location, and kind of elementary schools to be maintained depends on the form of the national government. In federal unions it has no authority; the constituent states regulate that. In centralized republics and in monarchies it may have full authority subject to budget limitations; may act in an advisory capacity; or decide in cases of dispute and appeal. Generally certain limitations and mandates as to the establishment of elementary schools are fixed in the law and within those the locality makes the decision, but in a number of countries the authority of the ministry in this matter is absolute.

The primary assumption is that the locality will bear the expense of its elementary schools.

A minimum expenditure may be fixed by law or ministerial decree and national funds are usually granted in such a way as to try to stimulate further effort on the part of the community.

National funds are most commonly applied first to paying the salaries of the professional staff, next to the construction of buildings, and finally, if they are further extended, to miscellaneous expenses. With the granting of national funds goes also the right to see that those moneys are properly expended, hence follows national inspection first of accounting and later of educational processes.

Teacher training comes early and usually under the control of the ministry, but appointments, promotions, salaries, and general conditions of service are, more than other matters, regulated by law so as to guarantee tenure of office and pensions or awards after retirement.

Either a minimum of what shall be taught in the schools is fixed by law or ministerial decree, or the entire course with programs is set out in detail by the ministry. The former method is the more common. Graduation from the elementary school, because of its connection with compulsory education and the selection of secondary school students, is generally regulated by the ministry.

The teaching of religion and the provision for language and racial minorities are governed by laws or constitutional guarantees and in them the ministry has little option. They have the status of rights inherent to man.

Physical education and the care of the health of the school children are gradually coming within the jurisdiction of the

ministry of education. The tendency is about equally divided between placing them in a separate ministry of health or public welfare and the educational ministry.

The ministry intervenes in the matter of school buildings to the extent of issuing general regulations, approving plans, and requiring that the building be sanitary and adequate.

The responsibility for enforcing the compulsory education laws lies generally in the locality and often in the civil not the educational authorities, probably on the ground that educational officials may not conduct trials for civil offenses and inflict penalties for violations.

## CHAPTER VI

### The Relation of the National Ministry to Secondary Education

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*General nature of the relationship.*—The relations of the national ministry of education to secondary instruction are, when compared with those in the elementary field, direct and authoritative, and the ministry's task is fairly well defined. The pupils and teaching staff are relatively few in number; the schools are in accessible places and not widely distributed. Compulsory education laws with their varied complications have largely ceased to apply, both because many of the pupils are outside the age limits and the willingness to patronize the secondary school implies that parents need not be compelled to send the children to school.

The fundamental principles of secondary education differ from those of elementary education. In the latter the nation is concerned with having all its citizenry trained in the elements of the mother tongue, mathematics, and some of the general phases of the natural and social sciences. The assumption is that this training is necessary for the individual to pursue for himself a reasonable effective life and to contribute his part toward the national welfare. The assumption, verified by experience, is also that only a very small percentage of the people are so lacking in intellectual strength that they can not take that minimum of training. Naturally, in the larger nations such a universal scheme must depend considerably on local effort and control, and furthermore the belief is warranted that local responsibility in public affairs helps to develop sturdy, self-reliant peoples.

*Principles and practices in secondary education.*—Secondary education rests on principles and practices which demand more national direction. It is essentially preparatory training for leaders in commerce, industry, statecraft, and the professions, fields that require fewer and more highly trained workers. The activities of the workers in them affect more people and are more national in scope, more matters of common concern. Hence the nation as a whole is considered responsible for offering the training, may direct the course of it, and select the persons to whom it is to be given.

This is not discussion of the validity of those theories. They may or may not be correct. In practice they have not worked out well

for several reasons. First, the number of persons capable of taking secondary school training has probably been greatly underestimated and because of that many nations have used only a small percentage of their actual intellectual strength. They have been wasteful of brains. Second, rapidly shifting economic conditions have made it impossible to determine in advance the trained workers needed in any field and not infrequently progress has been retarded because general secondary education has been too much restricted. The power of a high degree of common culture has been overlooked. Third, the selection of those who shall be more highly trained by those that have gone through the training, while it makes for a certain amount of social stability, has also tended to create a vicious circle into which the virility of independent thinking comes not at all or very slowly. The particular point of this analysis of principles and their application is to indicate how it comes about that secondary education is so much more in the hands of national authority acting through the ministry of education, than elementary education is.

And, further, better applications of those principles or even entire changes of principle are being worked out through some of the ministries. Particularly the changes are coming in the extension of compulsory education ages either at the regular elementary school or in many kinds of continuation, superior elementary, trade, and vocational schools, all intended to increase the length of the school attendance life and raise the level of common training. Again the upper years of the elementary school are overlapping the lower ones of the secondary institution and the two are being so correlated that transfer from the one to the other is growing easier. The general tendency is to apply to secondary education much more of the universality of elementary training and with it will come, is coming to some extent, a shifting of responsibility for the secondary school from the national authority to the local.

Though these attempts have been made in several countries and are now going on actively in a number to have it otherwise, the secondary school is distinctly a class institution whose purpose is to prepare pupils for later university studies. Fees are charged in many countries, and while the amount for each individual is small they are a force for selecting the more fortunately circumstanced children. Scholarships, bourses, and free places given at the expense of the nation are a common means of aiding those that otherwise could not avail themselves of secondary instruction, and the selection of the recipients tends to create social strata. The teachers are generally trained in the universities, and may have additional preparation through professional courses in pedagogy. The course of study, with few exceptions, is either incorporated in the law, in which case

the ministry of education initiated the law, or is embodied in a ministerial decree. The general practice is for the national treasury to bear all or most of the cost of public secondary education. It provides the teachers' salaries and either builds or helps to build and maintain the school plant. The division of financial responsibility, if there is a division between nation and locality, is clearly established.

*The secondary school a national school.*—In truth, the public secondary schools in the countries we are studying are overwhelmingly national, in the sense that they are established and maintained by national funds, directed, inspected, and approved by officials of the ministry of education, which in many cases names the teachers, and the final granting of the diploma or certificate of graduation is approved by the ministry. In this way the national government practically selects the young people who attend the universities.

Private effort in secondary education is very considerable in extent and fine in quality, and over it the ministry has control in various ways in different countries. A usual form is through subsidies or grants in aid given to the private schools, and this is accompanied by national inspection and approval, with the publication of a list of those private schools that are considered equal or superior to the public institutions. Another check is by the process of having the final examination conducted in the presence of a representative of the ministry. He signs the diploma of graduation along with the director and teachers of the school, and only such diplomas carry the same rights as those granted by the public schools. Again, the private school may be annexed to, or approved by, some public secondary school to which its pupils go for the examinations, and the ministry thus indirectly controls the private effort.

*Definition of the secondary school.*—In the 25 Latin language countries we are studying, 19 of which are in America, the terminology, general plan and purpose of secondary education is fairly uniform. The schools are in Spanish, colegios, liceos, and institutos, or under the general term escuelas secundarias; in French they are collèges and lycées or generally écoles secondaires. Portugal maintains lyceus; Belgium in addition to écoles moyennes has a distinctive term which no other Latin language country uses, athénées. Rumania and Italy show the Germanic influence to the extent that in addition to having licee and licei, one division of secondary education is named gimnazii or ginnasi.

The age of admission to these secondary schools is from 10 to 15; the requirement is the completion of a primary or preparatory school course usually of 6 years' duration. In six of these countries it is 5, in Portugal 3, and in Rumania 4. Cuba has shortened the secondary school course to 4 and lengthened the primary course to 9 years. In

addition to the completion of the primary school, passing an examination of admission is usually required.

The secondary school course is normally 5 years in duration in Argentina, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, and Salvador; in Cuba and the Dominican Republic it is 4. Colombia, Haiti, Peru, France, Portugal, and Rumania have 7-year courses; Italy requires 8 years of secondary instruction; the other 10 countries have the 6-year course that is most typical of Latin language nations. The tendency is now to divide the course into two stages, the first being general instruction obligatory for all students; the second arranged for the pupils to choose between two or more specialized lines of study. In this connection Spain, Ecuador, Chile, and Bolivia use a 3-3 plan; France and Colombia, 4-3; Honduras and Mexico, 3-2; Rumania and Haiti, 3-4; Uruguay and Venezuela, 4-2; Peru and Portugal, 5-2; Italy, 5-3; and the Dominican Republic, 3-1.

As to types of specialization in the later years of the course, the common division in Latin America is science and letters, though some of the countries are beginning to break away from that classification and introduce mathematics, biological, preprofessional, and technical curricula. The classical, modern classical, and mathematics-science types prevail in the six European countries. Normal instruction for primary teachers runs parallel with or is a part of the secondary school course.

The degree granted at the close of the course is generally throughout Latin America, the bachelor in letters or sciences or both. (Bachiller en Ciencias y Letras.) For the completion of the first stage a certificate is granted. On the European continent Belgium grants a *certificat d' études moyennes*; France, a *baccalauréat de l' enseignement secondaire*; Italy for the classical course, a *diploma di maturità classica* and for the technical schools, a *certificato di licenza*; Portugal, a certificate of qualification for the university admission examinations (*Certificado de habilitação a exame de admissão ao ensino superior*); Rumania, a *diploma de bacalaureat*; and Spain a *bachillerato universitario*. In nearly every case these degrees, certificates, or diplomas admit the holder without examination to institutions of university rank.

In the six Germanic language countries, Austria, Danzig, the Netherlands, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, and in Hungary secondary education is carried on along the lines of the type developed in Germany under the empire, an 8 or 9 year secondary school which the child enters at the age of 10 and in which he may elect the classical with or without Greek, the modern language, or the mathematics-science course. The Free City of Danzig and Hungary follow this type very closely. In Austria the change is toward a 4-4

scheme in which specialization along four lines is carried on only in the last four years. The Netherlands, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden have modified the scheme considerably. Children enter the secondary school of the Netherlands, a 6 or 5 year school, at the age of 12 after having completed the 6-year elementary course and may there follow four lines of work. Those of Denmark do four years of middle-school study before entering any one of the three lines offered in the 3-year gymnasium. The Norwegian child is about 14 years of age and has completed a 7-year elementary school before he enters the 6-year secondary institution divided into a 3-year middle school and a 3-year gymnasium. The Swedish plan is to complete a 5-year elementary school course and then take up the 9-year secondary school consisting of a 5-year middle school followed by the 4-year gymnasium of three separate lines of study.

The German and Dutch-speaking countries and Hungary close the secondary training with a maturity examination and the granting of a certificate of maturity (Reifezeugnis). The Scandinavian countries term the similar examination, a students' examination or examen artium and in all of them the completion of the course admits to the university. The number of hours of study per week range from 27 to 37.

Secondary education in the Slavonic countries, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, and Bulgaria is conducted so much along the gymnasium, real gymnasium, and real school plan that it needs no special description here except to note that in Poland the 8-year course is divided into three years of general training followed by five years of specialization along any one of three lines.

The secondary school of Albania is an 8-year gymnasium. That of old Greece is a 4-year gymnasium following a 3-year middle or Hellenic school to which pupils are admitted from the 4-year primary course; the newer scheme is a 6-year elementary school followed by a 6-year secondary school.

Afghanistan, Persia, Egypt, Iraq, and Turkey have few secondary schools. The Turkish plan admits pupils from the 5-year primary school and gives them secondary training in a 3-year middle school followed by a 3-year lycee. In Afghanistan and Iraq the secondary school is a 4-year institution following a 5-year and a 6-year primary school. Recently the Egyptian secondary school course was extended from four to five years and divided into cycles of three and two years each. The course in Persia is three years.

General secondary schools in China and Japan follow a 6-year elementary school and are termed middle schools; in the former they are 6-year institutions of two 3-year sections, lower and higher; in the latter the course is five years. The Siamese 8-year secondary



school or madhyom course has three divisions; lower, 3; middle, 3; and higher, 2 years. It follows three years of the 5-year prathom or primary course.

The board of education of England defines a secondary school as one "which offers to all its pupils a progressive course of general education, with the requisite organization, curriculum, teaching staff, and equipment, suitable in kind and amount for boys or girls of an age-range at least as wide as from 12 to 17, and which also makes suitable and correlated provision for any pupils below the age of 12." The course of study may be closed with a "first examination" suitable for pupils about 16 years old, the standard being such that a pass with credit in a certain number of subjects in three main groups of school subjects would entitle the candidate to admission to a university; or with a "second examination" suitable for pupils about two years older, framed on the assumption that the candidate has, after the stage marked by the first examination, followed a more specialized course.

The primary school of six or eight years in the Irish Free State is followed by a 4-year secondary course, which closes with the examination for the junior certificate, and from there the pupil may study two years more for the senior certificate that admits to the university. The general scheme in New Zealand is an 8-year elementary school and a 4-year high school, though the 6-3-3 plan is beginning to come into vogue.

From these detailed definitions—expressed formally in terms of years and in requirements for admission and graduation—may be selected three fairly well-marked types of secondary schools: The Latin-language country 6-year school, changed toward a longer course in France, Italy, and Rumania; the Germanic country 8 or 9 year school considerably modified in Scandinavia; and the English type defined in general terms with an implied time basis of 6 years divided into periods of 4 and 2 years, but setting the normal of achievement by classes of examinations rather than by number of years attended. The accounts to follow of the relation of the national ministry of education to the secondary schools are given with a view to presenting the conditions in two or three countries representing each type. The choice was influenced also by some important secondary school reforms that have been made in the past three years in several countries.

*Spain.*—The authority held by the ministry of public instruction and fine arts in Spain over secondary education is shown well in the reform of 1926. A royal decree of August 25, 1926, prepared by the ministry after consultation with the council of public instruction and approval by the council of ministers, outlines in general terms the organization of secondary education.

The plan is a 6-year school divided into two periods of three years each. The first period is devoted to general culture subjects and closes with the examination for the elementary baccalaureate (bachillerato elemental). The second has one year of general culture and two of specialization in either the sciences or letters leading to the university baccalaureate (bachillerato universitario). Admission to the secondary school is to children at least 10 years of age who pass an entrance examination given at the respective institutes they wish to enter by a board of five members consisting of three teachers of the institute, one from a national primary school, and a headmaster of a private school.

Article 17 of the decree reads:

The minister of public instruction and fine arts has authority to dictate any dispositions he deems necessary for the execution of this decree as well as the regulations for transition (to the new plan) and for fixing the programs of study.

This decree was followed by two others, one establishing uniform texts for the secondary schools, the second approving the provisional regulations for the examinations for secondary studies. To carry out the three decrees the ministry through its general direction of higher and secondary education issued in 1926 and 1927, 21 orders and circulars which deal in detail with the internal arrangements of the secondary schools. They fix the dates of opening and closing schools; list the subjects and the topics under each subject that are to be taught together with the hours per week to be given to each subject; establish permanencias<sup>14</sup> of students and direct closely how the Spanish language is to be taught in them; give the qualifications for special teachers; determine the classification of teachers, the corresponding salaries, and the awards for special work; arrange the duties of the economic councils of the schools; regulate the methods of conducting the admission examinations as well as those for each of the baccalaureates; and make provision for changing from the former plan of secondary education to that of 1926.

The mere existence of these orders and decrees is indicative of a school system almost entirely controlled by the central authority. The orders further that centralization. Lay participation is nowhere provided. The examinations are so arranged that each of the higher institutions selects its students from those presented by the lower.

The final examination for the university baccalaureate<sup>15</sup> is held at the university before a tribunal of five judges, three of whom are professors of the university selected by the rector on the nomination of the faculties from the faculties of philosophy and letters, and

<sup>14</sup> A form of group, supervised study.

<sup>15</sup> The reader will remember that this is an examination for admission to, not graduation from, the university.

law if the examination is for the baccalauréate in letters; from the faculties of medicine, sciences, or pharmacy if it is the baccalauréate in sciences. A professor of the institute from which the applicants come and a doctor or a licentiate in some profession, preferably one who is a part-time teacher in the university, complete the personnel of this examining board. Since the university faculties are practically parts of the ministry of education and the directors of the institutes are appointed by it and subordinate to the rectors of the university, the control of the ministry over this important examination is absolute. It is equally so over that for the elementary baccalauréate. Private secondary schools must send their pupils to the public-school examinations. The national government alone has the right to train for and grant degrees.

Secondary-school teachers are appointed by the ministry and drawn from persons who hold the master's or doctor's degree. Their salaries in all public schools are paid by the nation.

*Portugal.*—Decree No. 12:425, ratified on October 15, 1926, in Portugal, is another document that by its mere existence is ample evidence of full national control of secondary education. Entitled the "Statute of secondary instruction," it revoked five former decrees on the same subject and became effective on the date of ratification. It is divided into five chapters dealing, respectively, with the organization of the lyceus, the teaching personnel, the régime of studies, private and home education, and transitory measures.

The number of public lyceus for both boys and girls, and their location is fixed, as well as the conditions under which new lyceus may be established and any of those in operation closed. The rector of each is appointed for five years by the Government from a list of three names submitted by the school council. His hours of duty and his salary are set in the decree. The school council consists of the teaching staff, holds regular sessions; has as secretary one of their number appointed by the government and paid extra for the work, and may have autonomous administration of any property or funds given the school provided they are applied according to the legal requirements. The administrative council of the school is presided over by the rector and has four other members, two active and two substitute, chosen annually by the school council from its membership. It has a secretary and a treasurer and in general has control of the school property and funds.

The inspection of all secondary education both public and private is in charge of the council of inspection which is directly subordinate to the ministry of public instruction and composed of 12 members chosen by the government from the professors of the superior normal schools, the lyceus, and the universities. Briefly, its duties are to

see that the official programs are carried out; that the children are given proper moral and civic instruction; that suitable libraries, laboratories, gymnasiums, and playgrounds are provided; to instruct the personnel in pedagogical and disciplinary matters; and, in general, observe directly all the organization of the lyceu and its functioning. It may propose to the ministry disciplinary measures for unworthy conduct on the part of the teaching personnel.

The teaching personnel is divided rather singularly into nine groups according to subject matter taught by each: Portuguese and Latin; Portuguese and French; English and German; history and philosophy; geography and history; natural sciences; physico-chemical sciences; mathematics; and drawing. Admission to service and appointments to positions are made by the ministry, and salaries and general conditions of service are fixed by the decree.

The program of studies, by years, subjects, and hours per week is established as well as the grading scale, the scale of punishments of pupils, the details of the final examinations, the length and dates of the school year, the school holidays, methods of selecting class teachers, and the processes of admitting private pupils to the public examinations. The national government has the right assiduously and rigorously to superintend private secondary education in collegios, boarding schools, or private courses, and the instruction must be given by persons authorized by the government through an affirmative vote of the superior council of public instruction.

The diploma of graduation from the secondary school is a certificate of qualification for the examinations of admission to higher studies. This permits the holder to take at the university the entrance examinations before a jury composed of members of the faculty with which he wishes to study.

*Rumania.*—The present law of secondary instruction in Rumania passed the senate on April 5, 1928, and the house of deputies the following day. It was promulgated as Royal Decree No. 1308 on May 8, 1928. Prefaced by an exposition of motives of 235 pages over the signature of the minister of instruction, the law itself is brief, scarcely 60 pages, and a little more than half of it relates to the teachers, their certification, conditions of employment, salaries, and rights.

Secondary education is by the law organized on the plan of a 3-year gymnasium (*gimnaziu*), to which pupils that have completed the 4-year primary school are admitted, followed by a 4-year lyceum (*liceu*). Completion of the gymnasium course is evidenced by a certificate of absolution of the gymnasium (*certificat de absolvire a gimnaziului*); promotion to the last class of the lyceum is marked by the certificate of lyceal studies (*certificat de studii liceale*); while

graduation from the secondary school leads to the diploma of the baccalauréate (diplomă de bacalaureat).

Under the law the ministry of education intervenes in a number of special ways. The direction and general supervision of secondary instruction is under the charge of the nation and is exercised through the ministry of instruction. It may issue regulations to carry out the laws; shall provide the detailed programs of study; oversees the internal management of private schools; and may approve supplementary programs for any of them. No school may use any didactic material not approved by the ministry. The schools are generally separate for the sexes but the ministry may, with the approval of the permanent council, authorize mixed schools.

No school may be opened, no gymnasium changed to a lyceum, nor any new class division be established without the consent of the ministry. A regular or "theoretical" school may not be changed to a practical school without the approval of the ministry on the advice of the permanent council. Examinations for promotion from the gymnasium are given by an examining commission over which a delegate of the ministry presides. Those for graduation from the lyceum and winning the baccalauréate are formal affairs at which at least 200 candidates are expected to be present. The committee of seven members is made up of six teachers of the highest classes in the public lyceums under the presidency of a member of a university faculty. The baccalauréate is approved by the ministry and admits to the university. Diplomas granted by private secondary schools have no value unless the school has the "right of publicity," i. e., is examined and approved by some one or more of the ministry's inspectors. The permanent council may approve credentials earned in foreign countries.

As to its internal organization, each school is under a director chosen for five years by the ministry on the advice of the inspector of the district, and an assistant director chosen also by the ministry on the advice of the director. Each class has a directing professor whose duty is to care for that particular group during its career in the school. The entire faculty constitutes the school council. The ministry may appoint such other officers of the school as librarians, secretaries, accountants, etc., as it sees fit. The school may adopt regulations of organization subject to the ministry's approval.

A school committee presided over by the director and made up of members of the faculty has charge of the construction, maintenance, and repair of the school plant. It levies the school fees and attends to their accounting and disbursement, all under the ministerial supervision. Internats may be maintained as a part of the institution.

The teachers are public officials. Having once passed the examinations necessary to qualify and served a probational period of three years, they are known as definitive professors and may not be removed, demoted, or changed except by legal process. Their classifications and salaries are fixed by the law, and while the matter of their training and first certification and appointment is in the hands of the ministry, the later arrangements in regard to the work are so outlined in the law that the ministry has no wide scope of unrestrained authority in dealing with them.

Over the schools and all their management both external and internal the ministry has constant supervision through its corps of inspectors.

These three reforms in secondary education made recently are fairly representative of the control exercised by the national ministry of education over the secondary schools in all Latin-language countries. Generally in Latin America secondary education is specifically the business of the national government and is administered and maintained by it.

For countries that have been influenced greatly by the Germanic plan of secondary school training, Yugoslavia, Denmark, and Hungary serve as good examples.

*Yugoslavia.*—Secondary instruction is given in the 8-year gymnasias and real schools which admit children that have completed four years of primary training. These institutions are maintained almost entirely by national funds; in a few cases the larger districts and towns provide the buildings. They are under the control of the ministry through its section for secondary education which supervises the gymnasias and real schools, institutions for the preparation of teachers, and secondary schools assigned to the ministry.

Within the ministry is the higher education council made up of experienced educators, which gives advice on nearly any matter relating to education. At the close of each school year special inspectors chosen by the council visit each school, observe the classes, attend the examinations, and report to the ministry on all matters of instruction and administration. Inspectors of special subjects are sent out during the year.

The curricula are issued by the ministry; the textbooks are printed by the nation, and are uniform throughout the schools. At the close of each 4-year period of the secondary school, pupils are required to take an examination, written and oral, that is approved and conducted by a member of the ministry. The certificate of maturity gained by successful completion of the secondary course admits the holder to institutions of university rank.

Secondary teachers are trained in the universities. The general conditions of their employment are fixed by law.

*Denmark.*—Secondary education in Denmark began as a matter of private effort and private schools are still numerous but the National Government is taking an increasingly important part in it. The three types of school, classified by levels of instruction, are: (1) Middle schools which accept pupils who have completed four or five years of primary training and give them a 4-year course, which closes with a middle-school examination; (2) the real class of one year leading to the real examination; and (3) the gymnasia, which pupils enter from the middle school, and which in a 3-year course prepare them along any one of three lines—classical, modern language, or scientific—for the university. Graduation is determined through the students' examination given at the completion of the course.

The 34 national secondary schools are maintained by national funds and are entirely administered by the ministry of education. One hundred and sixty municipal and 127 private schools have upper classes that lead to one or more of the examinations already mentioned. The broad outlines of the curricula were fixed by a law of April 24, 1903, and within them the ministry arranges the detailed programs for the national schools and approves those of the municipal and private schools. All are subject to inspection by the ministry's officials.

All final examinations are conducted by the ministry through approved representatives. It prepares the questions for the written part of the tests. The standings and names of students are published officially, and the certificate gained at each examination gives the holder certain rights as to admission to national employments, the University of Copenhagen, etc.

The training and examination of secondary school teachers is in the hands of the ministry acting through its inspector of secondary education. Teachers in the gymnasia must complete their work in the University of Copenhagen with special courses in pedagogy, do practice teaching under an advisor, serve a probationary period, and pass a final examination before a committee, one member of which is the national inspector or his delegate. The qualifications for middle-school teachers are not so high, but they are equally under the control of the ministry. Teachers are civil servants, with their salaries and pensions fixed by law.

All the communal and most of the private secondary schools are given financial aid.

*Hungary.*—The Hungarian language is of Turanian origin. The grammar and vocabulary are so completely different from those of the Indo-Germanic languages that the Hungarians are almost iso-

lated by their language from other nations, but their school system is of the German pattern, bettered in many respects, and in its provision for the care of very small children far in advance of most of the other countries of the world.

The fundamental principles of secondary education were established in law 30 of 1883. The program of studies for each type of secondary schools for boys was fixed by decree No. 38.804/I-1926<sup>10</sup>; secondary schools for girls were created by reform law 24 of 1926 and their programs fixed by a decree of 1927. The three types for boys are gymnasia, real gymnasia, and real schools; those for girls are gymnasia, lyceums, and colleges. All give an 8-year course to which are admitted pupils about 10 years of age with four years of primary school training.

The control of education is highly centralized in the ministry of cults and public instruction. A superintendent appointed by the governor on the nomination of the minister has charge of education in each of the six districts into which the country is divided. Particularly he inspects the secondary schools of his district. In the public secondary schools he may instruct the staff on methods, administration, and the general upkeep of the school; in the private institutions he may only instruct on methods and report his impressions to the ministry.

The ministry issues the curricula and courses of study in detail, has close charge of the textbooks used, names the teachers, controls the final examinations by having the superintendent as president of the examining commission, and determines the issuance of the certificate of maturity.

Teachers in secondary schools are exclusively graduates of the universities. They are on the same salary scale as civil servants and are advanced in grade automatically.

The certificate of maturity from a secondary school admits the holder to an institution of university rank without further examination but for some years after the war the ministry of education had authority, on the recommendation of the faculties, to limit the number of full-time students admitted to university studies and to distribute the admissions according to the percentage of the various nationalities represented in the country.

The English-language countries that have national ministries of education may be exceptions, if there are any, to the general rule that the ministry of education controls secondary education much more closely than it does elementary education.

<sup>10</sup> Abel, J. F. The Programs of Study of the Hungarian Secondary Schools and Complete List of the Secondary Schools in Hungary Whose Graduates Are Admitted Without Examination to Hungarian Institutions of University Rank. Foreign Education Circular No. 12. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.



*Irish Free State.*—Doctor Corcoran, professor of education in the University College, Dublin, writes: <sup>17</sup>

Secondary schools are influenced by the state in a far less direct way (than elementary education is). No secondary school in the Free State was set up by public authority in the strict sense of the term. All these schools are thoroughly denominational in their origins and in their actual administration. But with hardly an exception, they have during the past 40 years taught secular subjects on state curricula, taken state examinations thereon, accepted state inspection and advice, and received state grants in aid to schools and state scholarships for pupils, . . .

All secondary teachers in the Irish Free State are in the private employment of secondary schools. A public register of secondary teachers, administered by state authority under the rules made conjointly by the Minister of Education and by a representative council, has existed since 1917. After the expiration of the transition facilities in 1925, no new applicant can be registered unless qualified by holding a university degree, a university certificate of training for education, requiring a year's work and practice beyond the degree course, and a definite amount of full teaching experience successfully obtained under inspection by state inspectors. . . .

The programs are now well adjusted so that the connection (between elementary and secondary education) is no matter of merely fitting the end of one to the beginning of the other. There is in effect a "spliced" unification. The last three years of the primary curriculum are substantially identical with the first three (11-14 years) of the secondary, and transit can take place at any age period. . . .

The total yearly charge is about \$1,500,000. Just one-half of that sum is paid to the schools, as capitation grants, laboratory grants, grants for special work in fully bilingual or purely Irish schools, and grants for chorus and orchestra work. Five hundred and eighty thousand dollars a year is paid to registered teachers; the balance is set down to examinations, inspectors, administration expenses, scholarships, and the costs of special summer courses for teachers.<sup>18</sup>

Doctor Corcoran's statements argue a high degree of national control of secondary education even though the schools are all privately managed. The ministry's regulations for the year 1927-28 indicate its nature. In brief, no school is considered to be a secondary school unless recognized by the ministry and that recognition depends on its compliance with the following conditions: (1) Maintain suitable premises; (2) employ a teaching staff legally qualified and sufficient in number; (3) offer a curriculum in the necessary subjects with a reasonable proportion of the students receiving instruction in each of those subjects; (4) keep attendance and record books in the manner prescribed and open to the ministry's inspectors; (5) permit the school to be inspected by the inspectors of the ministry; (6) hold such examinations as the ministry may require; and (7) furnish the ministry information about the teaching staff, copies of the time table,

<sup>17</sup> Irish Free State. In *Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926*. New York, Macmillan Co., 1927.

<sup>18</sup> The word "state" is used throughout this quotation as synonymous with "nation."

curricula, and syllabi of study, and a list of the pupils eligible to be regarded as recognized secondary pupils.

No new school is recognized until examined and approved by the ministry, and recognition may be withdrawn if for two successive years the number of recognized pupils who have made 130 attendances each is less than 12 or the instruction given in the school is deemed inefficient.

The age period of secondary education is 12 to 18, and the plan of organization is a junior 4-year course plus an advanced 2-year course. The curriculum of the former has a substantial core of obligatory subjects and closes with the intermediate certificate examination; the latter is intended to complete secondary education and fit the pupil to enter an institution of university standing. It leads to the leaving certificate granted on a final examination.

The ministry regulates the admission of primary pupils to the secondary schools, the issuance of intermediate and leaving certificates, as well as the conduct of the examinations for them, the examinations for university matriculation, the secondary school programs of study, the payments of all the different kinds of national grants, and the training and certification and minimum annual salaries of the teachers. The curricula are couched in somewhat general terms, and within them each school may arrange its own programs and syllabi, subject always to the approval of the ministry. On any question of the interpretation of the regulations the decision of the minister is final.

*New Zealand.*—Secondary education in New Zealand is open to children who have completed the eighth year (Standard VI) of the primary school. In 1928 it was given in 43 secondary schools, 79 district high schools with secondary departments, 21 technical high schools and technical day schools, 40 registered private secondary schools, 12 secondary schools for Maoris, and 2 junior high schools with third-year pupils. The total number of pupils enrolled was 26,980—about 10 per cent of that of the elementary school children.

For all the public secondary schools the department of education prescribes the curricula and courses of instruction; inspects them with its six inspectors chosen for that purpose; examines and classifies the teachers and fixes scales for their salaries; frames regulations for the award of free places enabling primary-school pupils to proceed to free secondary education; approves plans and allots grants for secondary-school buildings; and controls directly the schools for Maoris.

Most of the funds are provided by the National Government. A few secondary schools have endowments, but they are taken into account in distributing the national grant so that all the schools are

contribute considerable amounts to the technical schools, and if the purpose of the expenditure is approved the Government grants subsidy on it. Fees are few and small, and in any case are considered part of the grant. More than 90 per cent of the secondary pupils are on free places for at least three years. If the department then feels that they are worthy they may continue as free-place pupils for three years more, or until they are 19 years of age.

Twenty-five of the secondary schools were established by specific acts of the legislature and are controlled by the boards or governing bodies provided for in the acts of establishment, but in each case the board of education of the district may name one member of the governing body and the parents of the pupils shall elect two. Other secondary schools are established or disestablished by the minister of education on the advice of the council and subject to certain limitations, embodied in the law, in regard to number of pupils that may be or are enrolled. Each of these schools is controlled by a board of which the education board of the district appoints three members; the parents of the pupils elect three; the governor appoints two; and the committee of the nearest urban school district or the council of the nearest borough appoints one.

This board of education for the secondary school is a body corporate with power to purchase and hold property for school purposes and to sue or be sued. It must govern the school in accord with a scheme approved by the minister of education and that scheme shall define the courses of study, the respective powers of the board and the principal, the fees to be charged the pupils, the arrangements made for pupils living away from home, and must include any other provisions that the minister may direct. He may from time to time with the advice of the council require the board to modify its scheme with respect to courses of study.

Every district high school is managed by the committee of the school district. (See pp. 44 to 47 of Ch. V.) Technical high schools are institutions recognized as such by the minister of education, in which are given on five days in each week, before 6 o'clock in the afternoon, for at least 20 hours in each week and at least 36 weeks in each year, such vocational and technical courses as are prescribed. Each is managed by a board of managers made up of members selected by the controlling authority of the school, the committee of the urban school district, the parents of the pupils, the local authorities of the cities, boroughs, or counties any part of which is within 5 miles of the school, and the employers and employees in local industries.

Before any technical high school is recognized by the minister, the controlling authority must submit to him a statement of the qualifications of the teachers, the programs of work for each year in the

courses, the facilities for carrying on the work, the fees to be charged, the names of the managers and any other details the minister may prescribe.

Each secondary school must provide a course of study for not less than three or four years; each district high school or technical high school for not less than two or three years. Under the authority of the ministry of education the schools may issue intermediate, lower-leaving, and higher leaving certificates to pupils that have finished 2-year, 3-year, and 4-year courses, respectively. The schools must always be open to inspection by the ministry and such inspection may include examination of the pupils in the subjects of instruction. They must report annually to the minister on all matters for which he may ask statements.

*England and Wales.*—The reader will see in these arrangements for secondary education in the Irish Free State and in New Zealand, many similarities to the schemes carried out in England and Wales. The schools of Ireland were long managed by the English authorities and, of course, the settlers in New Zealand took with them their English ideas of education. Chapter VIII, which deals with the board of education of England, gives an idea of its relationship with secondary education.

## CHAPTER VII

### The Relation of the National Ministry to Higher Education

*Introduction.*—Ministries of education are decidedly youthful institutions when compared in age with the universities. In the countries we are considering, more than 200 schools give instruction on university levels to more than 400,000 students. About half the universities were founded before, many of them long before, the opening of the nineteenth century, but it was not until well toward the latter half of that century that ministries of education were beginning to be at all common as parts of the executive branch of the national governments. It would seem natural, then, that ministries of education should not have much control over the universities; first, because the university established before the ministry will have worked out its relationships with the Government without the intervention of the ministry; and, second, the university will be established firmly enough so that the younger organization, probably not so powerfully manned nor with its functions so well defined, can not easily take control of higher education. Such is the case in most parts of the British Commonwealth of Nations, the Scandinavian countries, and in a few cases in Latin America. It is not the condition of affairs in Spain, Italy, most of the Latin American countries, and most of the Slavonic nations.

What should be the relation of the university to the nation was a matter of discussion and controversy for 10 or more centuries. Just at present it is distinctly in the foreground of educational questions in a number of countries. We do not undertake to give the answer and within the limits of our subject we are justified in keeping this discussion to the comparatively small field of the relationship of the university to the national government as it is expressed through the ministry of education. It may be well to repeat here that in general if the ministry of education has any authority at all over institutions of university rank, the control will apply only to those of the professional, classical type and not to the higher technical institutions. The latter will be dependent on other ministries. There are exceptions, but this is the general rule. But the relationship existing between the ministry of education and the institutions for higher education is better understood if its based on some knowl-

edge of the present-day conceptions of the relation that does or should exist between the universities and their respective nations.

Several different kinds of that relationship can easily be distinguished: The almost absolute freedom from national control that the universities of England and Wales have; the almost absolute control of the universities that the Government of Spain has; the inclusion of the universities within the ministry of education as it is in France; and other less pronounced types in other countries.

For the British Commonwealth of Nations the situation can be expressed in no better way than by quoting some of the speakers at the Third Congress of the Universities of the Empire held in London in 1926. Professor Holme, from Sydney, Australia, speaking on the relation of the universities to the State (the word "State" was used throughout the discussion in the sense of "nation" or "government") under the four headings—initiation, recognition, support, and control—said in part.<sup>19</sup>

As a matter of fact the real initiation of universities has not been and should not be due to action by the State. What the State can properly do is to recognize something already existing that has grown up independently of State action. . . . If we ask what is the real origin of universities, they can not do better than to say with Topsy, one of the wisest persons that ever lived, "I 'spects I growed." . . .

The formal recognition of any institution and the grant of power of giving degrees should always be in the hands of the State. I think it would be a most unfortunate thing if any university were to have this power without express authority of the State which may and should lay down in its charters certain conditions with regard to the exercise of this power which is only subsidiary as a rule to the main purposes of a university. . . .

It is clear that our universities do now require some State support. . . . I trust, however, the universities will never be mainly dependent on State support. . . . Let us look to private benefactions supplemented by local support given by municipal authorities. . . .

On this heading (control) we can lay down the clear proposition that there must be no control whatever by the State over the universities in conducting their work. . . . Deputations representing modern universities asked (the Chancellor of the Exchequer) for a largely increased grant and no control. The official view appeared to be, "Shall we give all that money and have no control?" The universities did not hesitate nor attempt compromise, but distinctly said, "That is exactly what we do mean; no one but ourselves can have any idea how that money can be best spent from time to time. The doors are open, and if we make fools of ourselves you can take it away. Inspect freely, but there must be no control." The minister adopted that position subject to a very wise provision—"We should require that that money is to be spent for the development of the real work of the university and not for any fancy fads or mere luxuries."

<sup>19</sup> Congress of the Universities of the Empire (Third). Report of Proceedings. London, G. Bell & Sons (Ltd.), 1926.

To quote Professor Holme further :

But among the victories of British common-sense there still remains the British Government policy to support the universities, and to leave them free as they were in the days before the State controlled education.

Sir Theodore Morison, speaking on the same question, said :

When a university receives money from any source whatever, it is to a certain extent under an obligation, and there must be danger, whoever the benefactor may be, whether the State or a local authority, or even the individual millionaire, that the university's policy will be warped thereby. . . .

I feel quite sure that the only way is for the university to stand up courageously either to the State or to the local authority, or even to the benefactor, and tell him that the gift can only be accepted on condition that the university retains complete autonomy.

I do not believe that the doctrine will be found unacceptable, but the universities must have the courage to state it, and they must occasionally have the courage to refuse benefactions.

In those quotations is embodied the English view—a university that has or had its beginnings in private or local government effort given by the National Government power to grant degrees when it has shown itself to be a responsible body ; supported partly or even largely by the state, but still self-governing and autonomous. In that conception the universities of Great Britain now function and over them the ministry of education has no control. In two minor particulars the ministry may inquire into the character of certain courses that are offered. (See p. 97.) The universities of England, especially the older ones, are in some ways "states within the state." Many of them have their representatives in Parliament.

*The Union of South Africa.*—This conception of university freedom as expressed in making the institution a body corporate, giving it the right to grant degrees, allowing it full freedom in choice of personnel, and permitting it to arrange all the details of its professional work applies in the Union of South Africa even though the ministry of education there was established for no purpose other than to deal with matters of higher education.

At the formation of the union in 1910, the provinces retained control of education, exclusive of higher education, for a period of five years after the union and thereafter until Parliament should decide otherwise. Presumably then the union department of education may administer only higher education, but in the 19 years that have elapsed since its establishment its duties have been widened to include the administration of the children's protection act under which 7 industrial schools are maintained and mothers' pensions are granted; the control of 7 technical colleges; and the administration of all vocational education within the union, now given in 28 schools.

When the department was established its head office was rated as an undersecretaryship; in 1920 it became a secretaryship. In 1910 there was one university; in 1927 there were the three residential universities of Cape Town, Stellenbosch, and Witwatersrand, and the University of South Africa, with its six constituent colleges. The union budget estimate in 1927 for university education was £337,885.

Early in its career the department, in consultation with some of the provincial school authorities, arranged the limits of its work by defining higher education as "education beyond the standard of matriculation, or a standard considered by the minister as equivalent thereto which is carried on in an institution established under a special statute, and any extension or continuation courses carried on in connection with such an institution which the minister may approve, and courses for the training of teachers followed in institutions afterwards to be named."

Later a definition less theoretical and more practical, one couched in terms of the South African situation, was made in the financial relations act of 1922, as follows: (a) Education provided by universities and university colleges incorporated by law; (b) education provided by the South African Native College; (c) education provided by such technical institutions as the minister may declare to be places of higher education; (d) such part of the education provided by other technical institutions as the minister of education may, after consultation with the provincial administrations concerned, declare to be higher education; (e) any other education which, with the consent of the provincial administration concerned, the minister of education may declare to be higher education.

The University of South Africa is the most important of the higher institutions in the union. It includes Grey, Huguenot, Natal, Rhodes, Transvaal, and Potchefstroom University Colleges. Act No. 12 of 1916 provides that the university shall consist of a chancellor, a vice chancellor, a council, a senate, the convocation, and the principals, professors, and lecturers of the several constituent colleges of the university, and the students; and under the name of the University of South Africa is a body corporate, with perpetual succession, that may sue and be sued, acquire and alienate property, and perform such acts as bodies corporate may by law perform.

Under Act No. 12 and the statutes later adopted by it and approved by the Union Parliament the university is practically autonomous. The convocation consists of graduates of the university and members of the university senate. It has power to choose the chancellor, elect four members of the council, and discuss and state its opinion on any matter relating to the university. The council is made up of eight persons appointed by the Governor General of the Union, four elected by the convocation, one elected



by the council, and one elected by the senate of each constituent college, and one appointed by the administration of any territory outside the Union that may contribute to the university such funds as are prescribed by statute. The council is the main administrative body of the university with large control over appointments, property, and professional arrangements. The chancellor is chosen for life and is, of course, the representative of the institution before the Government and the public.

The ministry of education intervenes as advisor to the Governor General in the appointments of the council, has a representative on the joint matriculation board which conducts the matriculation examinations for all the universities, and to which the minister appoints representatives of private and public secondary schools in each province on the recommendation of the head of the education department of the Province concerned. The council of the university must transmit to the minister each year a report of its proceedings for the year. He is required to submit the reports to both houses of the Parliament.

The universities have power to grant such degrees as the statute prescribes, and to fix the regulations determining the acquirement of the degrees. Professional examinations for the right to practice certain professions are conducted by a joint committee of two representatives from each of the four universities and five members appointed by the Governor General. Over it the ministry has no authority other than to receive and publish its reports.

*Argentina.*—Argentina has no private universities because the diplomas granted by the five national institutions admit to the practice of the professions; those from private institutions would not. Efforts have been made to establish provincial universities but eventually the National Government took over the schools thus established. The national universities are largely autonomous.

The condition of the University of La Plata is fairly representative of all of them. By contract of August 2, 1905, it was taken over from the Province of Buenos Aires by the National Government and given the name of the "National University of La Plata." The contract was made effective by national law No. 4699 of the following September 19. The present statutes of the university date from April 20, 1926, and were issued by the president of the republic. The university is a juridical person with only one fund composed of all the moneys it receives, including those voted to it by the National Government. The university includes its faculties and institutes; the astronomical observatory, the museum, the Higher School of Fine Arts with the schools annexed to each of them, and the Greek Theater.

The responsible administrative authorities are the president and vice president of the university, and the superior council consisting of the president, the deans, and a titular professor from each teaching body in both the faculties and the institutes. The directors of the special schools and institutes attend when matters pertaining to their particular organizations are being considered. The general assembly of professors has considerable powers, including the election of the president for a 3-year term. All of the officials are chosen by the administrative teaching staff of the university, not by authorities outside of it. Both financial and professional matters are handled by the university itself, not by the ministry of public instruction. To it the president of the university reports annually; otherwise it has almost no authority over the institution.

*Spain.*—The 12 national universities of Spain, with the exception of that of Murcia and the university section of La Laguna, are very old. By law of September 9, 1857, the educational system of the country was organized; 12 university districts, one for each university, were created; and the schools, both public and private, were brought under the control of the government through the ministry of promotion (Ministerio de Fomento). Six faculties—philosophy and letters, exact sciences, pharmacy, medicine, law, and theology—were established. The faculties of theology were removed from the universities in 1858.

With the idea of giving the universities greater freedom, a reform was begun in 1924, and is expressed in royal decrees of June 9, 1924, August 25, 1926, and May 19, 1928; and royal orders of August 1, 1928, and August 23, 1929. The first of these made the universities juridical personalities; the second fixed the regulations for their financial affairs. That of May 19, 1928, was designed to allow the faculties liberty in pedagogic affairs and to set a minimum of work or standards which they must attain and beyond that to permit them to extend their teaching and investigation as much as they choose, to increase the funds, and to offer better salaries so that stronger men would be attracted to university positions. The introduction to the decree contains this paragraph:

This greater liberty in the pedagogical direction of the studies, which has been extended to the faculties is conditioned on the indispensable inspection and the necessary dependency on the central authority; for it would be unfortunate, after so many years of centralized uniformity and complete submission to the ministry, to leave all to the judgment of the universities. They should have an apprenticeship of liberty in order to exercise it profitably.

The law of May 19, 1928, expressly gives the ministry of public instruction and fine arts power to propose to the council of ministers the suppression in any university of any of the faculties or sections; approve as obligatory in the plan of studies of any faculty, or

courses recommended to it by the university; authorize persons not of the regular university staff to give courses, when it is recommended by the rector; permit exceptional students to complete courses in less than the regular number of years; approve the number of students to be admitted to the laboratories and seminars in each faculty; approve the programs of examinations and the passing marks; inspect all the pedagogic and economic services, the teaching personnel, and the administration of the universities; modify every five years the plans of study which constitute the minima of instruction offered by any faculty; correct any faults in the actual teaching that are reported to it; and dictate the regulations necessary to make the law effective.

As to academic freedom the law states:

ART. 73. Professors will enjoy full pedagogic liberty in the fulfillment of their teaching functions for the exposition, analysis and criticism of doctrines, theories and opinions, and for the choice of methods and sources of knowledge; but they may not attack the basic social principles that are fundamental to the constitution of the country, nor the form of government, nor the powers, nor authorities; punishment for infractions of this precept may be given administratively by the academic authorities or even the courts of justice, according to the nature or gravity of the case.

ART. 74. The rectors, and in every case the minister of public instruction, will have power to suspend any of the courses of type b or c (letters or history) when because of their content or the form of their development occasion is given for any of the infractions pointed out in the previous article.

The brief royal decree of June 9, 1924, which is expected to confer considerable freedom on the universities provides: (a) That there is recognized in the universities of the kingdom and in the faculties the character of a corporation for public interest and juridical personalities with power to acquire property and hold and administer it, but (b) universities and faculties must in each case be authorized by the ministry of public instruction and fine arts to acquire property, and (c) the university authorities must report to the ministry all uses of its own funds and property, entirely separate from the reports for those funds given by the National Government.

Decree of August 25, 1926, was designed to bring about greater lay participation and public interest in the management of the universities. By its terms each national university is to have a board of trustees (Patronato de la Universidad) which forms a university council consisting of the rector who is the presiding officer, the vice rector, the deans of the various faculties, the directors of the secondary schools in the city in which the university is located, the prelates of the dioceses, the presidents of the provincial assemblies, the mayor of the capital, the president of the territorial court, a doctor from each province of the university district, a graduate of

the previous year from each faculty, and persons who have made donations to the university.

The council receives and estimates all properties and incomes; proposes schemes for bettering the university; inspects the work of the larger colleges; informs the National Government as to the regulations of the institution and of its budget; and approves the annual report of the committee of government (*junta de gobierno*). The committee is the smaller active body that carries out the policies of the council.

How far this attempt at bringing the universities more closely in contact with the people in Spain is succeeding is uncertain. The paragraph quoted from the introduction to the decree of May 19, 1928, indicates that the ministry of public instruction is still in full control of the institutions and that the local authorities and the people have no vital hold on them.

*Peru.*—The exposition of motives for the university statutes issued by the Minister of Education Pedro M. Oliveira of Peru as justification of the supreme decree of July 23, 1928, which regulated higher public education, expresses a situation like that in Spain. The minister in his exposition reviewed the history of the universities of Peru and summed it up that they were founded by the nation, had always been maintained by it and had always been regulated by it.

He writes:<sup>20</sup>

From all this explanation, it may be deduced that our universities are public establishments, erected, maintained and regulated by the State. In Peru, as in other countries, education is a function of the State. The State is not a mere guardian of the law, but the regulator and director of all the social life; and in that conception all degrees of education fall within the sphere of its influence. One article of our political charter says: "The State will diffuse higher education and promote establishments of sciences, arts, and letters." The ordered existence of that is necessary to the State: Therefore, the Government, the organ of the State, may not be indifferent as to whether there is one measure or another which does or does not respond to its social aspirations, which has or does not have the means for realizing its ends.

Well then, universities that find themselves in this condition, that are establishments of the State, that fulfill a function of State, may not be independent of it. The Argentine Professor Rivarola says it is difficult to separate these two concepts, the university and the State, when one is discussing universities existing by the law which created or recognized them. He concludes that the idea favored in other times that a law may give to a university freedom from all authority of the public powers, should be abandoned.

We do not wish to say by that that the university should be completely absorbed by the State. Education is a public service, but by its special nature it has need of certain autonomy. For services of a spiritual kind it is indispensable to say, "an organization which within certain limits, develops itself,

<sup>20</sup> Oliveira, Pedro M. Texto íntegro de la exposición de motivos del estatuto universitario. En el Boletín de Enseñanza. Año V, Noviembre de 1928. No. XLIII. Impreso en los talleres de "La Revista." Lima, 1928.

works and subsists by itself." The universities that are scientific establishments are of that order. For things of an intellectual nature they should have liberty. . . .

The fruits of the Peruvian university régime suggest the necessity of modifying it, substituting for it something else which is as far from the university dependent directly on the Ministry of Public Instruction as it is from the university wholly free or autonomous.

The new university statute which Minister Oliveira was defending begins:

ARTICLE 1. Official higher education is given in the national universities of San Marcos of Lima, Arequipa, Cuzco, and Trujillo, and in the higher schools and institutes.

Only by law may new official universities be created.

ART. 2. The supreme inspection of the universities belongs to the minister of education, assisted by the national council of university instruction.

ART. 3. The official universities will confer in the name of the nation, the academic degrees and titles which fit for the practice of the professions.

ART. 4. The official universities and their faculties are juridical persons in public law and enjoy pedagogic, administrative, and economic autonomy within the limits fixed by this statute.

ART. 5. The universities can not carry on or authorize work foreign to their proper purposes.

In short, universities in Peru are creatures of the nation; they are subject to its inspection through the ministry of education; they confer only those degrees that the nation gives them a right to confer; they have only such autonomy as it grants them; and they must confine their activities to those that the nation deems proper.

The Government control of the universities is exercised by a national council of university instruction composed of the minister of education, who is its president, four delegates appointed by the Government, and a delegate elected by each public university. The Government delegates must hold university degrees or be preeminent in the sciences, letters, or the exercise of the liberal professions; must have no teaching or administrative position in the universities; and be free of any political activities. They are appointed for two years with the right of reappointment.

In general the duty of the council is to see that the laws and regulations relating to the universities are obeyed and to decide questions raised by their application. Specifically, it supervises the handling of all the property and incomes of the universities, approves their budgets, sees to it that the national budget contains the amounts necessary for higher education, appoints the treasurers, and approves the accounts. On the personnel side, it appoints the rectors and all the other members of the professional staff, fixes their salaries, receives their resignations, hears complaints about them, and may suspend or dismiss any of them for cause. It may propose to the

Government the temporary closing of any university, faculty, or institute, or the suppression of any courses because of serious breaches of discipline; decide on the creation of new faculties, schools, or institutes; dictate all measures to assure the proper functioning of the universities in abnormal times; promote and regulate free teaching and inspect any private universities or faculties. Without its approval, no student may be finally expelled from a university.

By the terms of such a statute the authority of the National Government over the universities is almost absolute. The part which the ministry of education plays in the use of that authority is dependent on the influence which the minister wields as president of the council. Presumably it will be great.

*Hungary.*—Hungary lost two of its universities at the close of the World War and the remaining two were so depleted of their own special property and incomes that they became greatly dependent on the National Government for support and because of that lost some of the autonomy they had formerly enjoyed. It is now limited to the management of academic affairs only. The National Government is building two other institutions, the Elizabeth University at Pécs and the Francis Joseph University in Szeged to take the places of the two that were lost.

Each university elects its own rector for a 1-year term from each faculty in rotation and he with the prorector, the deans, and the prodeans all elected by the members of the faculties make up the university council. The administrative officials are appointed by the rector; the assistants of the professors, the clinical demonstrators, etc., by the faculties. Professors are appointed by the executive with the approval of the ministry. The curricula may be prescribed by the ministry; in reality they are determined largely by the faculties. Diplomas of graduation are conferred by the universities but the ministry may have representation on the examining boards.

*Finland.*—Turku Academy, founded in 1640 and moved from Turku to Helsingfors in 1828, was the first institution for higher education in Finland and is still the only national university. It was early organized in accordance with the plan of Uppsala University in Sweden, a plan by which the university has the right to nominate for appointment its own chancellor and a consistory of the professors was chief body in administrative affairs. It held this status even during the Russian rule of Finland, the senate had little control of any of its affairs other than financial matters and even in those the university had much independence.

The constitution of present-day Finland provides that statutes shall regulate the organization of the university and regulations making the statutes effective may be issued as ordinances. The statutes were enacted in 1923; the administrative ordinance was

issued in 1924. The institution is not directly subordinate to the ministry of education. The chancellor of the university is its chief authority and the consistory has the right to submit nominations for the office to the President of the Republic. The President appoints professors also and his action is taken in the councils of state on the recommendation of the minister of education, but the chancellor must be present when matters concerning the university are being discussed and the opinion of the consistory is first consulted.

*France and Mexico.*—The status of the universities in France is told of in Chapter IX; the attempt made in July of 1929 to give the University of Mexico much greater autonomy than it formerly had, is recounted in Chapter X.

## CHAPTER VIII

### The Board of Education of England and Wales

*General character.*—The board of education of England and Wales is one of the younger and among the stronger, more vigorous and more versatile of the national ministries of education. Limited in its areal jurisdiction to only a part of the British Isles and in kinds of education, generally to public elementary, secondary, and teacher-training instruction and bound by the English tradition of local responsibility for local affairs, it carries on its activities through an arrangement that closely resembles a partnership with local educational authorities and wields its influence by control of the disposition of national funds for education and by the high standards of its professional personnel.

In its handling of funds and the determination of their use by inspection and in its management of the Royal College of Art, the Victoria and Albert Museum, and the Science Museum it is an administrative body. In the issuance of its grant and other regulations its powers are legislative. In its relations to Parliament, the colonial office, the health office and certain aspects of its dealings with the local authorities it is an advisory organization. Through its various consultative committees and its office of special reports and inquiries it ranks among the best of the national educational research bodies in any country.

*Legal status.*—The board of education act, 1899 (62 and 63 Vict. Ch. 33), creating the board of education of England and Wales, is brief. To quote a few of the more important sections:

I. (1) There shall be established a board of education charged with the superintendence of matters relating to education in England and Wales.

(2) The board shall consist of a president; and of the lord president of the council (unless he is appointed president of the board). Her Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State, the First Commissioner of Her Majesty's Treasury, and the Chancellor of Her Majesty's Exchequer. . .

(4) The president of the board shall be appointed by Her Majesty and shall hold office during Her Majesty's pleasure.

(5) The board shall be deemed to be established on the appointment of the president thereof.<sup>21</sup>

3. (1) The board of education may by their officers, or, after taking the advice of the consultative committee hereinafter mentioned, by any university

<sup>21</sup> The date of the first appointment was Mar. 3, 1900.



or other organization, inspect any school supplying secondary education and desiring to be so inspected, for the purpose of ascertaining the character of the teaching in the school and the nature of the provisions made for the teaching and the health of the scholars, and may so inspect the school on such terms as may be fixed by the board of education with the consent of the treasury . . .

(2) The council of any county or county borough may, out of any money applicable for the purposes of technical education, pay or contribute to the expenses of inspecting under this section any school within their county or borough. . . .

6. (1) The board of education may appoint such secretaries, and servants as the board may, with the sanction of the treasury, etc . . .

8. (1) The office of president of the board shall not render the person holding it incapable of being elected to, or of voting in, the Commons House of Parliament, . . .

The act abolished the education department and gave the Crown authority by orders in council to transfer to the board of education any of the powers relating to education that had theretofore been exercised by the charity commissioners and the board of agriculture. Its effect was to centralize national participation, as far as there was any, in general education in the one newly created ministry, and established as an advisory body, the consultative committee.<sup>22</sup>

The final authority of the board lies in section 150 of the act of 1921. It reads:

If the local education authority fail to fulfill any of their duties under this act, or fail to provide such additional public-school accommodation as is, in the opinion of the board of education, necessary in any part of their area, the board of education may, after holding a public inquiry, make such order as they think necessary or proper for the purpose of compelling the authority to fulfill their duty, and any such order may be enforced by mandamus.

The mandamus is seldom or never used and a former permanent secretary of the board wrote of it as a "rusty and cumbrous instrument."

*Later enactments.*—Following the act of 1899, that of 1902 substituted 318 local education authorities for 2,568 school boards and 14,238 bodies of voluntary school managers with which the board of education should transact business. A special act for the city of London was passed in 1903. The administrative powers of the board were further defined in acts of 1907 and 1909 and these included the provision of meals and medical treatment of school children. The ideal of a national system of schools along broad and generous lines was first outlined in the act of 1918, a system to be organized and administered by national authorities with the right of control in the authorities for each local area. The plan includes nursery, compulsory continuation; and central schools; health, recreation, and

<sup>22</sup> For further discussion see p. 22.

social training as well as theoretical and practical instruction; and funds to be spent in the encouragement of research. Previous legislation was consolidated in the education act, 1921, now in effect, and we have to deal with the condition of affairs as it is expressed in and carried out through that act.

*Duties of administration.*—For purposes of elementary education England and Wales are divided into 62 administrative counties, including London; 83 county boroughs; and 173 other units consisting of urban districts with a population of more than 20,000 and boroughs with a population of more than 10,000. These divisions correspond to the civil administrative divisions and education is in the hands of the civil authorities, the respective councils. For higher education (other than elementary) the council of the county or of the county borough is the local authority.

The line of demarcation between the board of education as a ministry and the local authorities as administrators of education within their respective areas is sharp and clearly defined. With one exception, the Royal College of Art, no school is an integral part of the ministry.

*Powers of local authorities.*—In English local government, local authorities can do only what they are empowered or mandated by statute to do. Each council must carry out its education activities through an education committee or committees constituted in accordance with the act, and to the council may delegate full authority, except to raise a tax or borrow money.

Summarized briefly, the statutory powers and duties of the councils are to:

- (1) Contribute to the establishment of a national system of public education by providing for the progressive development and comprehensive organization of education in respect of their area.
- (2) Maintain and keep efficient all public elementary schools within their area which are necessary and have control of all expenditures required for that purpose.
- (3) Supply everything necessary for the efficiency of the schools provided by them.
- (4) Make provisions for practical instruction suited to the ages, abilities, and requirements of the children, and organize courses of advanced instruction for the older and more intelligent children, including those who attend beyond the age of 14.
- (5) Supply or aid in supplying nursery schools for children over 2 and under 5 years of age.
- (6) Provide or assist voluntary agencies in providing vacation schools and classes, play centers, and other means of recreation during holidays or other times.
- (7) Arrange for board and lodging of pupils not in position to attend a school near their place of residence and in some cases provide pupil transportation to and from school.

(8) Aid pupils from the age of 12 to the limit of the compulsory education act by bursaries or scholarships.

(9) Authorize the instruction of children to the end of the school term in which they reach the age of 16.

(10) Make arrangements with the managers of any schools provided by agencies other than the council to furnish the educational facilities that would under the law be required of provided schools.

(11) Complain before a court of summary jurisdiction of any parents that are not causing their children between the ages of 5 or 6 and 14 to have efficient elementary instruction.

(12) Make and enforce by-laws regarding the attendance of children at school.

(13) Provide proper educational facilities for blind, deaf, defective, and epileptic children.

(14) Supply or aid the supply of higher (other than elementary) education, including the training of teachers and the payment of scholarships and fees of students.

(15) Establish and maintain a sufficient supply of efficient continuation schools.

(16) Make such adequate arrangements as may be sanctioned by the ministry of health for attending to the health and physical condition of the children.

(17) Take such steps as they deem fit for providing meals for children in attendance at public elementary schools.

(18) Make and enforce by-laws, within the terms of the statutes, in regard to the employment of children and young persons.

(19) Purchase or take on lease any land or any right over land.

(20) Appoint and remove any necessary officers, including teachers, and assign to them such salaries or remuneration the authority deems fit.

Each provided school is under a body of managers appointed by the council to deal with such matters as may be committed to it by the local education authority. Managers of nonprovided schools are selected in accordance with the terms of the trust deed of the school or an order of the board of education.

In brief, the responsibility for the provision, maintenance, and administration of education in England and Wales lies in the larger local administrative units. Between them and the board of education is no intermediary authority; the contact is direct and, since the board is the only body between the local authorities and Parliament, appeal to the latter is easily made.

The local authorities can not legally do some things without the approval of the board. These relate to such matters as the establishment of new schools, the discontinuance or changing the sites of existing schools, grouping nonprovided schools under a single board of managers, transfer, or union of authority between two or more councils, extending the compulsory education age, making by-laws for school attendance, constituting the education committees of the councils, making arrangements for blind, deaf, and defective chil-

dren, and making provision for higher (other than elementary) education.

*Powers of the board.*—The board of education never meets; the work is carried on by its president and his staff. Its influence over the local authorities is great and is held principally because the national government contributes to elementary education about £32,750,000 annually and the board has power to reduce or withhold the grants if not satisfied with the educational provision for which those grants are intended. For the elementary schools the grant is never less than 50 per cent and averages about 56 per cent of the total expenditure of the authorities; for the secondary and similar schools it is 50 per cent of the net expenditure. This financial lever in the hands of the board is a very powerful instrument.

The former permanent secretary wrote: "The board's power to get things done, to get them done well, or prevent their being done in the service of education rests mainly and in the last resort on the power of the purse, exercised by way of stimulus or penalty."

In one of its recent memoranda the board states: <sup>23</sup>

The board endeavor to avoid excessive minuteness of central administration not only because it is costly, but because it destroys the sense of responsibility in the local authorities. . . .

The powers of financial control given to the board by a system of grant based on recognition of expenditure are so strong as to be capable, in theory, of destroying the responsibility of the local education authority. . . .

Occasionally questions may be put in the House of Commons which by implication advocate a greater minuteness of control by the board than exists in practice. . . .

In practice the board find themselves able to resist any such pressure to interfere in matters of expenditure which involve no question of important principle or financial moment. The board consider that reasonable financial criticism may be applied to the expenditure of local authorities without injury to their sense of responsibility; and without interference in petty detail.

Here is a frank admission by the board that it can entirely control elementary and secondary education in England and Wales by the use of the grant system, that the attitude of the board itself prevents such control and that the board finds it necessary to resist attempts to force authority upon it.

*The inspectorate.*—The board's chief contact with the schools is through its inspectorate. They number about 340 and are the board's "eyes and ears." Inspection has its primary justification in supervising and safeguarding the expenditure of public money but the inspectorate of England and Wales has long passed the stage of merely checking the use of funds. The inspectors are carefully selected for

<sup>23</sup> Great Britain. Board of Education. Memorandum with Regard to the Existing Grant System. Command Paper 2571. London, H. M. Stationery Office, 1926.

training, experience, and good judgment and are now constructive agents generally working for the betterment of education. They visit the schools, question the pupils, advise with the teachers and the authorities, attend conferences, and may themselves call and hold meetings. In secondary education the full inspection amounting to a survey of some school or group of schools is common. This lasts for several days, is conducted by several persons, includes all phases of the provision for education in that particular instance, and is generally applied to any one situation not more frequently than once in two or three years. Schools inspected and found "not inefficient" are included in the board's published list of efficient institutions.

*Provision of national funds.*—As to the part which the board plays in fixing the annual national expenditure on education, in consultation with the treasury, it makes the estimates each year and they form a part of the national budget, which is laid before Parliament and requires the consent of Parliament. The president of the board as a member of the House of Commons, may be and usually is called upon to explain or defend the education estimates.

*The board's regulations.*—The Parliament of England customarily frames its laws in general terms and leaves them to be made effective by "Orders in Council" or by departmental orders, rules, and regulations. The national funds having been voted, the board has wide powers in their distribution and its regulations in that regard, laid before Parliament shortly after they are made, have the effect of statutes.

One of the main steps in the practical working out of the financial relationship between the board and the local authorities is the requirement that each authority shall make out a statement of a scheme showing the amount and kind of education that will be furnished for a definite term of years<sup>24</sup> and the expenditure that will be made on it. During that term if changes need be made an amending scheme may be presented. If the board feels that the scheme is inadequate and it is unable to agree with the authority as to the changes that should be made, the board shall try to hold a conference with representatives of the authority and must, if the authority requests it, hold a public inquiry into the matter. If the board still disapproves it must lay before Parliament the report of the inquiry together with a statement of any action it intends to take in the way of reducing or withholding grants payable to the authority.

*The curricula of the schools.*—The curricula of the provided elementary and secondary schools as well as the training courses for

<sup>24</sup>The later requests of the board are for a 3-year scheme from Apr. 1, 1927, and one from 1930 to 1933.

teachers are fixed by the regulations of the board. In the earlier years of the board these were issued in considerable detail; those of 1926 are very brief and framed along broad lines with the intention of giving local authorities much freedom in arrangements for provision of education, the curricula, the daily programs, and the general methods of teaching. The plan is being justified on the ground that the progress of education has been so great in the past 25 years that regulation by the central authority is becoming more and more unnecessary. The board neither issues nor selects any of the textbooks used in the schools though it may criticise the use of texts that impair the efficiency of the instruction.

*The board's control of teacher training.*—During the 90 years or more that the English Government has participated in education, it has held closer control and supervision of the training of elementary school teachers than of any other education service. It has contributed a large share of the funds to maintain the training colleges, offered scholarships, set out regulations for the courses, held the qualifying examinations, until recently has approved all appointments to the instructional staffs of the training colleges, inspected their work frequently and carefully, and prescribed the qualifications for teachers in the elementary schools. It does not fix the qualifications for teachers in the schools and institutions of higher education including the secondary schools.

By draft regulations dated June 1, 1926, the board made considerable changes in its relation to the training of elementary teachers. It recommended that the requirement for admission to a training college be raised gradually to graduation from a secondary school; that pupil teacherships be discontinued; and that aid for intending teachers be merged in the general system of aid to pupils and students. The differences in administrative treatment between elementary and secondary training colleges and between university-training departments and other training colleges were dispensed with, and the board decided to discontinue its certificate examination in 1928 and 1929 leaving it to the training colleges to devise the machinery and technique of determining the fitness of candidates for the teaching profession. It also gave up in a measure its function of adjusting the supply of teachers to the demand.

*Employment and qualification of teachers.*—Local authorities employ the teachers. For the first engagement in an elementary school the teacher must be recognized by the board as suitable for employment in a certain grade. The board requires that employment be by written contract and protects the teachers against being compelled to carry on educational work outside of their regular duties or to be interfered with in carrying on any activities without the school

that are not detrimental to the performance of their school work. The board has power to revoke its recognition of a teacher after having informed her of the reasons for the proposed action and giving her an opportunity to be heard on the subject. In all the grant-aided schools if the teaching service is unsatisfactory the board may protest and if no improvement follows, reduce, or withdraw the grant.

*Fixing teachers' salaries.*—The teachers are strongly organized and the local education authorities also have their associations. In fixing salaries the plan of collective bargaining was frankly used. The board intervenes only in respect to the quality of the teaching as it is affected by the salaries, and the relation of the payment of teachers to the grants and their percentage of the local expenditure. Disputes over salaries were so frequent in the period following the war that in 1918 the president of the board acting as a mediating agency called a series of conferences between the teachers' and local authorities' associations which resulted in 1919 in the creation of a standing joint committee to attempt a solution of the entire salary problem in all the public elementary and secondary schools. Lord Burnham was chosen chairman and this and similar committees known as the "Burnham committees," adopted salary scales that were accepted by both teachers and authorities and were applicable under the grant regulations. The board had no direct authority to compel the use of the scales but it accepted them for the purpose of paying grants on the expenditure involved and arranged the grant so that no authority would profit by paying salaries lower than those of the scales. Practically all of the authorities accepted the scales. The present Burnham award is for six years from April, 1925, and thereafter from year to year subject to a notice of one year from either panel of the joint committees. The board administers the acts providing for the superannuation of teachers.

*The board's relation to the universities.*—The universities of England have since their origin been independent of national control. Institutions of university rank receive their charters from the privy council. Many of them are given subsidies from national funds but these grants are administered by the university grants committee, a body that has no connection with the board though both it and the privy council avail themselves at times of the advice and assistance of the board. Parts of some of the institutions provide instruction that is recognized by the board under its regulations for the training of teachers, for types of technical education, and for certain phases of adult education. Such work is regularly subject to inspection by the board's inspectors and grants are paid for it.

The board also awards scholarships tenable at the institutions of university rank and it must be satisfied that the courses taken by these scholars are suitable.

*Examinations.*—Some of the universities of England, particularly Oxford and Cambridge, and various chartered professional bodies in law, medicine, accounting, pharmacy, etc., have long had examining powers in the way of conducting examinations both on higher and secondary education levels to determine the fitness of pupils for admission to university or to professional training and to practice in the professions. Oxford and Cambridge hold local examinations to which applicants come of their own volition, in most of the colonial areas of the empire. A correlating agency was necessary to bring about a reasonable equality of standard in the many different examinations and in 1917 a secondary schools examinations council was created of members appointed on the nomination of the universities, the associations of local education authorities, and the teachers' registration council. This body has some executive powers and conducts on the board's behalf all ordinary business, correspondence, and conferences connected with the coordination of examination. By its advice the board now recognizes only 8 examining bodies for secondary schools. It is directed to consult the board on all important questions of principle or policy. Licenses for admission to the practice of a profession are not within the control of the board except for this check on secondary-school examinations.

*Private schools.*—Provided schools and nonprovided schools exist side by side and the local authorities are responsible for both. The former are built, maintained, and managed by the local education authorities; the latter by private agencies. Over the nonprovided schools the board has no authority other than to require such reports as it desires. Nonprovided secondary and preparatory schools may ask to be inspected by the board's inspectors. In that case, a school found efficient is included in the official list. If the local authority believes a nonprovided school to be ineffective, it may threaten to prosecute the parents of the pupils for not providing proper education for their children and in that way can indirectly influence the school. Religious instruction distinctive of any particular denomination may not be given in the provided schools; its character in the nonprovided schools is determined by the board of managers of that particular institution.

The local authorities may, in the process of providing suitable education within their respective areas, either contract with or take over nonprovided schools. In case of contract the managers of the nonprovided schools must furnish the buildings; the authority has



power only to make good any damage due to fair wear and tear on the buildings. The board passes upon the adequacy of school premises, and in two general surveys of school buildings, 1907-8 and 1924-25, found many of them, especially in the nonprovided schools, very unsatisfactory. The board's exaction of better premises has the effect to some extent of forcing the nonprovided schools, that have trouble raising the money to recondition old buildings or erect new ones, to be transferred to the local authorities and become provided schools.

*Technical education.*—The technological branch of the board cooperates with the various examining bodies in technical fields that award certificates as a result of examination, organizes and supervises training suitable for many different industries, organizes and conducts short courses for teachers of technical subjects, and deals with a great mass of miscellaneous education provided in continuation, junior technical, and trade schools and schools for adults.

*Child health.*—The medical branch does most of its work in the field of elementary education through its staff of medical officers and inspectors of physical training. The chief medical officer reports annually to the board on the progress of the work of the branch. It works in close cooperation with the ministry of health, which has charge of the medical inspection and treatment of school children. That ministry (health) has further responsibilities in education in that it passes upon projects of local authorities to borrow money and issue bonds for school purposes, and audits the expenditures of the local education authorities. The board issues those national grants that are calculated on expenditure, according to that audit.

*Organization.*—The staff of the board in 1926 was 2,467 persons. The president is entirely responsible for its administration. He has a parliamentary secretary who, like him, may sit and vote in the House of Commons. The regular work is carried on under the direction of the permanent secretary, whose responsibility is direct to the president. The Welsh department has a permanent secretary of its own and in many respects is a separate organization parallel to that for the schools of England.

The organization is a mixture of classification by branches of education and territorial areas. Three principal assistant secretaries, each with an assistant secretary, are assigned, respectively, to elementary schools, secondary schools, and technical and continuation schools. For the administration of these three branches England is divided into seven areas, each with its principals and assistant principals, and these take charge of the work of all three branches. The purpose of the arrangement is to have an officer of the board

acquainted with the provision for education of all kinds in any given area. A question as to any specific branch he can refer to the proper assistant secretary.

The inspectorate also is organized into elementary, secondary, and technical, each with a chief inspector, and one of the three is senior chief inspector, responsible for the entire inspectorate. To the senior chief report also the inspectors of training colleges and art schools and the chief woman inspector. Below these are groups of divisional inspectors assigned to definite areas. The assistant and district inspectors are grouped by subjects of education within their areas. A body of staff inspectors is available for the investigation of special problems or special aspects of education. Wales has a separate inspectorate under two divisional chiefs, though certain functions in regard to training teachers, higher technical work, art and music, and school medical service are intrusted to the English inspectors.

Three general divisions—finance, medical, and legal—cover the entire field of the board's work. The finance division is responsible for the board's estimates and the computations of the grants to local authorities. The post is important, since it involves the accounting for 50 millions or more of pounds annually. The legal division is the advisor in all matters of law and prepares legislative measures. Medical inspection and treatment of school children are under the ministry of health, but the chief medical officer of that ministry is also chief medical officer for the board, and the two ministries work in close cooperation.

An establishment division deals generally with the organization of the board's staff, especially the members, numbering about 1,200, that are below the administrative grade.

*Advisory bodies.*—Aiding the board are a number of advisory bodies. The most important of these—the consultative committee—has already been described. The juvenile organizations committee of 28 persons, qualified to represent all kinds of social and recreational organizations, is an active body for promoting and organizing voluntary effort to help out the national system of schools. The adult education committee, consisting of representatives of the universities, the principal voluntary organizations, and the three associations of local education authorities, together with personal appointees of the president of the board, acts as advisor to the board, cooperates with the local authorities, prepares publications, and generally promotes liberal education for adults.

Among other bodies advisory to the board are the Burnham committees and the secondary schools examinations council both of which have been noted. (See pp. 97 and 98.)

*Research.*—The office of special inquiries and reports collects from all sources information relating to education. Its special reports, a series of 28 volumes issued before the War, have been followed by a series of valuable educational pamphlets. This office also maintains the board's relationships with the colonial office; assists in selecting teachers for particular positions in the crown colonies; is the board's foreign correspondent; arranges the exchange of teachers of modern languages with France; and has much to do with making and carrying out the plans for the periodical meetings of the imperial education conference.

*Statistical measures of the board's responsibility.*—With respect to population the board of education has a responsibility that ranks third in size of those devolving upon national ministries of education. The ministries of China and Japan must deal with larger numbers of people. The 318 administrative units had in 1921 a population of 37,886,699. The school system is unilingual with the exception of some areas in Wales, and toward bilingualism there the board has adopted the broad-minded attitude of inquiring into how the Welsh language and literature may be preserved.<sup>25</sup>

The public and other elementary schools, including nursery schools and certified schools for defective children, had on their registers in 1925-26 an average number of 5,677,075 pupils. The secondary and preparatory schools on the board's efficient list, including grant-aided schools with 360,503 pupils and 19,640 teachers, registered a total of 426,408 pupils. The attendance at various kinds of technical training schools, classes, and courses amounted to 858,212.

Adult education has been carried on in England since 1750. Extramural and similar courses supervised by universities and university colleges, other than university extension and vacation courses, enrolled in preparatory, 3-year tutorial, and advanced tutorial classes in 1925-26, 7,736 students qualified for grant. Part-time courses other than vacation courses, directed by approved associations for adult education, were attended by 8,305 grant-qualifying students. Besides these, 2,467 adult students were in university extension and vacation courses and in residential colleges. All of these come under the purview of the board and are governed by its regulations that took effect August 1, 1924. The work is arranged to provide a progressive liberal education for adults, is inspected and given fairly liberal grants.

*Expenditures.*—The estimates of national expenditures to be made for education and within the administration of the board call for

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<sup>25</sup> Great Britain. Board of Education. Committee on the Welsh Language in the Educational System of Wales. *Welsh in Education and Life*. London, H. M. Stationery Office, 1927.

£41,649,899 for the year ending March 31, 1930. The greater part, £39,177,000, is to be used in paying grants to the local education authorities. The cost of maintaining the board's entire staff of 2,131 members is estimated at £817,850, or about 2 per cent of the total. The continued decrease in numbers and cost of the staff is shown as follows:

Year	Number	Cost
1925-26	2,467	£905,151
1926	2,356	892,582
1927	2,301	867,111
1928	2,208	834,085
1929	2,131	817,850

## CHAPTER IX

### The Ministry of Public Instruction and Fine Arts of France

*The Imperial University.*—When Fontaine said to Napoleon, "On the morrow of a revolution, on the emergence from anarchy, and in the presence of hostile parties, unity of aims and of government is necessary in education as in everything else. France has need, for a time at least, of one university and that university of one head," the Emperor replied, "That's it. You understand me," and on May 10, 1806, issued a brief law creating an imperial university charged exclusively with public instruction and education in the whole empire. With that law and a later one of 1808 developed what Aulard terms the "university monopoly" with the entire school régime of France included in a national official body called the university.

*The ministry.*—Education in France, general education at least, still retains that national university aspect. The ministry of public instruction and fine arts is distinctly an administrative-executive organization with much of centralization and coordination. Local authorities have considerable control over school property but, in the pedagogical side, only a very restricted and advisory participation. Each school is not so much under the ministry as it is a part of the ministry. Control is held by a series of central and local appointees, the permanent civil-service personnel. Necessary checks are not by popularly elected municipal bodies but by a strong infusion of the pedagogic element in the administrative machinery. The teaching profession in both primary and higher levels, and these are sharply divided—is a highly organized body of national functionaries united by a strong esprit de corps.

*Civil administration.*—For purposes of civil administration France is divided into 90 departments, 3 of which are in Algeria, each presided over by a prefect who is appointed by the president and holds office until promoted or suspended. He is the local agent of the central government and appoints nearly all the subordinate officials in the department. He is assisted by a prefectural council of 3 appointed members and a general council of 17 to 67 members elected for six years, one-half retiring every three years. The administration of Paris and the Department of the Seine differs somewhat from that of the other departments. The departments are divided

into 37,981 communes, most of them (33,914) with fewer than 1,500 inhabitants and 22,151 have fewer than 500. Only 159 communes have more than 20,000 people each. Every commune has a municipal council of 10 to 36 members elected for four years. The council selects from its own membership the mayor, who is the chief executive officer of the commune, agent of the central government, and generally in charge of executing the laws and official decrees. He may be suspended for one month by the prefect, three months by the minister of the interior, and dismissed by decree.

*Educational administration.*—For purposes of educational administration France is divided into 17 academies or groups of departments. Over each academy is a rector, who must have the degree of doctor and who is chosen, usually from among university professors, by presidential decree on the recommendation of the minister of public instruction. The department is the administrative unit for elementary education.

*Minister of public instruction.*—The powers of the minister are constitutional, in so far as they are common with those of other divisions of the executive branch of the Government. They include responsibility before the parliament, of which the minister is a member; counter signing of decrees; execution of the laws; preparation of the budget; authorization of expenditures; auditing of accounts; and representation of the nation in acts and affairs affecting his ministry. He is selected by the Premier, of whom he is invariably a political supporter, with the approval of the President. He may at the same time that he is minister of public instruction be the Premier. He gives up his office if the cabinet changes. His term is rarely for so long a period as one year. In the 8 years 8 months and 5 days from November 16, 1917, to July 21, 1926, there were 15 different cabinets in France. (See also p. 11.) The minister has his immediate cabinet of a few personal advisors who retire with him.

*The inspectors general.*—As direct auxiliaries to the minister are the inspectors general, who travel over the entire country, supervise the application of the national programs of education, and try to perfect the methods adopted in the three levels of instruction. The general inspection of university education has in fact practically disappeared; that for secondary and primary instruction and the maternal schools is actively maintained through a corps of 33 general inspectors.

*The central office.*—The central office is organized on a plan of seven directions. There is one each for superior, secondary, and primary education and for fine arts. The direction of accounting is divided among the bureaus of the others. The subsecretariat of technical education, which has been changed frequently in recent years,

was reestablished by Minister Marraud when he took office in November, 1928. At the same time he set up the first subsecretariat of physical education. The Pedagogical Museum, located in Paris, is administered directly by the ministry of public instruction.

*The superior council.*—The most influential educational body which aids and advises the minister is the superior council of public instruction. It is composed of 9 actual or former officers of public instruction, 17 representatives of the large universities, 10 of higher education, 10 of secondary, 6 of primary, and 4 private-school teachers. The first 9 and the last 4 are named by presidential decree; the others are elected by the personnel of the respective corps. It holds its meetings at Paris twice annually. The minister may at any time request its advice; he must by law request it on programs; methods of teaching and examinations; administrative and disciplinary regulations relative to the public schools and those relating to the surveillance of private schools; textbooks which should be prohibited in the private schools as being contrary to good morals, the constitution, or the laws; and applications from foreigners for permits to teach, open, or direct schools.

The council sits as a final appellate court, with recourse to the council of state for excess of powers, upon decisions of the departmental councils prohibiting primary, public, or private-school teachers from teaching and decisions upon contests brought against the opening of private schools.

The permanent section of the council consisting of 15 of its members, including the 9 named by the President, is an executive committee for the larger body and does most of its work. Particularly it studies curricula and regulations before they are submitted to the council; gives advice on the creation of normal schools; upon text, library, and prize books that should be forbidden in the schools; and reports on questions of studies, administration, and discipline referred to it by the minister.

*Consultative committees.*—These committees, one each for primary, secondary, and higher education, are mostly occupied with matters of personnel—appointments, promotions, and changes.

Besides the various councils and commissions that aid the ministry or are a part of it, the minister may and frequently does appoint commissions of a temporary nature to study and report on some special phase of education. An example of this is the commission consisting of members of the parliament, and representatives of the teachers in all the levels of instruction appointed in 1924 to study the best means of making all types of educational opportunity available to children of ability no matter what their social position.

*The rector.*—The rector is, within his academy, the most important representative of the minister and assures the execution of the laws

and ministerial decisions relating to public and private education. Conformity to curricula and methods of instruction adopted by the superior council is enforced by him with the assistance of the local inspectors. The schedules covering the division of time, even that of the faculties, the list of manuals, the books to be bought by the students and the library works to be placed in their hands are all submitted for his approval. In general he supervises the efficient organization and regular conduct of the examinations held in his academy; in certain instances selects subjects for composition and names the examining commissions; delivers certificates and diplomas; and designates lyc e professors called to sit on juries which determine the bestowal of the baccalaur at. He gives advice and precise information on all matters of personnel, of administration, and of pedagogy to the minister and the minister's inspectors general. Consequently he has an almost unlimited power of inquiry and of appreciation. He has the authority to create a close liaison between the three levels of instruction in order to secure their cooperation and can resist, if necessary, any tendencies that may be injurious to national education.

*Academy inspectors.*—The chief assistants of the rector are the academy inspectors, persons with advanced educational qualifications and experience in higher teaching, who are appointed by the President on the nomination of the ministry. In general there is one inspector for each department but some important departments such as Nord and Alger have two each, one for secondary and one for primary education; the department of the Seine, in which Paris is located, has eight. Under the direction of the rector the inspector oversees secondary and primary instruction in his department or division thereof. He supervises the financial management and administration of the lyc es, the coll ges, the normal schools and the primary superior schools. He inspects the teaching personnel and advises the teachers in any matter of school organization, division of time, creation of special classes, and things of like nature. He has special authority over primary education and inspects the maternal schools and kindergartens. He nominates the regular teachers for appointment by the prefect of the department, assigns the duties of supernumerary instructors, is present at pedagogical conferences, presides over the departmental committees that select the school texts, and is chairman of the committees of examination for the bestowal of elementary certificates, superior certificates, certificates of pedagogical aptitude for teachers, and competitive examinations for admission to the normal schools.

*The departmental council of primary education.*—The academy inspector has working with him the important administrative body,



the departmental council of primary education of which the prefect is president and the inspector is vice president. It gives its views on the number and kind of primary schools that should be maintained in each commune, is well as the number of teachers required for them. It makes up each year lists of teachers to be promoted or given honorariums. It decides on the opening of a private school in case the inspector is opposed and may inflict certain disciplinary penalties. It has the right to propose reforms that seem to it to be proper.

*The primary schools.*—Public instruction is free, lay, unilingual, generally separate for the sexes, and compulsory for children from 6 to 13 years of age, though many children enter preparatory classes at 5 and some maternal schools and infant classes are maintained for those 2 to 6 years of age. Each commune must maintain at least one public school; in the small communes it may be a mixed school. The 7-year elementary primary school is organized on a plan of a preparatory course of 1 year; elementary course, 2 years; middle course, 2; and superior course, 2; it closes with the examination for and certificate of primary elementary studies. Pupils who complete the elementary primary school may attend complementary courses of one year or more, or superior primary schools that offer courses at least three years in duration and lead to the brevet of superior primary instruction (brevet d'enseignement primaire supérieur). Maternal schools and courses for adults may also be a part of the official primary school system and may receive subventions from national funds.

*Primary and other inspectors.*—The academy inspector has for his immediate assistants the men and women inspectors of primary education and the departmental women inspectors of maternal schools. Generally there is one primary inspector for each arrondissement (a civil administrative division of the department, consisting of several communes and administered by a subprefect), but there may be two or more in important arrondissements and groups of primary schools for girls may be placed under women inspectors. These primary inspectors are appointed by the minister and supervise all the primary elementary, primary superior, and maternal schools in their areas. They recommend teachers for appointment and promotion and preside over teachers' meetings, hold examinations for the certificate of primary studies, and advise in matters of the school plant and equipment. A few departmental women inspectors of maternal schools exercise similar authority over those institutions.

*Municipal-school commissions.*—The municipal-school commission is composed of the mayor or his delegate, as president; one of the

delegates of the canton, or in the communes having many cantons, as many delegates chosen by the academy inspector as there are cantons; and members chosen by the municipal council in number equal to one-third or more of the council. The primary inspector is ex officio a member of all the municipal-school commissions in his area. The main purpose of the school commission is to oversee and encourage school attendance. With the mayor it makes up annually the list of children between 6 and 13 years of age. It may judge excuses for absence, pronounce certain penalties, listen to complaints, and grant some exemptions from attendance. Each month the teacher furnishes it a copy of the register of attendance. The primary inspector, parents, or guardians may within 10 days after a decision by the commission appeal from it to the departmental council whose findings are final.

The school commission or any of its members has no authority to visit the school, inspect the work, or judge the ability of the teacher.

*Committees of patronage.*—Each commune which has one or more public maternal schools may have one or more committees of patronesses whose members are named for three years by the inspector of the academy with the advice of the mayor. The mayor is president. The committee has no duties other than to see that the school is in hygienic condition and well kept and that funds or gifts are properly used for the benefit of the children.

Each superior primary school or complementary course has a committee of patronage named by ministerial arrêté on the advice of the superior council of public instruction. It includes as members ex officio, the rector, the academy inspector, the inspector of primary education, the director of the school, the mayor, the president of the chamber of commerce, and the president of the chamber of agriculture. Other members are elected each year from among the teachers, persons representing the principal regional interests in professional education, and a physician. The committee meets at least three times a year, the rector or the academy inspector presiding. It reports its deliberations to the academy inspector.

Its duties are considerable and important. It gives its views on the adequacy of the school plant and the measures taken to fit the instruction to the needs of the locality or the region; takes the pupils under its care and places the more meritorious in positions when they have completed the course; helps to send the pupils on trips to other communities or even foreign countries; provides scholarships; fixes the pupil rates for living in the internats; and may have some of its members visit, inspect, and report on the school.

*Primary-school teachers.*—The 179 primary normal schools, of which 88 are for women teachers, are maintained in accordance with a law of 1833 which required each department to set up a normal school and a further law of 1879 which made separate normal schools for girls obligatory. These schools are an integral part of the primary-school system; that is, the primary teacher is trained within the primary system. He is trained first in the elementary primary school and in the superior primary or supplementary courses. He then takes the admission examination for a departmental normal school. If he passes, whether he is admitted to the normal or not, he is given the brevet élémentaire, the lowest certificate for a primary-school teacher.

The normal school course is three years and is closed by an external examination for the brevet supérieur with which he teaches for about two years on probation as a stagiaire and then submits to the examination for the certificate d'aptitude pédagogique. If successful, he may be appointed as a regular teacher or titulaire. All this training and these examinations are strictly within the purview of the ministry of public instruction. It prescribes the special courses to be given to intending teachers in the supplementary courses or the superior primary school; prescribes the examinations for admission to and the curricula of the normal schools; and controls the examinations for and the granting of the two brevets and the certificate of pedagogic aptitude. These are external examinations, are both oral and written, and are conducted by commissions whose members are nominated by the rector from the inspectorial and teaching staff. In the departmental normal schools the director and the entire staff are appointed by the minister. Two higher primary normal schools train the personnel for the departmental normals and in these higher schools the control of the ministry is practically absolute.

*Secondary education.*—Secondary education is typically seven years in duration, leads to the baccalauréat, which admits to the universities, parallels in the lower two or three years the superior primary school, and is given in lycées constructed and maintained entirely by the nation and in communal collèges set up by the communes and maintained by them with national aid. The expenses for salaries are borne by the nation; all costs of equipment by the municipalities. Seven-eighths of the pupils' fees are turned in to the national treasury. Each lycée is controlled by a council of administration, which includes the rector of the academy or his delegate, the prefect of the department, and the mayor of the city, all three of whom are ex officio members; the elected representatives of the

teaching and administrative personnel; and two persons chosen by the minister to represent the families of the pupils. The professional administrative head of the lycée is the provisor. He directs the affairs of the externat and of the internat, if there is one. With him the council of administration discusses the budget, verifies the accounts, and arranges the manner of administering the school, especially in regard to its property and funds. The council may name one of its members to visit the lycée in company with the academy inspector and the provisor. In general its duties relate more to supervision of matériel and hygienic conditions than to pedagogic functions. The expectation is that it will bring to the lycée a knowledge of the region, its tendencies, needs, and interests, and will rouse and maintain a local spirit of attachment to the institution.

The administrative councils of the communal collèges have in their membership a wider representation of local organizations, but their duties are much the same as those for the lycées.

*Secondary school teachers.*—The teachers are trained first in the regular courses of the secondary schools and later in the higher normal school at Paris for men and the Sèvres Normal School for women, or in the universities. Here the control of the ministry is complete and final. The ultimate certificate, the agrégation, entitles the holder to employment in a national lycée as long as he can render adequate service and to extra remuneration annually. Naturally the competition for the agrégation is keen.

*Technical education.*—The attributes of the subsecretariat of state for fine arts and technical education were fixed by presidential decree of April 29, 1925. Later its status was changed, but was again arranged in November, 1928, and is now established by a decree of August 5, 1929. It has charge of the technical education services, subject, of course, to the approval of the minister; prepares projects of laws and decrees; advises about the budget; may be assigned to deal with the senate and the chamber; nominates the personnel of technical education; and directs the expenditures.

The structural and administrative organization of technical education runs almost parallel to that of general education. The schools are national, departmental, communal, or organized by chambers of commerce and professional associations. In the public schools the salaries are a charge against the nation. The teachers in the national schools belong to the civil list, and each school has, besides its director, a council of administration.

The subsecretariat is advised by a superior council of technical education presided over by the minister. Each department has its departmental committee, and for the local schools there are cantonal committees.

Inspection is in the hands of inspectors general in the central office, and without it are the regional and departmental inspectors. Teachers are trained in the Normal School of Technical Education.

Among the institutions under its administration are the National Conservatory of Arts and Crafts, the Central School of Arts and Manufactures, six national professional schools which give a 4-year course to children from 12 to 15 years of age and prepare them for the six national arts and crafts schools; higher schools of commerce; and specialized technical schools and institutes.

*The subsecretariat of state for physical education.*—This subsecretariat has in its field, functions analogous to those of the subsecretariat for technical education and they are fixed by decrees of the same date as for the latter, August 5, 1929, but its work is in the schools of general and of technical instruction, not in a special system. The process by which its activities were considerably widened in 1928-29 illustrates well the ways in which the ministry of public instruction and fine arts carries out its schemes of public education.

The budget law of July 20, 1928, opened credits available to the ministry to organize physical education. On the following August 13 the minister addressed a letter of instructions to the rectors as to the steps that should be taken immediately to carry out the law. The consultative committee on physical education had advised that there should be created under the direction of the faculties of medicine of the universities "Regional institutes of physical education," which would be centers of specialization for the study of medicine, for the training of teachers of gymnastics, and for research in better methods of giving physical training. Five were at that time in operation and the rectors were directed to open six more, one each at Montpellier, Strasbourg, Toulouse, Clermont-Ferrand, Rennes, and Marseille.

Further, the rectors were instructed to notify the provisors of the lycées, the principals of the collèges, and the directresses of the secondary schools for girls to put into effect at once at least two hours of physical training a week in their schools. Similar notices were to go to the primary superior and the technical schools. The minister's instructions were accompanied by lists of the new positions necessary to carry out the work, the arrangements that would be made in some cases for part-time teachers, and the provision of funds.

Directions were included for physical education in the primary schools and particularly for the training to be given pupil-teachers so that they would later be prepared for the duties in that connection.

Subventions were provided for nonschool organizations that are doing useful work in aiding the children in their sports and games. Finally, the rectors were required to report to the "Service of Physical Education" in the ministry an account of their application of the instructions. At the close of the school year they were to report the names of all teachers properly certificated to give physical education as a specialty.

*Fine arts.*—The ministry has direction of many phases of cultural life in France other than the organized instruction in the schools. As an example, by decree of February 15, 1927, a superior council of the theater was instituted as a part of it. The council consists of the director of fine arts or his representative; two members of the union of lyric artists elected by its membership; two members of the union of dramatic artists also elected by its membership; and the presidents of the following listed bodies: The group of mayors of the senate, the group of mayors of the chamber, the fourth commission of the municipal council of Paris, the society of authors, the commission of lyric authors, the association of theater directors of Paris, the association of theater directors of the provinces, the syndical chamber of the directors of excursions of France, and the union of artists.

The council may be called to give its views on all questions of legislation and administration of theaters such as admission prices, répertoire, performances in foreign countries, theatrical instruction, subventions, placement bureaus, etc.

The personnel of the central service of fine arts includes a director with chiefs and subchiefs of the bureau, the controller-general of architecture, inspectors general of fine arts and museums, of applied arts, and of historic monuments, and the inspectors of musical education. The Guimet Museum and the national museums come within the purview of this service. The national manufactures of Sèvres, Gobelins, and Beauvais are administered under decrees of December, 1926. That of Sèvres has a director and an administrative council composed of the director of fine arts or his representative, the director of the budget in the ministry of finance, and the director of commercial expositions in the ministry of commerce, all three as members *ex officio*; and 10 other persons chosen for four years by the minister in charge of fine arts, from national officials and industrial bodies. The council handles the budget, the accounts of the director, the matériel, competitions, the administration both professional and commercial, and reports on any questions submitted to it by the minister. Gobelins and Beauvais are similarly administered.

Institutions of musical and dramatic education are under the bureau of the theaters in the direction of fine arts. It administers

the National Conservatory of Music and Declamation at Paris. In the departments is a great number of schools of music, most of them maintained by the municipalities and entirely free of national control. When any of these attain certain standards they may be classed as national schools and later as branches of the National Conservatory. In those national schools and branches in which the directors are chosen by the ministry, special inspectors assume some control and the schools may receive official subventions. The graduates may present themselves for study at the National Academy and receive scholarships especially in the classes for singing and lyric declamation:

*Higher education.*—Each of the 17 academies with all of its organization of institutions for public instruction is in a sense a university, and all are parts of the ministry of public instruction and fine arts, or to use the earlier term, the University of France. But to American readers the 17 separate groups of faculties, with their housing and personnel, which give instruction on higher education levels, constitute the French universities. They are all national; the present plan of organization dates from 1896. They have considerable autonomy and are expected to differ from each other in many ways.

More and more each of them tends to acquire its own originality, its own characteristics. Without in any way neglecting its function in national education, each interests itself in the country around it, in its history, its language, its economic needs, and places teachers and plant at the service of the material and moral interests of the region. Thus the universities, always faithful to their essential mission which is to create science and to teach it, still are occupied with the application of science (in the broadest sense of the term) to the needs of modern society.<sup>22</sup>

Each is administered by a council of the university consisting of the rector of the academy as president, the deans or directors of each faculty or school, elected representatives from each faculty or school, some persons from without the university but selected by the council, and some students chosen by the student body to sit with the council when it deals with disciplinary matters.

The rector acting under the authority of the minister represents the university in all matters of justice and in civil life, directs the affairs of the institution, and carries out the decisions of the council. The council enacts regulations on: The administration of the property of the university; the exercise of actions in justice; regulations for free courses and of courses, conferences, and exercises common to all the faculties; the general organization of the courses and pro-

<sup>22</sup> Richard, Camille. *L'Enseignement en France*. Librairie Armand Colin, Paris, 1925.

grams for each school year; the institution of activities in the interest of the students; the fixing of fees; and the school calendar. It may deliberate on buying, selling, or exchanging property of the university, leases of more than 18 years, loans and the acceptance of gifts and legacies, offers of subvention, opening lines of instruction that will be chargeable to the university, granting of degrees, and regulations regarding expenditures. Its deliberations do not become effective until approved by the minister. It may give its views on the budget, creating, changing, or abolishing positions, and regulations for service common to all the faculties.

Members of the faculty are appointed by decree after having been nominated by the faculty interested and approved by the permanent committee of the superior council.

Most of the degrees, diplomas, and certificates issued for the completion of university studies are granted by the national authority and carry with them certain privileges in the way of rights to practice in the professions. In addition, each university may grant diplomas or degrees as evidence of study or achievement in science, but these are not in any way licenses to engage in a profession in France.

*Private schools.*—The general principle is that any citizen of France may open and conduct a school, but the law requires that the director or principal of a school have certain scholastic preparation depending on the grade of instruction to be given, and the school must accept national inspection as to matters of hygiene and morals. The private schools are mostly denominational in character and have freedom in methods and curricula, but, since the examinations that give access to careers are controlled by the national ministries, the schools are forced to comply for the most part with the official programs.

*Statistics.*—The two tables following give an idea of the amount of public and private instruction in charge of or inspected by the ministry and its annual expenditures.

TABLE 3.—Number of schools, teachers, pupils enrolled and in attendance for various kinds of schools, 1925<sup>1</sup>

Kind of school	Number of schools	Number of teachers	Pupils enrolled	Pupils in attendance
Maternal.....	3, 084		405, 448	268, 890
Elementary primary.....	80, 406	119, 922	3, 753, 778	3, 332, 275
Superior primary.....	491	3, 094	74, 580	
Primary normal.....	179	1, 038	10, 367	
Secondary.....	531		169, 841	
Secondary courses.....	43		4, 648	
Higher education.....			52, 990	
Technical education.....	173		52, 434	

<sup>1</sup> Public and private.



TABLE 4.—*Educational budgets for the years 1926 and 1927*

Item	1926	1927
<b>SECTION I.—PUBLIC INSTRUCTION</b>		
Central administration and general service.....	<i>Francs</i> 3,760,800	<i>Francs</i> 4,901,538
Archives.....	1,849,100	2,353,800
Superior instruction and great scientific establishments.....	84,307,700	99,829,285
Secondary education.....	166,923,716	210,663,206
Primary education.....	1,025,700,100	1,364,150,939
Expenses common to the different services.....	236,464,234	268,202,950
Special for Alsace and Lorraine.....	87,439,880	113,384,900
<b>Total ordinary expenses.....</b>	<b>1,606,445,530</b>	<b>2,063,486,618</b>
Extraordinary.....	4,660,600	3,917,000
War damage.....	2,867,200	3,841,775
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>1,613,973,330</b>	<b>2,071,245,393</b>
<b>SECTION II.—FINE ARTS</b>		
Ordinary.....	49,961,810	59,821,677
Nonpermanent.....	20,274,000	19,326,090
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>70,235,810</b>	<b>79,147,767</b>
<b>SECTION III.—TECHNICAL EDUCATION</b>		
Ordinary.....	94,142,366	111,115,109
Extraordinary.....	70,000	40,000
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>94,212,366</b>	<b>111,155,109</b>
<b>Total for the ministry.....</b>	<b>1,778,421,506</b>	<b>2,261,548,269</b>

This does not include the public funds spent by the localities nor the amounts used by the private schools.

The amounts spent for the central administration represent less than 1 per cent of the total.

## CHAPTER X

### The Secretariat of Public Education in Mexico

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Mexico, the República Mexicana, is a federated republic of 28 States, one Federal District (the city of Mexico and its immediate environs), and three Federal Territories (Quintana Roo, Baja California North, and Baja California South). Each State has its own constitution and laws, levies its own taxes, and chooses its own governor, legislature, and judiciary in much the same way that the corresponding Federal officers are chosen. The governors of the Federal District and of the three Territories are appointed by the President of the Republic. Each of the 28 States has its school system which it has established and now maintains and administers through State officials in accord with State law. In addition the municipalities may and many of them do support schools over which they have almost full control.

The present constitution of Mexico was promulgated February 5, 1917. Article 90 provides that for the administration of the Republic the Congress may by law establish a number of secretaryships, or secretarías. Accordingly the Congress issued the law of Secretarías de Estado and among those created was the secretariat of public education (Secretaría de Educación Pública) which was later suppressed. It was restored to its functioning by a decree published on September 29, 1921.

The conception of the purposes of this young secretariat is broad and generous. It aims to include and, to a great extent, its present organization does include most phases of cultural life and physical human welfare in Mexico and these are to be progressively strengthened and bettered to the end that the Mexican people may be a more virile, wealthier, and more unified nation than it now is. Of course, beyond that lies the thought that in such a nation the individual Mexican will lead a happier, more useful life.

The secretariat's task is enormous. The 15,000,000 people live in an area of 767,198 square miles—about three and one-half times the size of France—that is poorly supplied with roads and railroads. Communication, taking Mexico as a whole, is slow and difficult. The people are about 22 per cent native Indian, 60 per cent mixed Indian with other races, and 18 per cent white. While Spanish is a common

language and one which all Mexicans are willing to learn and use, the pure Indians have among themselves 47 or more different linguistic groups that represent many fairly distinct Indian races. Illiteracy (inability to read and write in the total population) amounted to 62.2 per cent in 1921. The per capita wealth is low—\$449. The school system was laicized within the decade. Primary education is free, and compulsory up to 12 years of age but the law can not be enforced because there are not schools enough. Of the two and three-fourths millions of children of school age (6 to 14), about 4 in every 10 are in school attendance. The States spend a good proportion of their revenues on education but they have been unable to maintain adequate modern educational systems.

As to levels of instruction the general plan of organization is a 6-year primary school divided into 4 years of elementary and 2 years of higher primary study. This is followed by a 5-year secondary school, the first three years of which constitute a cycle of general education and the last two the preparatory cycle in which the pupil may specialize and prepare for later studies in some one of the university faculties. The primary normal schools give 5-year courses on the secondary education level.

The secretariat directly administers the schools in the Federal District and in the Territories and all the educational and cultural institutions that are established and supported by Federal funds but are located within the areas included under one or another of the State governments. Besides the strictly teaching institutions the secretariat has within its purview such cultural organizations as museums, libraries, theaters, and artistic and historic monuments. It issues copyrights for literary, dramatic, and artistic productions. In its aspects of direct administration it resembles somewhat the ministry of public instruction and fine arts of France, for the attitude is that each institution is part of rather than subject to the secretariat.

Beyond its administration of the Federal educational and cultural organizations, wherever they may be, the secretariat is the cooperative, stimulating, advisory, and consultant body for the State authorities. It may not administer State or municipal schools, but it is making itself the expert national corps that is using its knowledge and influence to stimulate and help the States and municipalities to care for and train their citizenry. These dual functions of the ministry make it in many ways similar to the ministry of justice and public instruction in Argentina (see pp. 52-57). Finally, the secretariat is engaging actively in a number of kinds of educational research.

For purposes of this study in connection with this particular ministry of education details of the administrative organization are not so important as the work the ministry is doing. The latter will be

emphasized more than the former. The secretariat, like other parts of the educational system, is in the making.

*The national university.*—Until July 26, 1929, the National University of Mexico (Universidad Nacional de Mexico) was a part of the secretariat of public education. On that date the organic law of the autonomous national university took effect. The institution now consists of the following listed faculties: Philosophy and letters, law and social sciences, medicine, engineering, agronomy, dentistry, sciences and chemical industries, commerce and administration; and the following listed schools: National preparatory, fine arts, the higher normal, physical education, and veterinary medicine, together with the national library, the institutes of biology and of geology, and the astronomical observatory. The chief governing body is the university council consisting of the rector, a representative of the secretariat of public education, the directors of the various faculties, schools, and institutes of the university, and persons elected from the faculty members and the student body. This law comes as the consummation of a movement that has been going on for the past three or four years to integrate all the institutions of higher education and culture in Mexico City under the one management and free it as far as possible from the control of the national government.

The relation of the national university to the national government is specifically defined in chapter four of the law. In general the dealings are carried on directly between the national executive and the university, and not through the secretariat of public education. Briefly summarized, the provisions of chapter four are:

1. The rector will represent the university in its relationships with the different authorities.
2. While employees of the university are not considered to be Federal employees, they are subject to the benefits and obligations of the law of civil pensions for retirement.
3. The national executive may appoint extraordinary professors and persons for conference with the faculties and institutes of the university, but the charge is against the national budget.
4. The executive may veto resolutions of the university council referring to: (a) Closing any faculty, school, or institution; (b) conditions of admission of students and the validation or visé of studies done in Mexico or in foreign countries, provided those conditions are not of a technical nature; (c) requirements for pupils holding scholarships from the Federal Government; (d) expenditures of amounts greater than 100,000 pesos at one time, or in periodical payments that exceed 10,000 pesos annually, provided that those payments are covered by funds that are not a part of the Federal sub-

sity; and (e) regulations of this law or modifications that he considers to be violations of it.

5. In order to make the foregoing section effective, the university council will submit its resolutions to the executive, and they will be in force if he does not veto them in 30 days.

6. The regulation of the private schools which give instruction of university grade and the determination of the validation and equivalence of the studies in them and of the degrees granted is also in charge of the executive of the republic through the secretariat of public education, which may make such regulations and dispositions as it deems proper for the particular case.

7. The budget of national funds for the university will be fixed annually by the chamber of deputies as a part of the general Federal budget prepared by the executive and the secretariat of the treasury and public credit.

8. The institutes of the university that formerly were under other secretariats will perform ordinary technical work free of charge for those secretariats and, with the approval of the university rector, extraordinary tasks for which they will be paid.

9. The National Museum of Archeology, History, and Ethnography will maintain its relation with the university in so far as it gives courses of instruction.

10. The National Stadium is placed under the secretariat of public education but the university shall have preferential right to its use.

11. The university may use the postal frank in its official correspondence and have the rights of public offices in the use of telegraph service.

12. The university will render an annual report to the president, the congress, and the secretary of public education.

*Secondary education.*—The National Preparatory School is a part of the university administration. For many years it was something of a model for the other secondary schools of Mexico but with the establishment in 1926 of that branch of the secretariat known as the direction of secondary education, it does not occupy so important a place in the national scheme. In 1929 the direction of secondary education administered six secondary schools, numbers 1 to 6, in the Federal District with an enrollment of 5,889 pupils, inspected public schools in the States, and supervised the work of 19 private ("incorporated") schools, 14 of which were in the Federal District and 5 in the States.

As a part of its official duties the direction called and held in November, 1928, a national assembly for the study of the problems of preparatory and secondary education; directed the activities of a committee of secondary and university teachers to coordinate the

work of secondary schools and the national preparatory school; urged the teachers to take courses in the university and in the higher normal school; organized extra school activities among the students; gave mental and educational tests to a considerable number of the students; formulated examination questions and tests; attended to general matters of student accounting; controlled the going of students from one school to another; unified the system of teaching in the private schools; issued lists of equipment needed in the laboratories in secondary schools; instructed the directors of secondary schools to supervise the class teaching; set regulations for order and discipline in evening preparatory and secondary schools; and selected the texts for secondary schools for the year 1929. In short it has full authority over the Federal secondary schools.

In its relation to the incorporated private schools it carries out the terms of the presidential decree of November 16, 1926, which fixes the conditions under which those schools may be opened and maintained. Those terms include a formal declaration by the persons managing the school that it is not a Catholic seminary or intended to train ministers for any religious denomination and that the laws of the Republic will be upheld and obeyed. Details of the courses and hours of study, the training and experience of the director and teachers, the plan of the buildings, equipment, and library must all be submitted in writing to the secretariat. These documents and the school itself are examined carefully by the inspection of secondary education and application to maintain the school is approved or disapproved on its recommendation.

*Primary and normal instruction.*—The department of primary and normal instruction in the secretariat functioned in 1929 with 78 persons in its administrative personnel, one of which was the head of the department with a salary of 10,220 pesos and 32 of which were school inspectors. The salary roll amounted to 288,132.50 pesos. It employed 312 school directors and 2,549 teachers at an expenditure of 6,658,060 pesos. The 342 schools in its charge enrolled 134,447 pupils with an average attendance of 120,308.

For these primary schools under its direction, the secretariat acts through its department of primary and normal education in much the same way as does the administration of schools in medium-sized cities in the United States. By circulars of instruction it more clearly defined the zone of each school; fixed the administrative relationship between the directors of primary schools and the kindergartens annexed to them; prohibited the use of the Chilean orthography in the schools and in official correspondence; appointed technical councils in the national language, arithmetic and geography, and in socialized materials, to study ways of improving the instruc-

tion in these subjects; fixed the daily programs of the schools and the school calendar; arranged the methods to be employed for determining the annual promotions of pupils; issued a list of approved texts; opened one new primary school and two evening schools; arranged the teaching corps in salary classes; and carried on a national school for teachers.

In order to improve upon and check the work of inspection, the department by circular and study developed a plan of arranging the duties of the inspectors under five general heads: Administration and administrative labor, pedagogic orientation, bettering the condition of the teachers (except in pedagogical knowledge), social action, advantages, and improvements. Under subdivisions of these general heads the work of inspection is reported and checked and department knows what has been done each month of the school year.

*Technical, industrial, and commercial education.*—This department was organized in 1925 to popularize, encourage, and protect national efforts to train technicians and workers that will be competent either in the manufacture of raw materials or in the industrial arts connected with those manufactures, as well as to give women opportunities for education in manual work fitted for them so that they may earn a living or be happier in the management of their homes. The department has created 27 teaching centers, 15 of which are in the Federal District, the others are in the States. The courses enrolled 20,614 pupils with an average attendance of 13,747 taught by 1,259 teachers.

The department gave most of its time for the year to socializing the schools in order to bring about solidarity and cooperation among those interested in the progress of technical education; and specializing and industrializing the lessons in practical work so that the graduates will be prepared to enter at once the field of industry in which they are studying. The socialization program consisted in forming societies of the heads of families to encourage technical education, and cooperative societies of teachers and pupils in all and in each of the technical schools. For the latter the department prepared a form of constitution that is legal under the statute of January 21, 1927, relating to such cooperatives.

The direction of education by means of the radio is a part of this department. Its services are either of direct use in the schools or of general interest to the public. With the aid of the department of rural schools it broadcast special courses for rural teachers; and fables, instructive lectures, musical programs, and plays for the children. For the public its programs included talks on scientific subjects, programs of music, official announcements, and things of like nature.

*Rural schools and outlying primary schools, and the incorporation of the indigenous culture.*—This department has 50 employees in the central office and carried on its activities through two sections; the technical and that of procedure and archives. The technical section is made up of the inspectors, the school directors, the services of primary and of rural school statistics, and correspondence. The section of procedure and archives deals with matters of personnel in the primary and rural schools, travel, rents and budgets, and correspondence.

The department administers the Federal schools that are established in the States and territories. The schools are 20 model primary, 315 urban and semiurban, and 3,328 rural with a teaching force of 3,491 and an average attendance of 188,734 at day classes and 46,741 at evening courses. These are the schools that are maintained by the Federal Government to stimulate education in the States, serve as model schools and reach out into isolated places and improve the status of the indigenous population. The department has a director of Federal education in each State who has under his orders instructor-inspectors enough to supervise the schools of that area.

Besides maintaining these Federal schools, the department began in January of 1929 a system of rural circuits whose purpose is to persuade the people of the communities to establish schools maintained by themselves. The program was successful enough so that 545 central and 1,946 neighboring schools were opened. The central schools are so named because each is maintained by funds from the budget for the department of rural schools, serves as a model for the neighboring schools opened near it, and is in the charge of a teacher who is director of the circuit and responsible to the inspector and the director of Federal education.

The indigenous peoples are receiving preferential attention from the Federal Government. The department of rural schools directs 789 schools attended by about 95,000 pure Indians, both children and adults. The boarding schools for Indians are maintained in the State of Chihuahua, and the Home for Indigenous Children in Mexico City has 200 students in training, most of them for service as teachers in the schools provided for their own people.

Through the cooperation of the communities and the initiative of the inspectors and teachers there were 2,353 Federal school buildings in December, 1928, each one of them the best building in its community. In many cases the localities have also constructed homes for the teachers. The Federal Government has ceded 42 annexes to churches to be used as schools. The Federal inspectors and directors are instructed to give preference in the establishment of schools to those villages which offer the greatest cooperation in



furnishing good school buildings and grounds. In some communities the Society of Mothers has provided buildings. The value of the school plants provided by the people of the different communities and donated to the secretariat of public education amounts to nearly \$2,000,000.

For the use of the schools under its charge the department of rural schools purchased and distributed about 500,000 reading books.

Besides these activities, told in some detail, the department assists in making social centers of schools, sends cultural missions into backward communities, encourages rural libraries, and publishes professional books for the rural teachers, issues an official paper "El Sembrador," and holds teachers' meetings.

*Psychopedagogy and hygiene.*—The department of psychopedagogy and hygiene is organized in two large sections: Psychopedagogy and school hygiene. Each is directed by a head official; both are under the head of the department. The first section has four subsections: School anthropometrics, mental testing, pedagogy, and biometrics. Fourteen persons, either specialists or teachers, make up the personnel. The section of anthropometrics is carrying on a series of measurements and investigations to determine the constants of physical, mental, and pedagogical growth in the urban school population. The mental testing section is applying to the school children of Mexico various types of tests that have been developed in other countries, working out adaptations of them, and initiating new tests. The pedagogy section is carrying on a similar work with different educational tests. Most of the material gathered by these three sections is turned over to that of biometrics for statistical manipulation.

The section of school hygiene works directly with that of school medical inspection and school breakfasts, has charge of the five school dispensaries, the pharmacy and the clinical laboratory, and a special school for children that are undergoing treatment for skin diseases. The personnel of these is mostly trained physicians and nurses. For inspection of the schools in the city there are 22 physicians and a like number of nurses who examine the children and inspect the school plants and note their observations in a special sanitary record. The physicians also care for teachers in the schools and attend to the examinations necessary in connection with retirements and pensions. A physician and a nurse have charge of furnishing school breakfasts to needy children and at the same time are expected to study and report on the physical and mental improvement in the children that are being given more wholesome food.

*Fine arts.*—The department of fine arts has 8 persons in its central directive personnel and in addition, 32 administrative employees, 545 in teaching duties, 17 subprofessional, 32 laborers, and 104 in the

attendant service. It attends to copyrights, the technical direction of vocal music and concerts, the popular evening schools of music, physical education, drawing, and manual training, the National Museum of Archeology, History, and Ethnology, and the inspection and care of artistic and historical monuments.

*Other sections.*—These seven examples of the work of the secretariat are sufficient to illustrate its activities. The duties of the departments of libraries, special school statistics, national thrift chests, construction and conservation of buildings, and of editing are indicated in their titles.

In his report to the Congress for the year ended July 31, 1929, the secretary of public education says:

You undoubtedly noted in the report of the President, the importance which the secretariat of public education is giving to the work of awakening consciences and arousing interest. We have not forgotten the technical work nor the scientific refinement in the school administration; but we do recognize that the essential problem of Mexico is, first, a problem of basic citizenship; of spiritual unity on our native soil, of collecting the deep roots in our tradition and in our peculiarities and in continuing our growth. These two fundamental aspects explain our constant effort to clear up and maintain the Mexican tradition and ideal, in order to determine our problems in terms of our own characteristics and circumstances and to strike to the utmost, if it should be necessary, the consciences of the people, captivating their imaginations, and moving the emotional springs of their souls. The lengths to which our nation is anxious for improvement and the lengths to which the procedures which have been put into play are effectively awakening it, are eloquently evidenced by the 2,000 and more circuit schools which the communities, under the stimulus and the animation of the secretariat of education, were able to establish during the course of six months, by the avidity with which the nation receives the message of the new day in Mexico and by the new spirit of illusion with which the people hope and work for the accomplishment of the revolutionary program.

I can not insist too much concerning the necessity that, notwithstanding the high quality of the political factors within our national life, you consider the school and the teachers as matters nonpolitical, leaving them free to dedicate themselves, without the danger or the narrowness of faction or band, to realize the basic and essential work on which must rest the entire structure of the nation. The teachers, especially the rural teachers, are, unquestionably, forceful elements in the community. I beg that you never convert them into political elements, but that you permit them, with neither hindrance nor interference, to exercise their influence of integral improvement, of civic illustration and of civic strengthening, and of inspiration in the Mexican ideal.

I trust that the attentive reading of the report which I have the honor to present, may serve to secure the cooperation of the honorable chambers of Congress of the union in favor of education in Mexico."

"Mexico. Secretaría de Educación Pública. Memoria que indica el estado que guarda el ramo de educación pública el 31 de agosto de 1929 . . . Mexico, D. F., Talleres Gráficos de la Nación, 1929. 683 pp.

## APPENDICES AND BIBLIOGRAPHY

### Appendix I

#### QUESTIONNAIRE SENT THROUGH THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE TO CHIEF AMERICAN CONSULAR OFFICES ABROAD

1. Is there a responsible ministry of education or other body that is concerned with matters of education for the entire nation?
2. Does it have jurisdiction over all the schools? If not, list the types of schools or education that are under other ministries.
3. Is the ministry of education provided for in the constitution or the laws, or both, of the country? Cite legal references.
4. How is the minister chosen? By whom? For what term or office?
5. Is the office considered to be political or nonpolitical? Is the minister generally some one who has been successful in educational work?
6. Into what different divisions or sections is the ministry organized and what particular powers and duties has each section?
7. What is the annual expense of maintaining the ministry? (Not including any national funds granted either directly or indirectly to the schools.)
8. What authority has the ministry:
  - (a) To decide the number, location, and kind of schools in the country?
  - (b) To determine the amount of national funds that are used annually for education, the particular phases of educational activity to which they shall be applied, and how they shall be allocated?
  - (c) To determine or influence the amount of local funds that shall be used for school purposes?
  - (d) To decide what shall be taught in the schools, by enforcing certain curricula and courses of study, or by other means?
  - (e) To decide how and when any subjects shall be taught?
  - (f) To fix regulations for the training of teachers and school administrators, and to control the licensing of teachers and administrators?
  - (g) To select, promote, or dismiss teachers and fix their salaries?
  - (h) To make and enforce regulations in regard to compulsory school attendance and child labor?
  - (i) To make and enforce regulations regarding the construction of school buildings, their heating, lighting, ventilation, and general sanitation?
  - (j) To provide for health inspection and general physical care of the school children?
  - (k) To determine pupil promotions and grant diplomas of graduation and degrees?
9. In general is the ministry an advisory-consultative body or an administrative-executive body?

10. Is it in any sense a research organization? If so, indicate the nature of its research activities.
11. Does the ministry have any control over private schools?
12. Does the ministry have any control over institutions of university rank? If so, how and in what ways is its control expressed?
13. Is the minister a member, ex officio or otherwise, of any other branch of the Government?
14. Is the minister responsible primarily to the executive or to the legislative branch of the government, and to what extent is he responsible?
15. Is the ministry concerned only with the direct administration of schools of a federal district and territories, or with the schools of the entire nation?
16. If the country has colonial possessions, state fully how and by what branch of the government education in those possessions is administered.
17. How are the rules, regulations, and directions of the ministry brought to the attention of school officials?

## Appendix II

*Table Showing the Approximate Population and Area of Each of the 73 Main Political Divisions of the World*

[The names of those countries that do not have national ministries of education are marked with an asterisk (\*)]

Division	Population	Area square miles
1	2	3
Political divisions each with more than 100,000,000 population:		
China.....	436,000,000	4,279,170
*India.....	319,000,000	1,805,332
*The Soviet Union.....	139,754,000	8,186,144
*United States.....	117,823,000	3,738,371
Continental.....	105,710,000	3,026,789
Outlying parts.....	12,113,000	711,582
Divisions with 50,000,000 to 100,000,000 each:		
*Germany.....	59,582,000	181,257
Japan.....	76,988,000	260,707
Central islands.....	55,963,000	147,657
Outlying.....	21,025,000	113,050
Divisions with 20,000,000 to 50,000,000 each:		
*Brazil.....	30,636,000	3,285,318
France.....	94,844,000	4,171,265
(Europe).....	39,209,000	212,659
Colonies.....	55,632,000	3,958,626
Great Britain.....	44,200,000	94,633
Italy.....	40,710,000	899,378
(Europe).....	38,756,000	119,624
Colonies.....	1,954,000	779,754
Poland.....	27,193,000	149,915
Spain.....	22,744,000	323,496
(Europe).....	21,960,000	194,800
Colonies.....	784,000	128,696
Divisions with 10,000,000 to 20,000,000 each:		
Afghanistan.....	12,000,000	245,000
Czechoslovakia.....	13,613,000	54,207
*Egypt.....	12,751,000	383,000
Mexico.....	14,235,000	767,198
Rumania.....	17,393,000	122,282
Yugoslavia.....	12,017,000	96,134
Turkey.....	13,357,000	494,538
Divisions with 5,000,000 to 10,000,000 each:		
*Abyssinia.....	10,000,000	350,000
*Arabia.....	7,000,000	1,000,000
Argentina.....	9,584,000	1,153,119
*Australia.....	5,436,000	2,974,581
Austria.....	6,536,000	32,369
Belgium.....	15,979,000	921,409
(Europe).....	7,466,000	11,765
Congo.....	8,513,000	909,654
*Canada.....	8,789,000	3,603,909
Colombia.....	5,855,000	440,846
Greece.....	5,810,000	25,223
Sweden.....	5,905,000	173,105
Hungary.....	7,980,000	35,875
*Morocco.....	6,000,000	231,500
*Nepal.....	5,600,000	54,000
Netherlands.....	56,400,000	800,591
(Europe).....	6,865,000	12,591
Colonies.....	49,535,000	788,000
Persia.....	9,000,000	628,000
Peru.....	5,550,000	532,047
Portugal.....	14,771,000	971,754
(Europe).....	6,033,000	35,490
Colonies.....	8,738,000	936,264
Siam.....	9,207,000	200,148
Union of South Africa.....	6,929,000	472,347

Colonial and protectorate areas of 3,784,383 square miles with a population of 60,583,000 not included.

Table Showing the Approximate Population and Area of Each of the 73 Main Political Divisions of the World—Continued

Division	Population	Area square miles
1	2	3
Divisions with 1,000,000 to 5,000,000 each:		
Bolivia.....	2,990,000	514,155
Bulgaria.....	4,847,000	39,814
Chile.....	3,755,000	290,084
Cuba.....	3,369,000	44,164
Denmark.....	3,528,000	103,053
(Europe).....	3,420,000	10,604
Outlying.....	108,000	86,449
Ecuador.....	2,000,000	220,502
Estonia.....	1,110,000	18,354
Finland.....	3,365,000	132,642
Guatemala.....	2,005,000	42,353
Haiti.....	2,031,000	10,204
Irish Free State.....	3,163,000	26,592
Latvia.....	1,845,000	24,440
Liberia.....	2,000,000	43,000
Lithuania.....	4,801,000	59,633
New Zealand.....	1,219,000	104,751
Norway.....	2,650,000	124,964
Paraguay.....	1,000,000	61,647
Salvador.....	1,580,000	13,176
*Switzerland.....	3,880,000	15,940
Uruguay.....	1,640,000	72,153
Venezuela.....	2,412,000	393,574
Iraq.....	2,849,000	143,250
Divisions with fewer than 1,000,000 each:		
Albania.....	832,000	17,347
*Bhutan.....	250,000	20,000
Costa Rica.....	507,000	23,000
Danzig.....	380,000	754
Dominican Republic.....	897,000	19,332
Honduras.....	774,000	44,275
*Liechtenstein.....	11,000	65
*Luxemburg.....	261,000	999
*Monaco.....	23,000	8
*Newfoundland.....	262,000	162,734
Nicaragua.....	638,000	51,660
Panama.....	443,000	32,380
*San Marino.....	12,000	38

## Appendix III

### THE ORGANIZATION OF THE MINISTRY OF SCIENCES AND OF ARTS OF BELGIUM

#### MINISTRY OF SCIENCES AND OF ARTS

Normal instruction, primary instruction, middle school instruction, higher education and sciences, fine arts, letters and public libraries.

#### THE MINISTER

Minister's cabinet.

Chief of the cabinet.

Secretary of the cabinet.

Attachés:

Director.

Under chief of the bureau.

Clerk.

#### THE GENERAL SECRETARIAT

Secretary general.

#### ADMINISTRATION OF GENERAL AFFAIRS

Director general.

Director.

Treasury, under director.

Under director.

Accountant.

Chiefs of bureaus (3).

Personnel technique.

Controller of school buildings.

Chief of the service of translations.

Personnel of the central administration: Appointments and promotions, disposability, salaries, hierarchy, etc. Civic decorations for employees of the central administration. Regulations. General discipline. Library. Bulletin of the department, The Royal Almanac. Material of the central administration. Bureau of dispatch, insertions in the Monitor. General accounting; correspondence with the courts of accounts and the department of finance. Budget of the department. Legalizations, franchises, counter-signatures; general regulations for traveling and living expenses; attachments; taking of oaths. Miscellaneous matters. Matters not within the purview of any service. Matters delegated by the Minister. Documentation. Relief for former officials, employees, and primary teachers, etc.

#### SECRETARIAT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

Secretary of Public Instruction.

Director.

Chief of the bureau.

The Superior Council of Public Instruction: Organization, composition, duties. Councils of perfecting of higher education, of middle school education, of primary and normal education. Coordination of work. General affairs relating to public instruction, communal affairs in all the orders of education: Legislation, regulations, and instruction. Funds for the better endowed: Legislation, regulations, and jurisprudence. Committees of selection. Methods. Subsidies and accounting. Reports. Statistics. Documentation. Student scholarships for children belonging to large families. Legal and pedagogic organization of public instruction in foreign countries. Studies and documentation. Information about the general organization of instruction in Belgium.

ADMINISTRATION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION

Director general.

Director.

Underdirectors (6).

Chiefs of the bureaus (3).

*First section.*—Legislation. Compulsory education. Execution of regulations and programs. Organization of primary schools, kindergartens, and schools for adults (communal, adopted, and adoptable). Matters of school assistance. Endowments. Statistics. Triennial reports on the condition of primary education. Publications. Administrative documentation. Inspection of primary schools, kindergartens, and schools for adults. Organization and direction. School medical inspection. Appointments. Plurality of offices.

*Second section.*—Salaries of teachers. Disputes and settlements.

*Third section.*—Accounting; budgets, subsidies, settlements. Making funds available. Disciplinary punishments. Honorary distinctions. Temporaries.

*Services of inspection.*—Inspection of religious instruction in public primary and public normal schools.

Roman Catholic religion:

Principal diocesan inspectors (9).

Diocesan inspectors (28).

Jewish religion:

Inspector.

Protestant religions:

Inspector (1).

*Inspection of primary education.*—

General inspectors:

Walloonish areas (1).

Flemish areas (1).

Principal inspectors (30).

Cantonal inspectors (175).

*Inspection of work for women.*—

Principal inspectors (31) (women).

ADMINISTRATION OF NORMAL EDUCATION

Director general.

Director.

Underdirectors (2).

*First section.*—Normal education. Normal sections in middle school education. National primary normal schools. Provincial, communal, and private normal schools, admission. Regulations. Personnel. Appointment, temporaries, dis-



missals, discipline, and civic decorations. Kindergarten normal sections, examinations and juries of primary and kindergarten normal education. Inspection of the middle normal schools, primary, and of the kindergarten normal sections. Organization, pedagogic direction. Religious inspection.

*Second section*—Instruction. Program of normal instruction (middle, primary, and kindergarten). Program of primary, kindergarten, and adult schools. Normal courses. Examinations and juries of middle normal instruction. Juries of teachers. Council of perfecting. Cantonal conferences. Physical education. Schools for children of boatmen. Publications. Pedagogic documentation. The school museum. Expositions.

*Third section*—Accounting. Budget. Subsidies. Scholarships. Payments. Bursaries for the normal schools. Buildings and equipment. Statistics.

*Services of Inspection.*—

Inspectors of primary normal schools (7).

Inspectors of middle school education charged with duties in the primary normal schools (3).

Inspectress of normal schools and kindergarten normal sections (1).

Inspectress of work for women in the primary normal schools for girls and of bursaries in the national normal schools (1).

Inspectors of gymnastics (2) for both normal and middle school education.

Inspectors of drawing and manual work (2) for both normal and middle school education.

Inspectors of instruction in music (2) for both normal and middle school education.

ADMINISTRATION OF MIDDLE SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

Director general.

Directors (2).

Director of personnel.

Underdirector.

Chief of the bureau.

Assistant to the chief of the bureau.

Chief of the bureau of personnel.

Establishments for middle school education: Athénées royal, collèges and middle schools. Organization of studies. Bureaus of administration. Personnel. Premises and material. Accounting. Inspection. Council of perfecting. General competition, distribution of prizes. Scholarships for study and scholarships for travel. Triennial reports. Decorations.

*Services of Inspection.*—

Inspector general of middle school education.

Inspectors of middle school education (4).

Inspectors of modern languages (2).

Inspectors of primary normal schools charged with inspection duties in middle school education (4).

Inspectors of gymnastics (see normal school inspection above).

Inspectors of drawing and manual training (see normal school inspection above).

Inspectors of instruction in music (see normal school inspection above).

Inspectress of hand work and domestic economy in the middle schools for girls (1).

Inspector of accounting of secretary-treasurers of national middle schools (1).

Controller of accounting of secretary-treasurers of national middle schools (1).

## ADMINISTRATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND OF SCIENCES

Director general.

Directors (2).

Underdirector.

Chiefs of the bureau (2).

Establishments of higher education: National universities and special and annexed schools. Council of perfecting of higher education. Juries of examination constituted by the Government for the conferring of academic degrees. Jury of confirmation of middle school certificates. Jury charged with the conduct of the examinations preparatory to admission to the university. Interuniversity sport meets. Committee of confirmation of academic diplomas. University competitions. Scholarships for study and scholarships for travel. Triennial reports on the condition of higher education given at the expense of the nation. University endowment. Patrimony of the university of the School of Mines at Mons. Intellectual relations with foreign countries. Subsidies and scientific encouragement. Subscriptions. Scientific trips and missions. Excavations and works in the interest of science. Help to scientists who are in need or to families of deceased scientists. Scientific societies. Quinquennial and decennial prizes. Publication of the *Bibliotheca Belgica*. Publication of the *Bibliographie nationale*. International office of bibliography. Union of international associations. Tables of Studies in the zoological, physiological, and biological stations in foreign countries.

National scientific institutions: The Royal Observatory, The Royal Meteorological Institute, The Royal Library, The Royal Museum of Natural History, The general archives of the Kingdom at Brussels, and the national archives in the Provinces. Participation of Belgium in the work of hydrographic and biological exploration of the sea. Commission of War, Archives. Congresses and expositions. Miscellaneous matters.

## ADMINISTRATION OF FINE ARTS, LETTERS, AND PUBLIC LIBRARIES

Director general.

Directors (3).

Director of personnel.

Underdirectors (2).

Chiefs of the bureau (5).

Royal Academy and Institute of Fine Arts at Anvers. Academies and schools of painting, of sculpture, of engraving, of architecture, and of drawing. Council of perfecting instruction in the arts of drawing. Château and collections of Mariemont. Japanese tower at Laeken. Château and collections of Gaesbeek. Great competition of painting, sculpture, architecture, and engraving. Royal museums of painting and sculpture. Royal museums of decorative and industrial arts. Royal conservatories of music of Bruxelles, Gand, Anvers, and Liège. Schools of music, musical societies, the great competition of musical composition. Royal commission of monuments. Restoration and conservation of church buildings, of monuments and of objects of ancient art. Artistic furniture of the churches. Expositions of objects of art; statutes, medallions for memorable events, encouragements, subscriptions, purchases, missions in the interests of arts. The Royal Academy of Sciences, Letters, and Fine Arts. The Royal Flemish Academy of Philology and Literature. The Royal Academy of French Language and Literature. The Royal Commission of History. The Belgian Historical Institute of Rome. The direction of Belgian Library services and international exchanges. Literary and artistic copyrights. Committees of

reading of works and of dramatic musical compositions. Competitions, missions, travels, and encouragement of every nature concerning letters (subsidies, subscriptions, purchases, assistance, etc.). Literary and artistic congresses and expositions. Public libraries. Works complementary to the school. Civic decorations concerning the service.

*Services of inspection.*—

- Inspector of instruction in the art of drawing.
- Inspector of instruction in music.
- Inspector of academies and schools of drawing.
- Inspector general of public libraries.
- Inspectors of the first class of public libraries (2).
- Inspectors of the second class of public libraries (4).

ADMINISTRATION OF PENSIONS

Director general.

Directors (4).

Underdirectors (3).

Chiefs of the bureau (3).

*Retirement pensions:* (1) Of members of the personnel of the central administration and of establishments under the jurisdiction of the department.

(2) Of communal professors and teachers and of members of the teaching personnel in adopted or adoptable primary schools.

(3) Of directors, professors, and masters of study in the normal schools either provincial or free, accepted, as well as the teachers of practice schools annexed to the normals.

(4) Every officer and employee of the National who has rendered in education services admissible in the calculation of his pension.

Widows' and orphans' chest: (1) Of professors, officers, and employees of the administrative order and the teaching order in public instruction.

(2) Communal professors and teachers.—Accounting of the national, provincial, and communal parts in the pensions:

(1) Of communal professors and teachers, teachers of adopted schools, and their directors, professors, and teachers in the accepted provincial normal schools as well as the teachers in the practice schools annexed to them.

(2) In the pensions of the widows and orphans of professors' and teachers' communal that have been affiliated with the provident chests dissolved in 1876. Provincial commissions of pensions.

COUNCILS OF ADMINISTRATION OF THE CHESTS OF PENSIONS UNDER THE JURISDICTION OF THE MINISTER OF SCIENCES AND OF ARTS

*Chests for widows and orphans of professors, officers, and employees of the administrative and teaching order in public instruction. (Instituted by royal decree of January 24, 1880.)*

President.

Vice president.

Members (4).

Secretary-member.

Affiliated with this chest are: The officials and employees which belonged to the central administration of the former ministry of public instruction; the professors, officials and employees of the national universities and the schools annexed to them, as well as the higher institute of commerce at Anvers and the National Professional Museum at Morlanwelz; members of the teaching staff of the school of veterinary medicine and of the National Agricultural Institute;

civil members of the teaching personnel of the military school, of the school of war, of the cadet schools, of the schools for pupils (wards) of the army; members of administrative and teaching staff and the inspectors of the Royal athénées, national middle schools, and primary normal schools and normal sections of the national middle schools; the personnel of the national practical middle schools of agriculture and horticulture; the principal inspectors and the cantonal inspectors of primary education; secretaries of the councils of perfecting education.

*Chests for the widows and orphans of communal professors and teachers.*  
(Instituted by royal decree of November 3, 1876)

President.

Vice president.

Members (4):

Secretary-member.

Affiliated with this chest are: The members of the administrative and teaching personnel of the communal primary, kindergarten, and adult schools, as well as the colleges, middle schools, normal schools, technical schools, industrial schools, professional schools, shops of apprentices, commercial schools, home-economics schools, academies and schools of drawing, academies and schools of music, all belonging to the communes; members of the teaching personnel of adopted or adoptable primary schools; directors, professors, and masters of study of the normal schools either provincial or free, accepted, and the teachers of the practice schools annexed to these establishments.

#### HONORARY OFFICIALS AND UNATTACHED

Secretary general.

Director general.

Directors general of personnel (2).

Director.

Director (outside of the list).

Director (outside of the list). Librarian.

Director of Personnel.

Chief of the division of personnel.

## Appendix IV

### A BRIEF STATEMENT OF THE HISTORY AND PRESENT LEGAL STATUS OF THE NATIONAL MINISTRY OF EDUCATION IN EACH COUNTRY

*Albania (Ministria e Mesimit).*<sup>1</sup>—Albanians abroad began about 1903 to influence those in the homeland to establish a national government and gradually sufficient unity of aim and effort was brought about for the country to announce its independence from Turkey on November 28, 1912. From 1914 to June 3, 1917, when an Italian general proclaimed it an independent country, there was practically no government. A republic was subsequently established and in 1925 a constitution adopted. In 1928, the constitution was so changed as to make the Government a limited monarchy and Ahmed Zogu, the President, became the King. The executive power is vested in the King and exercised through ministers of state. The cabinet of March 17, 1914, included a minister of public instruction and public health and the office seems to have been continued through the many short-lived governments and to have been a part of the Ahmed Zogu cabinets of December 3, 1922, and of the Republic. In the present Kingdom it is the ministry of culture.

*Afghanistan (Ministry of Education).*—The complete independence of Afghanistan was recognized by a treaty with Great Britain on November 22, 1921. In 1922 the Government became a constitutional monarchy with seven executive departments, one of which was for education. Since the abdication of Amanullah Khan late in 1928, no information has been obtainable as to education and its administration in the Kingdom.

*Argentina (Ministerio de Justicia e Instrucción Pública).*—Argentina proclaimed its independence from Spanish rule on July 9, 1816. No stable government existed until the adoption of the constitution of May 15, 1853, a constitution that was modified in 1860, 1866, and 1898. The first vigorous movement for public education was roused by President Faustino Sarmiento, who had studied school systems in the United States and Europe and had become intimately acquainted with Humboldt, Guizot, and Horace Mann. During his administration, from 1868 to 1873, he gave liberal

<sup>1</sup>In each the title of the ministry is given in the language of the country, if it could be secured in that form.

national aid to the schools and organized a normal school of the modern type. The constitution of 1860, still in effect with its modifications, provides for eight ministers or secretaries to have charge of the affairs of the nation. The competence of each is determined by law.

The year 1870 is set as the date when the national Government really entered upon a policy of encouraging and to some extent directing education, but a ministry of justice, religion, and public instruction was in existence and reported in 1863. About 1885 the name and the duties were so changed that it became the ministry of justice and public instruction and as such it has continued to function and is now in operation.

*Austria (Bundesministerium für Unterricht).*—After the defeat of the armies of Maria Theresa in 1762 and the expulsion of the Jesuits in 1773, a law of 1774 reorganized public education and provided for a central school commission (Studienhofkommission) to exercise general control over all the schools. It was replaced in 1849 by a ministry of education established by imperial decree. In 1860 the education ministry was united with that of the interior and in 1867 reestablished by imperial decree as a separate "Ministerium für Cultus and Unterricht." This was continued by the provisional constitution of the republic of October 30, 1918, as the "Staatsamt für Unterricht." The law of March 14, 1919, again combined it with the Interior under the name of "Staatsamt für Inneres und Unterricht." Article 77 of the constitution of October 1, 1920, stipulates that the administrative functions of the Government are to be exercised by the federal ministries that in number, jurisdiction, and organization are to be established by law. Decree of April 9, 1923, based on the extraordinary powers granted the Federal Government by the federal constitutional law of November 26, 1922, made the ministry of education separate and gave it the name of "Bundesministerium für Unterricht."

*Belgium (Ministère des Sciences et des Arts or Ministerie van Kunstan en Watenskappen).*—By its constitution of 1831, revised in 1921, Belgium is a constitutional, representative, and hereditary monarchy. From the time of the adoption of the constitution until 1878, national control of public education, in so far as such control existed, was for the most part in the ministry of the interior. The administration which came into power on June 12, 1878, created a ministry of public instruction. Following the elections of June, 1884, that ministry was abolished and its attributes transferred to the interior. The department became known as the ministry of the interior and of public instruction. The present ministry of sciences and fine arts was created by royal decree of 1908 by taking the public-instruction

branch from the interior and uniting it with the bureau of fine arts from the ministry of labor.

*Bolivia (Ministerio de Instrucción y Agricultura).*—A ministry of public instruction was created by decree on November 16, 1840, and D. Tomás Frias, one of the first ministers, is credited as having been the greatest that the Republic has had. Only brief references to the history of the ministry are available.<sup>2</sup> At different times it was connected with other ministries such as agriculture and public works. The constitution of 1880 provides that the business of public administration shall be transacted by secretaries of state, whose number shall be designated by law. At present education and agriculture are combined.

*Bulgaria (Ministerstvo na narodnava prosvieshchenia).*—Constantine Stephanove writes:<sup>3</sup>

Until recently the Bulgarian Exarchy, which was formally recognized by Turkey in 1871, was actually, though unofficially, the Ministry of Education of all the Bulgarians, wherever found, for Bulgaria as a state did not as yet exist. Though its professed function was to look after the religious welfare of its flock, its efforts, nevertheless, were directed chiefly toward the promotion of better education among the various Bulgarian communities under its jurisdiction.

Bulgaria became an independent principality in 1878; a constitution was promulgated the following year. Article 161 provided for the ministry of education. Article 78 made primary education free and compulsory for all citizens of the kingdom. Apart from the constitution, the school system is based on the general education laws of 1885, 1891, 1909, and 1921 with amendments. T. Bourmoff was the first minister of public instruction.

*Chile (Ministerio de Instrucción Pública).*—A ministry of public instruction was established under the constitution shortly after its adoption in 1833. The constitution of September 18, 1925, provides that the number of ministers of state and their departments shall be determined by law. It includes also the article in the former which provides that:

There shall be a superintendency of public education, in whose charge will be the inspection of national instruction, and its direction under the authority of the government.

By decree No. 7,500 of December 10, 1927, the administration of education in Chile was reorganized and the superintendency provided for in the constitution is an essential part of the ministry.

<sup>2</sup> Memoria que presenta el Ministro de Instrucción Pública y Agricultura Dr. Carlos Paz al Congreso Nacional de 1925. Primer Centenario de la República. La Paz, Bolivia, Imprenta Renacimiento, 1925. 220 pp.

<sup>3</sup> Stephanove, Constantine. Bulgaria. In Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, 1924. New York, Macmillan Co., 1925.

*China (Chiao Yu Pu).*—In ancient China, the ruler Shun (2205 B. C.), is credited with having created three administrative offices of an educational character. He appointed Hsieh minister of education to teach the people the duties of the five human relationships. The office existed in later dynasties up to 1122 B. C. In the dynasties of Chou (1122 to 255 B. C.), education was in the hands of one of the six administrative departments and the system, begun in the time of Shun; of selecting by examination able men for public service had developed to a high degree of organization. It continued with few interruptions and modifications until 1905, when it was abolished by edict. The Chino-Japanese War in 1894–95 A. D., the Boxer outbreak in 1901, and the Russo-Japanese War all combined to make the Chinese people realize that more modern methods of education must be adopted. The first modern school system was proposed by a commission in 1903 and in 1905, the throne created a ministry of education to superintend and control the new system. The Manchu dynasty was overthrown in 1911, and the ministry of education of the Republic organized in Nanking on January 9, 1912.\* After the uniting of the north and south, the ministry was transferred to Peking. In 1922, it promulgated a new scheme of education. At the close of the civil war of 1927–28, the Nationalist Party announced the organic law of the national government at Nanking, October 4, 1928. The main divisions of the Government are five *yuan* and one of these, the executive *yuan*, has 10 ministries, among them the ministry of education.

*Colombia (Ministerio de Educación Nacional).*—Article 132 of the constitution of August 4, 1886, states that the number, designation, and precedence of the ministers shall be determined by law, and leaves it to the President to assign to each minister the business that pertains to his department. Evidently a ministry of public instruction was established shortly after the adoption of the constitution for Jesús Casas Rojas, as minister, reported to the congress in 1888. An organic law, No. 39 of 1903, reorganized education in Colombia and decree No. 491 of 1904, issued to put law No. 39 into effect, fixed the powers and duties of the ministry of public instruction. Laws 25 and 31 of 1917 and 17 of 1923, further defined its authority. About 1925, it became the ministry of instruction and public health (Ministerio de Instrucción y Salubridad Pública) and remained so until by Law 56 of November 10, 1927, the name was changed to the ministry of national education.

*Costa Rica (Secretaría de Estado en el Despacho de Educación Pública).*—In accordance with article 105 of the constitution of De-

\* Kuo, Ping Wen. *The Chinese System of Public Education*. Published by Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1915. 209 pp.



ember 7, 1871, and modified frequently since that date, administration is carried on by the president through seven secretaries of state, one of which is the secretary of public education. Article 19 of the law of primary instruction as compiled in 1893 and covering the years 1886 to 1892 provides for a secretariat of education assisted by a council.<sup>5</sup>

*Cuba (Secretaría de Instrucción Pública y Bellas Artes).*—The constitution of February 21, 1901, provides for a cabinet; the number of members was fixed at eight by the organic law of executive power promulgated in 1909 and later increased to nine. The present secretariat of public instruction and fine arts is legally defined in chapter VII of the law of 1909.<sup>6</sup>

*Czechoslovakia (Ministerstva Školství a Národní Osvěty).*—The ministry of schools and national education was first provided for in a law of November 2, 1918, passed by the Czechoslovak national committee. The constitution of February 20, 1920, gives the president power to appoint and dismiss cabinet members and determine their number. The competence of a ministry is fixed by law.

*Danzig (Senatsabteilung für Wissenschaft, Kunst und Volksbildung).*—Article 25 of the constitution of August 11, 1920, established the senate of the Free City; article 35 makes it the highest authority in the land and gives it the right to conduct the administration of the State in accord with the constitution. The senate division for science, art, and popular instruction is its division for administering education.

*Denmark (Undervisningsministerium).*—From 1848 to 1916 the administration of education was in the ministry of education and ecclesiastical affairs. On June 15, 1915, the Danish people adopted a new constitution or "Grundlov" in which the executive power is vested in the Crown, which exercises its authority through its appointed ministers. The ministry of instruction was created by Royal resolution of April 28, 1916.

*Dominican Republic (Secretaría de Estado de Justicia e Instrucción Pública).*—The constitution of November 18, 1844, revised on June 13, 1924, provides in articles 54, 55, and 56 for the creation by law of secretaries of state and the prescription of their duties and attributes. The report of a commission sent by the Congress of the United States in 1871 to inquire into conditions in the Republic tells of a ministry of public instruction. In 1884 the central administra-

<sup>5</sup> República de Costa Rica. Compilación Legislativa de Instrucción Primaria, 1886-1892. Edición oficial. América Central. San José, Tipografía Nacional, 1893.

<sup>6</sup> República de Cuba. Secretaría de Instrucción Pública y Bellas Artes. Compilación de Leyes y Disposiciones que tienen ese Carácter Vigentes en Materia de Instrucción Primaria. Habana, Imprenta El Siglo XX, 1919. 56 pp.

tive office concerned with education was the ministry of justice, development, and public instruction. The organic code and regulations of public education published in 1915 sets out the work of the secretary of state for public instruction. At present the secretariat of education is combined with that of justice.<sup>7</sup>

*Ecuador (Ministerio de Instrucción Pública, Correos, Telégrafos, y Bellas Artes).*—Ecuador became independent in 1830. Eleven different constitutions were adopted between 1830 and 1906. That of 1884, with modifications of 1887 and 1897, remained in force until the promulgation of the constitution of December 28, 1906. This was in effect until the time of the military coup d'état of July, 1925. In 1863 a law which provided for a system of education definitely modeled on the French scheme was passed. In the following 10 years the law was so changed as to be ineffective. A ministry of public instruction, ecclesiastical affairs, etc., was functioning in 1885. By virtue of the constitution of 1906, such a ministry is one of the five executive departments. The report for 1928 is issued by the ministry of public instruction, posts, telegraphs, and fine arts.

*Egypt (Wizaret el Maaref).*—The first ministry of education in Egypt was established by Mohammed Ali in 1836. Royal proclamation No. 42 of 1923, providing for the constitutional government of the Egyptian State, authorizes the King to exercise his power through the medium of ministers. A ministry of education forms part of the government.

*England (Board of Education).*—National participation in education began in England with the factory act of 1802. In 1833, the House of Commons voted £20,000, subsequently made an annual grant, "in aid of private subscriptions for the erection of school houses for the education of the poorer classes of Great Britain." An Order in Council in 1839 created the Committee of the Privy Council on Education to superintend the application of any sums voted by Parliament for the purpose of promoting public education. Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth was chosen as its secretary. The Forster Act of 1870 laid the foundation of a national public elementary school system and gave the committee of the council considerable powers. The Royal Commission on Secondary Education, the Bryce Commission of 1894, recommended the creation of a department presided over by a minister responsible to Parliament. Such a ministry was established by the Board of Education act of 1899. Apart from certain miscellaneous powers under various acts of Parliament, its functions and powers are now set out in the education act, 1921, which consolidated previous legislation, and the teachers' superannuation acts, 1918-1925.

<sup>7</sup> Santo Domingo. Laws, statutes, etc. Código Orgánico y Reglamentario de Educación Común. Edición Oficial. Santo Domingo, Imp. La Cuna de América, 1915. 340 pp.

*Estonia (Haridusministeerium).*—When the new republic was organized in 1918, provision was made for a ministry of public instruction to organize and promote all kinds of educational activities not only in schools but in every way to develop culture in general. By the constitution of June 15, 1920, the number of ministries and their jurisdiction are established by special law. Under such a law, the ministry of education now functions.

*Finland (Opetusministerio or Undervisningsministerium).*—During Russian domination the more or less autonomous Finland was governed by the Imperial Senate for Finland. It consisted of several departments directed by responsible heads called senators. One of the departments was that of Ecclesiastical Affairs and Education. By the constitution given at Helsingfors July 17, 1919, the executive power is vested in the president and a council of ministers consisting of the minister of state and others, their number and jurisdiction to be fixed by law. In the transition from the old to the new government, there was little change in the form of administration. The senate became the council of ministers and its various departments became the ministries. Their status has since been altered somewhat by law. Section 3 of the law of March 30, 1922, which fixes the number of ministries at 10, stipulates that the functions of the ministry of education are: To administer matters pertaining to education, the Evangelical Lutheran Church, other religious organizations, and matters pertaining to the arts, science, and sports.

*France (Ministère de l'Instruction Publique et des Beaux Arts).*—The law of May 1, 1802, created three inspector generals charged with visiting the lycées annually. They constituted a kind of directing committee. The decree of March 17, 1808, provided that the grand master of the university should be presented to the Emperor by the Ministry of the Interior for the purpose of reporting annually on the university establishments and membership. At the same time a council of the university of 30 members was created. It was divided into five sections reporting to the General Assembly, and the council, as a whole, had well-defined, important administrative duties. The ephemeral order of February 17, 1815, suppressed the grand master of the university and replaced the council by the Royal Council of Public Instruction of 12 members, which was to submit its deliberations to the Ministry of the Interior for the approval or disapproval of the King. The order was never executed. That of August 5 following gave to a commission, of 5 members called the Commission of Public Instruction all the powers of the former grand master and of the council of the university and placed it formally under the Ministry of the Interior.

An ordinance of July 22, 1820, changed the number of members to seven, and one of November 1 of the same year, gave to the commission the name of Royal Council of Public Instruction and fixed the duties of the members and of the council. On the 21st of December following two orders were passed; one conferring on M. Corbière the presidency of the Royal Council of Public Instruction and the other making him a Minister-Secretary of State and a member of the Council of Ministers. The ministerial era in French education had begun.

In 1822, when Corbière became Minister of Finance an ordinance of June 1 reestablished the title of grand master of the university and gave it to the Abbot Frayssinous. Two years later, on August 26, 1824, Louis XVIII created the ministry of ecclesiastical affairs and of public instruction and gave it to the same abbot. After the revolution of 1830 the department of public instruction was separated from that of religion.\*

The present Ministry of Public Instruction and Fine Arts has its legal status in the constitutional law of February 25, 1875, which defines the duties of the President and of his ministers.

*Greece (Hypourgeion epi ton Ekklesiastikon kai tes Demosias Ekpaideuseos).*—In modern Greece the first ministry of public instruction seems to have been established during the years 1821 to 1829, when Greece was gaining independence from Turkey. The first minister, M. Soutzos, was appointed by the assembly of Trezene and rendered a report dated January 14, 1828, on public instruction. The same assembly appointed Jean Capodistrius of Corfu president of the Government for seven years, 1827 to 1833. Throughout his rule he furthered public education and gave to the elementary schools much of the character which they still retain. With the establishment of the monarchy in 1833, the ministry of public instruction was retained and by 1880 the office had been held by 52 different ministers, some of them for two or three times. Greece became a republic on April 13, 1924. The ministry of public instruction is continued under the constitution published June 3, 1927.

*Guatemala (Secretaría de Educación Pública).*—The secretariat of public instruction is provided for by the constitution of the Republic, promulgated on December 11, 1879. The powers vested in the secretary are set forth in regulations concerning the different secretaries of state, dated October 27, 1897. The title of secretariat of public instruction was changed to that of secretariat of public education by executive decree dated January 15, 1924. The duties

\* Cournot, Antoine Augustin. *Des Institutions d'Instruction Publique en France.* Paris, Librairie de L. Hachette et Cie., 1864.

of the secretariat are set forth also in the organic law and regulations of public instruction published in 1912.<sup>9</sup>

*Haiti (Département de l'Instruction Publique).*—Haiti was proclaimed independent of France January 1, 1804. In the government maintained under the constitution of October 9, 1889, there was a secretary of state for public instruction. The present constitution was ratified June 12, 1918. Article 25 gives the President authority to appoint and dismiss the ministers of state. A law of May 30, 1924, provides for the Government departments; a presidential decree of December 10, 1924, fixes the functions and duties of each department including that of education.

*Honduras (Secretaría de Estado en el Despacho de Instrucción Pública).*—The administration of the educational system of Honduras is vested by the constitution of October 3, 1824, in the secretariat of public instruction. The various bodies through which he exercises his authority are provided for in the Code of Public Instruction published in 1923.<sup>10</sup>

*Hungary (Vallás- és Közoktatásügyi Ministerium).*—Hungary first became an independent kingdom in 1001. From 1689, when the crowns of Hungary and Austria were united, to 1848 education in the two countries developed along similar lines. In the brief independence which Hungary attained in 1848 a national assembly was created and Baron Joseph Eötvös was made first minister of education. He proposed an elementary education law but the war of independence and the absolute rule that followed prevented Eötvös's plan from being adopted until after the compromise of 1867 when he again became minister of public instruction and took up the work broken off in 1848. Since then a ministry has been constantly maintained, with the exception possibly of a few months in 1918 and 1919 during the régimes of the Republic and the soviet.<sup>11</sup>

*Iraq (Ministry of Education).*—Iraq, freed from Turkey during the World War, was recognized as an independent state and placed under a mandate to Great Britain. On December 14, 1927, by treaty with Great Britain, it became entirely independent. The organic law passed by the Constituent Assembly in June, 1924, provides for a limited monarchy and a responsible government. Education is in charge of a minister, a member of the cabinet.

*Irish Free State (An Roinn Oideachais).*—By treaty of December, 1921, with the British Government, the Irish Free State was given the same constitutional status in the community of nations, known as

<sup>9</sup> *Las Orgánicas y Reglamentaria de Instrucción Pública.* Guatemala, Tipografía Nacional, 1912.

<sup>10</sup> *Código de Instrucción Pública.* Tegucigalpa, Tipografía Nacional, 1923. 99 pp.

<sup>11</sup> Hongrie. Ministère des Cultes et de l'Instruction publique. *Exposé sur le développement (1867-1877) et sur l'état actuel de l'Instruction Publique, etc.* Budapest, Imprimerie de l'Université Royal Hongroise, 1878.

the British Empire, as the self-governing dominions. The ministry of education is provided for in articles 51, 52, 53, and 54 of the constitution act (No. 1 of 1922); and section 1, subsection 5 of the ministers' and secretaries' act (No. 16 of 1924).

*Italy (Ministero della Educazione Nazionale).*—The ministry of public instruction was created by royal patent of November 30, 1847. The first incumbent was Cesare Alfieri di Sostegno.<sup>12</sup> By royal decree of September 12, 1929, No. 1661, the name was changed from ministry of public instruction to ministry of national education.

*Japan (Mombu-Sho, Nippon).*—The restoration of the Meiji and the beginning of the new era for Japan took place in 1868. An educational officer was appointed immediately and various schools established. Three years later the department of education was instituted for the control of the educational affairs of the whole country. In 1872 a code of education modeled on the French system was adopted. The present organization of the department of education is fixed by imperial ordinance No. 279 of 1896.

*Latvia (Izglitibas Ministrija).*—The constitution of Latvia was passed by the Constituent Assembly on February 15, 1922. It does not provide specifically for a ministry of education but for a cabinet of ministers whose number and duties are to be prescribed by law. Under the Russian laws effective before the sovereign state of Latvia was proclaimed on November 18, 1918, there was a director of education and the duties of that office are expanded and vested in the ministry of education.

*Liberia (Department of Public Instruction).*—The general authority for a department of education is given in sections 1 and 5 of Article III of the constitution of July 6, 1847. No system of schools was provided until 1869 and from that year until 1900 the department of the interior was the executive office concerned with education. The department of public instruction was created by legislative enactment in January, 1900; and on February 5, 1912, the general education act, superseding all previous acts relating to education, became a law. The department is under the direction of a cabinet officer, the secretary of public instruction.

*Lithuania (Ministerija Svietimo).*—Lithuania was proclaimed independent February 16, 1918. Section 56 of the constitution of August 1, 1922, provides that the number of ministers and their duties shall be prescribed by law. By the public school law of October 6, 1922, the ministry of enlightenment is charged with the administration of all schools.

*Mexico (Secretaría de Educación Pública).*—Mexico became a republic in 1824. Little was done for public education and the

<sup>12</sup> Italy. Ministero della Pubblica Istruzione—Memoria. 1927. Roma, Provveditorato Generale dello Stato, 1927. (V)

constitution of 1857 did not give the Federal Government power to develop a national school system. A secretariat of justice and public instruction was created about 1857 and continued to function until on May 16, 1905, when President Diaz acting in accord with laws previously passed by the Congress, issued a decree creating the secretariat of state for public instruction and fine arts. Justo Sierra was chosen to be the first secretary. The secretariat was abolished by the constitution adopted in 1917. Article 90 provides for the creation by law of the secretariats necessary for administration; a law of April 13, 1917, prescribes the functions of each secretariat. A decree of September 29, 1921, reestablished the educational office under the title of secretariat of public education.

*Netherlands (Ministerie van Onderwijs, Kunsten en Wetenschappen).*—The constitution of the Netherlands, by which it is a constitutional and hereditary monarchy, was first promulgated in 1814 and has been revised seven different times, the latest in 1922. By a law of 1857 the general supervision of education was committed to the ministry of the interior and continued to be with that ministry until by royal decree of September 25, 1918, the ministry of education, science, and art was instituted.

*Nicaragua (Ministerio de Instrucción Pública).*—Nicaragua became an autonomous republic in 1847. A constitution was promulgated August 19, 1858; another on July 4, 1894, with amendments of December 10, 1896; and others in 1905, 1912, and April 5, 1913. The first educational decree on record is that of September 20, 1877. It provided for a system of public school direction and inspection under the minister of public instruction. The regulations published in 1884 governing the national institutes provide for two central offices of education both under the ministry. Under the constitution of March 30, 1905, a ministry of foreign affairs and public instruction was one of the five executive departments. It seems to have functioned until after the adoption of the present constitution of April 5, 1913. The office is now the ministry of public instruction, one of the six executive departments.

*New Zealand (Department of Education).*—The Provinces of New Zealand were abolished in 1876, but the provincial school systems remained in operation until 1878, when the present system came into force. Under the education act, 1877, a department of education presided over by a minister of education was established and has continued to the present time.

*Norway (Det Kongelige Kirke- og Undervisningsdepartement).*—The Royal Ecclesiastical and Educational Department was established in 1814, shortly after the adoption of the Grundlov of May 17, 1814, article 12 of which declares in a general way that "the King will apportion the Government's activities among the members

of the cabinet in the most effective manner." The department succeeded a board of three members directly responsible to the King, that from 1805 had had control of all schools preparing for university entrance.

*Panama (Secretaría de Instrucción Pública).*—Panama asserted its independence from Colombia in 1903, and adopted a constitution on February 13, 1904. The constitution was amended on December 16, 1918. From the time of the establishment of the first government, a secretariat of public instruction has been one of the five executive departments. It functions under article 636, Title V, of the Administrative Code; Law 35 of 1919; and Law 41 of 1924.

*Paraguay (Ministerio de Justicia, Culto e Instrucción).*—The ministry is provided for in article 8 of the constitution of November 25, 1870, which reads: "Primary education is obligatory and shall be given preeminent attention by the Government. Congress shall hear annually the report of the minister concerned regarding this matter in order to further by every means possible the instruction of the citizens." By law of October 18, 1889, secondary and university education are also placed under the jurisdiction of the ministry of education. The present school organization follows the plan adopted in 1896; the plan of studies is that approved by decree No. 2814 of February, 1915; the national council of education is organized by law of July 15, 1899.

*Persia (Vozarat Moaref).*—The constitution was approved December 30, 1906. Article 19 provides that "The foundation of schools at the expense of the State and the people, and compulsory education, must be in accordance with the law of the ministry of education. All primary and secondary schools must be under the direction and surveillance of the ministry of education."

*Peru (Ministerio de Justicia, Instrucción, Culto, Beneficencia y Prisiones).*—Peru declared its independence from Spain in 1821 and finally won it in 1824. Constitutions were framed in 1828, 1933, and 1938. From 1844 to 1879 the country was, for the most part, at peace and prosperous. Since 1879 it has frequently been involved in foreign wars or internal disturbances. The presidency was seized by a coup d'état in 1919 and a new constitution promulgated on January 18, 1920.

From 1821 to 1850 the system of public instruction was in the main under the administration of the executive authority acting through the ministry of public instruction.<sup>13</sup> In one form or another an education ministry has been maintained since 1850. Its authority was considerably strengthened by the school law of 1905. Article 125 of the constitution of January 18, 1920, provides that public adminis-

<sup>13</sup> Educación Nacional. Trabajos de la Comisión Especial de Instrucción. Boletín N. 1. Lima, Litografía Tip. Carlos Fabri, 1911. 167 p.



tration is in charge of ministers of state, whose number, as well as the bureaus comprehended under each ministry, shall be designated by law. One of the seven ministries is that of justice, instruction, worship, public welfare, and prisons.

*Poland (Ministerstwo Wyznań Religijnych i Oświecenia Publicznego).*—By papal bull of July 21, 1773, the Jesuits were suppressed and their wealth, holdings, and schools became the property of the nation. A constitutional amendment passed by the Diet on October 14, 1776, created a commission of national education, among the first of the national ministries of education of its kind to be created in the history of modern education. About 1776 it was given full control of the wealth formerly belonging to the Jesuits. It functioned actively until the partition in 1795 and in its acts anticipated many of the more important provisions in present-day public-school systems. During the time of the partition (1795, to 1918) education in each annexe was in the control of Germany, Austria, or Russia. The independence of Poland was proclaimed on November 9, 1918; the present constitution was adopted on March 17, 1921. By its terms the President exercises his authority through ministers responsible to the Sejm. The number, competence and mutual relations of the ministers is determined by special statute. The status of the present ministry of religious creeds and public education is based upon a law of 1920.

*Portugal (Ministerio de Instrução Publica).*—From 1844 to 1880 the school system of Portugal was administered in accord with a decree of 1844. In 1859 the decree was amended to provide for a direction general of public instruction in the ministry of the interior. A brief hiatus occurred in 1870 when, under the dictator government, a law of August 16 created a ministry of public instruction but this did not endure and the ministry fell with the dictatorship. The law of May 2, 1878, which took effect in 1880 continued the central administration in the ministry of the interior. A separate ministry of public instruction was created by decree of April 5, 1890, and suppressed on March 3, 1892. The reforms of December 22, 1894, which were placed in force on June 18, 1896, left the administration of education in the ministry of the interior where it remained until after the establishment of the republic and the adoption of the constitution August 20, 1911. By that constitution the president exercises his authority through ministries created by the Congress. A separate ministry of public instruction was established in 1918.

*Rumania (Ministerul Instrucțiunii).*—The two principalities Wallachia and Moldavia proclaimed their union as Rumania on December 23, 1861. The public instruction law of 1864, given under the reign of Prince Alexandru Joan I, provided that a ministry should be supreme authority over public and private instruction and should exercise its power through a permanent council of in-

struction. The law is dated November 25, 1864, and signed by N. Crețulescu, minister secretary of state for the department of justice, religion, and public instruction. About 1866 justice became a separate department and the educational office was known as the ministry of public instruction and religion (*Ministerul Instrucțiunei Publice și al Cultelor*). From July 19, 1864, to July 7, 1900, the office was held on 43 different appointments.<sup>14</sup> As a result of the World War, Bessarabia, Bukovina, and Transylvania were joined to Rumania in 1918 making a kingdom that in area and population is more than double that of pre-war Rumania and necessitating some changes in government. By the constitution of March 28, 1923, the executive power is exercised in the name of the King by ministerial departments any of which may be created or suppressed by law. Among the 12 departments is the ministry of education. Apparently the department of religion was separated from it at the time of the adoption of the constitution.

*Salvador (Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores, Justicia, Instrucción Pública, Beneficencia y Sanidad).*—The Central America Federation was dissolved in 1839 and Salvador became an independent republic. Its constitution was proclaimed on June 12, 1824, and has been modified several times since, the latest in 1886. A ministry of justice and public instruction was functioning in that year. The executive power is vested in the President who acts through four ministries one of which is the ministry of foreign affairs, justice, public instruction, charity, and sanitation.

*Jugoslavia (Ministarstvo Prosvete).*—The independence of Serbia from Turkey was signed July 13, 1878, and proclaimed on the 22d of the following August. During the struggle for independence which began in 1804 and previous to the treaty there was a minister of public instruction in 1811, again in 1837, and in 1865. A law voted in 1882, which went into force in 1883, reorganized public instruction in Serbia and outlined the powers and duties of the minister of public instruction. With some modifications in 1898 this law continued in effect until 1904 when a law promulgated on April 19 changed the system of education considerably but continued the ministry.

On December 1, 1918, a union with the Croats and Slovenes was proclaimed and on June 28, 1921, the constitution of the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes was adopted. The name was officially changed to Yugoslavia in October, 1929. Article 90 provides for a ministerial council composed of all the ministers and responsible to the King and the National Assembly. One of the 18 ministries now in operation is that of education.

<sup>14</sup> Rumania. Laws, treaties, etc. *Colecțiunea legilor, regulamentelor, programelor și diferitelor decizii și dispoziții generale ale acestui departament de la 1864-1901.* București, Impămeria Statului, 1901.

*Siam (Krasuang Dhamakara).*—In 1891 Prince Damrong, director of the department of education, was sent on a tour to Europe to study western methods of administration. In 1893, following his return, the department of public education was raised to the rank of a ministry and entitled "the Ministry of Public Instruction." The name was changed to ministry of education in 1919 and again changed to ministry of public instruction in 1926.

*Spain (Ministerio de Instrucción Pública y Bellas Artes).*—By the constitution of June 30, 1876, Spain is a constitutional monarchy, the executive authority resting in the king and being carried out by responsible ministers. A military directorate was established on September 15, 1923, and superseded by a civil government on December 3, 1925. The education law of September 9, 1857, provided for a central educational authority in the ministry of the interior. The census of 1900 showed 63 per cent of the total population unable to read and write and because of this a separate ministry of public instruction was constituted in conformity with a royal decree of April 18, 1900, and an investigation of primary education ordered. This ministry, now known as the ministry of public instruction and fine arts, continues to be one of main branches of the executive division of the Government.

*Sweden (Ecklesiastikdepartementet).*—The constitution of 1809, still in effect, provided for nine ministries one of which is the department of education and of ecclesiastical-affairs. Its duties were modified by the first public elementary education statute in 1842, the second in 1897, and the statute now in force enacted in 1921. A central board for the supervision of secondary schools was formed in it in 1905 and a similar board for elementary schools in 1913.

*Turkey (Maarif Vekaleti).*—A minister of public instruction was appointed as early as 1857 by Sultan Abd-ul-Medjid. A form of constitutional government was proclaimed in 1876; it was set aside in 1878 by an autocracy and was not restored until July 23, 1908. This constitutional form continued until a fundamental law was voted by the Grand National Assembly, January 20, 1921, and revised by law of April 20, 1924. Throughout the period from 1876 to the establishment of the republic in 1924, a ministry of public instruction was a part of the Sultan's administrative organization. By the present constitution the executive power is vested in the President who exercises it through a prime minister and other ministers, whose number and duties are fixed by law, chosen from among the members of the National Assembly. The minister, or commissar, of public instruction, is one of them.

*Union of South Africa (Ministry of the Interior, of Public Health and of Education).*—Under the terms of the South Africa act of 1909, the self-governing colonies of the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the

Transvaal, and the Orange River Colony were united on May 31, 1910, under one government by the name of the Union of South Africa. The original colonies became Provinces. At the formation of the Union the Provinces were given legislative and administrative powers over education exclusive of higher education for a period of five years and thereafter until the Parliament should decree otherwise. A Union department of education was immediately created to administer higher education. It is retained with considerably widened powers.

*Uruguay (Ministerio de Instrucción Pública).*—Uruguay declared its independence from Spain on August 25, 1825; the constitution was sworn July 18, 1830. The first important law for public education was passed in 1877 largely through the efforts of José Pedro Varela, sometimes known as the Horace Mann of Uruguay, who was inspector of schools in Montevideo and had founded the Society of Friends of Public Education. That law created a direction general of public education attached to the ministry of home affairs. Señor Varela was the first director. For some years it was a part of the ministry of public development. In 1908 it was attached to the ministry of industry, labor and public instruction, but it was continued from 1877 to 1918 when it was replaced by the council for elementary education and the training of teachers. By the Constitution of January 3, 1918, the executive authority in Uruguay is divided between the President, with the ministries of foreign affairs, war and marine, and the interior on the one hand and a council of national administration of nine members on the other which has authority over those matters, not expressly reserved for the President, such as public instruction, industry, the treasury and public health. The authority is exercised by secretaries of state created by law. Among them is the ministry of public instruction.

*Venezuela (Ministerio de Instrucción Pública).*—The Republic of Venezuela was formed in 1830. Its fifteenth constitution was promulgated on April 22, 1904. This was followed by others of the dates August 5, 1909; June 13, 1914; and June 19, 1922. The one now in force is that of June 24, 1925. The first attempt at national control of education seems to have been a national direction of primary education established as a part of the ministry of public development (Fomento) by presidential decree of June 27, 1870. By law of May 24, 1881, which enumerated the ministries of the Federal executive, the ministry of public instruction was created and the first minister, Anibel Dominici, was appointed on May 31. The ministry was continued and is at present part of the executive branch of the government.

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The list is arranged under the classifications: General; government; constitutions; general educational; history of education; countries with national ministries of education, listed in alphabetical order; and countries without national ministries of education, listed in the order of population size, the largest first.

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