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THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF RURAL DENMARK

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, September 23, 1913.

Sir: The wealth, property, and contentment of the rural population of Denmark are known to all the world. Students in Denmark and elsewhere familiar with the recent history of the country assert that these are due directly and almost wholly to the character and universality of Danish rural education. Probably no other country has succeeded so well in adapting the work of its rural schools to the needs of its rural population. The methods by which this has been done and the results obtained contain valuable lessons for the people of the United States, where the improvement and redirection of the rural schools constitute just now the most important problem of statesmanship. For this reason I detailed last winter and spring three members of the Bureau of Education, Mr. Harold W. Foght, specialist in rural education, and William H. Smith, of Mississippi, and Lloyd L. Friend, of West Virginia, special collaborators in the Bureau of Education, to go to Denmark and make a first-hand study of the organization and work of the rural schools and report on the same. The accompanying manuscript outlining the educational system of rural Denmark constitutes the first section of the report. I recommend that it be published as a bulletin of the Bureau of Education. Three or four other sections, now in preparation, will give a-more detailed account of the several parts of this system. The several parts of the complete report will. I believe, constitute a very valuable addition to the literature on rural education.

Respectfully submitted.

P. P. CLANTON, Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.



PREFACE.

This report is the result of a first-hand investigation of Danish rural life and rural schools. Several months were spent in the field studying conditions as they actually exist, beginning with a series of studies in the island of Zealand, which was followed by a similar investigation in Funen and other important islands and, finally, in the peninsula of Jutland.

At least the following points were kept carefully in mind throughout the work: (1) Present-day status of Danish rural life and its probable relation to the existing school system; (2) the efficiency and interrelation of the elementary rural school, the folk high school, the local agricultural school, and other similar schools; and (3) ways in which schools in the United States may profit from the older well-

tried Danish system.

Much time was spent in the schools to get the spirit of the work. The courses of study, methods of teaching, school architecture, teacher living, and the like, of the elementary schools furnished ample materials for study in these schools. In a similar way the authorities of the folk high schools and local agricultural schools offered the investigator every assistance, permitting him to attend the classroom exercises, lectures, and evening "voluntaries," to eat at the common tables with the students, and room at the student dormitories. Finally, considerable time was devoted to mingling with the rural folk getting their estimate of the value of the schools to agriculture and national life.

A general acknowledgment is due Danish Government officials, school inspectors, and teachers who showed a uniform interest in the investigation and lent their assistance through books, records, and statistics. Special acknowledgment is due the following gentlemen for special guidance on trips of observation, for the use of school materials, photographs, etc.: Hon. Maurice Francis Egan, American minister to Denmark; His Excellency Jacob Appel, minister of education and ecclesiastical affairs; His Excellency Anders Nielsen, minister of agriculture; Secretary Knud Vallöe, deputy in the ministry of agriculture; Department Chief V. Aagesen, department of education and ecclesiastical affairs; Mr. Ib Windfeld, secretary of the bureau of agricultural economics; Hon. M. P. Blem, president of



Danish credit societies; Profs. Kölpin Ravn and A. W. Mörkeberg, of the royal veterinary and agricultural institute; State "Consulents" Axel Appel and K. Hansen; Director Christian Dalgas, of the Danish Heather Association; Folk High-School Principals and Professors N. J. Nielsen-Klodskov, H. A. and H. Rosendal, J. J. Hansen, Thomas Bredsdorff, Holger Bredtrup, Poul Hansen, P. C. Davidsen, J. K. Jensen, H. C. Nielsen-Svinninge, Th. Madsen-Mygdal, Alfred Poulsen, and Jakob E. Lange; and, finally, the following teachers of elementary rural schools: Messrs. Hindse-Nielsen, P. J. Winther, Aprders Andersen, J. Hasseriis, and Johan Egeberg.

H. W. F.

August 1, 1913.



THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF RURAL DENMARK.

I. HISTORY OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT DURING RECENT YEARS.

Benmark: The land and the people. Denmark is a small country, embracing, all told, some 14,848 square miles, cut by arms of the ocean into one prominent peninsula and more than 500 islands, some of which are mere sand bars of little economic value. It has considerably less than one-half the area of Maine, much less than onefourth the area of Missouri, and about one-eight enth that of Texas. The country forms a part of the north European lowland and is marked for its low rise above the sea level-the average elevation being, indeed, only about 95 feet. The surface soil is, on the whole, light and in some regions very poor. It comprises in the main moraine clays, strong in lime and mixed with pebbles, moraine sands. and, in central Jutland, great stretches of heather sands belonging to the glacial period. Of more recent origin are the peak bogs to be found throughout the islands, the marshlands rising out of the sea near Ribe, and the sand formations along the northwestern shores of Jutland.

Taken all in all, it can scarcely be said that Denmark has been endowed by nature with any great agricultural riches. The soil as it appears to-day is *made* soil—the results of scientific application of

fertilizers, of drainage, and of irrigation.

The climate, while never extremely cold, is rather inhospitable. This is accounted for by the excessive damp and chilly winds blowing from the ocean. The average precipitation is 24.94 inches. Fog prevails 94 days out of the year, and Copenhagen—in a fayored location—has only 50 days of sunshine annually. As a result of this it is often difficult to save the crops, and the cattle must be stall-fed 9 months out of the year.

The total population is (1911) 2,759,000. Of this, 61 per cent is rural. One hundred years ago Denmark was practically all devoted to agriculture. In 1801 the country districts numbered 733,000 people, while the capital and the provincial towns numbered 102,000 and 94,000, respectively. By degrees, as the industrial spirit seized the country, the capital and provincial towns began to outgrow the rural

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districts. This phenomenon is illustrated in the following table, which gives the annual increase per 10,000 persons:

Annual increase of population per 10,000.

Periods.	Capital.	l'rovin- cial towns.	Rural.	Total per cent rural.
1801-1840	48	112	85	79
	190	177	82	72
	325	230	21	67
	259	252	28	61
	152	110	99	60

It will be noted that the city tide grew rapidly till the close of the eighties, which period also marked the lowest ebb in rural growth. The decade from 1880 to 1890 was noted by great distress in the rural communities, and resulted in Denmark's largest emigration to the United States. With 1890, when cooperative enterprise got its first real hold upon the farm population, the tide began to turn again, and the cities ceased their rapid strides, while the rural districts jumped in 1901–1906 from 28 per 10,000 to 99 per 10,000. Since then the rural districts have, according to unofficial figures, passed back from 60 per cent to 61 per cent of the total population.

This shift in rural and city population is interesting and significant when compared with figures from the United States census. In 1790 the United States was provincial, 96.6 per cent of the population living in rural communities; in 1900, 59.5 per cent only lived in farming communities; in 1910 this had dwindled to 53.7 per cent. If the census definition "rural" could be limited to those actually "rural minded," instead of arbitrarily calling all places below 2,500 people rural, the figures would be still more marked.

Rural Denmark of to-day.—The fact that the cityward tide has been stemmed indicates a large degree of prosperity and contentment in rural communities. That which strikes the investigator most forcibly is the uniformly intensive and highly scientific agriculture. The sloughs and marshes have been drained, the sand dunes have been checked, and the heather reforested. The fields and meadows are kept in a high state of production through careful tilling and fertilization. The great macadamized turnpikes, winding through the landscape wherever needed, further emphasize a marked stability and permanence in rural life. No one thing has played a greater part in this prosperity than the spirit of cooperation, which prevails on every side. Cooperative stores, dairies, bacon "factories," egg export associations, and credit societies for assisting small holders control practically the entire agricultural output and become the means of economic independence.



From the social point of view also the Danish country folk are fortunately situated. Their important institutions have been able to withstand any and all inroads made by the cities. Strong churches and schools in charge of men who devote their lives to the work, numerous social and educational organizations reaching out in extension work from the folk high schools and agricultural schools, gymnastic and athletic associations for the young men. and "skytteforeninger" (expanded shooting clubs) for the older men all tend to hold the rural people together in a contented agricultural life.

The Danish farmer has the right outlook on life. He does not consider farm life as complementary to city life. As a matter of fact, he does not alone produce his own crops, but he markets them as well. Of recent years he has entered politics, and he now controls the National Rigsdag. At the time of writing the prime minister, the minister of agriculture, minister of education, and many other Government leaders are from the rural communities.

If one should seek the reason for this agricultural prosperity, it might be summed up in a single sentence: "The application of broad, general intelligence to converting a poor, war-crippled country into a rich, happy one." Like so many other countries, Denmark had to be forced by adverse circumstances to wake up and come into its own. The spur was supplied through national disaster in war and cruel tariff discrimination.

Danish agricultural evolution .- The middle of the eighteenth century found Danish agriculture in a deplorable condition. The greater part of the tillable land had become centered in a strong, land-holding nobility or belonged to the Crown. The one-time powerful free landed peasantry had been diminished in the changeable times of the Middle Ages, and few still owned their farms. A majority of the peasantry had been forced into a condition of serfdom, under which they were obliged to remain on the estate where born from the age of 4 to 35, and when the period of bondage was over such peasants were by law obliged to rent land lots from the overlords on conditions practically unbearable. They were thus subject to Hoveri, or working a definite number of days weekly on the overlords' estates; they had to pay heavy tithings and, moreover, lived under an ancient system of holding and working the soil in common. To all this was added the practical ruin of the live-stock industry, which had long been the chief source of export. This traffic suffered severely because of exorbitant export duties and on account of a virulent cattle plague that swept the country.

Then came the first great land reforms. In 1781 communism in landholding was abandoned; in 1784 the great Crown estates were parceled out; and in 1788 serfdom came to an end. Export duties were lifted on corn and cattle, and of greatest importance; perhaps,



the State established a credit fund (1786), from which deserving small farmers might borrow money to improve their own small holdings.

As a result of the first period of reform, the small holders, and even the old free peasants, made remarkable progress. The public schools were improved and intelligence extended rapidly. Then came the Napoleonic wars, carrying with them widespread rain. At the close of the war, when embargoes on foodstuffs were raised, grain prices fell to below cost of production. The period 1823–1825 saw a great crisis in agricultural affairs. More than one-third of all the big estates went under the hammer and changed hands. The Government again came to the rescue with many new land reforms which gave gradual relief.

The second great national shock came through the disastrous German war of '64. At the close of this the country found itself commercially and agriculturally paralyzed, and the national credit was at low ebb. Two of the most prosperous provinces were lost, and the nation sank into a lethargy of despair. But this was the spur necessary to bring about the great awakening. Now were heard the voices of Denmark's teachers, preachers, poets, and economists: and the people were eager to listen and to act. Bishop N. F. S. Grundtvig and Kristen Kold began the organization of the schools which should make better, more intelligent, and patriotic farmers; Christian Dalgas and his coworkers planted the heatherlands of Jutland, drained the bogs, and irrigated the moors; C. F. Tietgen and men like him organized Danish commerce and manufactures; and Svend Högsbro and others with him drew the farmers into a remarkable system of cooperative buying and selling associations, which have become the envy and marvel of the civilized world. A new era of national prosperity began, in which scientific agriculture is the most important factor.

The schools' share in this agricultural prosperity.—A remarkable system of rural schools must be credited with a large share in this successful national reorganization. These are the rural elementary schols, the folk high schools, the local agricultural schools, and schools of household economics.

The rural elementary schools of Denmark, while ever emphasizing a thoroughness in the fundamental school subjects, have done their greatest work in the marked ability with which they inculcate in their pupils a love of soil tilling as a life calling.

The folk high schools, which are Denmark's unique contribution to educational theory and practice, have gone further by actually disseminating a peasant culture throughout the agricultural communities, which has freed the peasantry from city domination by making them think for themselves until they now practically control the country both economically and politically. N. J. Nielsen-Klodskov,

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principal of one of these schools, when asked how Denmark had acquired this agricultural prosperity, exclaimed:

Enlightenment has done it, and first of all must be mentioned the folk high schools, and then the local agricultural schools.—Wellington held "that England's victories in war and peace were won on the playgrounds of Eton and Harrow." I believe it is not too much to say that our agricultural victories were won in the schools established for our grown-up people.

Without question one of the greatest blessings attained through the folk high school is the mutual trust that it teaches. This is what has made the entire cooperative movement possible. Without such trust the farmers' credit societies could not exist nor cooperative bacon factories and dairies run. Poul la Cour, the late lamented folkschool leader at Askov, once said:

This development of the character of, I trust, the greater part of the population is the finest result of the work of the high schools, and it forms really the basis for the whole future development of the nation.

The folk high schools do their great work in the building of noble character and in stimulating to a loftier idealism. Still another class of Danish institutions, under the name of local agricultural schools and schools of household economics, lay emphasis more particularly on the theory of scientific agriculture, thus preparing the way for the practical application of these theories at home on the farm. These schools may be considered in a way as continuation schools for the folk high schools, since practically all accredited agricultural schools demand attendance at one of the former institutions as a requirement for entrance.

II. DANISH RURAL SCHOOLS IN GENERAL OUTLINE.

The free elementary school.—The scheme of education for farm life begins with the free elementary school, and is thereafter continued part of the time in the classroom and part of the time in practical outside work until all has been mastered that is essential to success in agriculture. The elementary school is compulsory from the age of 7 till 14, although most children enter school at 6. The compulsory-attendance laws are enforced under such rigid regulations that practically no children of school age evade them. The schools are taught by mature, professional teachers who devote their lives to work in the country. The uniform thoroughness which marks the elementary rural school is clearly explainable in well-trained teachers of long tenure in the same community. These teachers are well paid and content with their lot; they rank high socially, and in most instances make use of their opportunities to become community leaders and organizers. Under such teachers



a large majority of them are men-the children complete the first seven or eight grades of school work, in which great emphasis is laid on the mother tongue, mathematics, and other essential subjects, together with religious instruction, nature study, music, and gymnastics. At 14 or 15 years of age most Danish children are confirmed in the State church, ending the responsibility of the State so far as free instruction is concerned—a fact which would seem a great weakness in the system were it not for the many Governmentaided continuation schools open to every worthy farm boy or girl,

The period of physical growth.—After leaving the free elementary schools a few of the children immediately enter the Middle Schools, which are found in every one of the organized towns, and those children eventually make their way through the Gymnasia and Real Skoler to the National University or the National Polytechnic Institute. But the rural children who go the so-called learned way are not many compared with those who remain on the farm. And vet, the latter are not left without further opportunity for study. While it is true that some of the rural laborers' children go to work immediately upon leaving the elementary school or have to be satisfied with evening school instruction, nevertheless, a much larger number, relatively, take advantage of continuation schools than in the United States. This is borne out by statistics which—for 1906 show that 33 per cent of all young men and a slightly smaller number of young women of 18 years and over attend the folk high schools for a longer or shorter period, while 14 per cent of the young men attend special agricultural schools in addition to the agricultural studies offered in many of the folk high schools, and a considerable number of young women attend special schools of domestic science. All of these institutions are situated in the open country.

Pupils are not accepted at the above-mentioned schools before the candidate for admission has reached 18 years of age. There is then a period of four years after leaving the elementary school for which an accounting must be made. Danish thinkers are pretty well satisfied that these years of adolescence should be devoted particularly to physical development and practical tasks rather than to classroom routine. They call attention to the fact that during this period of growth-of change from youth to young manhood-the physical in the human being seems to have the upper hand, and intellectual attainments are acquired under compulsion chiefly and often at the sacrifice of health. Therefore with them this is essentially a period of work and play. The children then learn practical agriculture and household duties at home; or, better still, are apprenticed to learn these at recognized model farms, where they get the benefits of the knowledge of "kontrolenter," or specialists in farm science, maintained in the field at State and local expense.

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It is quite common to pay for the privilege of working at these model farms. But time is also given for play and gymnastics. It is compulsory to give instruction in gymnastics in the elementary schools. This is continued in all the folk and agricultural schools. Moreover, almost every country community has its local gymnastic organization and usually its own assembly hall and gymnasium. Here the youth while out of school, and their fathers for that matter, assemble frequently and take their physical exercise under able leaders. In this way the years pass, and the youth are ready for the folk high schools.

The folk high schools and the culture period.—The folk high -schools are essentially schools for mature young people. The Danes speak of them as schools for "grown-ups," and the term is appropriate, since one finds there students from 18 to 25 and even older. The schools are not high schools in the American sense of that term, nor are they "poor men's universities," as some writers have denominated them, for the students, while mainly from farming communities, come from every walk in life and from the homes of the well-to-do and the poor alike. In general they are schools for mature young people, the main object being development of personal character rather than the giving of specialized instruction. To these schools come the young people after a period of rest from intellectual labor, strong in body, full of hope, and eager to learn. They are zealous to realize the best in life-to know themselves and the purpose of life. To be more specific, the aims of the schools are: (1) To make a broad-minded, moral citizenship; (2) to foster a deepseated love of the soil and native land; (3) to give a correct outlook on agricultural life; (4) to free the people from class domination and show them how best to utilize their growing political power; (5) to lay a broad cultural foundation for the technical subjects to be pursued in the local agricultural schools; and (6) to prepare the young people to face intelligently the great struggle for existence that presses hard on all alike in the older European countries.

Very few of the schools are coeducational. The schools for young men are in session for five or six months, usually beginning with November. The young women then attend the same schools from three to five months during the summer season. The work is based upon lectures rather than textbooks. The success of the school is therefore dependent upon the ability of the teachers to inspire and to instruct; and this calls for carefully trained teachers.

The local agricultural schools and scientific training.—The young people spend one, two, or even more terms at one or another of the local agricultural schools, or in the case of young women the rural schools of household economics.



Young men who have had practical experience in farm pursuits before entering the folk high school usually go immediately from the latter to one of the agricultural schools, of which there are 29 scattered over the country. In case such practical training is lacking, it must be secured at one of the Government-recognized model farms before they can matriculate at the agricultural schools. These latter teach primarily the theory of agriculture, land surveying, agricultural chemistry, and the other sciences which underlie the practice of agriculture. Since the students are already what might be called practical farmers, the aim of the agricultural schools is "to connect the principles of agricultural science with practical facts and to render their daily work more attractive to them than before by transforming their 'knowing how' into 'understanding why.'"

Peculiar schools organized particularly for the small farmers are the so-called Husmandsskoler, or schools for small holders. These combine the most valuable features of the folk high schools with those of the agricultural schools and make a strong point of short courses for small holders of any age or preparation, no matter how old or how poorly prepared. The side lines of agriculture—such as bee culture, chicken raising, rabbit breeding, etc.—receive much attention. Indeed, any small holder with a problem, it matters not what, may enter these schools and obtain the desired assistance.

Strong schools of household economics, located in the open country, furnish young women a counterpart of what the agricultural schools are doing for young men. It is conceded that the women who are destined to become helpmeets for the scientific young farmers must themselves understand how to manage the farm households economically and scientifically. Such demands the schools strive to supply. The folk high schools have long taught these subjects as incidental to genuine farm culture, and particularly have they laid great stress upon needlework and embroidery. But the new schools of household economics address themselves exclusively to the science of housewifery.

Young men who desire to join the large class of Government experts in dairying, swine culture, etc., may procure their final preparation by spending one or more years in study and experiment at the Royal Veterinary and Agricultural Institute located in Copenhagen.

The most important task performed by educationists in Denmark has been to impart a remarkably large store of culture without giving the people a contempt for work with the hands. The system outlined above has done much to ennoble manual work in the estimation of the people and to heighten their ability to do the work.



III. THE SCHOOL SYSTEM IN SOME DETAIL.

The elementary rural school, its organization and administration.\(^1\)—The free elementary schools in Denmark are administered jointly by the Government, the church, and the local commune. Because the country is small and the people homogeneous, it is quite natural that the central authority should be vested in the National Government. But the general policy is, nevertheless, to place as much authority as possible in the local commune.

The minister of education and ecclesiastical affairs has the general administration and supervision of the public schools in country and city alike. It falls to him to interpret and enforce all educational codes passed by the Rigsdag, to prescribe general rules and regulations for the schools, to arbitrate and decide questions of difference which may arise in lower administrative circles, to recommend needed school legislation, and in other ways perform such duties as naturally fall to his office. The minister of education is advised by a national "konsulent," or educational specialist, and has under his immediate direction national inspectors of music, gymnastics, sloyd, and drawing. In this way enough of the administrative machinery is centered in the Government to assure uniformity in educational effort. In addition to this, what to study and how to study are also governed by central regulation.

Almost from time immemorial bishops, deans, and local ministers have had active part in school administration. These were generally the best educated men in their respective districts, and have consequently exerted a powerful influence toward good morals and religion in the schools; and, in addition, theirs has been an office of general inspection of a most wholesome nature. Especially was this true before the general spread of intelligence to the whole community. There are signs now which indicate that the teachers of Denmark are beginning to resent what they call "church interference" in school matters.

The administration of school funds and such other important matters as can not wisely be intrusted to smaller boards have been vested in school directories, 1 from each of the 19 "amts," or administrative subdivisions, of the Kingdom.

The 73 deaneries of Denmark have each a general board of education. These are the most important link between the ministry of education and the local commune, because the former does its work chiefly through the deanery board. All school supervision is vested



¹ For a complete discussion of the elementary rural school, see the Bureau of Education bulletin "The Danish Rural School: Its Organization and Administration."

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in these boards, the local dean visiting, inspecting, and testing the working efficiency of the separate schools within his deanery.

Finally, each of the 1.134 country communes or parishes is divided into two or more schoolhouse districts. The schools of each parish are directed by the parish council, which leaves the more particular control of each school within the parish to a committee or board comprising the local pestor and members chosen from the parish council.

All these directories and boards are so concentrically arranged and their duties and responsibilities are so divided as to secure excellent results in school administration.

School districts.—The size of schoolhouse districts is regulated by national law. The two factors chiefly considered are (1) the distance which each child must go in order to reach school, and (2) the number of children in each school.

It is generally held that a child should not be obliged to go farther than from a mile to a mile and a half to reach school. Denmark is so densely populated that, with the exception of a few heather regions in Jutland, there is no danger of having schools too small. The danger is rather from crowding. No one teacher, it is held, ought to have more than 25 pupils. The remedies, where the children of a district exceed that number, are these: (1) The establishment of a Forskole, or beginners' school, under the charge of a woman teacher, near the original school, for the first four grades of pupils; (2) the addition of one or more teachers to the old school, together with provision for additional recitation rooms, etc.; (3) the establishment of a school centrally located for the older children of all the districts within the commune; and (4) an arrangement whereby certain children may attend school in a neighboring commune.

In passing through rural districts one may see illustrations of all the expedients mentioned above. At one place the old school may chance to lie on the edge of a little old-time hamlet. Perhaps a railroad has been built through the community, and a small station town has sprung up. The new town is a part of the school district and has no school of its own, but is obliged to send its children to the hamlet school. As soon as more room is needed a beginner's school is likely to be erected somewhere between the two towns, thus making school attendance easier for the small children of the station town, or an altogether new centralized school of several rooms may be erected halfway between the two towns as a satisfactory compromise.

Compulsory attendance. - School attendance is compulsory between the ages of 7 and 14, although children are accepted as soon as they have finished their sixth year. Statistics for 1911 show 261,518 children of school age for the open country. Of these, 260,696 attended school throughout the year, leaving only 822 to be accounted for in other ways. These children were distributed among 8,225 4. S. L. A.

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districts, and had, all told, 5,383 teachers, of whom 1,523 were women. About 1 per cent of school efficiency was lost through nonattendance and absence "without legal excuse." The compulsory attendance law is strictly enforced, and has much to do with keeping the percentage low. Fines, increasing rapidly from a few ore to several kroner for each unexcused absence, are assessed against the legal guardians of the recalcitrants, and are, when necessary, enforced by process of law.

Length of school year.—In the country districts the school year "shall be at least 41 weeks," which makes a minimum of 246 days, since the Danish school week is 6 days long. But this means only that school must run at least 246 days in the year. It does not specify that each child or class must be in school all this time. As a matter of fact, the law expressly states, in another paragraph, that country children "shall have at least 18 hours' instruction weekly" and village children (provincial towns) "shall have at least 21 hours weekly." This does not include instruction in gymnastics, household economics, and sloyd, which are, as a rule, studied after regular hours and considered as "specials," and are therefore not counted.

The school plan arranged so as to give the older children usually four whole days and two half days each week during winter and three whole days and three half days during summer, while the order is reversed in the case of the younger children.

The system varies with the different schools, the minimum number of hours only being the same for all. A study of the following table taken from a strong country school at Ejby may make this point clear. This particular institution has a school year of 250 days:

TABLE	IIISchool	attendance.

•	. (' Hours	weekly.	Dауз v	veckly.	School	Average length of
•	Class.	/ · .	Regular.	Gymnas- tics, etc.	Halí.	W hole.	months of 20 days each,	school year in months.
1B 2 3 4 5 6 7			18 18 18 21 24 24 27 30	- 4 2 2 2 2 2	6 6 5 4 4 3 2	1 2 2 2 3 4	6. 28 6. 25 6. 25 8. 66 9. 00 9. 00 10. 00 11. 00	8.83+

The table is for the winter half year and shows the beginners' classes with the legal minimum of 18 hours, making a school year



See "Haandbog I Lovgivningen om Den Danake Folkeskole. Henrik Lehmann, p. 16 et seg.

of only 64 months, if continued in this manner throughout the year. Pupils in these classes attend school more time, however, during the summer half year. The seventh class (eighth grade) is seen to attend at the rate of fully 11 school months; but this is very materially reduced during the summer season. The average school year for all the classes is 84 months. The Ejby school is a fair example of this arrangement of the length of the school year, which is considerably longer than the average school year in most American rural districts.

The course of study.—The subject matter taught in the schools is organized in a manner to emphasize these three things: (1) Thoroughness in the fundamental subjects; (2) an understanding of the nature environment in which the children live; and (3) familiarity with subjects of immediate social-economic value.

The following table, also taken from Ejby school, gives some idea of what is studied in an average Danish rural school:

Table IV .- Course of study (hours weekly).

6	Classes.								
Subjects.	14	`1B,	2	4	4	5	6	p E	
Religion. Danish language and literature. Writing. Arithmetic and farm accounting. Special farm problems.	8 3 3	4/2 6 3 3	3 2 3	3 7 2 4	3 7 2 4	3 7 1 4	3 7 1 3	1 3	
Geography. History Biology and agriculture. Nature study and sanitation.	4/2	4/2	2/2	1 2 1	2 2 1	2 2 2 2	2 2 3	2	
Song Drawing Cymnastics Gymnastics (boys) Handwork (girls)	1	1	2/2 1		1 ! 1	1 1 1	1 1		
Total Extra gymnastics (boys): Extra gymnastics (girls) Extra handwork (girls)			18	21 2 2 2 2	21	24	27	30	

Hours after mgular school hours; no credits given

A first point of note is that reading and spelling are not mechanized and treated as arts complete in themselves, but taught in an incidental way. Separate spelling books are unknown. Under the experienced teachers usually found in the schools, the mechanical and technical phases of language—reading, spelling, and grammar—develop incidentally and naturally, with the result that the children easily apply the language of the schoolroom to the language of the school ground and the home.

Religious subjects—Bible history, catechism, religious music, etc.—hold an important place in the rural schools. Bible history, as it is taught, lays a good foundation for general history. The religious



course certainly acquaints the children with their Bible and is of great aid in character building and morals teaching. Danish language is taught largely through "doing"—i. e., through composition and dictation exercises. The teacher may give dictation from some simple reader or classic and this is then studied and analyzed, and rules of grammar applied as needed. The work is largely of an inductive nature.

Writing and drawing are uniformly good. The children are taught to be painstaking and accurate. "Muscular movements" and "vertical writing" seem to have little hold on the schools. The writing lacks somewhat in rapidity. Mental arithmetic is universally taught. Farm accounting and mathematical problems peculiar to farm life receive much attention in the higher classes.

Geography and history hold high place in the course of study, although the methods applied do not always seem the best. In a few schools too much of the old memoriter processes prevail, and some teachers are too prone to lecture on history instead of teaching it. The geography classes emphasize the Scandinavian countries. The field of listory is broad enough to reach back to oriental, Greek, and Roman times. Church history taught in the "religion" classes supplies the history of the middle ages. On these foundations are built the history of Scandinavia from the earliest period to the present time.

Nature study is taught informally throughout the first three years, and is then continued as biology and agriculture to the end of the course. The beginners' classes teach a love of nature; the advanced classes get the outlines of loogy, ending with the study of man and practical sanitation.

All Danish teachers must know how to teach music, whether or not they sing. The teacher accompanies the song on a violin or other instrument. Of 30 schools inspected, 29 used this instrument. Children from the fifth grade up are drilled in part songs. Patriotic and religious songs, songs of nature, and folk songs are sung with much gusto.

Most of the country schools do not instruct in manual training, but village schools do excellent work in sloyd. Handwork, such as sewing, knitting, and embroidery, is commonly taught by women teachers—and well taught. In some one-teacher schools with men teachers the wife of the teacher gives instruction in handwork after regular school hours.

The teachers must likewise be able to instruct in gymnastics. The newer rural schools are supplied with gymnasiums; where these are lacking a suitable plat of ground must be prepared out of doors, sanded and supplied with proper apparatus. This work is excep-



tionally good and is later continued in the various folk high schools and local agricultural schools.

Schoolhouses, teachers' homes, and gardens.—All new rural schools must be constructed in accordance with a circular issued by the ministry of education. The site must be large, sightly, and sanitary. Ample provision is made for proper lighting and ventilation. The rooms are generally heated by jacketed ventilating stoves or hot-air furnaces.

The rules governing the cleansing of schoolrooms are of particular interest: The floors and woodwork must be washed daily and the furniture wiped with a damp cloth. Once a week the rooms must be scrubbed with soap and water. Outdoor toilets are scrubbed daily, and all excreta must be removed frequently. The toilets are invariably clean and speak well for the enforcement of the law. All this work is done by janitors provided by the commune.

Country teachers are all provided with free homes. These range from three-room suites in the case of unmarried women teachers to seven or eight rooms for married men. The suites are built, as a rule, in connection with the main school building, using either the second floor or a wing on the first floor. Where more than one teacher lives in the building each suite of rooms invariably has its own separate entrance. This system of teacher housing is very successful and means much for the teacher and for community leadership.

Another thing of interest is that all teachers are entitled under the law to a garden. This is planned and planted to shrubbery and fruit at community expense. The garden may vary from a small lot to nearly an acre of ground. In a few instances women teachers accept a sum of money in lieu of the garden. Not alone do the gardens supplement the teachers' incomes, but they are often used as experimental plats for the schools as well.

Such schools provided as they are for housing the teachers and making their lives attractive and wholesome, naturally become the rallying centers for all community activities.

Preparation of rural teachers.—The uniform efficiency of the elementary rural schools in Denmark is explained in large measure by the professional training and long tenure of all teachers, men and women alike. The minimum required for teaching in the elementary rural schools is graduation from 1 of the 20 State teachers' seminaries or normal schools. The course is very searching and requires at least three years' residence work. After graduation the candidate must go through an apprenticeship as substitute teacher, hour teacher, etc., before finally being licensed for permanent appointment. This gives the ministry of education ample opportunity to try him out and, if necessary, reject him. As a result the large majority of permanent rural teachers may remain in the same com-



munity for a lifetime, once they have received their appointment. Such teachers grow up in the community and make themselves, with the years, invaluable to their patrons. One of the teachers who had thus served the same community for 21 years regretted, in the presence of the investigator, that he had taught there only such a short while, but hoped that the good God would permit him to remain in the school as long as had his predecessor—that man had blessed it for 39 years.

Remuneration of rural teachers.—Denmark requires eminent preparation of all men and women entering the teaching profession, but the State pays them for their services in a way commensurate with such preparation. Since 1908 the salary scale for rural teachers has been especially satisfactory. The present salary law contains the following points of interest: (1) "First" teachers (principals) and teachers in charge of one-teacher schools are engaged at a beginning salary of not less than 900 kroner nor more than 1,400 kroner, to be paid by the commune. The State will then increase this salary with 200 kroner each fourth year until 1,000 kroner is reached. In this way it is possible for them to draw in cash 2,400 kroner annually after teaching 20 years. "Second" teachers and women teachers are paid on the same sort of sliding scale, though receiving a materially smaller beginning salary. (2) All teachers are provided a comfortable home. (3) They are furnished with a sufficient amount of fuel for the satisfactory heating of that home. (4) They are provided with a garden plat (size to depend on teacher's rank) to be platted and planted at community expense. (5) There are certain incomes from the position as organist or chorister, from the church fees, the old school "lots," etc.

The way the law works in actual practice may be illustrated from the following school, located near the center of Funen. The three teachers of the school were provided for as here shown:

Remuneration of rural teachers.

Teachers.	Commune	State.	House.	Fuel.	Garden.	Church.	Total.
"First" teacher	1,000	Krimer. 1,000 1,000 600	Kroner. 480 300 300	Eroner. 250 125 125	Acre. Eroner. 150 150 100 100 100 100 100 100	Rroner. 120 100	Aroner. 3, 400 2, 568 1, 765

Three thousand four hundred kroner would be only \$920, if exchanged for American money; but this sum would have a purchasing power in Denmark equal to \$1,500 to \$1,800 in America. This may be considered a very comfortable income in comparison with what rural teachers are paid in many other countries. The comparison is particularly striking if made with salaries paid in our own country, where the average salary for all teachers, rural and city, is now \$455.



Teachers' pensions.—The elementary teachers of Denmark receive pensions under the following regulations and limitations:

(1) Only regularly employed permanent teachers are entitled to a pension. This excludes all apprentice teachers, hour teachers, etc.

(2) The teacher must have been regularly employed for at least five years when the application for pension is made.

(3) He must be at least 30 years old at the time of making application, and the cause for retirement can be no other than old age, constitutional weakness, sickness, and the like. Any teacher leaving the teaching profession for other life work is not considered.

(4) An exception to the above regulations is made where teachers are obliged to discontinue their work on account of being afflicted with tuberculosis. All such teachers, no matter whether permanently employed or not, are entitled to an annual life pension of two-thirds of the amount paid at the time of retirement.

(5) The amount of pension depends upon the length of service above five years as a permanently employed teacher. Service over five but less than seven years entitles the applicant to a pension of one-tenth the amount of his salary at the time of retirement. A regular sliding scale specifies with exactness the further increase. Service of 28 to 29 years entitles the teacher to a pension of thirty-nine sixtieths of the salary at retirement, and over 29 years to two-thirds of such salary.

Rural school maintenance.—The Danish system of taxation for school purposes has sufficient of local taxation to encourage community initiative and sufficient of State aid to equalize the educational advantages over the nation.

The local commune maintains its own schools, paying the original contract salaries to teachers, together with other regular current outlays. The General Government lends its aid to school maintenance in a number of ways as spurs to greatest educational effort. This assistance comes to the community as a reward for good work already under way to make it of utmost value. Thus, while the original salaries are paid by the communes, the four-year increases are furnished by the State. In like manner the Government encourages the construction of modern school buildings by assisting in reducing the face of loans occasioned by the erection of such structures (including teachers' homes); it also pays for the maintenance of evening schools in the country and gives direct aid to poor and needy communes.

THE FOLK HIGH SCHOOL.

The folk high school: What it is.—To the average reader the expression "high school" carries with it a vision of four years of teaming textbook study, following immediately upon the completion



of the eight grade of the grammar school, and covering, roughly speaking, the age period from 14 to 18. Such instruction is, in Denmark, given in the Middle Schools and the first two years of the Gymnasia of the larger towns and cities. The folk high school is an entirely different kind of institution. It is a school for grown people and youth well along in adolescence, coming from their prectical tasks of town or farm. While intended by its originator for all the people, it has become preeminently the school of the agricultural classes.

Technical classroom work, while not ignored, is considered of secondary importance. The "living word" has first place in the schools. Inspired and inspiring teachers, speaking from the rostrum, rally the young men and women around them at a time when impressionable to the noblest ideals in life; and encourage those farther along in life to renewed effort, sending them back to their daily work with a new store of courage. Through song and speech and association with each other, these teachers and their students idealize country living and the nobility of honest toil. The schools have succeeded in disseminating throughout the land a farm culture, marked by an intelligence and optimism which has been sufficient to give the agricultural population a correct outlook on life and to free them from other class domination.

What the school has accomplished for agricultural Denmark.—At first thought, the work of the folk high school does not appeal to one as very practical. The school deliberately passes by much of the so-called worldly practical. But when studied more carefully it appears that the schools are able to give broad culture, furnishing the individual a world outlook, making him altruistic, scrong in love of God and fellow man, of home and soil and native land. The schools have, above everything else, taught confidence between man and man, and have assisted men to measure success in life by standards other than mere money standards.

Danish agriculture is organized on a system more thorough and scientific than can be found in any other European country. Yet it is the folk high schools that are credited with this remarkable achievement, and not the many excellent local agricultural schools. That this should be possible has seemed almost incredible to the many foreign educators and parliamentary commissions that of recent years have seen with their own eyes the great results in practical agriculture. Such words as these from the lips of Poul la Cour aid one to understand the reasons:

Just as an enrichment of the soil gives the best conditions for the seeds sown in it, so the horizon-broadening, well-grounded training of the folk high schools provide the sprest basis for business capacity, and not the least so in the case of the intending farmer.



Hon. M. P. Blem, president of the Danish Islands Credit Society, declared recently in an interview with the investigator that—

The greatest factor in our agricultural life is the high schools; for at these a staff of able young men and women are annually trained and sent out; men and women who, with open eye and undannted courage, go out into practical farming life and with energy and understanding perform the work they have been trained and perfected in.

Sir Horace Plunkett, who has himself made a careful study of agriculture in Denmark, says:

A friend of mine who was studying the Danish system of State aid to agriculture found this [that the extraordinary national progress was due to the folk high school] to be the opinion of the Danes of all classes and was astounded at the achievements of the associations of farmers not only in the manufacture of butter, but in a far more difficult undertaking—the preparation of bacon in large factories equipped with all the most modern machinery and appliances which science had devised for the production of the finished article. He at first concluded that this success in a highly technical industry by bodies of farmers indicated a very perfect system of technical education. But he soon found another cause. As one of the leading educators and agriculturists of the country put it to him: "It's not technical instruction, it's the humanities."

Every careful observer of the schools testifies to the same effect. These schools, then, have had a remarkable influence upon the economic well-being of the country; but they have done more. They are wielding a remarkable influence in the management of municipal and State affairs. Their influence on the religious and moral status of the people is no less important. But perhaps "the best result of this popular enlightenment and education," to quote Alfred Povlsen, principal of the Ryslinge Folk High School—

is the awakening of the religious feeling of responsibility. The desire of serving God and living a life in His honor. Only where this fruit has ripened the aim of the school is attained.

How the schools are organized and administered.—The folk high schools are privately owned institutions, or, in a few instances, belong to self-perpetuating corporations so organized that they can not exploit the schools for personal gain. The success of the schools has depended from the first on the personality of the leader organizing it. Kristen Kold was the founder of the first real high school. He accomplished for its practical realization as much as Bishop Grundtvig had done to inspire its inception. Mr. Kold was a great school man, because he understood the needs of his people, was approachable and sympathetic, and, with all, an inspired prophet of better things who knew how to inspire others. A sist reason why the school has accom-



Also found in Report of the cooperate movement in Denmark. M. P. Blem, 1912,

Ireland in the New Century. Sir Horace Plunkett.
The Danish Popular High School. Alfred Povisen, p. 16.

plished its great work is because the expression "folk high school" stands for a faculty of able men rather than for huge piles of brick and mortar! The schools have usually begun their work in rented quarters—often in rooms in some commodious farmhouse—and then, when success ultimately came to them, permanent buildings were erected and the institutions' future was assured. During the period 1844-1911, 143 such schools were opened to the public, but 63 of them failed for lack of sufficient educational vitality, leaving at the close of the period 80 schools in actual existence. A leading high-school man has pointed to this ease with which the school's life may be "snuffed out" as a fortunate aircumstance, for in this way only the worthy schools under continuous, inspiring leadership can prevail.

State aid to schools and students.—The early schools had to depend on the numificence of friends or their existence, for in no case has the meager sum required for tuition, board, and lodging of students been sufficient to maintain the school. But with time, as the high-school influence grew and the State began to realize the value of the work done, State aid was granted to schools that reached certain high standards set by the State. This led to the general subsidizing of all schools that reached these standards. For the school year 1912-13, 79 folk high schools were accredited and received their proportionate share of State aid.

Worthy students of small means may receive a certain amount of State aid to attend the schools, upon the recommendation of a local committee appointed for this purpose. All this practically means that the General Government makes it possible for all deserving young men and women to attend the folk high schools for a time. They carry their inspiration back with them to the farm and the shop. The appropriation of the present fiscal year was 170,000 kroner as aid for 79 folk high schools and 17 local agricultural schools, and 254,700 kroner to aid needy students.

Character of attendance.—A study of the school attendance for the year 1906 gives these interesting figures: Only 6 per cent of the attendance came from the towns or cities. This shows definitely that the folk high schools are the schools of the agricultural communities. The number of students ranges from 10 or more in the smaller schools to fully 400 in the larger. Of the total attendance, 53 per cent were males and 51 per cent were children of substantial middle-class farmers (Gaardmand); 22 per cent came from the small holders (Husmand); 10 per cent were children of country artisans; the rest were distributed over a number of callings.

Fully 80 per cent of the students were between 18 and 25 years of age, 12 per cent were above 25 years, and 8 per cent below 18 years.



Only one seventy-fifth of the entire number had attended Realskoler, or Latin schools. All the others had completed the elementary school and had devoted their time to practical work until old enough to gain admittance to the folk high school.

School discipline.—Attendance of students is entirely voluntary, since legal compulsion ends with the elementary schools. In spite of this, fully 33 per cent of the country population spend some time in the folk high school. School government is highly democratic. A high moral sense of responsibility and respect for the rights of others pervades the school atmosphere. The students are treated as members of the principal's family. The latter, indeed, usually presides over the general dining room, where teachers and students meet on common ground. All the students room in the dormitories, where small groups of them live in close touch with chosen teachers whose constant inspiration counts for much in the course of training.

Methods of instruction and subject matter.—The students who assemble at the schools come at a time in life when they are swayed by strong emotions and filled with an ardor to win the world. This is what the Germans call the "Sturm und Drang" period, natural to all youth. It is the seedtime for the "inspirer." And Denmark has been fortunate in producing an unfailing supply of such men; beginning with Grundtvig and Kold back in the forties and continuing to the present. They are men who themselves "feel a iervor and zealous warmth for their vocation and possess a power to captivate the attention of their students."

The lecture method of presenting the subject matter prevails, though this is varied without warning, with a give-and-take process of questions and answers somewhat like the *maieutics* used by Socrates of old. The element of interest plays a great rôle in all this work. The teachers must have what has been called the "historical-poetical faculty," for the entire course of training is based on history. The pageantry of the past is portrayed in living colors for the purpose of illumining incidents in one's own national history and life history. Says Alfred Povlsen:

Here we find mentioned the relation of man and woman, parents and children, master and servant, religious, social, and political questions which agitute our own times. It is, if you like, a sort of unsystematic, practical life philosophy, which in this way—the historical—we seek to convey to our pupils.

The historical background is broad enough to include materials from the virile mythology of the Old North, as well as problems of present-day social science. Folklore, songs, and literature hold important places in the curriculum. The Danish high-school student



¹ The Danish Popular High School, p. 10,

is often as well acquainted with Shakespeare and Emerson, Goethe and Tolstoy, as with his Scandinavian Holberg, Ibsen, and Björnsen. Religion in the dogmatic sense is not taught in the schools. But historical teaching, if properly done, is itself religious. That is, as one of the high-school men has expressed it: "The hand of God is shown all through the evolution of the ages, and in this way the religious feeling is constantly kept awake and exercise."

Students whose preparatory training has been faulty are required to take regular classroom work in Danish language, writing, arithmetic, and drawing. Courses are open to all in practical surveying, geography, physics, chemistry, biology, sanitation, and nature study. Gymnastics is required of all students. A few schools offer sloyd. All have handwork and various phases of household economics for

young women.

Two kinds of folk high schools.—It has long been a mooted question among Danish educators just how far the high schools might safely go in the pursuit of the "practical subjects." Shall training for life pursuits be given by the high schools, or shall this be left entirely to professional schools? Many of the leading school men inside hat to introduce professional studies would mean the early decadence of real folk high-school culture. Of the 79 Government-accredited schools, 48 adhere to the culture idea pure and simple. And in this list are, perhaps, a majority of the schools, which have done most to place a real stamp on the character of the nation. But 31 schools—among them so e of the largest—offer specific courses in agriculture, horticulture, carpentry, masonry, etc., and seem in no danger of losing their original inspiration.

The course of study.—With the exception of two or three the schools are not coeducational. Winter courses (November to May) are open to young men, and summer courses (May to September) to young women. Courses are one or two years in length. The first list of subjects which appears below is typical of the "regular"

folk high schools:

Ryslinge folk high school (school for young men). November to April, 1918.

Subjects.	Hours weekly.	Subjects.	Hours weekly.
Danish and composition Danish history Farm accounting General history Geography Natural science Danish and blass literature Drawing and surveying	2 6 3	Writing Bookkeeping. Constitutional law and jurisprudence Agricultural economics. Oymnastics. Song and lectures, each night. English, special instruction.	į į

124 hours in all



The following daily program—also typical of the "regular" folk high schools—gives some idea of a "full day's work:"

Daily program of Askov folk high school (summer school, for young acomen), 1913.

		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		٠.				
Hours.	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.		
8-9	Social	science.	Geogr	raphy.	Nature study.			
9 –10		•	Gymi	nustics.	<u></u>			
10-11	Danish.	Arithmetic.	Danish.	Arithmetic.	- Danish.	Arithmetic		
11-12		Literature		:	General history	•		
· ·	<u> </u>		Noon.					
1.30-2.30	a Trawing.	Handwork	Frawing.	Handwork.	Drawing.	Handwork		
	b Handwork.	Drawing.	Handwork.	Drawing.	Handwork.	Drawing.		
2.30-3	<u> </u>		Song	practice.				
3.25-4.25	Natural	history.	Sanit	ation.	Elocution.	Danish.		
4.25-5.45		Discussions.	Sew:	ing.	Discussions.			
6-7	Evening loctures.							

Lecture each Sunday afternoon at 5,30 o'clock.

Haslev Folk High School: A type of school offering "practical courses."—This school is one of a group of six schools founded by "The Inner Mission Church"—an independent church body. The "patriotic-spiritual" life which stamps the regular folk high schools is not so marked at Haslev. On the other hand, being a church school, religious subjects are actually taught as part of the course of study.

The study courses aim to reach two classes, (1) those who are to till the soil, and (2) those who are to live as artisans in the country. Both classes of students are obliged to attend a certain number of inspirational lectures (in the spirit of the regular folk high schools), but are expected to devote the rest of their time to work of an immediately practical nature. Thus the "farm group" study garden culture, agriculture, farm home sanitation, and do actual fieldwork in surveying and leveling, pruning fruit trees, etc. The "artisan group" is divided into subgroups, as carpenters, brick masons, smiths, machinists, painters, theres, wheelwrights, etc. Let the course for carpenters and masons be used by way of illustration:



The courses cover three winters of five months each, and are intended for country artisans who work during the summer months. The first year is devoted particularly to theory, i. e., geometrical drawing, projection, algebra, and geometry. The second-year class emphasizes building construction. By the close of this year the students are able to draw plans and specifications of fair-sized farm buildings. By the close of the third year they make their own drawings, calculate size of timbers, iron supports, etc., with great accuracy. Much practical work is done on the premises, although most of the work is devoted to miniature buildings and models.

When they have completed their course these young men become builders and contractors in country towns and the open country. It is interesting to see how Denmark trains not only farmers in farm schools, but country artisans as well. This helps to keep alive in the

country a two-fold civilization.

The day's work.-A person must live at one of the folk high schools for some time to appreciate their influence on growing men and women. Thus at Vallekilde, in northwest Zealand, the school day begins with a beautiful morning devotion at 7.45 oclock. This is entirely voluntary, but most of the students attend. The day's work is grouped about three main lecture hours of 60 minutes each. These come at 8 a. m., 12 m., and 7.30 p. m. The rest of the day is devoted to more definite classroom work interspersed with "discussion" periods, an hour of the vigorous Ling gymnastics, and some time spent on the football field playing the English association game. The investigator went through the long day with the 160 husky young men at Vallekilde and met with them at 7.30 p. m. for the closing lecture of the day. All listened with intense attention to a lecture on "Social progress in Europe during the latter part of the eighteenth century," full of technical terms. But these horny-handed young farmers proved themselves surprisingly well acquainted with such personages as Adam Smith, Malthus, Carlyle, and Voltaire. Each class period of the day opened with some rousing folk, patriotic, or religious song; and the day's work closed with an evening hymn, in which all joined most heartily.

LOCAL AGRICULTURAL SCHOOLS.

Relation of the local agricultural school to the folk high school.—
One step beyond the folk high school is the local agricultural school.
There are 29 Government-accredited schools of this type distributed over the country. This school, in its modern form, sprang from the folk high school, as a compromise between the advocates of the general "spiritual" and the "practical." The two schools work side by side in the greatest harmony. So far as practicable, they even exchange lectures. Most of the agricultural schools make it a require-



ment for admission that applicants must have spent some time at some one of the folk high schools.

J. C. la Cour has well said that "the Danish agricultural school is the child of the Danish folk high school, and must, also, have Christian faith and national life for its basis." From this it is clearly evident that in organization and internal management the agricultural schools are very similar to their prototype, the folk high schools. The same democratic plan of student life, the great emphasis on song and gymnastics, the use of the lecture method whenever feasible—all bespeak this.

All agricultural schools have their school farms. But so have practically all the folk high schools. Some of them even have farms of nearly 100 acres. It is true that the latter make use of their land chiefly to aid in the upkeep of the schools by furnishing vegetables, milk, meats, etc., for the school tables, while the agricultural schools make use of theirs for laboratory purposes. The amount of practical work varies greatly. Some schools are content to adhere closely to teaching the theory of agriculture. Others have extensive experimental fields, herds of milch cows, and great numbers of swine and poultry. At several there are, fully equipped creameries for working up the milk produced on the school farms and milk hauled in from the neighboring farms. Several have well-equipped bacteriological laboratories, where problems of greatest value to agricultural life are worked out. Each school strives to formulate its courses to the particular needs of its own agricultural section.

Typical courses in the smaller agricultural schools.—Lyngby Agricultural School, a few miles from Copenhagen, is a good illustration of the substantial smaller schools. The school farm embraces 19 acres only, but Lyngby has the opportunity to make use of important experiments carried on by the Government on its experiment farm, which is contiguous with the school grounds. The students may also draw much inspiration from Grundfvig's Folk High School (so named in honor of the great bishop), which lies on the opposite side of the highway, and from study at the great Danish Agricultural Museum (Dansk Landbrugsmuseum) near by.

Lyngby offers two courses for young men—one of six months and one of nine. Prerequisites for admission are (1) some familiarity with farm work and (2) time spent at some folk high school. The six months' course includes:

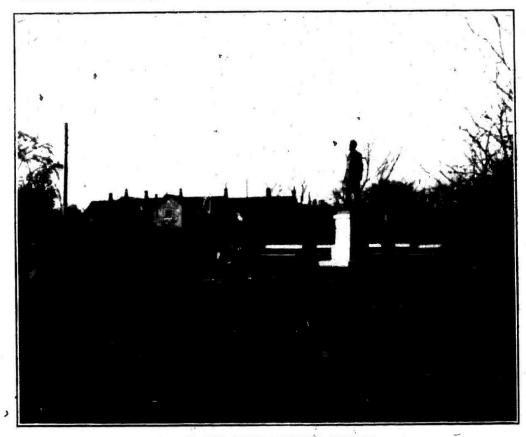
Chemistry (inorganic and organic).
Physics.
Study of soils.
Treatment of soils (including mendows and moorlands, irrigation, and draining).

Study of fertilizers.
Rotation of crops.
Plant culture.
Study of weeds.
Seed culture.
Plant dispases.

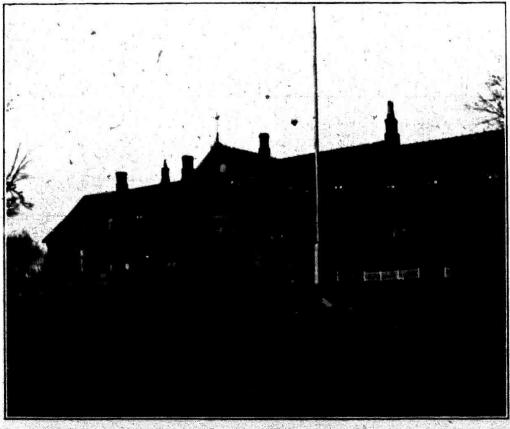


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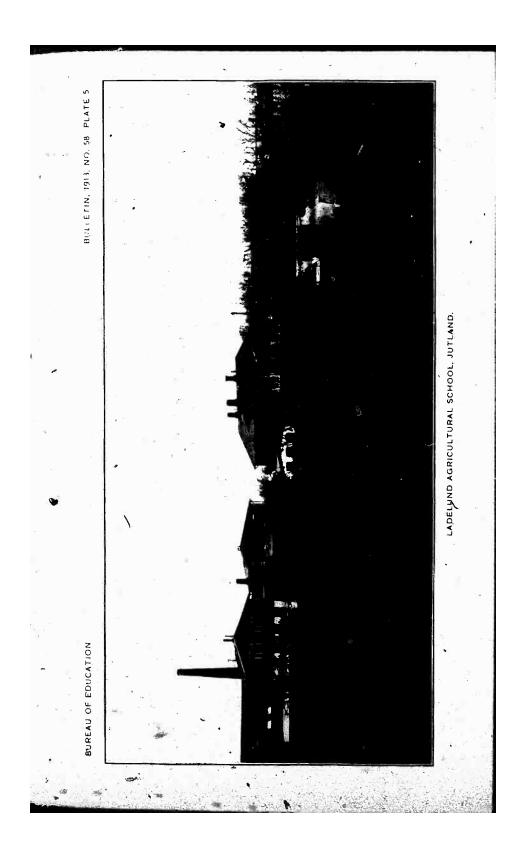


A. LYNGBY AGRICULTURAL SCHOOL.
Statue of Capt. J. C. la Cour, the founder, in foreground.



. B. A NEARER VIEW OF THE LYNGBY AGRICULTURAL SCHOOL.









A. FREDRIKSBORG FOLK HIGH SCHOOL, HILLERÖD, ZEALAND.



B. COUNTRY SCHOOL NEAR RYSLINGE, FYEN.



BUREAU OF EDUCATION BULLETIN, 1913. NO. 58 PLATE 3

. . . HIMMELEV RURAL SCHOOL, NEAR ROSKILDE, ZEALAND,



B. HIORTESPRING ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL NEAR HERLOV. ZEALAND.



Domestic animals (cattle, horses, swine, and sheep).

Study of breeds and breeding.

Judging horses and cattle.

Disease of domestic animals.

Feeding.

Horseshoeing and smithing.

Dairying.

Farm machinery.

Farm accounting.
Drawing,
Surveying and leveling.
Arithmetic.
Written themes.
Danish.
History of agriculture.
Study of how to overcome commercial faults in domestic animals.

The mine months' course includes all of the above, but is more detailed. Lecture courses in sociology and economics, with special reference to rural life, are added. Some work is also offered for students who desire to become "control assistants," i. e., local agricultural experts offering advice in dairying, feeding, fertilization, and the like.

Ladelund Agricultural and Dairy School.—This is typical of the larger agricultural schools of Denmark and may be described in some detail.

The school embraces 50 or more acres of land, divided into home farm, experimental plats, forestry station, and school campus, the latter containing school and farm buildings.

The purpose of the school is stated in the following language:

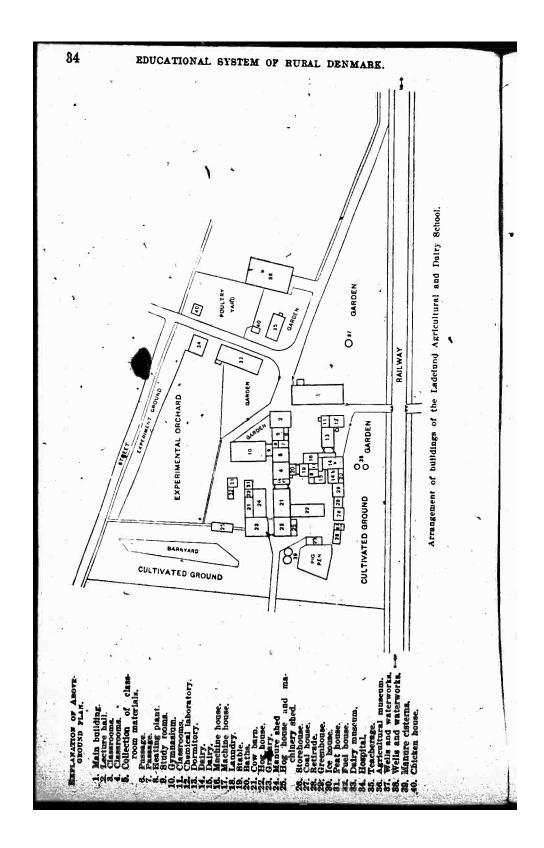
Through the courses of instruction it is sought to give the students—who must be acquainted with the practical side of agriculture and dairying—such a foundation of knowledge as will enable them to attain a clearer insight into those things with which they must labor in practice, thus insuring greater interest, greater returns, and greater joy in their work. This end is sought partly by giving the students knowledge of nature that surrounds them, of the forces that are at work, and the laws that govern, to which we must yield and regulate our daily work in field and barn and dairy; and partly by making known to the students the results of experiments, of investigation, etc., in the field of agriculture and dairying—results on the basis of which we must shape our practical activities.

The school offers courses in agriculture, in dairying, and in the preparation of "control assistants." The agriculture courses are three: (1) A five-months' course, from November to March, for young farmers who can not give the growing season to study; (2) a nine-months' course, from November to July, for long-time students; and (3) a four-months' continuation course, from April to July, for students who have already taken a short preparatory course. The subjects of instruction are practically the same as at Lyngby. The continuation course, however, lays great stress on practical fieldwork.

The course in dairying includes chemistry, physics, bacteriology, farm accounting, Danish, drawing, gymnastics, hookkeeping for dairying, dairy culture, machinery and electrotechnics, domestic



^{1 1912} catalogue of Ladelund Landbruge og Mælkeriekele.





animals, plant culture, history of agriculture, dairying, and rural economics, practical work in the bacteriological laboratory, and school dairy.

There are three courses for "control assistants"—six months', three months', and one month's work. It will be understood that, these are agricultural specialists who devote their time to giving expert advice to the farmers of a given community, being paid partly by the community and partly by the State. Such experts may be found all over the land, testing milk for butter fat and cows for tuberculosis. They make soil examinations and give advice as to what fertilizers to use, what rations to feed, etc. Their work has been especially effective among the older farmers who have not had the opportunities for study now offered. Students taking "control assistant" courses have generally completed some agricultural course before matriculating in the new work. Emphasis is laid on "control" accounting, milk testing, bacteriology, and the study of domestic animals.

Ladelund Agricultural School is equipped with remarkably strong bacteriological and chemical laboratories. The chemical laboratory is used extensively to analyze milk, fertilizers, and feeding-stuffs from the farms far and near. The school owns a herd of 35 red Fünen cows, some of which yield 16,500 pounds of milk annually. This milk, together with the milk from many hundreds red cows from adjoining farms, is manufactured into butter and prepared for the English markets at the cooperative creamery, which is a part of the school plant. This school creamery handled the past year fully 1,000,000 kilograms of milk.

Special agricultural schools for small holders.—Three special schools have been established for agricultural "small holders." Their problems differ sufficiently from those of the larger farmers to call for special treatment. Seventy-five thousand Danish farmers face the difficulties of making a living out of 3 to 7 acres of land. Schools at Odense, Ringsted, and Borris are doing remarkably good work in preparing these men for their exigencies in life.

Odense Husmandsskole may be used as an illustration. The school was organized by the United Associations of Small Holders in the Island of Funen in 1908. The institution is leased to the present principal for 10 years, as the universal experience in Denmark has been that the success or failure of all these schools is closely bound up with the individuality of the one man at the head. The purpose of the school is stated in the school catalogue in these words:

It is to give the students a good spiritual awakening and general guidance and to offer them such knowledge of the professional subjects as shall enable them to take their place in the body politic and community as independent citisens, as farmers, as artisans, or as housewives in such ways that they may live economically independent lives, and make the most of their lot as small holders.



The purpose is, moreover, to give such knowledge and understanding of the auxiliary lines of agriculture that the small holder may be enabled to keep his entire family together, each member to work at some specific vocation at home.

The instruction embraces long and short courses for young farmers, with special application to small holds; two courses for young women, aiding them in their difficult rôle as helpmeets on these small farms; two courses for artisans—carpenters, masons, etc.—and two for "control assistants."

But of greatest interest are a number of short courses for men and women, young and old, living on the farm. These are two weeks in length and begin on the first and third Tuesdays of each month, 10 months out of the year. At this point the school is very close to the people. Why should a school not project itself into the midst of the people, aiding them to solve their problems? Why not make it possible for farm folk to spend a brief time at such schools to gain a store of knowledge and inspiration? This is what the Danish Husmandsskoler are doing.

The investigator found at Odense middle-aged and old men and women mingling in classes with young men and women in their best years—the ages ranging from 25 to 75 years—but all with their own problems to solve. Some come to get new insight into potato culture, others make a two weeks' study of soil from their own farms, or others again take up bee culture, rabbit breeding, chicken raising, etc. All of them gain enough stored-up inspiration to tide them over many a hard place of the future. These, it should be said, are kept separate from the younger students of the long courses. The Government subsidizes these schools much the same as the regular folk high schools and agricultural schools, and State aid is granted to worthy small holders wishing to take advantage of the courses.

Rural schools of household economics.—The last schools to receive mention in this catagory are the rural schools of household economics, of which there are at least 12, distributed over the country. The number is yet quite small; but these schools have only lately begun their activity, and they promise great things for the future. All the folk high schools offer summer courses for young women, especially of the inspirational order, and many thousand attend them annually. Classroom work in sewing and needlework, lectures on sanitation and other important themes are included in these summer courses. But this has never been considered sufficient preparation for the responsibilities of housekeeping. It is an old custom in Denmark to send the young women, as soon as betrothed, to some large country home—the manse or the home of a country squire—to take a year's work in practical housekeeping. This has

A Sholeplan' For Fyne Stifts Humandsakole Ved Odense.



unquestionably been a fine training for Danish housewives. But even the best homes are not expected to know many of the latest things which science is thrusting upon the schools, and which schools alone can supply. With the demand for agricultural schools to train scientific young farmers came a natural insistence that the helpmeets of these young men should be afforded equal opportunities—hence the rural schools of household economics.

The schools are built in the open country or in the outskirts of some rural-minded village. They usually have land enough—3 to 5 acres—to furnish vegetables, milk, and butter for school consumption. A part of the school laboratory is represented by a first-class vegetable and fruit orden, where the young women are expected to do much individuable. The flower garden, too, receives its share of attention.

The students room and board at the school during their continuance there. The courses are usually six months in length. This enables the schools—which often run the entire year—to train two separate groups of students each year. The buildings are equipped with model kitchen, dining room, living room, chambers, etc., which are intended as models for the students' own homes to be established later ir life.

The usual course in these schools includes the following subjects:

Natural science: Chemistry and physics, with special reference to the household.

Housekeeping: Preparation of foods; food values; theory of household economics; household accounting; baking; butchering; curing meats; pickling; cleaning house; washing; ironing, etc.

Handwork: Plain sewing; dressmaking; patching; darning; fine needlework and embroidery.

Sanitation: Study of human anatomy; laws of health; farm-home sanitation.

Gardon culture: Care of kitchen, fruit, and flower gardens; preparing vegetables and fruit for keeping and for winter use.

Other subjects: Song, gymnastics, literature, rural sociology, and reviews in any of the elementary subjects wherein the students may prove deficient.

Rural school extension: Origin and influence.—October 6 to 14, 1874, marked the beginning in Denmark of a most remarkable system of extension work. At that time some 70 to 80 young and old people met at Askov Folk High School and lived for more than a week in an atmosphere charged with religious fervor, patriotic zeal, and an eager desire to help one's fellow men. Then began a series of meetings, which grew in importance with the years. Each autumn larger throngs of the peasantry and townfolk would flock to the school. Nor was the movement limited to Askov. Soon the folk high schools and agricultural schools all over the land were assembling the people for their two weeks' autumn meetings. School buildings soon proved inadequate and the meetings came to be held, in-



stead, in large natural or planted groves belonging to the schools. The themes discussed by inspiring men from the schools and from practical everyday life cover a wide range of knowledge. At first they were limited by the folk high school traditions to "inspirational" lectures in history, literature, mythology, etc.; but with time the field has broadened until now every phase of ethics, politics, agriculture, sociology, and the like are freely discussed. This extension work is very similar to the American "Chautauqua," barring the money admission—for these meetings are entirely free—and the cheapening show elements that are beginning to creep into the average Chautauqua.

Great numbers of men who had gained their inspiration at the high-school meetings later organized their home community and continued the great work at the community hall and gymnasium, which may be found in every rural district. In the towns and cities the friends of the new education built Höjskolehjem, or high-school homes—institutions combining many of the features of a modern Y. M. C. A., with the conveniences of a first-class hotel. Even Copenhagen has such an institution, called Grundtvigs Hus (Grundtvig's House). Aside from offering the facilities of first-class hostelries managed in a truly Christian spirit, these homes are the rallying centers in town and city for the new extension work. Each has its library and reading rooms and holds weekly meetings fashioned after the great outdoor meetings. It is estimated that in this way a wholesome and helpful education is brought to the threshold of every farmer and villager in the Kingdom.

The State has lent marked assistance to the extension movement by encouraging perambulating courses in agriculture and household economics, setting aside for this work annually large sums to pay teachers and lecturers. To this should be added that the Government maintains a national service of "control assistants"—specialists in science—whose services as speakers and agricultural organizers may be had for the asking.

IV. SUMMARY OF IMPRESSIONS FROM THE SCHOOL SYSTEM OF RURAL DENMARK.

General statement.—The foregoing pages do not contain an exhaustive study of the educational system of rural Denmark. It is the purpose to give this in succeeding bulletins. This has been a general statement merely of the different schools through which Danish rural children make their way, step by step, until they return at length, well prepared, to the farm for their life work. But enough has been said, it is hoped, to give the reader a good idea of the gen-



eral efficacy of the schools. The one thing above everything else sought to be conveyed to the mind is that in Denmark the rural schools were organized to answer the needs of present-day country life; that they are now accordingly taking the initiative in practically every movement for better agriculture, for greater returns on whatever is marketed, and for better life conditions.

The following paragraphs summarize some of the salient things in the Danish system. They contain also some suggestions as to the possible application of some of them to our American rural schools.

Teaching in Denmark a life profession .- No man or woman is permitted to teach in the public schools who has not completed at least the regular professional course, in one of the 20 State accredited teachers' seminaries. Nor can any teacher receive a permanent "call" until he has been tested as a substitute teacher, hour teacher, etc. This tends to weed out those who are unfit.

A majority of the teachers remain in the same community for many years, growing up in a way with the community, coming soon to understand local needs, and then setting to work systematically to

supply them.

These teachers are well paid and well housed. The calling is dignified and is held in the highest esteem. Because of these fortunate conditions men teachers-generally married men-are in a large majority in the schools. To be exact, 82 per cent of elementary-school teachers are men.

Conditions in the United States .- In this country none of the conditions enumerated exist. A large majority of rural teachers have little, if any, professional training. Many of them are certified as teachers by local authority immediately after leaving the grades. The average tenure for all teachers is short, and for rural teachers it is much shorter. In a great State of the Middle West last year 47 per cent of the rural teachers were entirely untried, and in other States conditions are fully as bad. The percentage of men teachers has dropped from 29.9 per cent in 1899-1900 to 21.1 per cent in 1909-10 and 20.7 per cent in 1910-11.

It is evident that the rural schools of our country will find it difficult to furnish the trained leaders needed in the open country until a staff of professionally trained teachers is placed in charge of the schools. Prevailing conditions in Danish schools would suggest that the professionalizing of our rural teachers might be hastened, (1) by providing, through legal enactment, a liberal sliding-scale salary, increasing definitely with the length of tenure; (2) by making it obligatory upon the community to erect teachers' cottages, thereby keeping the teachers in the country permanently; and (3) by encouraging teachers' colleges, normal schools, high schools with teacher-training classes, etc., to organize thoroughgoing departments in country life



and country teaching, from which to draw teachers willing and able to undertake the difficult task of teaching real farm-community schools.

Organization for school maintenance and supervision.—The maintenance of Danish schools through a system of local and State taxes is eminently fair, as it both encourages to greatest local initiative and equalizes educational advantages throughout the Kingdom.

School supervision is fairly close and effective, since it works concentrically from the great central authority outward to the smallest rural community. Supervision is left in the hands of several authorities, the one keeping a check on the activity of the other. Special supervisors in charge of music, gymnastics, drawing, sloyd, etc., are very effective in their work.

In the United States probably nothing has done more to retard the development of the rural schools than the general want of a unit of organization large enough to make the management of the schools efficient, economical, and intelligent. The small independent district of the open country has generally proved too small to be intrusted with final legislation in matters of importance. Especially is this true where the taxing power is concerned. The union of several townships into strong administrative and supervisory units is to be commended for the older States where the township (town) is the unit in local government. In the Middle Western and Western States a change should be made from the small district, as well as township, to the county basis of organization. When one school board, elected from the area at large, controls all the schools, a more uniform standard of excellence and equality in school provision is sure to prevail. In sections where the large unit prevails, excellent results may already be seen in the consolidation of weak schools into effective farm schools.

The problem of close, helpful supervision is comparatively easy of solution in densely peopled sections, but will continue as a serious hindrance to good teaching in sparsely settled regions. But, in a general way, things could be materially improved if State departments of education had the use of a number of carefully trained rural supervisors to help local supervisors standardize their work. Finally local supervisors can scarcely become genuinely helpful before a continuous professional relation is set up between local supervisors and teachers.

Enforcement of compulsory attendance.—School attendance in Denmark is almost ideal. For 1913 only 822 children of school age in country districts failed to enter school. Of these, 452 were abnormal or afflicted with infectious disease and were by law excluded. Only 370 were unaccounted for, which for the entire school population makes about one-tenth of 1 per cent. The people in general are so

Carried to the test



imbued with the idea of education, or, if this is not the case, they have at any rate such wholesome respect for the compulsory-attendance law that they never think of breaking it. The fact in point is that the law is enforced without fear or favor.

At the present time 36 States in the United States have compulsoryattendance laws on their statute books; 6 have laws which apply to
part of their territory only, while another 6 have no such laws whatever. Many weaknesses could be pointed to in these laws, though
perhaps the most serious is the manner in which the average law is
enforced. In most States the enforcement is left to local authority,
which is often influenced by local prejudice and interests to such an
extent that the law becomes practically inoperative. If all the States
would follow the example of Connecticut and appoint State agents
for the purpose, there would be less difficulty in enforcing the laws.

School work adapted to country needs.—The elementary rural schools of Denmark do not pretend to teach agriculture as a practical subject, leaving that for the agricultural schools to do. But they do teach a love of nature in such a way that the average child early learns to love nature and to live in harmony with its laws. Where there is a genuine love of the soil for its own sake the work of training the young agriculturists becomes reasonably easy. The schools teach other practical subjects effectively; but this teaching is never done at the expense of such essential subjects as language, mathematics, geography, and history. Music and gymnastics hold exceptionally high place in the daily work.

Much rural school work is done as thoroughly in some rural sections of the United States as in rural Denmark, although for valid reasons uniformly good results are yet far from attainment. But in respect to music and physical education our schools may learn much from Denmark. Our rural teachers should be required to sing, or at least should be able to instruct in music and song. And because flat chests and crooked knees are as common in rural children as no town children, the teachers may reasonably be expected to have training in sanitation and physical education, including play.

Feasibility of the folk high-school system in the United States.—
The Danish folk high school came into being at a time when the nation was politically distraught and needed a healing and unifying influence. This the school furnished. It succeeded in harmonizing the discordant elements, binding all classes together in the common bond of love of fatherland. Duty and opportunity became watchwords. The educated felt their opportunity and gave the best they had in them for their country; the ignorant were educated and became a great working force for a better Denmark.



³ See "A Comparative Study of Public School Systems in the Forty-eight States," Russel Suge Foundation, New York.

The schools were instrumental in Denmark's political rebirth and later led the way to its present economic independence. They have been adaptable to changing needs and have, in fact, done as well outside of Denmark as at home. They were carried into the mountain regions of Norway in 1864, and they have flourished there, notwithstanding adverse school legislation. In 1868 they were transplanted to Swedish soil, and 44 strong schools, somewhat modified, are now wielding there a remarkable influence in farm communities. Finland has found the folk high schools a national bulwark; 43 such schools are keeping alive the sturdy Finnish folk life.

Even Iceland and the Faroe Islands have each a high school. The next step was its successful transplantation to England. The first school of its kind for English-speaking people began its activities at Bournville, near Birmingham, in 1908, under the name of Fircroft School. Its appeal has been especially to the artisan class, with which it is doing a good work. A second school has just been opened in Yorkshire, and it will be watched with much interest by friends of the movement.

Now the question arises, Is there a place for some modified form of the folk high school in the United States? For, of course, no one would care to transplant it as a whole. Is there need of its inspiring culture as a leavening influence in American rural and urban communities? An answer seems scarcely necessary. The great industrial transition going on about us is forcing many new educational problems into prominence. How best to reach the hundreds of thousands of unassimilated aliens coming to our shores is one of these questions. Again, how best to reach our own retarded rural communities, which have become demoralized by the cityward movement or, remote from the highway of civilization, have been passed by in the onward march.

That some kind of school for grown-up people is necessary in order to reach this part of our population seems evident from a careful study of statistics dealing with illiteracy in the United States. When the Federal Census for the year 1910 was taken, there were in the United States 5,516,163 persons 10 years of age and over who could neither read nor write. "Of these illiterates, 3,184,533, or 58 per cent, were white persons; 1,534,272, or 28 per cent, were native-born whites; and 1,650,361, or 30 per cent, foreign-born whites; 2,227,731, or 40 per cent, were negroes. The rest, 2 per cent, were Indians, Chinese, Japanese, and others."

More than one-half of the white illiterates are foreign-born, and more than two-thirds of all the illiterates come from rural communities. These illiterates are not limited to race or section of country.



See "liliteracy in the United States and an experiment for its elimination." United Bureau of Education bulletin, 191, No. 20, p. 7.

The illiteracy among the colored people of the South is nearly balanced by that of the ignorant aliens in the North; and the illiteracy among the whites in the remote parts of the southern Appalachians is scarcely greater than the illiteracy of decadent rural life in its northern sections. The illiterates are found chiefly among persons above 20 years of age—men and women, who can not be expected to attend the ordinary kind of school. The Nation may let this generation of illiterates continue to live and die in their ignorance at a fearful cost to national life; or it may organize schools especially adapted to their needs, in which they may get the rudiments of learning and, what is of vastly more importance, some inspiration, some insight into the highest good of life, something to lift them out of a deadening materialism and indifference for country and fellow men.

Folk-high-school inspiration could no doubt be utilized to hurry the Americanization of the alien, but it is a school which, after all, adapts itself most readily to country needs and conditions. As a first experiment it might be introduced to such of our rural districts as have something in common with those European communities where it wrought its greatest triumphs. Once established, it would be no great task to adapt it to the needs of still other communities.

When the folk high school came to Sweden, in 1868, it was as a protest against a deadening materialism and indifference for fatherland and nationality. "The peasantry," according to Swedish thinkers of the time, "were devoted solely to their swine, their calves, and their brandy stills, and the chief qualification for election to the Rigsdag was a promise to see to the reduction of taxes. The great social questions and questions of the future were left to shift for themselves." This sounds very much like a paragraph taken from the life history of some of our own backward communities. The folk high school, directed by the right kind of genius, could do for the average American community of this sort just as much as Dr. August Sohlman did for Sweden, where the folk high school must be credited with the same "breaking through of slumbering souls" that marked its course in Denmark.

In certain sections of Kentucky, "moonlight schools" have been established which are doing a remarkable work among the mountaineers of the State. When the experiment was begun, in September, 1911, more than 1,200 men and women from 18 to 86 years of age came "trooping over the hills and out of the hollows, some to add to the meager education received in the inadequate schools of their childhood, some to receive their first lessons in reading and writing." In such sections of the country as these there is need of



¹ Den Nordiske Folkehöjskole, Ludvig Schröder, p. 398.

more than reading, writing, and arithmetic. The fatalism of retardation engendered by the centuries has placed a stamp upon this
part of our civilization which, it would seem, nothing might do more
to remove than the inspiring work of the folk high school. It would,
better than other schools, offer opportunities to grown-up men and
women to acquire the rudiments of an education. It would inspire
to an early coordination of head, heart, and hand. In long and short
courses it would train local artisans and assist in solving the problems peculiar to the poor hillside farms. It would teach lessons in
farm-home sanitation and housekeeping, and by degrees show the
men how to stand shoulder to shoulder in cooperative enterprise
where now they find this impracticable.

How this work might best be done does not belong to the present discussion, which has been merely to outline the educational system of rural Denmark.



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