

* * Secondary
Education in
Austria, 1918-38

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Foreword

Between the close of the first World War and the beginning of the second, approximately two decades, several European nations that had not previously done so maintained democratic forms of government. In that period they tried to arrange their school systems in such a way as to educate their children for life in democracies. Their moves in that direction are now temporarily stopped. It is pertinent and timely to ask, "What progress did they make?"

This study of secondary education in Austria in the years 1918 to 1938 to some extent answers that question for one of those countries. The author was an Austrian secondary school teacher from 1906 to 1920 and a *Hofrat* concerned with secondary education in the pedagogical division of the Federal Ministry of Education at Vienna from 1920 to 1938. He writes from experience as well as from documentation.

Educators in the United States with their background of comparative freedom will almost surely read this bulletin with disappointment at what seems to them slight changes in education in a country that was turning from an imperial regime to which it had been accustomed for centuries and setting up a kind of national life in which it was inexperienced. Such readers must take into consideration that two decades is not a long time in the cultural life of a nation.

The Austrians undertook no violent break with the past. They had no great volume of hatreds and resentments against the secular and the religious rulers of the country. The fall of the empire released no pent-up fury, for none existed. The peoples with long-standing grievances had been withdrawn from Austria and placed under other governments.

It was differences of opinion within a small, unilingual, and homogeneous population striving to establish a democratic government that affected education in Austria. Change was relatively slow and cautious. Experiments that attracted wide attention were tried before decisions were reached and for a time Austrian education seemed to be making soundly and carefully the necessary adaptations to a new order. Then partisan politics intervened and reaction began. It continued, but when Austria became a part of Germany not all the gains had been lost. The story of the changes is told in the following pages. It is to be hoped that other authors will write similar accounts for some of the other countries that have lost their freedom.

To the Graduate Faculty of Political and Social Science, 66 West 12th Street, New York City, which made this study possible, the U. S. Office of Education expresses its gratitude.

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Secondary Education in Austria, 1918-38

Introduction

AUSTRIA, prior to the World War of 1914-18, was one of the larger powers of Europe with tradition continuous from its establishment as "Ostmark" (Eastern March or outpost) in 976 and prestige still enhanced by the reflected glory of the days of the Holy Roman Empire, the Congress of Vienna, and the era of Metternich. After the War and the Treaty of St. Germain, Austria emerged not a naturally grown State on a national and territorial basis developed historically, but a dilapidated remnant stripped of vital areas by neighboring powers and succession States, and bleeding from innumerable wounds.

Yet in the hard times of the first months and years following the War when there was neither food nor fuel, work nor value, no bloody revolution raged through the country. Instead an almost peaceful, gentle "Umsturz" or upheaval occurred in which the people, through freely chosen representatives of parliament, replaced the monarch. Thus Austria became a democratic republic in which according to the first Constitution—one of the freest in Europe—all right originated in the people. The change, however, was moderate in character and radical politicians still jokingly called the State "The Imperial-Royal Republic."

In contrast to imperial Austria with an area of 115,903 square miles and a population of 28,571,934, the new Austria—comprising 8 provinces and the city of Vienna—had an area of 32,369 square miles and a population, according to the census of 1934, of 6,760,233, of which as to religion 90.57 percent were Roman Catholic; 4.38 percent Protestant; and 2.83 percent, Jewish. Linguistically, except for a small number of Slovenes, Croats, and Magyars, the entire population was German.

On November 12, 1918, when Austria was proclaimed a Republic, political leadership was in the hands of the Social Democrats, a liberal party including the vast majority of the labor class. The party soon lost control in the provinces but was able to hold ground until the fall of 1920 by forming in March 1919 a coalition Government with the Christian Socialists, a conservative party representing the interests of the Church and the middle classes. After the election of October 17, 1920, when the reins of national government fell to the Christian Socialists, the Social Democrats still controlled Vienna and a number of other industrial centers. The third political party was that of the center—the German Nationalists.

That change in the form of government necessitated corresponding changes in the educational system of the country was acknowledged

in the main by the three political parties. The Social Democrats as the most liberal were the natural leaders, and since, they were in office at a time when the country was especially receptive to reform they succeeded in enacting a number of measures of fundamental significance (p. 7).

Among the treasures and hopes still left to Austria were its children, and to make the children—all children—of the new democratic nation able and well-fitted for the hard struggle they would have to face in the future was the underlying principle and aim of the educational changes inaugurated in 1919 by the coalition Government.

In their educational policy the Social Democrats and Christian Socialists forming this Government were far-sighted and endeavored to reshape education on democratic nonpartisan principles. Democracy, the basic principle of the Constitution, therefore, was to be also the basis of the system of education. Among the leading principles of democracy in every branch of activity are liberty and its counterpart responsibility. Dependence on authority of the monarchical period, therefore, had to be replaced in the Republic by responsibility and the process of change given particular regard in an educational reform. Thus in school administration from the Ministry of Education down to the provincial, district, and local school authorities, teachers became executive and administrative officers.

Since the fate of the Austrian educational reform so bravely launched was connected closely with the decline of the democratic Republic it is necessary to have some idea of the political developments that form the background and at least a partial explanation of the change.

The actual turning point in Austria's internal politics and the beginning of the decline was marked by an unorganized revolt in Vienna in the middle of July 1927, resulting from the acquittal of the Fascist murderers of two workmen.

Beginning with the tragedy of July 1927, the influence and politics of the Fascist *Heimwehr* (private home defense militia) used and favored by the Christian-Socialist Chancellor Ignaz Seipel to counterbalance the influence of the Social Democrats led from one political crisis to another until Austria, after the elimination of Parliament on March 4, 1933, became an authoritarian State with Engelbert Dollfuss as Chancellor. The relations between the Social-Democrat party and masses and the Government continued to grow more strained until the tension finally broke in the civil war of February 1934.

During these years the ever growing National-Socialist (Nazi) party—feared by Christian Socialists and Social Democrats alike—watched triumphantly as the proletarian masses and the Social-Democratic *Schutzbund* (private defense association) on the one side and the Fascist *Heimwehr* on the other machine-gunned each other, and as the national artillery directed its fire against the large and beautiful apart-

ment houses erected for the working people by the Social-Democratic administration of the Community of Vienna.

The Social Democrats and the Christian Socialists both made mistakes, otherwise they would have come to an armistice and mutual understanding. Pitted against each other by the radical Fascist *Heimwehr* they did not see the greater danger becoming more and more imminent—the Nazis. Disregarding well-meant advice in the first days of February 1934, immediately before the clash, Chancellor Dollfuss refused to admit two members of the Social-Democratic party into his Government and so restore democracy and legal order. By crushing the Social Democrats the authoritarian State was established—but without taking into account the growing power of the National Socialists.

The events of the following 4 years became a pattern for more than one of the small nations later subjugated by the Nazis. After Dollfuss paid with his life, his successor tried in vain to save the country from its final fate. It was too late. Austria had been maneuvered too far into the maelstrom of the Nazi flood. The last feeble but desperate attempts of a sinking ship to keep afloat—a plebiscite and the reconciliation of the working class—failed. March 13, 1938, was only the logical consequence of February 1934, which in turn can be traced back to July 1927.

Meanwhile the principles of education, democratic—almost radical—in the first stages of the reform, became increasingly conservative. The first step in this direction was represented by the curricula of 1927, in which, however, the main principles of the reform, particularly those affecting the elementary school, were preserved. The second and more drastic step was taken in 1934, when in general policy and school politics "the clock was put back to the days before 1848," and the secondary school reverted in form except for the schools for girls to that of the period prior to the Marchet reform of 1908.

Thus the period 1918-38 comprises three phases of educational development in Austria: 1918-27, democratic school reform; 1927-34, cautious but definite tendency toward conservatism; and 1934-38, educational reaction.

The Democratic School Reform, 1918-27

Education prior to 1918

The educational system inherited by the Austrian Republic from the Monarchy had a dual character. On the one hand, after 4 or 5 years of elementary schooling there was the road of secondary school plus university or other educational institution of corresponding rank leading to the learned professions, higher posts in finance, industry, commerce, and the civil service; on the other, after 5 years of ele-

mentary schooling, the road of 3 or 4 years of higher elementary or burgher school leading to the "nonlearned professions" in trade, commerce, and industry, or to posts of inferior rank in State administration. The former was open to all, but frequented mostly by children of the upper social classes; the latter was attended by children of the lower and lower middle classes. The choice of school career had to be made on leaving the lower elementary school for there was no articulation between the schools of the two diverging roads and little between the various types of secondary schools leading to higher education.

The decision of the school career of a child was not always a matter of wealth. Tradition, social standing of the parents, and local opportunities for higher study played an important part. Further, the decision as to a boy's career was affected frequently also by considerations connected with compulsory military service. The pre-war form of this service required every man to devote 3 years between the ages of 21 to 24 to service in the army without attainment, ordinarily, of the rank of officer. Graduation from a secondary school or from a higher vocational school, or success in a not too difficult examination in place of the regular leaving examination of these schools qualified for 1 year of voluntary military service with the prospect of the rank of officer. The year of voluntary military service could be taken on attainment of 18 years of age or after the completion of studies.

Elementary education.—The first elementary-school law in Austria was issued December 6, 1774, by Empress Maria Theresa. Under it school attendance was compulsory from the 6th to the 12th year of age. Trivial schools giving instruction in religion and the three R's were to be established in each community; higher elementary schools (Hauptschulen) in the larger cities; and normal or model schools (Normalschulen) in the capital city of each province, where they were to serve also as places for the education and examination of teachers. The schools were all under the general supervision of the State until 1806, when they were placed under that of the ecclesiastical authorities.

State supervision was resumed by a statute of May 14, 1869—the third elementary-school law—which placed this responsibility on local, district, and provincial special school councilors. The purpose of the elementary school according to this law "is to give children a moral-religious education, develop their mental faculties, equip them with knowledge and skill necessary for life, and provide the basis for developing good and fit human beings and members of society."

A supplementary law of May 2, 1883, provided for a 3-year burgher school (Bürgerschule) based on completion of the first 5 years of the elementary school. Graduation from the burgher school qualified for admission to schools for the education of elementary-school teachers (p. 32) and to higher vocational schools not based on secondary-school

attendance. To meet the needs of the population of rural and mountainous districts, school attendance in these areas was reduced to 6 years beginning at 6 years of age.

Statistics show that on leaving the lower elementary school only 7 percent of the boys entered a secondary school, while 93 percent continued in the higher or burgher school. Furthermore, those who completed the burgher school only a small percentage entered the 2-year lower or 4-year higher special schools for commerce, agriculture, handicraft, or technical (trade) schools.

Secondary education.—The secondary school in Austria is of venerable age, but its development as a medieval institution under the direction of Monastic orders is not within the province of this bulletin. After the expulsion of the Jesuits in 1773, the gymnasia were administered more and more by the State. They were 6-year schools with an attached 2-year obligatory course in philosophy (philosophische Obligaturs). Already other types of secondary schools foreshadowing later rich developments were beginning to appear. Thus the term "real or modern school" (Realschule) was used in 1769, and the first commercial school established in 1770.

The Austrian secondary school of our period was born in 1849, when through the Plan of organization for the Austrian gymnasia (Organisationsentwurf für die Oesterreichischen Gymnasien)—its Magna Charta—the gymnasium became an 8-year school comprising a 4-year lower gymnasium (Untergymnasium) and a 4-year upper gymnasium (Obergymnasium). The real school which prior to this was a 2-year school preparing for direct entry to industry became a 6-year school. In 1867 it was given a 7-year curriculum of more humanistic character.

The real gymnasium (Realgymnasium) with a modern language instead of Greek and some descriptive geometry in the fifth and sixth years, and the reform real gymnasium (Reform Realgymnasium) with a modern language from the first year and Latin from the fifth year were established through a school reform of 1908.

Private secondary schools for girls (literally "secondary schools for daughters"—Höhere Töchterschulen) arose in the 1890's. Six-year lyceums (Lyzeen) for girls were established by a statute of December 11, 1900. Graduation from the 6-year lyceum qualified for admission to the university only as an auditor. In 1910 the lyceum was reorganized to comprise a 4-year lower section corresponding practically to the first 4 years of the real school and a 4-year upper section quite similar to a reform real gymnasium.

Success in the final or maturity examination (Reifeprüfung) with which the secondary school course closed was marked by a certificate of maturity (Reifezeugnis). This certificate was the regular requirement for admission to a university in Austria.

Graph 1 which follows presents the organization of education in Austria about as it was immediately prior to the reform period of 1918-27.

Education after 1918

Immediately after the first World War the former Imperial Royal Ministry of Worship and Education became a part of the Ministry of

School year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Pupil's age	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Class	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
E l e m e n t a r y S c h o o l	Gymnasium											M
	Real Gymnasium											a
	Reform Real Gymnasium											t
	Real School											u
	LYCEUM											r
	for											i
	G I R L S											t
	Reform Real GYM. DIVISION											y
	Burger School											e
	Higher Vocational School											x
	Elementary School											a
	Lower Voc. School											m
	Continuation School											i

Figure 1.—Organization of elementary and secondary education prior to 1919

Interior where it was changed in composition to include not only former juridical officers but also elementary and secondary school teachers of experience and reputation.

After November 10, 1920, when the new Federal constitution of October 1 of that year became effective the organization of school administration in Austria was about the same as before the War. The

Federal Ministry of Education (Bundesministerium für Unterricht)¹ was the supreme administrative authority for the whole educational system, including commercial schools (p. 29), but excluding trade and agricultural vocational schools. Within each province the provincial school council (Landesschulrat) had charge of school administration with the assistance of district and local school boards.

A Division of School Reform comprising two subdivisions, one each for elementary and secondary schools, was established in the Ministry. It was staffed with teachers and educators of prominence regardless of political creed.

Until 1934, when Austria became an authoritarian State, school laws were enacted by Parliament and were for each period until then a reflection of the political constellation. The provincial diets had no legislative authority in general school policy. They could issue regulations and decrees only in compliance with laws already made by the National legislative body.

Work on the Austrian school reform began immediately after March 15, 1919, when Otto Glöckel entered office as Under Secretary of State for Education. He gave the school reform an energetic start that continued to work long after he left office in spite of increasing reactionary tendencies. That the reform outlived the political changes of the later post-war years is indication of the soundness of its underlying ideas.

The first political action—greatly opposed by conservative and ecclesiastical circles—was the decree of April 10, 1919, which abolished compulsory participation in religious exercises at school.

For cooperation between home and school, parents' organizations and school communities (Schulgemeinden) were recommended by various decrees of the same year.

By a decree of April 30, 1919, representative bodies of teachers, one each for elementary schools, secondary schools, and academic institutions, were organized for negotiation of pedagogical and professional questions. Except on special occasions when joint meetings were held to discuss problems common to all categories of teachers, each group met by itself. Occasions for joint meetings were to prove the unity of education and of educators from the country school teacher to the university professor.

As a symbol of political change the name of the official organ of the Ministry was changed from *Verordnungsblatt* (*Journal of Regulations*) to *Volkserziehung* (*National Education*). This appeared in two divisions: One devoted to official decrees, orders, and announcements; the other—a pedagogical magazine—devoted largely to discussions of school reform by leading educators.

¹ Unless otherwise specified the terms "Minister" and "Ministry" refer in this publication, respectively, to the Minister of Education and the Ministry of Education.

While measures for reform were introduced with zeal and plans made for the reorganization of the whole educational system including the education of teachers, parliamentary conditions made it difficult to come to a decision on the main educational issues. The three political parties, as already indicated, were in agreement as to the need for reform, but owing to differences in matters of philosophy (*Weltanschauung*) disagreement persisted on certain fundamental questions such as the place of religion in elementary education. Until new laws could be formulated those of the Monarchy remained in force.

Among educational movements that gained momentum at the close of the War were those for the extension of school work in physical, moral, and social welfare. Among educational principles partly realized through the reform movement was the demand that the elementary school arrange its work so as to bring out the special gifts and talents of its pupils, and the extension of the unity school (*Einheitsschule*) idea.

Elementary education.—The elementary school was the first to work out its principles and embody them in legislation fitting the new order. Since the Social Democrats had a two-thirds majority of voters in Vienna, the capital and its municipal school council (*Stadtschulrat*) became the center of this reform. Besides, Vienna was not only a municipality but also a province and had by constitution wide powers in the field of elementary education which was locally administered. Further, after the political changes of the election of October 17, 1920 (p. 1), Otto Glöckel left the Office of Under Secretary of State for Education and became President of the Municipal Council of Education of Vienna (*Stadtschulrat für Wien*) which administered about one-third of the elementary and secondary schools of Austria. The Austrian school reform now became the Vienna school reform, since the provinces insofar as it was possible under the constitution followed more conservative principles. However, they were not entirely untouched by the spirit of reform.

The draft of a new study plan for the lower elementary school was issued April 1, 1920. It was based on the principles of integrated instruction, self-activity, accustomed environment, and aptitude (*Gesamtunterricht, Arbeitsgrundsatz, Bodenständigkeit, and Kindesgemässheit*). It was tried out during the following years and from the experimentation and discussions a definite plan of study was finally adopted by a decree of July 30, 1926.

The main innovation in the curriculum of the lower elementary school was the elimination of a fixed program of studies and the introduction of integrated instruction for the development of the child's individuality. During the first 3½ years instruction was a continuous whole; in the second half of the fourth year there was a cautious

beginning of separate subjects. The basis of instruction was the child's experience and environment. Under the guidance of the teacher he was taught to observe and to express himself through drawing, modeling, and composition. Insofar as possible science, mathematics, and other subjects were taught by the same method of self-activity.

Secondary education.—From its beginning the lower elementary school was a common school for all children. Thus from the first to the fourth or fifth year when those destined for higher education entered the secondary school, the lower elementary school was educationally and socially a unity school in which at least theoretically the social barrier was removed. The pupils, however, reflected the social structure of the school district. In villages and small towns they constituted a socially mixed community; but in larger cities like Vienna, with various districts each of a socially distinct character, the pupils at each school were socially quite unified.

When the problem of the unity school became actual after the World War in connection with school reform, it was concerned with the advanced compulsory school age from 10 to 14 years since it was already solved for the lower elementary school age from 6 to 10 years.

Closely associated with the question of the unity school was the desire for some uniformity in the lower classes of the various types of secondary school that would facilitate transfer between the types and thereby postpone the final decision as to school career.

The decisive step with reference to both of these problems was taken in 1920 through an attempt to replace the burgher school (p. 4) with a 4-year common middle school (*allgemeine Mittelschule*) to be attended by all children of all classes on completion of the 4-year lower elementary school. Curricula for the common middle school were issued in May 1922 (table 1). Already in school year 1922-23 6 burgher schools with 16 classes each were changed to common middle schools. At the opening of school year 1926-27, 12 additional burgher schools were reorganized in the same manner and the plan had promise to become the model of a real unity school for all classes of the people.

Table 1.—Plan of study for the common middle school, division I¹

[Numbers in parentheses apply only to schools without a foreign language]

Subjects of instruction ²	Number of hours a week per school year			
	I	II	III	IV
	2	3	4	5
Religion.....	2	2	2	2
German.....	6	6	6(4)	6(4)
Foreign language.....			6(-)	6(-)
History.....		2	2	2
Geography.....	3	2	2	2
Natural history and chemistry.....	2	2	2	2
Nature study.....		2	2	2
Laboratory work.....			-(2)	-(2)
Arithmetic and geometry.....	4	4	4	4
Drawing and penmanship.....	4+1	3	2(4)	3(4)
Singing.....	1	1	1	1
Gymnastics.....	3	3	3	3
Total.....	26	27	32(28)	33(28)

¹ Except for natural history and nature study in classes III and IV the plan of studies for division II was quite similar to that for division I without a foreign language.

² Handwork in addition, about 3 hours one afternoon a week.

The common middle school comprised two divisions: Division I for more gifted children, including those planning to enter the upper secondary school; and division II for less talented and slower children. Children who were slow of learning were placed in special classes with a small number of pupils in charge of a particularly efficient teacher, thus overcoming the loss of time through repetition of school years. Notwithstanding two divisions, the middle school was a common school with common teachers and as many as possible common subjects and activities such as physical exercises and school festivals.

Division I opened the way to the upper secondary schools of which there were four types: Classical, modern language, mathematics-natural science, and German upper school (altsprachliche, neusprachliche, mathematisch-naturwissenschaftliche, and Deutsche Oberschule). It also qualified girls for admission to the upper school for girls (Frauenoberschule) for which a provisional curriculum was issued by a decree of July 30, 1921. Division II led to various types of vocational schools and to apprenticeships. The organization of the elementary and secondary school in the period 1922-27 on the basis of the changes indicated may be seen from graph 2:

The curricula (tables 2 and 3) for the four types of upper secondary schools (literally "general education upper schools"—allgemein bildende Oberschulen) were issued in 1924 by the Reform Division of the Ministry (p. 7).

Table 2.—Plan of studies for the classical and modern language schools

[Numbers in parentheses apply only to the modern language school]

Subjects of instruction ¹	Number of hours a week per school year			
	V	VI	VII	VIII
1	2	3	4	5
Religion.....	2	2	2	2
German.....	3	3	3	3
Latin.....	6(-)	6(-)	6(-)	6(-)
Greek.....	6(-)	6(-)	6(-)	6(-)
Greek and Roman literature.....				-(1)
French.....	-(6)	-(5)	-(5)	-(5½)
English.....	-(6)	-(5)	-(5)	-(6½)
History.....	3	3	3	2
Geography.....	2	1(2)	-(2)	1
Mathematics.....	3	3	3	2
Science.....	3	4	3	4
Introduction to philosophy.....			2	2
Gymnastics.....	3	3	3	3
Total.....	31	31	31	31

¹ Elective subjects at both types of schools included stenography, laboratory work, drawing, singing, descriptive geometry, manual training, and home economics; in addition, at a classical language school, a modern language.

Table 3.—Plan of studies for the mathematics-natural science and the German upper school

[Numbers in parentheses apply only to the German upper school]

Subjects of instruction ¹	Number of hours a week per school year			
	V	VI	VII	VIII
1	2	3	4	5
Religion.....	2	2	2	2
German.....	4(5)	4	4	3(4)
Modern language.....	4(5)	3(5)	3(5)	3(5)
History.....	2(3)	2	2(3)	2(3)
Geography.....	2(3)	2		
Mathematics.....	7(3)	6(3)	6(3)	6(3)
Science.....	5(2)	7(5)	5(6)	6(5)
Economics and social science.....			2	2(3)
Introduction to philosophy.....			2	2
Drawing.....	2	2	2(-)	2(-)
Music.....	-(2)	-(2)		
Gymnastics.....	3	3	3	3
Total.....	31(30)	31(30)	31(30)	31(31)

¹ Electives at both types of schools included stenography, Latin, drawing, music; in addition, at the mathematics-natural science school, a second modern language, manual training, and home economics; at the German upper school, art appreciation in connection with drawing, and laboratory work.

Federal Education Institutes (Bundes Erziehungs Anstalten).—To promote the secondary school reform the Theresa Military Academy (Theresianische Militär Akademie) and five other military or cadet schools (Kadettenschulen) were changed by a decree of November 28, 1919, to State experimental schools called, beginning in 1920, Federal education institutes. They were boarding schools for gifted children selected by a strict entrance examination. The schools were open to children of all classes with preference, other circumstances being equal, to the poor, who were assisted by scholarships.

Since the lower division of the institutes stressed German and postponed foreign languages, it was called the German middle school (*Deutsche Mittelschule*).

Maturity examination (Reifeprüfung).—The reform in secondary education would have been incomplete without a reform of the maturity examination (p. 5). According to a decree of October 6, 1924, the examination comprised a written theme prepared at home (*schriftliche Hausarbeit*), supervised written tests (*schriftliche Klausurprüfungen*), and an oral examination (*mündliche Prüfung*). The subject of the theme was selected with the approval of two teachers and the director of the secondary school. The theme could be prepared during the second semester of the seventh year but had to be completed by the end of the first semester of the eighth year.

In the gymnasium the written tests included: Latin, German, Greek, mathematics; in the real gymnasium: German, Latin, a modern language, and mathematics; in the real school: German, French (Italian), English, mathematics, descriptive geometry. The oral tests included in addition to the subject in which the theme was written a second subject not of the subject group of the theme selected by the candidate, and each subject in which the written tests did not come up to the required standard.

During this period of provisional curricula experimentation was conducted in designated schools and classes. The remaining schools and classes were conducted according to former regulations. In the regulations for the maturity examination, therefore, the various types of schools listed are those of the old established schools, not of the new provisional types.

Reform of 1927

The political development toward conservatism which began with the election of October 17, 1920, when the Social Democrats left the coalition Government and became an opposition party, culminated in the fateful clash of July 15, 1927, a clash mainly between the Social Democrats and the Christian-Socialist private militia of "home defense" (p. 2). Educationally the climax was expressed by the higher elementary-school law (*Hauptschulgesetz*) of August 2, 1927, and the secondary-school law (*Mittelschulgesetz*) of the same date. The laws were an outgrowth of the work and discussions of the preceding years by educational authorities and specialists under the leadership of the Ministry. They were a compromise, but they still embodied the main ideas of the school reform of 1920.

Elementary education

The elementary-school law replaced the common middle school (p. 9) and the remaining 3-year burgher schools (p. 4) with a 4-year higher elementary school (*Hauptschule*) based on 4 years of lower elementary schooling. The aim of the school was to give its

pupils the final (abschliessend) general education of the elementary school, preparing them for the necessities of practical life, for admission to various types of trade and vocational schools, and—in the case of the more talented—for admission to the secondary school.

Wherever the number of pupils made it possible, the higher elementary school comprised two divisions quite similar to those of the common middle school. Division I offered a noncompulsory foreign language qualifying those taking it—provided they also had a good general record—for admission to the next higher class of the secondary school.

Referring to the provision that the higher elementary school was to provide a "final general education" and "for practical life" the conservative opponents of the measure declared that it was similar in type to the burgher school and fundamentally different from the lower secondary school. These, however, are demands of any good school, including a lower secondary school. They asserted further that the possibility of transfer to a secondary school was exceptional. It was, on the contrary, regularly possible under prescribed conditions frequently fulfilled, and use was made of the opportunity in numerous instances with remarkable success. The curricula of division I of the higher elementary school was in no way of lower standard than that of the lower secondary school.

Table 4 gives the curricula prescribed for the two divisions of the higher elementary school by the Ministerial decree of June 1, 1928.

Table 4.—Plan of studies for the upper elementary school

[Numbers in parentheses apply only to schools for girls]

Subjects of instruction ¹	Number of hours a week per school year								
	Division I				Division II				
	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III	IV	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Religion.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
German.....	6	5	4	4	6	6	5	5	5
History.....	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	2	2
Geography.....				2					
Natural history.....	2	2	2	2(3)	2	2	2	2	2
Physics.....		3(2)	3	2		2(1)	3	2	2
Arithmetic, geometry and geometric drawing.....	4	4	6(5)	6(4)	4	4	6(4)	6(4)	6(4)
Freehand drawing.....	3(2)	2	2	2	3(2)	3(2)	3	3	3
Penmanship.....	1				1	1			
Handwork.....	2(3)	2(3)	2(4)	2(4)	2(3)	2(4)	2(4)	2(4)	2(4)
Singing.....	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1
Gymnastics.....	3	3	3(2)	3(2)	3	3	3(2)	3(2)	3(2)
Total.....	28	27	28	28	28	29	30(29)	30(29)	

¹ Optional with the number of hours to be determined for each province by the provincial school council were for all higher elementary schools: Violin, piano, shorthand, and typing; and for schools for girls, home economics. Optional also for boys and girls in division I was a foreign language beginning with 5 hours a week in year II and continuing with 4 hours a week in each of years III and IV.

In contrast to the common middle school which was generally coeducational the higher elementary was, insofar as possible, separate for boys and girls.

Common elementary school (*allgemeine Volksschule*).—The higher elementary school with two divisions was confined to cities. The elementary school of rural and mountainous areas was the common elementary school which varied in organization from a 1- to an 8-class school depending on local conditions. Study plans for the various types of organization of the school, including plans for the 8-class school with an upper and lower division of four 1-year classes each issued June 16, 1930, show that the common elementary school withstood well the reactionary tendencies of the time. Except that instruction by subjects began in school year 1930-31 with the beginning of class IV instead of with the second semester of that class (p. 8), the lower elementary school remained unchanged. This was justification of the school reform as far as the elementary school was concerned—a reform independent of party creed—and evidence of its solid foundations.

Since the lower division of the 8-year common elementary school was also the lower 4-year elementary school of the cities (p. 9), the study plans of June 16, 1930, for this school were common to all areas.

Secondary education

According to the regulations of 1927, the secondary school was charged with the duty of giving its pupils a general education and at the same time qualifying them for professional study at academic institutions. It was to develop their intellectual, moral, and physical qualities, and educate them in a social, civic, national, moral-religious spirit.

As shown in graph 3, the law reestablished the pre-war types of the secondary school. All were 8-year schools, including the real school which formerly was only a 7-year school (p. 5).

Unification between types was preserved to some extent in the first 4 years though not as completely as in the former common middle school. In class I all types still had a common curriculum. Except for foreign languages (gymnasium and real gymnasium type A, Latin; real gymnasium types B and C and real school, French) all types also had a common curriculum in classes II and III. In class IV the real gymnasium types B and C and the real school had a common curriculum; while Greek was added as a subject of instruction in the gymnasium. In class V, French or English was added in the real gymnasium type A; English, in the real school; and Latin, in real gymnasium types B and C. The main difference between types B and C of the real gymnasium was that the curriculum of the former included descriptive geometry in classes VII and VIII with a corresponding deduction

Table 5.—Plan of studies for the gymnasium and real gymnasium type A

[Numbers in parentheses apply to the real gymnasium only]

Subjects of instruction	Number of hours a week per school year ¹							
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Religion.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
German.....	6	4	4	3(4)	3(4)	4	4	4
Latin.....		5	5	5	6(5)	6(4)	5(4)	5(4)
Greek.....				5(-)	5(-)	5(-)	5(-)	5(-)
Modern language.....								
History.....	1	2	2	2	3	3	2	3
Geography.....	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	0-2
Natural history.....	3	2		2	2	2	2	2-0
Chemistry.....					2			
Physics.....						-2		
Mathematics with geometric drawing.....	4	4	4	3(5)	3	3	3	2
Descriptive geometry.....							-3	-3
Introduction to philosophy.....							2	2
Drawing.....	4	3	3	-2				
Penmanship.....	1							
Shorthand.....				2				
Handwork.....	2	2	2					
Singing.....	2	1	1					
Gymnastics ⁴	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Total.....	30	30	31	31	31	31	31	31

¹ Each hour of instruction comprised 50 minutes.

² Second semester only.

³ First semester only.

⁴ Of the 3 hours a week assigned to gymnastics, the third hour, weather permitting, was to be devoted to 2 hours out of doors (literally "2-hour fresh air afternoon"—zweistündigen Freiluftsnachmittag).

Table 6.—Curricula for the real gymnasium type B and the real school

[Numbers in parentheses apply to the real school only]

Subjects of instruction	Number of hours a week per school year ¹							
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Religion.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
German.....	6	4	4	4	4	4(3)	4(3)	4(3)
Modern language.....		5	5	5	4(3)	3	3	3(2)
Second modern language.....					-4	-4	-2	-2
Latin.....					6(-)	6(-)	4(-)	5(-)
History.....	1	2	2	2	3(2)	3(2)	2	3
Geography.....	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	0-2
Natural history.....	3	2		2	2	2	2	2-0
Chemistry.....					2(-)	2(-)	-3	-2
Physics.....			3	2	3	2	3(3)	3
Mathematics with geometric drawing.....	4	4	4	5	3(4)	3(4)	3	2(3)
Descriptive geometry.....					-3	-3	3(2)	2
Introduction to philosophy.....							2(-)	3(3)
Drawing.....	4	3	3	2	-2	-2		-1
Penmanship.....	1							
Shorthand.....				2				
Handwork.....	2	2	2					
Singing.....	2	1	1					
Gymnastics ⁴	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Total.....	30	30	31	31	31	31	31	31

¹ Each hour of instruction comprised 50 minutes.

² Second semester only.

³ First semester only.

⁴ Of the 3 hours a week assigned to gymnastics the third hour, weather permitting, was to be devoted to 2 hours out of doors (literally "2-hour fresh air afternoon"—zweistündigen Freiluftsnachmittag).

In comparison with pre-war types the secondary school showed important changes in spite of the conservative tendencies affecting it. The similarity in curricula of the various types except the gymnasium in the first 4 years has already been noted. In addition, the languages lost something of their dominant character. While Latin was given a total of 27 hours in the first 4 years of the pre-reform gymnasium, and French a total of 19 hours in the real school, only 15 hours in 3 of the first 4 years of the secondary school were now devoted to these languages. Further, the curricula were enriched by the addition of handwork, shorthand, and singing as required subjects.

Upper school for girls (Frauenoberschule).—The upper school for girls with a fully developed schedule in home economics and child care had in its curriculum only one foreign language—a modern language beginning with the second year (table 7).

Table 7.—Plan of studies for the upper school for girls

Subjects of instruction	Number of hours a week for each school year							
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Religion.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
German.....	6	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Modern language.....		5	5	5	3	3	3	3
History.....	1	2	2	2	3	2	2	3
Geography.....	2	2	2	2	2	2		1 0/2
Natural history.....	3	2		2	2	2	2	2 0/2
Chemistry.....					2			
Physics.....			3	2		2	2	3
Mathematics with geometric drawing.....	4	4	4	5	3	3	3	2
Introduction to philosophy and theory of education.....						2	2	2
Drawing.....	4	3	3	2	2	2	2	2
Penmanship.....	1							
Shorthand.....				2				
Handwork (needlework, sewing, and dress-making).....	2	2	2		6	5		
Singing.....	2	1	1					
Child care and welfare.....							3	2
Cooking and home economics.....							5	5
Gymnastics.....	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2
Total.....	30	30	31	31	32	32	32	32

¹ Second semester only.

² First semester only.

Aufbau school (Aufbauschule).—To enable specially gifted young people to take up secondary school study after having passed the compulsory school age (14 years) or even after having entered a trade on the completion of an apprenticeship (17 years) and to give them an opportunity for admission to the maturity examination (p. 13), two new types of schools were established—the Aufbau school and the middle school for workers.

The Aufbau school was a 5-year school based on completed elementary education. It offered instruction along gymnasium lines with

Latin beginning in the first year and Greek or a modern language in the second. By the opening of school year 1937-38 only one Aufbau school had been established. It was a Federal school with 113 pupils.

Middle school for workers (Arbeiter Mittelschule).—The middle school for workers began as an 8-semester evening school of the real gymnasium type with Latin and English as the prescribed foreign languages. Later a ninth semester was added. For admission the applicant had to be at least 17 years of age and pass an entrance examination. Final admission was granted only after the first semester of study.

On completion of the ninth semester the student could apply for admission to the maturity examination which corresponded to that of the real gymnasium with descriptive geometry (p. 15). Subjects not included in the maturity examination were covered by an examination taken in the course of the last 7 semesters and corresponding in content and value to the preliminary examination for externists (Vorprüfung bei einer Externistenprüfung, p. 20).

Provisions were made for opening three of these schools in 1928-29, one each at Vienna, Linz, and Graz. According to statistics for school year 1937-38, however, Austria had two middle schools for workers. They were Federal schools with a total of 270 students.

Maturity examination (Reifeprüfung).—Among innovations introduced in the first reform period and now abandoned were those made in the maturity examination (p. 13) largely in an effort to reduce its mental strain. Thus the theme (Hausarbeit), the most outstanding feature of the reform, became voluntary and bereft of importance through regulations issued May 8, 1930. From an integral part of the examination the theme became merely an appendix with the one advantage of restricting the examination in the subject in which it was written to the phase it covered. The number of themes or theses declined, but since the task of writing them was now undertaken by the more ambitious students interested in a particular subject, they improved in quality.

The maturity examination comprised written tests and an oral examination. At all types of schools the written tests included German; the language or languages studied; and mathematics, including descriptive geometry at the real school. The oral examination covered three subjects in the selection of which the candidate had a limited choice. At the gymnasium two subjects were selected from the language-history subject group and one from that of natural science; at the real school two subjects were selected from the mathematics-science group and one from that of language-history; at the real gymnasium and the upper school for girls two subjects were selected from one group and one subject from the other. At the upper schools for girls the leaving examination included also a practical examination in child care and theory of education (kindergarten)

taken within the first 3 months of the last year; and in home economics, taken 2 months before the close of the school year.

In connection with the leaving examination it may be added that facilities were provided in March 1931 whereby girls who had finished the old type 6-year lyceum (p. 5) and pupils who had finished a special school such as a commercial academy could take the maturity examination for externists (*Externistenreifeprüfung*). The same opportunity had already been provided for graduates of teacher-training schools (p. 32). The way to higher studies and an eventual change in the career of a young man or woman thus opened was often of great convenience in times of economic stress and shortage of positions.

Reform of 1934

Political background

The time from the self-elimination of the Austrian Parliament on March 4, 1933, to the bloody days of mid-February 1934, was a period of transition, but already of an authoritarian character. Nominally, political parties still existed, although much restricted in their activities through censorship and administrative measures except for the Christian Socialists and the Fascist private militia of "home defense" (p. 2).

The authoritarian Government, as already pointed out (p. 3), directed its energies not only in opposition to the Social Democrats but also against the Nazis. This anti-National Socialist attitude was of political significance when the National Socialist party of Adolf Hitler came into power in Germany in January 1933. Although politically separated from Germany, Austria after the World War had a feeling of kinship and of being nationally and culturally a part of the neighboring German Republic. After Hitler's accession to power in Germany, however, political efforts in Austria were directed toward building up a specifically "Austrian" culture—German, naturally—but with stress on "Austrian."

In the field of education this expressed itself first in the terminology of a decree of May 12, 1933, ordering that readers and histories used in the elementary and secondary schools must comply with the patriotic and moral-religious (*vaterländische und sittlich-religiöse*) aim of education.

In the curricula of 1928 and 1930 for secondary and elementary schools, respectively, the spirit of education was to be "social, civic, national, and moral-religious" (*Erziehung in sozialem, staatsbürgerlichem nationalem und sittlich-religiösem Geist*). The decree of 1933 united the separate concepts of civic and national education (*staatsbürgerlich und national*) to patriotic (literally "fatherlandish"—*vaterländisch*) education.

The change in terminology can be explained only as the effect of the change in the political relations between Austria and Germany after the political developments of 1933 in the Reich. Until then there was no contradiction or antagonism between "staatsbürgerlich" and "national." The feeling of a cultural and national "Anschluss" (union) between German Austria and Germany was alive and not a matter of dispute or discussion.

The political conception of the authoritarian or, as it may well be called, totalitarian Austrian State opposed the political ideals both of Democracy and Social Democracy and stressed a unified Austrian patriotism represented by the "Patriotic Front" (Vaterländische Front)—the only recognized political body of the Austrian Federal State—for in the new Constitution of May 1, 1934, the term "Republic" was studiously avoided.

From the nature of the authoritarian regime and the open and secret opposition of a strong and reckless force within the country backed from beyond the borders to which the term Fifth Column—though then unknown—may aptly be applied, the necessarily severe measures resulted which changed the school administrative authority into practically a penal court without, however, checking or abating the Nazi tide which by this attitude was aroused to even greater activity.

Severe punishment was inflicted for political offenses such as activity favoring prohibited political parties (National-Socialists, Social Democrats, and Communists) and participation in political demonstrations. After the establishment of the authoritarian regime hundreds of cases were registered with the Ministry. Most of the cases were National-Socialist, only a few Social-Democratic or Communistic. The political development led to the Nazi Putsch of July 25, 1934, in which students also took part. This event was followed by measures even more strict, such as confinement or local expulsion from school.

To handle these affairs a system of regulations and procedures was set up, including special officials entrusted with these political matters in the divisions for higher, secondary, and elementary education of the Ministry.

A decree of July 7, 1934, stressing patriotic education as a prescribed purpose of each school states that anti-Austrian propaganda would be met with most severe measures and that in the preceding school year 25 pupils from secondary schools and schools for the education of elementary-school teachers had been punished for political offences by general expulsion from the Austrian schools, and 150 by local expulsion.

In a general regulation for secondary schools issued August 27, 1937, by the Ministry, the principles of freedom and responsibility which dominated school discipline in the first years of the era of

school reform and led to experiments with school communities (Schulgemeinde, p. 7) were replaced by those of authority and obedience. The introductory paragraph of the regulation states that—

The purpose and aim of the secondary school is to give its pupils a general education which at the same time qualifies them for university study. The secondary school shall develop the moral, mental, and physical powers of the youth entrusted to its care and educate the young people to moral-religious, patriotic, social-national-loyal feeling, thinking, and doing (zu sittlich-religiösem, vaterländischem und sozial-volkstreuem Fühlen, Denken, und Handeln).

The political development and the events of the last years, the continuous spread of Nazism in Austria in which the youth of the higher and secondary schools took increasing part, are reflected in the paragraphs dealing with participation in associations. Pupils of secondary schools were prohibited to form or belong to associations except that of the "Austrian Youth" (Österreiches Jungvolk). This was an association of the Patriotic Front (p. 21) formed on the model of the Hitler Youth in Germany for boys and girls under 18 years of age and aimed to give patriotic education to Austrian youth outside of school. Excepted also were Catholic and Protestant youth associations acknowledged by their respective church authorities, and a number of other associations avowedly serving Austrian patriotic aims. For enrollment in other associations for sport, art, etc., consent of the school authorities had to be obtained.

Wearing of the patriotic badge designed for pupils was strongly recommended as a visible sign of connection with the Austrian Fatherland.

As a public symbol of the Christian (Catholic) character of Austria which by the new Constitution was declared a Christian State, crosses were to be hung in school rooms and offices of public and private schools, according to a decree of June 4, 1934. By a decree of March 7, 1937, the flags with the cross-symbol of the Patriotic Front (Krucken Kreuz)—counterpart of the Nazi Swastika—were to serve the same purpose and to symbolize further the unity between pupils and teachers and their devotion to the Austrian Fatherland.

Through a decree of June 8, 1937, an examination in study of the Austrian Fatherland (Österreichische Vaterlandskunde) including civics, history, and geography of Austria became a required part of the maturity examination (Reifeprüfung, p. 13) of the secondary school.

In this connection may be mentioned that restrictive regulations were issued also for students' associations at the universities and other academic institutions. Without special permission from the academic authorities student caps and colored ribbons could not be worn.

Foreign badges and colors (which meant the National Socialist Swastika) were prohibited. These regulations were a radical infringement of traditional and time-honored privileges, rights, and liberties which may be traced back to the Middle Ages and which were revived in the Revolution of 1848. National Socialist students, however, voluntarily resigned these rights of a liberal era, submitting to the principles of the Third Reich.

The patriotic education of university students was furthered also through special lectures on the ideals and historical development of the Austrian State, pre-military exercises, and through 4 to 8 weeks of service at a camp for students.

The renaming, by a decree of February 15, 1938, of the Federal Educational Institute in Traiskirchen in honor of the assassinated martyr-Chancellor Dollfuss into "Dollfuss-Kolleg" (Dollfuss College) on the occasion of changing it to a gymnasium was a direct political sting against Nazism.

Politically and pedagogically the general and educational measures taken pointed to the past and show that the Government was still unaltered in policy and unaware of the Nazi flood at that time rapidly approaching the high water mark. The seriousness of the political situation was not yet acknowledged as it had to be a few days later through decrees of February 17, 1938, in the enforced amnesty of political offenders among students of elementary, secondary, and higher schools.

According to the conception of Chancellor Engelbert Dollfuss Austria should be an "independent and free, Christian and German, corporate and authoritarian State." Educationally these principles found expression in a number of acts and decrees particularly in regard to religious and patriotic education in the elementary and secondary schools according to the new constitution and the new Concordat with the Holy See. Thus after the elimination of the Austrian Parliament in March 1933, religion and Fatherland became the watchwords of the school in Austria.

Elementary education

The curricula of 1926 for the lower elementary school (p. 8) and the "definite" curricula of 1930 for the common elementary school (p. 15) were the result of many years of experiment filled with hard struggles of contrasting theories, views, and tendencies. In the last phase of reform which began in 1933, the lower elementary school remained essentially unaltered pedagogically and methodically as it had developed in the era of reform until then.

Change in the higher elementary school (p. 13) was mainly in organization. Through a regulation of March 23, 1934, division I of

the organization of 1927 continued as a higher elementary school; division II was replaced by a 3-year course called "finishing classes of the elementary school" (Abschliessende Klassen der Volksschule).

Insofar as possible the higher elementary school was to be separate for boys and girls. As heretofore it was a 4-year school based on the 4-year lower elementary school, but with admission limited to children recommended by the latter as mature for promotion to the upper elementary school (die von der Volksschule als reif erklärt worden sind).

Children who on completion of the lower elementary school were recommended only for promotion to class 5 entered the finishing classes. At the request of the parents a child recommended for class 5 had to be given a supplementary examination (literally "over examination"—Überprüfung), free of charge, covering skill, information, and ability, mainly in the subjects German and arithmetic. Pupils who had failed two or more times in the lower elementary school and of whom it was not expected that they could meet the requirements of the upper elementary school were to be recommended for the finishing classes. Pupils who had failed only once or not at all could also be placed in the finishing classes if their work was such as not to give the expectation of successful progress in the higher elementary school. Pupils of the finishing classes could take an entrance examination for admission to the higher elementary school, and if the work of a child in a finishing class was of such character as to justify the expectation that he could do successfully the work of the higher elementary school, opportunity of transfer to the higher elementary school was to be given him.

The opportunity for transfer from the higher elementary school to the next higher class of the secondary school was abandoned and replaced by a provision that pupils of the first class of the upper elementary school who had a class average of at least "good" could be promoted to the secondary school on the basis of an entrance examination in the subject matter of the foreign language taught in the first class of the secondary school concerned (p. 26).

Except for perhaps a little stronger emphasis on the preparation for practical life and a little less on transfer to institutions of further education, the aim of the upper elementary school remained practically the same as before, i.e., to give its pupils a comprehensive final education beyond that of the common elementary school, and above all to train them for practical life and also for transfer to institutions of further education. As an educational institution the higher elementary school was charged with the task of training its pupils within the scope of the prescribed subjects of the elementary school to religious-moral, patriotic, social, and nationally faithful feeling, thinking, and doing.

Also as heretofore regard was to be given throughout the entire 4 years of the higher elementary school to the practical life most of the pupils would enter on leaving the school while at the same time ample preparation was to be given for admission to trade, technical, and secondary schools; to the interrelationship between the various subjects of instruction; to the self-activity of pupils; and to the development of their individual differences.

Curricula for the finishing classes and the new curricula for the higher elementary school are given in table 8.

Table 8.—Plan of studies for the higher elementary school and for the finishing classes

[Numbers in parentheses apply to schools for girls only]

Subjects of instruction	Number of hours a week per school year						
	Higher elementary school				Finishing classes		
	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Religion	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
German	6	6	5	5	7	7	7
History	1	2	2	2	3	3	3
Geography	2	2	2	2	3	3	3
Natural history	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Physics	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Arithmetic and geometric drawing	5	5(4)	6(4)	6(4)	5	5	5
Penmanship	1	1	3	3	1	1	1
Drawing ¹	2	2	2	2	4(2)	4(2)	4(2)
Handwork	2(3)	2(3)	2(4)	2(4)	—(3)	—(3)	—(3)
Singing	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
Gymnastics	3	3(2)	3(2)	3(2)	2	2	2
Total	28 (29)	30 (29)	30 (29)	30 (29)	27 (28)	27 (28)	27 (28)

¹ Optional with the number of hours determined by the provincial school council were for higher elementary schools for boys and girls; modern language, violin, piano, shorthand, typing; in addition for schools for girls, home economics. On the same basis with reference to hours, economics was optional in the finishing classes.

² In the finishing classes at schools for boys the number of hours devoted to drawing also included handwork.

Table 9.—Statistics of elementary schools, 1937-38

Type of school	Number	Enrollment	
		Total	Girls
1	2	3	4
Common elementary school:			
Public	4,144	595,191	296,228
Private	436	52,763	26,731
Higher elementary school:			
Public	618	139,171	69,780
Private	28	3,527	1,956
Total	5,288	790,652	394,695

Secondary education

In the reorganization of the secondary school following the decree of March 24, 1934, and the resulting study plans of July 11, 1934, nearly all traces of reform disappeared from the secondary school of Austria.

The various types established in the first phase of the school reform (p. 9) to meet the needs of the individual differences of the pupils, afford opportunity of transfer between types, and postpone the choice of school career to the 14th year of age—already reduced in effectiveness by the law of August 2, 1927—were now modified to the extent where these purposes were lost.

The secondary school still comprised eight 1-year classes. As before its purpose was to give its pupils a general education and at the same time qualify them for admission to institutions of university rank. Further, except for the creation of the upper lyceum (Oberlyzeum) for girls connected with the tendency to restrict coeducation the organization as to types remained unchanged (graph 4). Basically, girls were to attend schools for girls. If in exceptional instances girls were admitted to schools for boys they were to be taught together in parallel classes.

A special characteristic of this last phase of secondary education in Austria as an independent country was the stress laid on the study of modern languages, due partly to the demands of modern life and partly to the awakening of a neo-humanistic ideal of education. This was attained by adding another language to the curricula of each of the various types of secondary school. By thus increasing the difficulty of secondary school studies the principle of selection, increasingly favored by secondary school authorities, was served.

This innovation made it necessary again to begin the first foreign language in class I; the second, in class III; and the third, in class V. Thus in the gymnasium and real gymnasium Latin began with the first year; in the former Greek and in the latter English, with the third year; and French or Italian, in the fifth year. In the real school, with only two foreign languages, French or Italian began with the first year and English with the fifth. In the real school, mathematics, descriptive geometry, and drawing were increased. By restricting the number of hours in some subjects, omitting others such as handwork and, in the real gymnasium, descriptive geometry, the number of hours a week of school attendance was actually lessened.

The upper lyceum which was similar to the real gymnasium began with French or Italian in class I; Latin in class III; and English in class V. The curriculum of the upper school for girls included two languages, French or Italian beginning with class I; and English beginning with class III.

Table 10.—Plan of studies for the gymnasium and real gymnasium

[Numbers in parentheses apply to the real gymnasium only]

Subject of instruction ¹	Number of hours a week per school year							
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Religion	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
German	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3
Latin	6	6	5	5	5	5	5	4
Greek			5(-)	4(-)	5(-)	5(-)	4(-)	4(-)
Modern language			- (5)	- (4)	3 (4)	3 (4)	2 (3)	2 (3)
Second modern language					- (4)	- (4)	- (3)	- (3)
History	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	3
Geography	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Natural history	2	3	-	-	-	2	2	2
Chemistry	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-
Physics	-	-	3	2	-	-	3	4
Mathematics	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	2
Introduction to philosophy	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2
Drawing			2	-	-	-	-	-
Penmanship	3	3	-	-	-	-	-	-
Shorthand	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
Singing	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gymnastics ²	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Total	29	30	30	30	30	31	31	31

¹ Each hour of instruction comprised 50 minutes.² Of the 3 hours a week assigned to gymnastics, the third hour, weather permitting, was to be devoted to 2 hours out of doors.

Table 11.—Plan of studies for the upper lyceum

Subject of instruction ¹	Number of hours a week per school year							
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Religion	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
German	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	4
First modern language	5	5	4	3	3	3	3	2
Latin			5	5	5	5	5	4
Second modern language					5	4	3	3
History	1	2	2	2	2	3	2	3
Geography	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Natural history	2	3	-	-	-	2	2	2
Chemistry	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-
Physics	-	-	2	3	-	-	3	4
Mathematics	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	2
Introduction to philosophy	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2
Drawing			2	-	-	-	-	-
Penmanship	3	3	-	-	-	-	-	-
Shorthand	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
Needlework	2	2	2	-	-	-	-	-
Singing	2	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gymnastics ²	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	31	31

¹ Each hour of instruction comprised 50 minutes.² Of the 3 hours a week assigned to gymnastics, the third hour, weather permitting, was to be devoted to 2 hours out of doors.

In line with the change in the curriculum of the secondary school, a decree of April 19, 1934, stated that the entrance examination to the first class of the secondary school was a first selection of pupils qualified for secondary school studies. In addition to ability a minimum

amount of information and skill were necessary for admission. A pupil who failed in the entrance examination had to wait 1 year for admission to reexamination.

The selective principle extended throughout the secondary school course. Thus in case of unsatisfactory progress studies could not be continued. In the first 4 years a class could not be repeated if more than half of the subjects were unsatisfactory; in the last 4 years, if three or more subjects were unsatisfactory. This did not include nontheoretical subjects such as penmanship and singing. A class could be repeated once only. Conditional promotion was prohibited.

More significant and important perhaps than the schedule itself was the tendency and purpose of secondary school education as expressed in the introductory passage of the decree: "The secondary schools are to develop the moral, mental, and physical forces of youth, entrusted to them, and educate those forces towards a moral-religious, patriotic, and social national feeling, thinking, and acting." The religious basis of all education was emphasized in the interpretation of the term "moral-religious." The main aim of education was to make religious conviction and religious feeling work actively in the minds and souls of youth.

Table 12.—Statistics of secondary schools, 1937-38

Type of School	Number	Enrollment	
		Total	Girls
1	2	3	4
Public	92	42,462	7,031
Private	79	20,746	12,021
Total	171	63,208	19,052

Commercial education.—Commercial education on continuation and secondary school levels was given at the three following listed types of schools. All were based on 8 years of organized schooling in Austria which generally comprised elementary schooling for the continuation school, and completion of the first 4 years of a secondary school for the commercial academies.

1. *Commercial continuation schools (Kaufmännische Fortbildungsschulen).*—These were part-time schools offering a 3-year course of 8 hours a week of required instruction for commercial apprentices. According to a decree of June 23, 1933, the course comprised a total of 24 week-hours,¹ including 5 hours in each of commercial arithmetic and merchandise; 3, in each of commercial science, correspondence, and bookkeeping; 2, in shorthand; and 1 in each of economic geography, business writing, and civics and taxation.

¹ A week-hour as used here means 1 hour of instruction of 60 minutes a week for 1 school year.

2. *Commercial economics schools (Kaufmännische Wirtschaftsschulen)*.—These were 2-year commercial schools (literally "2-class commercial schools"—zweiklassige Handelsschulen) giving a 2-year full-time course comprising, according to a decree of June 12, 1934, 60 week-hours of required instruction: Religion, 2; German, 7; foreign language, 8; commercial arithmetic, 7; commercial technique, 5; bookkeeping, 6; commercial correspondence, 6; civics, 2; economic geography, 4; merchandise, 6; shorthand, 4; business writing, 4; typing, 2; and 4 hours of optional work selected from among exercises in commercial science, typing, shorthand, gymnastics, and home economics for girls.

3. *Commercial academies (Handelsakademien)*.—The commercial academies were higher secondary commercial schools which aimed to supplement the commercial education of their pupils with a general education. Graduation from them was marked by a certificate of maturity (Reifezeugnis) which entitled the holder to admission to the High School of World Commerce (Hochschule für Welthandel) at Vienna. The curricula issued June 21, 1935, for these schools are given in table 13.

Table 13.—Plan of studies for the commercial academies

Subjects of instruction ¹	Number of hours a week for each school year			
	I	II	III	IV
1	2	3	4	5
Religion	1	1	1	1
German	3	3	3	3
First foreign language and correspondence	4	4	3	3
Second foreign language and correspondence		4	4	3
General and economic history	2	2	2	
Economic geography	3	2	2	
History and geography of Austria				2
Physics			2	2
Natural history	3			
Chemistry and chemical technology	2	2		
Merchandise and mechanical technology			2	2
Mathematics (including political arithmetic and insurance mathematics)	2	2	2	2
Commercial arithmetic	4	2	2	2
Commercial technique	3	2	2	
Commercial correspondence		2	2	2
Bookkeeping		2	3	3
Commercial law and civics				3
Economics				2
Shorthand	2	2		
Business writing	1			
Gymnastics	2	2	2	2
Total	32	32	32	32

¹ In addition optional subjects selected from among: Exercises in commercial science, 2; third foreign language and correspondence, 3; practice in merchandise laboratory, 4; typing, 2; shorthand, 1; economics for girls, 4.

Table 14.—Statistics of commercial schools, 1937-38

Type of school	Number	Enrollment	
		Total	Girls
1	2	3	4
Commercial academies:			
Public	3	1,925	637
Private	4	1,546	538
Total	7	3,471	1,175
Commercial economic schools:			
Public	20	2,984	1,606
Private	33	4,796	3,570
Total	53	7,780	5,176

Teacher Education

Although plans for the reorganization of education in the Austrian Republic included from the first plans for the establishment of teacher education on a new basis, no essential changes were made in the practices in this field inherited from the Monarchy until the middle and close of our period when new regulations were issued, respectively, for the education of secondary and elementary school teachers.

Elementary school teachers

The education of elementary school teachers was governed until June 1, 1937, by articles 26 to 38 of the elementary school law of May 14, 1869, and its supplement of May 2, 1883. The former provided for 4-year schools—separate for men and women—for the education of teachers (*Lehrerbildungsanstalten*). Attached to each as a practice and model school was an elementary school; and at schools for women, also a kindergarten. Tuition was free. Needy students received scholarships on promise to devote themselves to teaching for at least 6 years.

For admission to the first year (literally "first year course"—*ersten Jahrgang*) the applicant had to be at least 15 years of age, of good health and moral character, and pass a severe entrance examination (*strenge Aufnahmeprüfung*) covering in general, except for foreign languages, the subjects of the elementary school. Admission to each of the various classes at a school was limited to 40 pupils.

Success in the severe examination (*strenge Prüfung*) with which the 4-year course closed and which covered all the subjects of the teacher-training school was marked by a certificate of maturity (*Zeugnis der Reife*).

The certificate of maturity qualified for appointment as assistant or temporary teacher (*Unter- or provisorischer Lehrer*). Appoint-

ment as regular teacher (Lehrer) required a certificate of qualification to teach (Lehrbefähigungszeugnis). This was attained through success in a State examination for qualification to teach (Lehrbefähigungsprüfung) taken the earliest after at least 2 years of practical work as assistant or temporary teacher. If unrestricted, the latter certificate entitled the holder to teach at common elementary schools (allgemeine Volksschulen) and at burgher schools (Bürgerschulen); if restricted, only at common elementary schools.

Continuation education for teachers (Fortbildung der Lehrer) was to be furthered through educational periodicals, the establishment of a teachers' library in each school district, periodic conferences, and continuation courses. The conferences were to be of two types: Annual conferences under the direction of the district school inspector for the discussion of the subjects of instruction, methods, introduction of new textbooks, discipline, etc.; and triennial national conferences.

Under the supplementary regulation of 1883, the entrance examination to the schools for the education of teachers covered the subjects of the burgher school. In admission, preference was given to applicants with some preliminary work in music. After graduation the procedure of qualification for appointment as regular teacher at a common elementary school was the same as before. Appointment as regular teacher or assistant at a burgher school required a certificate of qualification to teach at burgher schools (Lehrbefähigungszeugnis für Bürgerschulen). This was attained after at least 3 years of fully satisfactory service on temporary appointment at elementary or other schools and success in a special examination (besondere Prüfung).

For the further education of teachers, particularly those of the burgher schools, special courses (besondere Lehrkurse) were to be organized.

In the early days of educational reform in the Republic a demand of long standing on the part of elementary school teachers for admission to university study was regarded with approval. It was even suggested that they be educated at the universities through a 2-year course. The former terminated in January 1931 in a decree providing that graduates of the teacher-training schools could be admitted to university study as regular students on success in an examination corresponding to the maturity examination of an accredited secondary school. In place of the latter, the curricula and study plans of July 7, 1932, (table 15) added a 1-year preparatory class (Vorbereitungsklasse) to the schools for the education of teachers.

Table 15.—Plan of studies for schools for the education of elementary school teachers

[Numbers in parentheses apply only to schools for women]

Subjects of instruction	Number of hours a week per school year				
	Prepara- tory class	I	II	III	IV
1	2	3	4	5	6
<i>Required</i>					
Religion	2	2	2	2	2
Pedagogy with practical exercises			2	7-8	10
German	5	4	4	4	4
Geography	2	2	2	1	1
History and civics		3	3	3	1
Mathematics and geometric drawing	4	3	3	3	3
Natural history	10-3	3	2	2-1	1
Physics	3-0	2	4	2	1
Penmanship	1				
Agriculture					1(-)
Freehand drawing ¹	4(2)	4(2)	2	2	1
Music and singing	2(1)	1(2)	2(1)	2	2
Piano and organ	2(-)	2(-)	2(-)	1(-)	2(-)
Guitar	- (1)	1			
Gymnastics	3	3	3	3(2)	3
Handwork for women	- (4)	- (3)	- (2)	- (2)	- (2)
Total	28	30	31(30)	32	32(31)
<i>Optional</i>					
Foreign language	5	5	4	3	3
Shorthand	2				
Instrumental music	1	1	1	1	1
Orchestra and chorus				½(-)	½(-)
Home economics	- (3-4)				

¹ Second semester only.² First semester only.³ For men freehand drawing includes manual training.

According to a Federal law of February 2, 1937, the schools for the education of elementary school teachers were to be called academies for the education of teachers (Lehrerakademien) beginning with June 1, 1937, and give a 6-year course (table 16). The first 4 years were to be devoted mainly to general education; the last 2 years to pedagogic didactic education and to the formation of the personality of the professional teacher.

For admission to an academy the applicant had to be physically, morally, and patriotically qualified, present evidence of having completed the eighth year of organized schooling, and pass successfully an entrance examination (literally "selection examination"—Ausleseprüfung) covering information, natural endowment, and ability in music.

Success in the severe examination following completion of the 6-year course was to be marked by a certificate of maturity and qualification to teach at elementary schools (Reife- und Lehrbefähigungszeugnis für Volksschulen). Under prescribed conditions the certificate was to qualify also for admission to the faculty of philosophy at a university.

Since Austria became a part of the Third Reich in the spring of 1938, the law of February 2, 1937, is mainly of historical interest as the climax of one phase of educational development in Austria.

Table 16.—Plan of studies for the academies for the education of elementary school teachers

[Numbers in parentheses apply to academies for women; numbers in bold-face type, to optional subjects]

Subjects of instruction	Number of hours a week for each school year					
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Religion	2	2	2	2	2	2
Introduction to philosophy				2		
German	4	4	4	4	2	2
Modern foreign language			3	3	3	3
Latin	6	5	4	4	3(2)	3(2)
History		2	2	2	2	2
Geography	3	2	2		1	2
Natural history	2	2	2	1		
Physics		3		3	2	1
Chemistry			2			
Mathematics and geometric drawing	4	3	3	3	2	2
Freehand drawing and penmanship	3	2	2	2		
Shorthand	2					
Handwork	-(3)	-(3)	2(4)	2(4)		
Singing and theory of music	1	1	1	1	1	1
Piano	2(1)	2(1)	-(1)	-(1)		
Organ			2(-)	2(-)	2(1)	2(1)
Violin	1(1)	1(1)	1(1)	1(1)		
Guitar			-(1)	1(1)		
Orchestra instruments	1(-)	1(-)				
Gymnastics	3	3	3	3	2	2
Theoretical education					3	2
History of education						2
Educational psychology					2	
School hygiene						2 0
School law						0 2
Work of each class					2	
Methods					2	
Special courses					2	1
Observation					2-1	1
Practice teaching					0-1	3
Examination in teaching						1
Teaching conferences					1	2
Land and forestry economics					1(-)	1(-)
Home economics					-(2)	
Total	33	33	33	33(32)	33(32)	33(32)

¹ First semester only.

² Second semester only.

³ First semester, 2 hours; second semester, 1 hour.

⁴ Second semester only.

Pedagogical Institute of the City of Vienna (Pädagogisches Institut der Stadt Wien).—This was established in the early 1920's by the city of Vienna to meet the needs of its elementary school teachers. The Institute offered various courses. Thus in 1927, in addition to a 2-year required course for graduates of the schools for the education of elementary school teachers who wished to prepare for teaching in the elementary schools of Vienna, the Institute offered continuation courses for teachers including among others: Lecture courses in philosophical pedagogy, curative pedagogy, didactics of elementary and burgher school instruction; seminars in school gymnastics and school

music; school practice; and courses preparatory for the supplementary examination for a certificate of maturity from a secondary school.

Table 17.—Statistics of schools for the education of elementary school teachers, 1937-38

Type of school	Number		Teachers		Students	
	Total	Women	Total	Women	Total	Women
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Federal	10	1			1,763	584
Private	2	1			179	36
Church and religious associations	21	15			2,292	1,670
Total	33	17	1,360	136	4,234	2,290

¹ Of the 10 Federal schools, 5 were coeducational.

² In addition, 172 temporary and part-time teachers, including 76 women.

Secondary school teachers (Mittelschullehrer)

The general criticism of the education of elementary school teachers throughout the period was that while it was good from the viewpoint of methods it was lacking in general culture. In contrast to this the theoretical education of secondary school teachers which was received in the faculty of philosophy at the University of Vienna, Graz, or Innsbruck, met with approval, but their professional education was considered insufficient.

During the first decade of the Republic, secondary school teachers were educated under regulations of June 15, 1911; after that, under those of March 17, 1928, and of August 6, 1937. In their main outline the three regulations were similar. According to them qualification to teach at a secondary school (Befähigung für das Lehramt an Mittelschulen) was attained through success in the examination for secondary school teachers (literally "examination for the office of teacher at secondary schools"—Lehramtsprüfung für Mittelschulen) and introduction to practical work at a secondary school (Einführung in das praktische Lehramt an einer Mittelschule).

Admission to the examination required completion of at least 8 semesters of university study beyond success in the maturity examination (Reifeprüfung, p. 5) from an accredited secondary school. The examination covered regularly two major subjects except in chemistry and philosophy which required, respectively, one major and two minors and two majors and one minor. The subject combinations with the minimum requirements in each subject were prescribed by law. Success in the examination in a major subject qualified for teaching it in all classes of a secondary school; in a minor subject, for teaching it in the first four classes. Success in the entire examination was marked by a certificate of having passed the examination for secondary school teachers (literally "certificate of the examination for the office

of teacher"—Lehramtsprüfungszeugnis), and qualified for the prescribed year of probation (Probejahr) at a secondary school.

The regulations differed as to detail and emphasis. Thus while those of 1911 required a certificate of having passed successfully a philosophical-pedagogical preliminary examination (philosophisch-pädagogische Vorprüfung) as a prerequisite for admission to the examination for secondary school teachers, the later regulations made the pedagogical examination (Pädagogische Prüfung) a distinct part of that examination. As such it included a separate examination in each of:

1. *General pedagogy*: Covering history and science of education, fundamentals and main problems of the theory of education and instruction, significance of this knowledge for practical work in education and instruction, organization of education in Austria and an outline of that of the German Reich; and

2. *Psychology and child study*: Covering thorough knowledge of psychology, child psychology, and the psychology of adolescence; the significance of this knowledge for practical work in education and instruction, particularly for an understanding of the personality of pupils.

The prescribed year of probation, according to the regulations of 1911 and 1928, was completed through attendance at a pedagogical secondary school seminary (pädagogische Mittelschulseminar) called also the more extended year of probation (erweiterte Probejahr), through a simple year of probation (einfache Probejahr), or through service as a teacher on probation (Lehrdienst Probejahr).

The seminaries were attached to selected secondary schools. Each was conducted by the director of the school and limited in size to eight practice teachers. Under the direction of the leader of the seminary and the subject teachers, the work of the probation year comprised observation, practice teaching under supervision, independent practice teaching, and conferences. The simple year of probation was given at secondary schools without a seminary but with accommodations for practice teaching. On successful completion of the year of probation the candidate received a certificate made out by the director of the seminary or of the school. This certificate qualified him for appointment as regular teacher at a secondary school to teach the subjects in which he had prepared.

The regulations of 1937 made no mention of a pedagogical secondary school seminary. Instead the 1 year of service on probation (Probendienst), as it was now called, was under the supervision of the State school inspector and the director of the secondary school with the cooperation of the subject teacher to whom the candidate was assigned. Attendance at lecture and study circles organized for practice teachers was to supplement the practical work of the schoolroom

and conferences. As before, successful completion of the year of practical education was marked by a certificate of having completed the probation service (Zeugnis über die Ablegung des Probedienstes).

Some Conclusion:

Rarely in the history of education in any country has there been a period so full in rapidly changing developments as that of Austria in the two decades preceding its annexation to Germany. From a temporary and local perspective events move quickly and vividly. As a story of educational changes involving generations of children; and progress in the effort to make educational theories alive and real by applying and adapting them to actual curricula.

Unhampered by reactionary adversaries the revolutionary enthusiasm and élan of the Austrian school reform movement following the War succeeded in laying the foundation stone of a new school, the principles of which were not wholly lost in the years that followed, not even after the February revolution of 1934, nor after the annexation. Through changes resulting from the general trend of reactionary politics the achievements of the reform were overshadowed and almost obliterated, but they were indelible and still valid.

This, however, is only the outward aspect, a bird's-eye view of the matter. When actually living through this period the story is quite different.

Except for the elementary school which on the whole remained untouched with reference to its main principles of the unity school and integrated curricula the reforms which were inaugurated and begun were not given enough time to be worked out properly. Before they could be judged on the basis of effectiveness and results they were set aside for new reforms destined to a similar fate.

The victims of these rapid changes were the pupils and their teachers. For the pupils the change from one type of school to another became increasingly difficult. A child who had to repeat a year because of failure frequently found himself lost for the school changed both as to structure and spirit.

The changes in the inward character of the school and in the philosophy (Weltanschauung) of education were due to differences in the political philosophy of the successive governments. Unrest and loss of confidence resulted. Innumerable conflicts—silent and open—in the relationship between the teacher and his personal convictions and between the teacher and his superior officers were one consequence; conflicts between the teacher and his pupils, another. The accepted truth of one day was abandoned and banished as untrue and reprehensible on the day following. The development from extreme leniency in requirements, discipline, and methods of teaching in the

early days of the reform to extreme severity in its later days accompanied with parental complaints throughout the period is but one phase of these changes. Official authority could be enforced by disciplinary methods but the morale of the school and of the teacher was dangerously impaired and the work of education made more difficult and less efficient.

The Austrian school has disappeared. Today—at least outwardly—it is submerged in the German school system. But the Austrian school reform as history lives on. In the years 1920 to 1934 Austria, particularly Vienna, was a Mecca for educators who came in ever-increasing numbers from all countries of Europe and from overseas to study the new schools and methods, with the result that the Viennese school reform became the center of a rich literature including among its authors educators of prominence and distinction.

Thus we may hope that ideas of this educational movement, though overthrown in the country of its origin, may still live on and bear fruit in other lands.

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